UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

PERCEIVED STRESS AND WORK PERFORMANCE OF WOMEN LECTURERS IN MANAGERIAL POSITIONS: MEDIATING ROLE OF WELL-BEING AND MODERATING ROLE OF INSTITUTIONAL STRESS MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS

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A THESIS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP, FACULTY OF EDUCATION AND COMMUNICATION SCIENCES, SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES, UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

JULY, 2023

DECLARATION

DECLARATION OF THE STUDENT

I, Faustina Akosua Agyeiwaa Kwofie, hereby confirm that this dissertation, excluding the properly cited and acknowledged quotations and references from published works, is entirely a product of my own intellectual efforts. It has not been submitted, either in part or in full, for another degree at any other academic institution.

SIGNATURE:……. DATE:…….

CONFIRMATION BY THE SUPERVISORS

We hereby certify that the creation and presentation of this work have been supervised in accordance with the guidelines for overseeing thesis/dissertation/project as set by the University of Education, Winneba.

Prof. Francis Owusu Mensah (Principal Supervisor)

SIGNATURE:……

DATE:……

Rev. Fr. Dr. Francis K. Sam (Co-Supervisor)

SIGNATURE:……

DATE:……

DEDICATION

To my adorable husband – Very Reverend Isaac Kwofie

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ABSTRACT

The objective of this research was to perform a conditional process analysis to understand the impact of perceived stress on performance, the mediating role of well-being in the stress-work performance relationship, and the moderating function of institutional stress management systems in the interplay between stress, well-being, and work performance among women lecturers holding managerial positions in twelve selected higher education establishments in Ghana. A quantitative methodology, utilising descriptive and inferential statistical designs, and the conditional process analysis were adopted for this investigation. The institutions and the population were selected using purposive sampling method. A sample of 270 participants was selected with proportional stratified random sampling technique from a population of 454. The findings revealed that a significant number of participants reported experiencing high levels of perceived stress, which varied across different institutions. Furthermore, it was discovered that well-being plays a crucial role in mediating the relationship between stress and work performance, and that institutional stress management systems significantly moderate the relationships between stress and well-being, well-being and work performance, and stress and work performance among the women. The study concluded that the introduction of effective stress management systems could alleviate the harmful impacts of stress on well-being and work performance. It was, therefore, recommended that management of higher educational institutions in Ghana should ensure that their institutions have formal stress management policies or support systems for staff in their institution which should be accessible to staff.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE **PAGE**

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE **PAGE**

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

The majority of modern day companies fully comprehend the significance of their employees' performance, and are constantly seeking methods to enhance it or achieve a superior level of it (Improving work performance is a central issue in present-day organisations (Kundi et al., 2021). "Employee performance" refers to the accomplishments of a worker after putting in the necessary effort, which is linked to meaningful tasks, an engaged role, and supportive coworkers and bosses (Karakas, 2010). Performance is tied to the volume, quality, and promptness of output, attendance at work, and the efficiency and effectiveness of completed tasks (Mathis & Jackson, 2000). Employee performance is defined as the successful execution of duties by chosen individuals, as determined and evaluated by a manager or the company, according to predetermined acceptable standards. This is done while efficiently and effectively using available resources in a dynamic environment (Daniel, 2019).

According to some researchers and practitioners, there are certain factors that individually and collectively have negative or positive effect on the performance of employees. They include leadership style (Dubrin, 2004); Coaching (Toit, 2007); Empowerment (Bartram & Casimir, 2007); Participation (Chen & Tjosvold, 2006; Warner & Corley, 2017); Organisational Culture (Bakker et al., 2019); Working Environment (Haynes, 2008); Motivation (Jobber, 2009); and Training (Appiah, 2010). However, there is another factor which besides better implementation of all the factors mentioned above can have a detrimental effect on the work performance of employees. That is the stress levels of the employees. Stress is defined as any disturbance to an

individual's regular routine or physical or mental health. It arises when the body is pushed beyond its limits or when an individual is subjected to unusual demands. Stress can manifest in various ways, from simple irritability to extreme violent behaviour. Bowling and his colleagues (2015) propose that stress emerges from an individual's engagement with their surroundings, culminating in emotional strain that impinges on their physical and mental wellbeing.

Shields et al. (2019) emphasized the pervasive influence of stress in contemporary life, permeating work, familial, and domestic spheres. Zarra-Nezhad et al. (2010) identified a direct correlation between the degree of stress and the nature of the job among employed women, noting that stress varies across different professions. Roberts (2014), along with Kumar and Yadav (2014), suggested that factors such as gender, age, length of service, qualifications, workplace location, and employment type could potentially impact the intensity of job-related stress. Swathi and Reddy (2016) reported that a significant 60% of working women in the U.S. identified occupational stress as their primary concern. The 2022 report by the Institute of Entrepreneurship and Development Team highlighted that women in the workforce experience elevated stress levels compared to their male counterparts. The Global Gender Gap Report (2022) also underscored that societal expectations lead to women shouldering a disproportionately higher work stress load than men. Kodavatiganti and Bulusu (2011) argued that female educators, in particular, experience high levels of stress than their male peers, attributing this to extended work hours, insufficient resources, and overcrowded classrooms. Bada and Falana (2012) further contended that a larger proportion of female academics encounter stress due to their gender.

1.1.1. Perceived Stress Levels of Employees

The escalating concern about work-related stress is due to its substantial economic repercussions for organisations and negative publicity (Kelloway et al., 2008). Specific professions, like nursing (Abuairub, 2014) and teaching (Montgomery & Rupp, 2005), are linked with elevated stress levels due to their distinctive situations. Intriguingly, university lecturers in managerial roles also report above-average stress levels. Comprehensive surveys carried out in European Union member states in 1990, 1995, and 2000 revealed a rising trend in work intensity. In 1990, 48% of workers reported working at high speeds for at least a quarter of their working time, which escalated to 54% in 1995 and 56% in 2000 (EU, EFILWC, 2007). Ramaniah and Subramanian (2008) conducted an investigation on the stress levels of gold-collar workers in Chennai City, revealing that these employees are grappling with significant stress. The researchers deduced that female employees, in particular, experience heightened stress due to factors such as role isolation, role overload, and inter-role distance. Holmgren (2008) also found that women in the workforce are subjected to more stress than their male counterparts. Chan & Greca (2013) noted that individuals, despite experiencing similar adverse life events, assess the impact differently due to variables like personality, coping mechanisms, and support systems.

The perception of stress and coping abilities of an individual significantly influence their reaction to stress levels. It is important to note that stress perception varies greatly among individuals. In line with this, research by Cox et al. (2000), and Sofola and Jeboda (2006) confirmed that individual responses to stress levels are unique, influenced by the type of stressor and a range of personal and environmental factors. A study by Amponsah and Owolabi (2011) at the University of Cape Coast on

Perceived Stress Levels revealed that 70% of respondents had moderate stress levels, while 3.5% exhibited high stress levels. Azumah (2014) also found in her research on stress that 5.6% of respondents had low stress levels, 80.8% had moderate stress, and 10.3% showed high stress levels. Stress levels can range from low/minor to moderate and high. Blumenthal (2003) proposed that a slight degree of perceived stress might be beneficial, rendering individuals more active and improving their performance. Within the sphere of psychological studies, stress is viewed as a condition of mental strain and tension. Shahsavarani et al. (2015, p. 230) posited that minimal stress levels might be advantageous, even conducive to health. Positive stress can augment biopsychosocial well-being and elevate performance. It is also regarded as a vital element in motivation, adjustment, and reaction to the surroundings.

Nevertheless, Tucker et al. (2008) cautioned that an overabundance of stress could result in biological, psychological, and social complications, and even inflict significant damage on individuals. On the other hand, Siddiqui et al. (2016) noted that sustained high stress levels could lead to significant psychological and physical problems, such as poor work performance, stress-induced anxiety, depression, drug abuse, and even suicide. Mariotti (2015) pointed out that chronic stress, characterized by high levels of blood cortisol, can interfere with sperm production in males, affecting testosterone production, sperm maturation, and even causing erectile dysfunction and/or impotence, thereby reducing male fertility potential. Chronic workplace stress is prevalent, with 94% of employees reporting high stress levels at work (AIS, 2022). Workplace stress is experienced by employees due to a multitude of factors, and as Fairbrother & Warn (2003, p. 8) assert, these stress responses are not isolated incidents. The fluctuating stress levels among employees can be attributed to a variety of causes

(stressors) such as excessive workload, overcrowded work environments, machine-generated noise, and conflicts arising from subpar decision-making by the employer. Personal life transitions can also trigger high stress levels.

1.1.2. Stressors of Work Stress

Stress sources encompass the nature of the job itself, role-related stressors such as role ambiguity and role conflict (Werke & Weret, 2023), interpersonal dynamics with subordinates, peers, and superiors (Raguz & Cucuk, 2017), and aspects related to career progression (Menze, 2006) including apprehension about job security. Other factors include the organisational structure and atmosphere, the intersection of work and family life, excessive decision-making demands and responsibilities (Robertson, 2012), as well as the restriction to work and excessive control over work by others (Lovelace, Manz & Alves, 2007). Also, Kivimäki et al. (2003) identified work-related characteristics, such as, "injustice at work, i.e., low ability to influence the decision-making procedures and not being listened to" (p. 116), have been connected to stress at work.

Roberts (2014) conducted a study in Ghana, which unveiled that women were subjected to stress due to factors such as role overload, role insufficiency, role ambiguity, boundary-related role conflict, responsibility, and physical environment. The women reported that their stress was exacerbated by heavy workloads, disruptions in work schedules, interactions with numerous individuals, and a lack of sufficient human, material, and financial resources. The most significant predictors of occupational stress among hospital employees were found to be job-related stressors, organisational policies, interpersonal relationships, and the work environment (Roberts,

2014, p. 112). Roberts (2014) further expanded that job stressors vary from one occupation to the other due to differences in factors such as organisational policies, work environment and interpersonal relationships.

Approximately three-quarters of women frequently found themselves handling professional tasks from home, driven by the urgency to adhere to deadlines and unpredictable work timetables (APA, 2017}. Furthermore, a lack of sufficient training in their respective fields led to an overwhelming accumulation of responsibilities (Tang & Vanderberg, 2021; Burley et al., 2022). Bernard (2009) also indicates that "women who hold leadership roles within corporate America, education, and governmental agencies experienced occupational stress in role ambiguity, role boundary, role overload, and vocational strain" (p. 16). The surge in occupational stress in recent history can be attributed to the transformation of work and economic environments over the past two to three decades. Montani et al. (2020) provide an analysis of these alterations, particularly in the context of industrialized nations. They highlight that contemporary employees often operate in downsized organisations, burdened with increased responsibilities and diminished job security. The advent of new technology has further exacerbated the situation by causing an information overload and hastening the work pace. These economic shifts have given rise to two primary outcomes, namely 'work intensification' and 'job insecurity' (Owusu & Tawiah, 2014: Kumar & Yadav, 2014). The former pertains to the growing pressure on employees to perform at a faster and more intense rate than before, while the latter encapsulates the workers' subjective apprehensions about potential job loss (Burchell, 2011). This evolving economic landscape has fostered more stress-inducing work settings, evidenced by the escalating physical and psychological strains on workers, and the rising financial burdens on

employers due to decreased productivity resulting from severe health issues, absenteeism, employee turnover, and disability leaves. Holmgren's 2008 study delved into the correlation between work-induced stress in women, their self-assessed health status, and the frequency of their sick leaves. The research unveiled that the primary source of stress for women was the difficulty in establishing boundaries, which was closely followed by an escalating workload. Conversely, it was observed that women who experienced high levels of stress due to unclear organisational structures and conflicts were more likely to take a higher number of sick leaves. The above discussions from the findings of Burchell (2011) and Holmgren (2008) imply that stress affects the well-being of employee including women.

1.1.3 Perceived Stress and Well-being of Employees

The significance of well-being in the professional environment is a predominant concern that is given priority in studies related to organisational behaviour (Wulan & Putri, 2016). The personal experiences of an individual in their workplace, whether emotional or social, have a profound influence on the individual, both within and beyond the professional sphere. Given that employees dedicate roughly one-third of their time to their jobs, the impact of their work continues to resonate even after they depart from their workplace (De Simone, 2014). Insufficient welfare can have detrimental effects on both the employees and the organisations. Employees suffering from poor welfare may display decreased productivity, make inferior decisions, exhibit a higher tendency towards absenteeism, and consistently reduce their overall input to the organisation (De Simone, 2014). The role of well-being in the workplace has been crucial in promoting employee involvement (Mangundjaya, 2011). It also has a

substantial and positive effect on the growth of an individual's personality traits, as seen in psychological capital elements like hope, self-efficacy, resilience, and optimism (Mangundjaya, 2011). This is consistent with earlier studies suggesting that employees with high levels of well-being seem more content and display healthy physical, mental, and behavioural patterns (Kurniadewi, 2016). On the other hand, an employee's low well-being can result in decreased productivity, a drop in the quality of decision-making, and a reduction in the employee's input to the organisation (Kurniadewi, 2016).

Daily pressures are a common experience for all, yet when these pressures surpass an individual's ability to manage, they can escalate into severe stress. The impact of stress on an individual's well-being can be substantial, revealing itself through various symptoms. Cognitive symptoms may include difficulties in focusing, anxiety, loss of impartiality, and impaired clarity of thought. Emotional symptoms might encompass mood swings, irritability, tension, feelings of isolation, and an inability to unwind (Haddon, 2018). Physical symptoms can also emerge, such as headaches, muscle stiffness, sleeplessness, weight issues, frequent illnesses, and chest discomfort. In an attempt to manage these symptoms, those affected may resort to detrimental behavioural patterns such as an increasing reliance on substances, ranging from illicit drugs and alcohol to tobacco and caffeine, coupled with a propensity to overindulge in food (Haddon, 2018). Changes in eating patterns and sleep disturbances may also be evident in those grappling with stress. Alterations in their interactions and relationships with others may also occur. In certain circumstances, those under stress may exhibit exaggerated emotional responses or become argumentative with friends, family, or colleagues in scenarios where they previously would not have (Haddon, 2018).

Conversely, individuals afflicted by stress may choose to distance themselves from their peers, either due to the belief that solitude can alleviate their stress or because the prospect of social interaction induces anxiety in them. Such symptoms can inflict harm not only on the individuals experiencing them but also on their surrounding people and their professional performance. Those who exhibit signs of stress in their professional environment may witness a significant decline in their work efficiency and productivity (Haddon, 2018).

1.1.4. Employee Well-being and Work Performance

As stated earlier, well-being in the workplace is a vital element of organisational sustainability. For instance, it contributes to the organisational commitment of employees and boosts organisational performance (Mangundjaya, 2011). Elements such as demographic features, personality, organisational climate, organisational well-being, and subjective well-being play a role in employee welfare in the workplace (Burns & Machin, 2013). Additional research suggests that job demand also plays a part in workplace well-being (Herwanto & Ummi, 2017; Wulan & Putri, 2016). Furthermore, a multitude of studies highlight the importance of workplace well-being for organisational performance (Herwanto & Ummi, 2017; Wulan & Putri, 2016). The importance of workplace well-being has led researchers to scrutinise studies centred on this subject. In this study, the author will establish a good link between workplace well-being perceived stress.

The correlation between an individual's overall health and their productivity at work is significant (Haddon, 2018). The well-being of an employee not only impacts their work but also other facets of their life (Kundi et al., 2021). Research indicates that

the well-being of employees is a crucial determinant of an organisation's performance and success (Bakker et al, 2019; Turban & Yan, 2016). However, the integral role of well-being in work performance is an area that current research on work performance has not fully explored. Well-being, a comprehensive concept, pertains to the valued experiences of individuals (Warr & Nielsen, 2018), enabling them to be more efficient in their work and other pursuits (Huang et al., 2016). Diener (2009) posits that well-being is a subjective concept, encapsulating individuals' happiness, wish fulfilment, satisfaction, abilities, and task completion. In a similar vein, DiMaria et al. (2020) discovered that workers who are happier tend to be more productive than those who are less happy or unhappy.

1.1.5. Perceived Stress and Work performance of Employee

. The effectiveness with which an individual fulfills their job obligations and tasks is what constitutes employee performance. Numerous businesses evaluate their staff's performance on a yearly or quarterly basis to identify areas requiring enhancement and to promote continued achievement in areas that meet or surpass expectations. The work performance of an employee is defined by the actual tasks they complete, and it also relates to the caliber and volume of work they generate in line with their assigned responsibilities (Salas-Vallina & Fernandez, 2017). Performance, as posited by Al Mehrzi and Singh (2016), is the gauge of a person's comprehensive success in task execution over a defined time frame, compared to various standards such as work norms, objectives, or collectively agreed upon benchmarks. Furthermore, Yang et al. (2016) argue that performance essentially includes the actions employees undertake or choose not to. Performance management involves all initiatives directed

towards improving an organisation's performance, inclusive of the performance of every individual and team within the entity. Shmailan (2016) asserts that the activities carried out by employees in fulfilling the organisation's tasks constitute employee performance. The effectiveness in carrying out these tasks is not independent, but is invariably connected to job satisfaction, the extent of reward received, and is influenced by individual competencies, capabilities, and traits (Andreas, 2022).

The outcomes of an organisation's performance are a reflection of the actions executed by its employees, which are based on their proficiency and capabilities. Within the context of an organisation, the collective performance of employees is the aggregate of their skills, exertions, and abilities, all of which contribute to enhancing the productivity of the organisation and facilitating the attainment of its objectives. An increase in organisational performance signifies progress towards goal realisation, albeit necessitating an escalation in the performance of employees (Ellinger et al., 2003). The performance of employees is a pivotal element that significantly influences the success of an organisation. Learning institutions significantly contribute to the improvement of employee performance through the provision of employee training and development (Gitongu et al, 2016). Furthermore, the establishment of management standards for assessing employee performance is crucial in enhancing performance, as they offer a clear depiction of actual performance and its correlation with set benchmarks. In instances where inconsistencies are detected, these standards serve as a guide to realign outputs to their necessary levels (Mackay et al, 2004). The performance of employees is also influenced by their job satisfaction. When employees derive satisfaction from their jobs and the institution, they exhibit a heightened interest in

contributing positively towards the achievement of organisational objectives (Dahkoul, 2018; Harter et al., 2002).

Assessing employee performance is considered the paramount yardstick in the realm of human resource administration (Organ & Paine, 1999). The scrutiny and interpretation of this facet are crucial for a multitude of organisational processes, encompassing staff recruitment, compensation and incentives, and professional development. Irrespective of the purpose of the assessment, establishments necessitate accurate performance evaluations, and it is even more advantageous if these evaluations can be accomplished with minimal expenditure of time and resources (DeNisi & Murphy, 2017). The performance of academic staff, particularly lecturers, has been the focus of various research studies (Alfagira et al., 2017; Onoyase, 2017; McCarthy, 2015; Victor & Babatunde, 2014). Onoyase (2017) characterized lecturers' work performance in terms of the outcome-dimension, defining it as the degree to which educators fulfil the anticipated educational outcomes. Victor and Babatunde (2014) further elaborated on this by stating that lecturers' work performance is gauged by how effectively they fulfil their teaching duties, which encompass lecture preparation, research, and community service. McCarthy (2015) emphasized that lecture planning involves the strategic selection and organisation of relevant course content, with the aim of covering the necessary subject matter within the allocated time. McCarthy (2015) also highlighted that effective lesson planning requires the identification of suitable teaching materials and instructional methods to ensure student engagement and achievement of learning objectives.

Moreover, the work performance of lecturers extends to delivering lectures as per the schedule, assessing students through coursework, tests, and exams, and

submitting their grades for final evaluation and accreditation (Igbojekwe et al., 2015). It also includes guiding research students through their proposals, projects, and dissertations (Ddungu, 2017), as well as conducting research and disseminating findings through academic publications or textbooks (Kakulu, 2016). Furthermore, lecturers' performance is reflected in their participation in community service activities such as public scholarship, community partnership, and civil literacy scholarship (Ddungu, 2018a). Despite the extensive literature on lecturers' work performance, there is a lack of focus on its relationship with stress and well-being, particularly for women lecturers in managerial positions in Ghana's public universities. This highlights the need for research on how stress impacts the well-being and work performance of women lecturers in managerial positions within the Ghanaian context.

The performance of academic staff, which encompasses the fulfilment of teaching, research, and community service duties aimed at promoting student learning and attaining the desired educational results, is a crucial aspect of their role (Onoyase, 2017; Alfagira et al., 2017). The degree to which academic staff fulfil their professional obligations significantly influences a university's ability to realize its objectives. When academic staff execute their duties as anticipated, it aids the university in achieving its intended goals. However, the opposite is true when there is a lack of performance on the part of the academic staff (Hassel & Ridout, 2018). Sanga's 2017 study in Ugandan public universities discovered that a significant majority, over 80%, of lecturers from Makerere University who were part of the study confessed to not delivering all the lectures they were assigned. Additionally, 70% of them were frequently unavailable for the supervision of research students under their purview. The research further unveiled that more than 78% of the participating lecturers from Kyambogo University did not

complete all their assigned lectures. Furthermore, 67% of these lecturers were often underprepared before presenting most of their lectures to students, and 56% were tardy in assessing students. This delay in evaluation resulted in students, particularly at the postgraduate level, missing their graduation deadlines. Ddungu (2017) posits that a significant number of instructors tasked with overseeing research students often fail to provide the necessary guidance as planned, despite the students' proactive attempts to schedule meetings in advance. These instructors frequently cancel these meetings at the eleventh hour, deferring the supervision to an unspecified future date, often attributing this to their involvement in other research endeavours. Moreover, Ddungu (2018a) asserts that the extent of these instructors' engagement in community service is disappointingly low, and their contribution to research and publication is wanting (Ddungu, 2018b). The research undertaken by Wakida, Maling, and Obua (2018) at the Mbarara University of Science and Technology lends credence to these observations. The collective body of research implies that a significant number of faculty members at the majority of Uganda's public universities are not fulfilling their responsibilities satisfactorily. This lacklustre performance is not an isolated incident but is shaped by a plethora of elements. Numerous scholarly endeavours have been initiated to discern these contributory factors. Some research has identified personal elements such as dissatisfaction with the job and conflicts in the workplace (Ssesanga & Garrett, 2005), while others have underscored university-associated elements like institutional administration and financial resources (Liang et al., 2016), governance strategies, remuneration of academic staff, suboptimal working environments (Alfagira et al., 2017), administrative leadership (Kezar & Holcombe, 2017), and notably, stress related to work (Ganesh et al., 2018). Stress has the potential to hinder goal attainment at both

the individual and organisational levels, as suggested by Ganesh et al. (2018). Furthermore, Moriotti (2015) posits that sustained intellectual stress among university lecturers, including female, leads to a reduction in mental capacity and a continuous decline in problem-solving abilities. Edlin and Golanty (2007) extrapolate from this that chronic stress impacts the overall well-being and work performance of female university staff members. A woman lecturer in a managerial position who is stress-free must, therefore, have a high-performance ability. This connotes that work performance is associated with the state of well-being of a woman lecturer in a managerial position. On the contrary, a woman lecturer in a managerial position who is a victim of stress cannot perform highly, hence, “her productivity capacity will be reduced” (Deebom et al., 2018, p. 2).

While the focus on elements influencing productivity is crucial, the fundamental role of an individual's well-being in their performance is frequently overlooked in most organisations. Studies indicate that approximately one-fourth of employees resign from their positions due to feelings of exhaustion or "burnout" (Alharbi & Smith, 2018). Given the significant portion of our lives dedicated to our jobs, it is hardly unexpected that a considerable number of individuals grapple with the stress induced by their professional responsibilities.

In numerous instances, individuals under stress may exhibit deteriorated communication and decision-making skills, heightened irritability, and diminished capacity to function within a team, leading to a breakdown and overall performance deficit. For a considerable number of individuals, work-related pressure may originate from a lack of clarity regarding their job expectations. Without explicit instructions or guidance, expecting a person to excel in their work and consequently be productive

without clear expectations is impractical. It is the responsibility of employers to ensure clarity from the beginning by providing a comprehensive job description to their employees. Furthermore, for optimal performance, it is essential that individuals are equipped with the necessary skills and experience relevant to their position, are provided with relevant training and growth opportunities, and are backed by the support of their colleagues and superiors. The implementation of an efficient stress management system is indispensable for every organisation.

1.1.6 Mediating Effect of Well-being on Stress and Work Performance

The substantial toll excessive stress can take on individuals, organisations, and society as a whole is elaborated by Krishnan (2014). According to him a considerable number of employees may continue to experience anxiety disorders or illnesses related to stress. He further projected that each employee affected by stress forfeits approximately 16 workdays annually. For the purpose of this research, perceived stress will be viewed solely as a detrimental factor and will be examined within the confines of the workplace environment. Ahmed's (2022) report on the State of the Global Workplace, published on Wednesday, 15th June 2022, revealed heightened stress levels among employees. The study revealed that a significant 60% of employees experienced a sense of "emotional detachment" in their workplace, with a further 19% regularly suffering from "misery." These statistics exceeded those recorded in 2020, a year that set a new high in the proportion of workers expressing daily stress. The analysis underscored the disturbingly low levels of global employee engagement and well-being, which are obstructing considerable opportunities for growth. A scant 9% of the global workforce can be described as "thriving and engaged", while the bulk (57%) is

"unengaged and not thriving". This has precipitated a notable worldwide decline in the general well-being of workers, especially in South Asia and Europe. A mere 11% of South Asian workers and 47% of European workers perceive their overall life quality as "thriving." Even within the group of "most engaged" workers in the United States and Canada, a mere 33% reported a sense of engagement in their work. Despite high engagement levels, workers in the U.S. and Canada are the most stressed globally. Workers in Australia and New Zealand reported the highest quality of life, yet 63% of respondents claimed they were "flourishing, and 71% of respondents in the U.S. and Canada believe that it is now a good time to look for a different job (Ahmed, 2022).

Work-related stress is considered the most significant occupational health issue in the United Kingdom (UK), following musculoskeletal disorders like back problems (WorkStressUK, 2016). Stress-related illnesses and absences cost approximately £4 billion annually. Carr, et al. (2011) explored strategies for fostering a healthier and more productive environment and discovered that stress adversely impacts employees' health and performance. They also found that stress symptoms could be mental, physical, behavioural, and emotional. Cooper and Blackwell (2004) noted that stress manifests in various ways. For example, a highly stressed individual may develop conditions like high blood pressure and ulcers. These can be classified into three general categories: Physiological, Psychological, and Behavioural symptoms, discussed below:

Behavioural effects of stress: Behavioural indicators of stress include changes in eating habits, smoking, alcohol and drug use, rapid speech, and nervous fidgeting, which can lead to work absenteeism and job-hopping, thereby deteriorating performance. Blumenthal (2003) suggested that behavioural effects contribute to accident proneness, impaired speech, restlessness, and forgetfulness. Physiological

effects of stress: Blumenthal (2003) stated that physiological responses originate in the brain and affect organs throughout the body. Catecholamine from the adrenal medulla prompts kidneys to increase blood pressure, and the liver releases sugar into the bloodstream. The pituitary gland stimulates the release of corticosteroids, which aid in stress resistance but can suppress the immune system if present for an extended period. These responses are adaptive for dealing with stress in the form of "fight or flight," but this response is rarely useful in urban work areas. The accumulation of stress products in the body suppresses the immune system, contributing to degenerative processes and diseases. Physical symptoms that may occur due to physiological stress include fatigue, headache, upset stomach, muscular aches and pains, weight gain or loss, chronic illness, and sleep disturbances. These are metabolic changes that accompany stressors. The symptoms include increased heart rate, blood pressure, etc. With this, the wear and tear on the body become noticeable and problematic. The effects of this are back pains, migraine headaches, insomnia, heart disease, hypertension, diabetes, and even cancer which affect employees' performance. Those in blue-collar or manual labour jobs are more likely to develop heart disease compared to those in white-collar jobs (Dwamena, 2012). Psychological effects of stress: High stress levels and poor health threaten employees' health. Like physical symptoms, psychological symptoms can also cause employees' work performance to deteriorate, according to Cooper and Blackwell (2004). This is also known as the subjective effect and leads to anxiety, depression, frustration, fatigue, anger, nervousness, irritability, aggressiveness, and boredom, resulting in low employee performance, low self-esteem, resentment of supervision, inability to concentrate, trouble in making decisions, and job dissatisfaction (Blumenthal, 2003). Moreover, the psychological symptoms of stress can lead to

burnout. Job burnout is a prolonged withdrawal from work, causing the sufferer to devalue their work and view it as a source of dissatisfaction.

Prolonged exposure to stress has profound and detrimental effects on health. Stress is implicated in the onset of various health conditions such as asthma, amenorrhea, coronary heart disease, chest discomfort, diarrhoea, dyspepsia, headaches, migraines, diabetes mellitus, ulcers, and diminished sexual drive, among other potential complications. In an era where the prevalence of AIDS is alarmingly high, it is crucial to understand that stress can suppress the immune system. This suppression makes individuals with HIV more susceptible to potential infections and diseases. These may include Depression, characterized by frequent feelings of loneliness, dissatisfaction, despondency, low energy, and loss of sexual interest; Anger, marked by frequent loss of temper, annoyance, irritation, criticism of others, and anger over trivial matters; Cognitive disturbance, often manifested as difficulty in remembering or concentrating, and experiencing a blank mind; Suicide, the potential act of ending one's life; Anxiety, and frequent upset or sour stomach (Dar et al., 2011).

1.1.7. Moderating Effect of Institutional Stress Management Systems on Perceived Stress, Well-being and Work Performance

Research exploring the effects of work-related stress on organisational outcomes has uncovered several associated behaviours that impact performance, competitiveness, and the company's public image. For instance, a poor psychosocial work environment that contributes to work stress can lead to increased absenteeism and presenteeism, decreased motivation, satisfaction, and commitment, and a higher rate of employee turnover and intention to leave (Vahtera et al., 2000). All these factors can

result in negative human, social, and financial costs. Mathis and Jackson (2000) proposed that the evaluation of an organisation's human resource performance necessitates the consideration of unit labour cost or the total labour cost per unit of output. They further posited that an individual's performance is influenced by three elements, namely; capacity to perform the task, degree of exertion and the assistance provided to the individual. The principles widely acknowledged in organisational theory propose that Performance (P) is the outcome of Ability (A), Effort (E), and Support (S), that is, (P = A x E x S). The absence or reduction of any of these components results in a decline in performance. The relationships, communications and other strategies that provide support directly or indirectly contribute to reduce perceived stress levels, improve well-being and intern improve work performance of employee (Kim & Lee, 2009). Taylor (2003) also underscores the significance of stress for several reasons. Primarily, it aids in identifying common daily stressors and provides further proof of the stress-disease correlation. Taylor also asserts that while it's impossible to evade all work-related stress, understanding the stress-inducing aspects of a job can pave the way for job redesign and the implementation of stress management strategies. The research conducted by Stankeviciene et al. in 2021 meticulously examines the mediating role of work-life balance (WLB) in the relationship between the structural elements of work culture, including temporal flexibility, supportive supervision, and operational flexibility, and employee well-being. The data for this study was gathered through a survey administered to employees in both the private and public sectors in Lithuania. The findings of the study underscore that each aspect of work culture significantly shapes the well-being of employees, has a profound direct impact on well-being, and influences WLB. The study suggests that the direct influence of work culture

on well-being was markedly greater than the indirect influence via WLB. Furthermore, the study suggests that a work environment that is supportive of families can assist employees in enhancing their WLB, which subsequently leads to increased job satisfaction, reduced stress, and improved well-being and work performance. This research expands the application of well-being as a mediating factor in organisational settings, and its conclusions could be valuable for professionals aiming to enhance employee well-being to augment performance within their organisations. This paper aims to bridge the knowledge gap concerning the potential for institutional stress management programmes to moderate the relationship between stress and well-being, while directly impacting employee performance.

Effective administration is not only crucial for staff retention but also serves as a catalyst for employees to deliver optimal results, thereby enhancing productivity and performance. Studies have indicated that businesses that place a high emphasis on employee engagement surpass their competitors by 10 per cent (IIP, 2018). In a survey conducted by "Investing In People" involving 1,000 employed and 1,000 unemployed individuals, it was discovered that nearly half of the UK workforce, 47 per cent to be precise, were contemplating a job change. Interestingly, 49 per cent of these individuals confessed that substandard management was the primary factor driving their intention to switch jobs.

Effective management not only enhances employee engagement and motivation but also, by offering psycho-social support, can mitigate job-related stress (Kania, 2014). Frequently, undue stress at work arises from factors impacting an individual's professional role or other workplace circumstances, such as a strained relationship with a colleague or client. These pressures, while sufficient to induce stress on their own,

can be intensified by the inclination to suppress symptoms and continue functioning "normally." When grappling with some or all of the previously mentioned symptoms, sustaining this pretence can significantly affect an employee's already delicate well-being. It is incumbent upon employers to establish robust systems that promote and enable candid, reciprocal communication with their workforce. Keeping employees informed and engaged in crucial business decisions fosters a sense of value, thereby instantly boosting their motivation to excel in their roles. By heeding your employees and considering their feedback, a collaborative approach can be adopted to devise a solution that, overall, benefits all parties. The establishment of these transparent communication pathways allows employees to feel comfortable discussing any problems that might be affecting their work performance. In the absence of such communication pathways, individuals might try to downplay their difficulties and continue as usual, which, as previously highlighted, only serves to amplify stress-related problems.

While some corporations provide perks such as in-house massages and yoga sessions to promote relaxation, the majority shy away from directly addressing overall wellness due to the apprehension of triggering a myriad of issues and enabling allegations of job-related stress from their workforce. As the adage suggests, sharing a problem is akin to solving half of it. This effect can be amplified tenfold in a company with a positive work environment (Warr & Nielsen, 2018). If a group is proactively motivated to collaborate and respect one another, then during situations where a staff member discloses any personal difficulties, the rest of the team is likely to unite and assist in managing the situation. Such support can significantly influence not only the individual's well-being but also the interpersonal dynamics within the team, thereby

potentially preventing the anticipated discord and performance decline mentioned earlier. Nevertheless, employers can also adopt constructive strategies to enable their employees to cultivate and sustain their personal health, well-being, and work-life equilibrium by equipping them with the necessary skills and resources on a continuous basis (Sivan & Satyamoorthy, 2014). This can be achieved through regular 'lunch and learn' sessions, workshops, and coaching assistance.

"Organisations need to show a true commitment to employee well-being and work/life balance through the implementation of a fully defined policy" (Sivan & Satyamoorthy, 2014). This will not only provide the impetus required by institutions to maintain health and well-being as central to their ethos and culture, but also, for staff members, awareness is crucial. A significant number of individuals, when presented with appropriate data and comprehending how to set their own enduring objectives, will form fresh and beneficial routines to supplant former, detrimental habits so as to improve their performance at work. The most serious effect of stress relates to performance. Swathi and Reddy (2016) indicate that "stress affects work performance negatively" especially among women since women are generally involved simultaneously in many tasks, such as juggling between family and work responsibilities (p. 6). Also, Blumenthal (2003) has used an inverted u-type curve to depict the effect of stress on performance. It can be shown that, as stress increases, performance peaks and then starts to decline. The evidence suggests that stress can be beneficial in boosting productivity, however, when it escalates to a point of severe unease, it turns detrimental and obstructive. Blumenthal also posited that an overabundance of job-related stress is injurious, ruinous, and adverse to human welfare, thereby impacting work efficiency negatively. Kersh (2018) believes that women

workers in higher educational institutions will suffer more stress-related illnesses as they move into high managerial positions.

It appears plausible that women, in general, may grapple with persistent stress, yet it is likely that those serving in leadership roles within the educational sector may encounter supplementary stress-inducing factors. For instance, Huo and Jiang (2023) investigated how extraversion mediated the impact of work-life conflict on employee welfare and work performance. The study results showed that work-life conflict hurts employees' well-being, which compromises their ability to do their jobs effectively. Additionally, extraversion amplifies the impact of work-life conflict on well-being (directly) and work performance (indirectly) via well-being. Additionally, Olaimat (2017) examined how organisational support had a moderating influence on the relationship between work stress and employee performance. It was shown that the association between job stress and workers' performance is moderated by organisational support.

The current study would use a conditional process analysis (an analytical strategy that integrates mediation and moderation analysis with the goal of examining and testing hypothesis about how mechanisms vary as a function of context or individual difference) that combines the mediating and moderating role of variables in a single study (Hayes & Rockwood, 2020). Educational leaders must understand the elements of stress affecting the work performance of women lecturers in managerial positions, the mediating effect of well-being as well as the moderating effect of institutional stress management systems. This would generate awareness, enhance the implementation of measures, develop and further enhance existing policies, and enhance the practices concerning stress-related issues.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The significance of employee performance is well-recognised by organisations, and they are constantly seeking methods to enhance it or maintain a high standard (Siddiqui, 2014). This has become a critical determinant of organisational success. The primary objective of management is to unite individuals to achieve business goals and objectives by optimising the use of available resources. Employee performance can be improved by focusing on elements that boost motivation, creativity, job satisfaction, and a conducive work environment.

Stress, according to Shields et al., (2019), impacts all facets of contemporary life, including work, family, and home. It affects total performance and output of workers especially women in managerial and higher office positions is institutional stress**.** The work of Warr and Nielsen (2018) underscored the global prevalence of stress in the workplace, a matter that has garnered the interest of scholars, regulatory bodies, and policy makers. This stress is thought to contribute to subpar performance (Kundi et al., 2021), diminished staff morale (Warner & Corley, 2017), a sense of powerlessness (Kumar & Yadav, 2014), job instability (Montani et al., 2020), and has a substantial impact on the well-being of the employee (DiMaria et al., 2020). Institutions such as Universities, both lecturers and administrators, along with organisations that employ remote workers, often require their employees to operate continuously due to the rigorous nature of their work. Studies have indicated that employees are subjected to elevated stress levels as a result of excessive workload, tight deadlines and prolonged working hours, which negatively impacts their psychological, physiological and psychosocial health (Khan & Khurshid, 2017; Wong et al., 2019).

The study would consider finding what is happening in the Ghanaian setting among women lecturers in managerial positions.

Prevailing literature such as Igbojekwe et al., 2015; Kakulu, 2016; Ddungu, 2017,_ outlines the responsibilities of lecturers to include activities not limiting to lecturing, assessing students, guiding research scholars, conduct research and share their discoveries in respected academic journals, or employ these discoveries to write textbooks, sections of textbooks, and articles for media outlets and documentaries, and participation in community service, but it fails to account for the administrative or managerial duties some lecturers undertake in addition to their teaching and research roles. Furthermore, it overlooks women lecturers who juggle their academic roles with their familial responsibilities as mothers or wives. The literature also neglects to connect lecturers' work performance with stress and well-being, particularly within the context of Ghana's public universities. Therefore, this study aims to evaluate how women lecturers balance academic tasks such as lesson planning, lecture note preparation, teaching, and research with managerial duties.

The truth of professional life is that employees strive to maintain a balance between their work and personal lives, which can either positively or negatively impact their work performance and well-being (Balaji, 2014). Bell et al. (2012) examined the correlation between perceived job stress, job pressure, job threat, and employee well-being. They discovered a strong negative correlation between perceived job stress and work-life balance, which in turn negatively affected employee well-being, but had a weaker positive impact. While these findings may be applicable in various settings, further research is necessary to validate them. This study, seek to consider that.

Workplace stress is not the sole determinant of employee well-being; other factors such as organisational changes, job insecurity, and non-work-related stress can also influence it. The results of this research may not be definitive, but the study's constructs are undoubtedly significant from a personnel perspective. Job-related stress is a growing concern due to its substantial economic implications for both organisations and employees (Kelloway et al., 2008). Ineffective communication can escalate work stress to the point where employees consider leaving their jobs. These stressors, unfortunately, cannot be easily dismissed. Leaving a job could lead to debt and financial instability, which would only add to the stress (AIS, 2022). Given these predictors, this study will investigate well-being and institutional stress management systems as mediating and moderating factors in the impact of stress on work performance. In Ghana, no comprehensive study on stress and work performance has explored a conditional process analysis as this study intends to.

Extant research on stress indicates a negative impact of stress on work performance (Amponsah, 2010; Bernard, 2009; Fisher, 2014; Mazzola & Disselhorst, 2019; Mosadebhrad, 2014; Owusu & Tawiah, 2014; Roberts, 2014). Nevertheless, little is known about the potential effects of stress on women especially women in management positions in higher educational institutions. Out of 74 empirical studies on stress reviewed by the author, only five which are Bernard (2009), Burke and Richardsen (2019), Roberts (2014), Owusu and Tawiah (2014), and Deebom et al. (2018) discussed women in managerial positions. The research most pertinent and directly linked to the proposed investigation is that conducted by Owusu and Tawiah (2014), along with Deebom et al. (2018). Owusu and Tawiah (2014) discovered a significant correlation between work-related stress and diminished productivity among

Senior Female Administrators at the University of Cape Coast, as it suppresses innovation and undermines the aspiration and drive for excellence. Similarly, Deebom et al. (2018) identified that female lecturers in Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) are subjected to stressors stemming from various factors such as deferred or absent promotions, persistent traffic congestion, elevated living expenses, child-related pressures, and an inadequate transportation system, all of which negatively impact their job performance. Yet, given the constantly evolving nature of workplace culture and the increasing role that women are playing in institutional management, the question arises as to: (1) the relevance of this research in an ever-changing, technologically driven workplace and its adjoining changing nature of workloads/demands; and (2) the extent to which findings from these earlier researches apply to women leaders especially those in higher educational institutions. As the pieces of evidence above suggest, stress may affect women, perhaps, differently from men. By examining such impacts, the current research seeks to contribute to filling the knowledge gap which exists around the impacts of stress on the work performance of women lectures in managerial positions higher educational institutions in Ghana.

Again, work stress among women in higher managerial positions may have been examined in many different fields, similar studies among women lecturers in managerial positions in Higher Educational Institutions are scant in the literature and no such studies are undertaken in the Universities in Ghana. This is one of the tenants of this research

Numerous research conducted in different regions have established that the welfare of employees contributes to a variety of individual and institutional results such as enhanced institutional efficacy and output (Hewett et al., 2018, Karapinar et al.,

2019; Turban and Yan, 2016), client contentment (Sharma et al., 2016), employee involvement (Tisu et al., 2020) and institutional citizenship conduct (Mousa et al., 2020), however, none have been conducted in Ghana. For example, a study by Kundi et al. (2021) on the psychological welfare (well-being) of employees and their work performance in Pakistan's cellular companies revealed that welfare directly and indirectly influences an employee's work performance. Consequently, there is a necessity to explore the correlation between well-being and work performance within the Ghanaian setting, this this work seeks to do.

Research identifying work-related stress as a contributory factor is limited at the university level and is entirely lacking in the specific context of public universities in Ghana. As a result, the role and impact of work stress on the job underperformance of instructors in these universities remain unclear. While men might be exposed to more immediate dangers in their occupations, it seems that women are more susceptible to illnesses induced by stress, which could result in cardiovascular diseases, hypertension, and strokes (Kania, 2014).

Research reveals that significant majority of people in managerial positions employ self-management methods to handle their work related stress (AIS, 2022; Watson, 2022;Williams et al., 2015). The research also points out that organisational management seems not to do anything to support their employees on dealing with their stress (Panigrahi, 2017; Owusu & Tawiah, 2014; Muhammad & Kishwar, 2019). Even though managing stress through self-management techniques is beneficial, it does not tackle the root cause of the stress and would continue to affect the health, wellbeing and performance of women lectures in managerial positions since management routine demands persists. This study therefore seeks to explore the role management of higher

educational institutions in Ghana plays in managing the impact of the perceived stress on the wellbeing and work performance of women lectures which in managerial positions in higher educational institutions. Also, the research would want to assess whether the role management of higher educational institutions in Ghana plays in managing staff perceived stress would have positive or negative impact on the wellbeing and the work performance of women lectures in managerial positions in the higher educational institutions in Ghana.

Furthermore, effects of perceived stress on performance, effects of perceived stress on well-being, effects of well-being on performance have been analysed separately. This study seeks to find out the link between the three – perceived stress, well-being and work performance.

Lastly, among all the studies reviewed on perceived stress, well-being and work performance only 5 per cent used the quantitative methodology. Also, none of them explore the conditional process analysis. Therefore the researcher would use a conditional process analysis in the quantitative methodology to examine the mediation and moderation relations between perceived stress, well-being, institutional stress management systems and work performance of women lectures in managerial positions in selected higher educational institutions.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to assess how perceived stress impacts the work performance of women lecturers in managerial positions, how well-being mediates the relationship between perceived stress and work performance and the role of institutional stress management systems in moderating the relationship between perceived stress,

well-being and work performance among women lecturers in managerial positions in the twelve selected higher educational institutions.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The study sought out to:

1. assess the perceived stress levels of women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected higher educational institutions;
2. identify the type of stressors that affect the perceived stress levels of women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected higher educational institutions;
3. examine the well-being of women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected higher educational institutions;
4. examine the work performance of women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected higher educational institutions; and
5. explore the availability of institutional stress management systems in selected higher educational institutions.

1.5 Research Questions

1. What are the perceived stress levels of the women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected higher education institutions?
2. What are the types of stressors that affect the perceived stress levels of women lecturers in managerial positions in selected higher educational institutions?
3. What is the well-being of women lecturers in managerial positions in selected higher education institutions?

4. What is the work performance of women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected higher education institutions?
5. What are the institutional stress management systems available for the women lectures in the selected higher education institutions?

1.6 Research Hypotheses

$H_0$1: There is no significant difference in the perceived stress levels of the women lecturers in managerial positions from different higher educational institutions.

$H_0$2: There is no significant difference in the type of stressors that affect the perceived stress levels of women lecturers in managerial positions from different higher educational institutions.

$H_0$3: Well-being does not significantly mediate the relationship between perceived stress levels and work performance.

$H_0$4: Institutional stress management systems do not significantly moderate the relationship between perceived stress levels and the well-being of women lecturers in managerial positions in selected higher educational institutions.

$H_0$5: Institutional stress management systems do not significantly moderate the relationship between the well-being and work performance of women lecturers in managerial positions in selected higher educational institutions.

$H_0$6: Institutional stress management systems do not significantly moderate the relationship between perceived stress levels and the work performance of women lecturers in managerial positions in selected higher educational institutions.

1.7 Significance of the Study

This study would be of help to women lecturers in managerial positions, other women leaders, Management and Policy Makers in higher educational institutions in the following ways:

1. It is hoped to serve as a database for policymakers to amend national policy on the conditions of service in favour of women lecturers in managerial positions in higher education.
2. It will inform Ghana Tertiary Education Commission and Vice Chancellors of Ghana, the need to ensure that every higher educational institution in Ghana has utilises a formal stress management policy for staff to promote well-being at work, prevent work-related stress and improve performance.

3. This would equip the administrative bodies of tertiary educational establishments with knowledge about potential stress triggers, their impact on the stress levels of women, their overall wellness, and work performance. It would also offer the required interventions to mitigate stress and its detrimental effects on productivity.

4. This would assist female leaders in academia to pinpoint their stress-inducing factors and implement suitable stress management techniques to regulate their perceived stress levels, thereby enabling them to function at a more productive, efficient, and effective capacity. Consequently, this could lead to a reduction in healthcare expenses, preservation of lives, promotion of academic excellence, and improvement of work performance in higher education institutions.

1.8 Delimitation of the Study

The scope of this study was confined to women lecturers holding managerial positions across twelve tertiary education establishments in Ghana. Four of these institutions were Public Traditional Universities, namely the University of Ghana in Accra, Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology in Kumasi, University of Cape Coast in Cape Coast, and University of Education in Winneba. An equal number were Public Technical Universities, specifically Accra Technical University in Accra, Tamale Technical University, Kumasi Technical University in Kumasi, and Kumasi Technical University in Kumasi. The other four were from Private Universities – the Valley View University, Accra; Regional Maritime University, Accra; All Nations University, Koforidua and Central University, Tema. These institutions have been selected in terms of their year of establishment. Also, they all have a mixed-sex workforce, high student enrolment (more than 3,000 students) and offer courses and programmes leading to officially recognised higher education degrees such as pre-bachelor degrees (i.e., certificates, diplomas, associate or foundation), bachelor degrees, master degrees, and doctorate degrees in several areas of study.

1.9 Operational Definition of Terms

In this study, certain words (terms) have been used under specific conditions. It is therefore expedient to define them operationally to avoid ambiguity.

Ghana Tertiary Education Commission (GTEC): It is an educational regulatory body established to ensure high standards in tertiary education in Ghana.

Higher Educational Institution: In the context of advanced education, the term "Higher Educational Institution" encompasses not only universities and colleges but

also institutions offering technical training. In the Ghanaian educational landscape, these establishments are often categorised under tertiary education or institutions. This broad classification also includes teacher training colleges and polytechnics. In this study, it referred to universities.

Institutional Stress Management Systems (ISMS): This refers to systems, policies or guidelines available in institutions for staff to manage their stress.

Perceived Stress: The sentiments or cognitions a person holds regarding the level of stress they are experiencing at a specific moment or over a certain duration are significant.

Vice Chancellors Ghana (VCG): This is a platform for the chief executives of conventional public universities in Ghana, with the exception of technical universities.

Well-being: It refers to the state of being comfortable, healthy or happy.

Women Lecturers in Managerial Positions: This refers to the female teaching staff – Lecturers, Senior Lecturers, Associate Professors, and Professors who are holding managerial positions such as Heads of Department/Unit, Deans/Vice Deans and Directors in the university.

Work Performance: It pertains to the work -related tasks an employee is expected to perform and the degree of proficiency with which these tasks are completed within a set timeframe, evaluated against precision standards.

Work Stress: It denotes the stress that workers encounter in their professional environment, encompassing all aspects related to their roles, responsibilities, and position within the organisation that may lead to negative outcomes for the individual, such as an overwhelming workload, time constraints, and decision-making authority

Work Stressor: A work stressor is an element that induces stress in the workplace. Depending on an individual's response, a stressor can be either beneficial or detrimental.

1.10 Organisation of the Study

The rest of the study is organised as follows: Chapter two looks at the literature review on the perceived stress levels of women lecturers in managerial positions, the type of stressors that affect their perceived stress levels, their well-being, their work performance, and institutional stress management systems available in the selected higher educational institutions. The study's theoretical viewpoint and conceptual structure are encapsulated in this chapter. The third chapter provides an exhaustive synopsis of the research methodology, encompassing the research design, demographic, sample and sampling techniques, data gathering methods, and the approach to data interpretation. The findings of the study are scrutinised and delineated in the fourth chapter. The fifth chapter offers a discourse on the results, while the sixth chapter outlines the summary, deductions, and suggestions derived from the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The present chapter is centred around the exploration of the theoretical foundations that underpin the ongoing study. This theoretical investigation is bolstered by the perspectives and discoveries of various authors as recorded in books, encyclopaedias, and scholarly journals. The subject matter under scrutiny is examined through three distinct sections: empirical review, theoretical review, and the conceptual framework. The initial section encapsulates several empirical investigations concerning stress, well-being, work performance, and institutional stress management systems. The subsequent part, the theoretical segment of the review, grapples with notions and theories pertinent to stress, well-being, work performance, and institutional stress management systems. The third part gives a composite picture of the study and explains how the variables in the study are related.

2.1 Empirical Review on Stress, Well-being, Work Performance and Institutional Stress Management Systems

In this section, attempts are made to review what authors and authorities have said about stress, well-being, performance and institutional stress management systems as concepts in articles. The discussion focuses on the under-listed themes:

1. Perceived Levels of Work Stress
2. The Stressor of Work Stress
3. Employee Well-being
4. Employee Work Performance

5. Institutional Stress Management Systems
6. Mediating Effect of Well-being on Stress and Work Performance
7. Moderating Effect of Institutional Stress Management Systems on Stress, Well-being and Work Performance

2.1.1 Perceived Levels of Work Stress

The International Labour Organisation posits that stress significantly impacts the lives of university staff, ranging from minor annoyance to severe dysfunction that could lead to serious health issues (ILO, 2016). Stress is defined as any disturbance to an individual's regular routine or physical or mental health. It arises when the body is pushed beyond its limits or when an individual is subjected to unusual demands. Stress can manifest in various ways, from simple irritability to extreme violent behaviour. Bowling and his colleagues (2015) propose that stress emerges from an individual's engagement with their surroundings, culminating in emotional strain that impinges on their physical and mental wellbeing. Ogunsanmi and Owuamanam (2014) perceived stress as the physiological response to any unusually demanding or overpowering circumstance. Similarly, Blumenthal (2003) and Robbins (2004) characterize stress as any element that unsettles an individual's capacity to sustain critical variables within tolerable boundaries, or a dynamic state in which an individual encounters an opportunity, restriction, or demand related to their aspirations, with uncertain and significant results. Consequently, stress can be interpreted as excessive demands that affect an individual both physically and mentally, stemming from a perceived threat or pressure to eradicate it.

Stress, nonetheless, is not invariably detrimental; it can also possess a positive value when it presents potential benefits. The encounter with stress encompasses a demanding event or resources and the subjective sensation of distress experienced in reaction. An event could be deemed as stressful if individuals evaluate it as distressing. The interpretation of an event as stressful is shaped by an individual's psychosocial orientation, including culture, spirituality, values, beliefs, and previous experiences. Events that are evaluated as overwhelming, menacing, unsatisfying, or conflicting are more probable to be perceived as stressful.

The escalating concern about work-related stress is due to its substantial economic repercussions for organisations and negative publicity (Kelloway et al., 2008). Specific professions, like nursing (Abuairub, 2014) and teaching (Montgomery & Rupp, 2005), are linked with elevated stress levels due to their distinctive situations. Intriguingly, university lecturers in managerial roles also report above-average stress levels. Comprehensive surveys carried out in European Union member states in 1990, 1995, and 2000 revealed a rising trend in work intensity. In 1990, 48% of workers reported working at high speeds for at least a quarter of their working time, which escalated to 54% in 1995 and 56% in 2000 (EU, EFILWC, 2007).

Ramaniah and Subramanian (2008) conducted an investigation on the stress levels of gold-collar workers in Chennai City, revealing that these employees are grappling with significant stress. The researchers deduced that female employees, in particular, experience heightened stress due to factors such as role isolation, role overload, and inter-role distance. Holmgren (2008) also found that women in the workforce are subjected to more stress than their male counterparts. Chan & Greca (2013) noted that individuals, despite experiencing similar adverse life events, assess

the impact differently due to variables like personality, coping mechanisms, and support systems. The perception of stress and coping abilities of an individual significantly influence their reaction to stress levels. It is important to note that stress perception varies greatly among individuals. In line with this, research by Cox et al. (2000), and Sofola and Jeboda (2006) confirmed that individual responses to stress levels are unique, influenced by the type of stressor and a range of personal and environmental factors. A study by Amponsah and Owolabi (2011) at the University of Cape Coast on Perceived Stress Levels revealed that 70% of respondents had moderate stress levels, while 3.5% exhibited high stress levels. Azumah (2014) also found in her research on stress that 5.6% of respondents had low stress levels, 80.8% had moderate stress, and 10.3% showed high stress levels. Stress levels can range from low/minor to moderate and high.

Blumenthal (2003) proposed that a slight degree of perceived stress might be beneficial, rendering individuals more active and improving their performance. Within the sphere of psychological studies, stress is viewed as a condition of mental strain and tension. Shahsavarani et al. (2015, p. 230) posited that minimal stress levels might be advantageous, even conducive to health. Positive stress can augment biopsychosocial well-being and elevate performance. It is also regarded as a vital element in motivation, adjustment, and reaction to the surroundings. Nevertheless, Tucker et al. (2008) cautioned that an overabundance of stress could result in biological, psychological, and social complications, and even inflict significant damage on individuals.

On the other hand, Siddiqui et al. (2016) noted that sustained high stress levels could lead to significant psychological and physical problems, such as poor work performance, stress-induced anxiety, depression, drug abuse, and even suicide. Mariotti

(2015) pointed out that chronic stress, characterized by high levels of blood cortisol, can interfere with sperm production in males, affecting testosterone production, sperm maturation, and even causing erectile dysfunction and/or impotence, thereby reducing male fertility potential. Chronic workplace stress is prevalent, with 94% of employees reporting high stress levels at work (AIS, 2022).

Workplace stress is experienced by employees due to a multitude of factors, and as Fairbrother & Warn (2003, p. 8) assert, these stress responses are not isolated incidents. The fluctuating stress levels among employees can be attributed to a variety of causes such as excessive workload, overcrowded work environments, machine-generated noise, and conflicts arising from subpar decision-making by the employer. Personal life transitions can also trigger high stress levels. Individual stressors include domestic issues like the loss of loved ones, financial difficulties, and divorce, which can result in varying degrees of stress.

Conversely, organisational stressors also exist. These are challenges encountered by employees within their work environment. Role ambiguity, for instance, not knowing one's exact responsibilities and expectations, and having an overwhelming amount of work with limited time for completion, can induce workplace stress. Other organisational stress factors include poor working conditions that cause distractions, noise, uncomfortable temperatures, and a chaotic environment.

Stress can also be triggered by a lack of control, unexpected changes, and ambiguity, with role ambiguity being a primary stressor in the workplace (Yongkang et al., 2014). The type of job and work specifications are significant determinants of organisational stressors (Nekzada & Tekeste, 2013). For example, high-stress jobs

demand a lot of time and exert pressure on employees. Bloisi et al. (2007) noted that employees often endure poor working conditions if the work environment is unpleasant.

The subsequent section will delve deeper into the primary reasons for varying stress levels, why employees specifically experience stress in the workplace, and the main causes or sources of employee stress.

2.1.2 Stressors of Work Stress

Stress manifests in various forms, contingent on its origin, such as familial stress, which is linked to home-based sources, and occupational stress, associated with work-related sources. Consequently, any aspect tied to tasks, obligations, and institutional roles that yield negative outcomes for an individual, like heavy workload, time constraints, and decision-making latitude, is classified as occupational stress (Mosadeghrad, 2014). The job itself, encompassing duties, obligations, intense workload, workload fluctuations, role uncertainty, and role discord, can induce stress in employees (Bowling et al, 2015). The escalating concern around job-induced stress is due to its substantial economic impact on organisations and the potential for negative publicity (Kelloway et al., 2008).

A stressor, the catalyst for stress, can be perceived as either positive or negative, depending on the individual's response. For instance, while one person might interpret a stressor as a driving force, another might perceived it as a limitation. Stress can be either positive, termed eustress, or negative, known as distress. Distress can impair an individual's physical and mental health, while eustress stimulates the body and mind to function creatively. In the absence of stress, an individual may become lethargic and uninteresting. Positive stress can motivate an individual to excel. However, when this

stress surpasses the necessary threshold, it results in distress, which can disrupt an individual's mental equilibrium, leading to issues like insomnia, eating disorders, cardiac problems, and suicidal tendencies.

Initiating a fresh professional role can induce significant stress, particularly if the person feels unprepared, burdened by the volume of tasks, uncomfortable around their colleagues or superiors, and unenthused by their duties. On the other hand, a person transitioning into a role where they feel competent, backed by their colleagues, and engaged, is more inclined to view the transition as energizing rather than stressful. Fisher (2014) suggests that besides potential stressors external to the company, some are inherent within the company. Even though a company consists of individual groups, there exist broader aspects unique to a company that can potentially induce stress. According to the global stress study by AIS (2022), 35% of employees attributed their job-related stress to their supervisor, 80% suffered stress due to poor company communication, 39% pinpointed their volume of work as the main stressor, 1 in 4 American adults identified discrimination as a major source of stress, and it was a significant stress source across all racial groups.

Echoing similar sentiments, Tang and Vandenberghe (2021) proposed that research at the corporate level has demonstrated how occupational stressors might trigger outcomes within the organisation, such as a decrease in performance, dissatisfaction, a shortfall in motivation and commitment, and an increase in absenteeism and turnover. Desseler (2000) put forth the idea that occupational stress originates primarily from two sources: environmental and personal. Desseler elaborated that a variety of external environmental elements could provoke occupational stress, encompassing factors like work timetables, the physical workplace, job stability,

commuting, and the volume and characteristics of clients. Even auditory disturbances, such as ongoing conversations and telephone rings, could add to the stress levels.

Nonetheless, Desseler (2000) observed that individuals' reactions varied even within the same job, as personal factors also influenced stress. He further noted that stress is not inherently detrimental; some individuals function optimally under mild stress and are more productive as deadlines loom. All the sources of stress identified in the literature discussed have been grouped under the following four headings namely:

a. Organisational policies and procedures stressors;
b. Work environment stressors;
c. Interpersonal relations stressors; and
d. Personal characteristics stressors.

2.1.2.1 Organisational policies and procedures stressors

Organisational policies can sometimes lead to negative outcomes for employees, such as insufficient remuneration, limited opportunities for advancement, job instability, and ineffective leadership, as highlighted by Mosadeghrad (2014). Both McCann et al. (2009) and Mosadeghrad (2013) underscored that organisational practices like extended working hours, insufficient training, job insecurity, inadequate wages, and limited career opportunities can induce stress. The lack of job security can potentially hinder career growth and adversely affect employees' well-being and dedication to their work (Kossek et al., 2012; Menze, 2006).

Occupational Burden: In the realm of professional occupations, the task of handling occupational burden can serve as a stress inducer and function as a stress-causing factor for workers. This encompasses: (a) numerical burden or overburden,

signifying the presence of more tasks than can be feasibly accomplished; (b) qualitative burden, which entails executing a task that is overly demanding; and (c) occupational underburden, denoting the presence of tasks that fail to exploit a worker's capabilities and talents (Katz & Kahn, 2016). Occupational underburden is associated with tedious, uninspiring, and under-stimulating tasks, leading to considerable stress for workers in such circumstances. This suggests that when workers are not allocated tasks that challenge their abilities and expertise, they undergo a heightened level of stress. Occupational overburden transpires when a worker is burdened with an excessive quantity of tasks due to enforced deadlines, frequently resulting in stress (Arve &Nair, 2010). Overburden can manifest in two ways; an excessive amount of tasks and tasks for which an individual is inadequately prepared.

The task of improving efficiency can be perceived as each person accomplishing more than they have in the past. In a manufacturing setting, the objective of heightened productivity signifies a reduction in the total time required to complete a product, with overload experienced as an unending flow of tasks. Edwards and Cooper (2013) differentiated between quantitative overload (excessive work) and qualitative overload (work that is too challenging). The proposition was made that both types of overload could result in at least nine unique symptoms of psychological and physiological stress, such as dissatisfaction with work, anxiety, reduced self-worth, feelings of menace, humiliation, heightened cholesterol levels, increased heart rate, skin conditions, and intensified smoking habits. Desseler (2000) proposed that the consequences of occupational stress for companies include reduced work efficiency, increased absenteeism and employee turnover, a rise in complaints, and escalated healthcare costs. A study involving 46,000 employees indicated that stress and depression might

lead workers to seek medical help for unclear physical and mental issues, potentially progressing to more severe health complications. It was found that the healthcare costs for highly stressed employees were 46% higher than for those experiencing less stress. Levin-Epstein (2002) contended that occupational stress had significant impacts on non-profit organisations, leading to lost work time, decreased productivity, low employee morale, turnover, and increased healthcare costs. Levin-Epstein (2002) also identified the most common signs of stress as feeling swamped and experiencing burnout. He further underscored that employers, as the implementers of stress-causing policies and procedures, bear a duty to assist employees in handling their stress, especially if it impacts work performance.

The responsibilities of educators extend beyond the confines of the classroom, encompassing the creation of lesson plans, the delivery of lectures, and the grading of assessments for potentially large numbers of students due to the sizeable university class sizes. Those educators who also hold managerial roles must juggle these demanding tasks with administrative leadership responsibilities within their respective units, departments, faculties, or schools. Furthermore, educators are required to engage in extensive research, produce publications, and contribute to community service as prerequisites for promotion. This workload, particularly for female educators who also shoulder familial duties as mothers and wives, can be immensely stressful.

Extended Working Hours: A significant proportion of individuals in America, in recent times, regions such as Europe, certain African territories, and notably, Ghana, have been experiencing extended work durations. As per the data from 2000, it was projected that over a quarter of the male population and slightly above 11% of the female populace were engaged in work for 50 hours or more weekly (ILO, 2016). This

indicates a significant surge over the preceding thirty years, with a particular emphasis on the female workforce. The Labour Department has recorded a growth in the hours women dedicate to their jobs, an elongation of the work week for men surpassing 40 hours, and a marked escalation in the cumulative work hours for working pairs, predominantly those nurturing young offspring (ILO, 2016). The extended hours demanded by many professions, including academia, can negatively impact employees' health and contribute to elevated stress levels. This implies that many workers, including some educators, who may go without sleep for 36 hours or more, may experience a decline in their wellbeing and the quality of their work.

Shift Work: This refers to jobs that necessitate shift work, which can involve working during staggered hours. Dwamena (2012) posits that such disruptions can interfere with an employee's physiological functions such as body temperature, metabolic speed, glucose levels in the blood, cognitive performance, and sleep cycles. These disturbances may potentially precipitate conditions such as elevated blood pressure, moderate diabetes, and gastric ulcers.

Organisational Leadership: This pertains to the management style adopted by an organisation's top executives. Many high-ranking executives foster a culture marked by tension, fear, and anxiety. They set unrealistic short-term performance expectations, enforce overly strict controls, and routinely dismiss employees who fail to meet standards.

Job Security: During economic downturns, individuals' concerns about job security can intensify, potentially increasing their stress levels. In the face of intense economic shifts and related strains, structured work environments are evolving. Actions such as restructurings, acquisitions, amalgamations, workforce reductions, and other alterations

can serve as significant stress inducers for staff members as firms endeavour to maintain their competitiveness (Kumari & Saradadevi, 2016). Hemanalini (2014) conducted an investigation into the stress triggers impacting women in the textile sector's operational milieu and found that job instability was the predominant stressor for most women.

New Technology: Technological advancements are influencing workplace stress in various ways. The rapid advancement of technology, encompassing computers, mobile devices, fax machines, pagers, and the internet, has escalated expectations for productivity, speed, and effectiveness, thereby imposing an additional burden on individual employees to maintain peak performance consistently. Those tasked with operating heavy machinery are persistently subjected to stress to remain vigilant. Consequently, this constant stress permeates into the lives of their family members as well. Furthermore, the relentless demand to stay abreast with technological progress and innovations necessitates employees to perpetually acquire knowledge of new software (Kumari & Saradadevi, 2016). For example, an employee trained in older methods may find the stress levels increased by a supervisor trained in the latest techniques. Technological innovations can render an employee's skills and experience obsolete in a short period. Computers, robotics, automation, and similar technological innovations can pose a threat to many employees, potentially causing stress. Moreover, for small business owners, the computer serves as a vital link to the marketplace (Burley et al., 2022). Through the internet, organisations can compete globally. Staying current with software and system advancements is crucial for success. Often, system upgrades or costly add-ons are necessary, causing significant stress related to learning the new product and finding ways to accommodate it within the budget.

Furthermore, a significant portion of the stress associated with technology stems from its constant availability. Prior to the advent of email, mobile phones, and the internet, employees could leave their work at the office and go home without being followed by work. Now, employees can be connected to their work around the clock, if permitted. Regardless of the nature of an employee's business, technology has transformed every company into a 24-hour operation. Customers have become increasingly selective, and to keep them satisfied, managers must be available at all times, potentially 24 hours a day. Both managers and employees could be accessible day and night, and many of their customers may need to contact them outside of traditional business hours. Stress levels can rise when there is no opportunity for rest.

2.1.2.2 Work Environment Stressors

The concept under discussion pertains to any elements within a professional or organisational setting that yield negative outcomes for an individual, such as unsuitable work conditions, insufficient tools or resources, and perilous circumstances (Mosadeghrad, 2014). The women in the study were subjected to potential risks and harmful substances in their work environments. For instance, they noted that the "road noise often interfered with their tasks as it hindered 'auditory comprehension'". The women also mentioned that the "workplace furniture, such as chairs, impacted their spinal health". It is plausible to infer that the elevated noise levels and inappropriate furniture in the work environment may have added to these women's stress experiences at work. The current findings align with those of other researchers in diverse industrial contexts (Belojevic et al., 2003; Lee, 2002), indicating that the physical aspects of office environments contribute to stress.

Work Conditions: The significance of individual variances should not be overlooked, Empirical evidence suggests that specific occupational conditions can induce stress in a significant proportion of individuals. This substantiates the need for an intensified emphasis on work environments as the main origin of job-induced stress, and job redesign as a crucial preventative measure (Kumari & Saradadevi, 2016). Thorough investigations into work environments, inclusive of those recognised as stress-inducing factors, were conducted in the nations of the European Union in the years 1990, 1995, and 2000 (EASHW, 2014). The results unveiled a chronological pattern of increasing work intensity. In 1990, nearly half of the workforce reported operating at high velocities for at least one-fourth of their working hours, a figure that escalated to 54 per cent in 1995 and 56 per cent in 2000. In a similar vein, the proportion of employees claiming to work under tight deadlines for at least one-fourth of their working hours rose from 50 per cent in 1990 to 56 per cent in 1995 and 60 per cent in 2000. Gibbons and Gibbons (2007) conducted a study on the stress levels of chefs in their professional environment. The study involved a group of 40 chefs from various cook associations and hotels in Northern Ireland. A comprehensive health survey was developed to identify the factors contributing to stress and the experience of stress. The study employed regression analysis to determine the relationship between locus of control and occupational stress. The findings revealed no significant disparity in the number of working conditions such as job contracts, job descriptions, and stress.

Physical Environment: This pertains to the physical conditions of the workplace, which may include excessive noise, extreme lighting conditions, unpleasant odours, heat, poor ventilation, and other sensory stimuli that can influence a worker's mood and overall mental health. Furthermore, a poorly designed office layout, with staff who need

regular interaction scattered, can lead to ineffective communication networks and poor working relationships, thereby causing stress among employees.

Insufficient Resources: The lack of adequate resources for employees to perform their tasks can induce stress (Flanagan, 2006). For instance, financial limitations can cause significant stress to employees within organisations. Workplace stress may be influenced by several factors such as (a) the volatility of investors who have the capacity to swiftly withdraw their financial support from corporate shares; (b) the lack of presence of trade and professional associations within the work environment; (c) the rivalry between companies as a result of worldwide competition; and (d) the willingness of corporations to expeditiously dismiss staff members in reaction to variable business circumstances (Primm, 2005).

Role within the Organisation: Clearly defined roles and expectations within an organisation can help minimise stress. However, this is not always the case in many workplaces. Arnold et al., (2020) further elaborated on the role within the organisation to include: responsibility, role conflict, role ambiguity, and position in the workplace.

Responsibility: Within an organisation, responsibility can be categorised into two types: responsibility for people and responsibility for things such as budgets, equipment, etc. The responsibility for people often leads to stress as it requires more interaction, conflict resolution, and making difficult interpersonal decisions.

Role Conflict: Ackfeldt & Malhotra (2013) posited that role conflict emerges when the obligations and anticipations associated with an employee's role, as perceived by various stakeholders such as superiors, peers, and the organisation itself, are not aligned or congruent. Employees often experience high levels of stress when they receive conflicting demands from two superiors, leading to confusion and frustration. For

instance, employees may feel caught between two groups with differing expectations of job performance. Luthans (2002) delineated three primary forms of role conflict. The initial form is a discord between the individual and the role they are expected to perform. The second form, known as intra-role conflict, arises when there are conflicting expectations regarding the execution of a specific role. The final form, termed as inter-role conflict, is a result of the clashing demands of two or more roles that an individual is expected to fulfil concurrently. This is often observed in the clash between professional and personal roles. Luthans (2002) posits that the organisational role is paramount in the study of organisational behaviour, despite the significance of all roles men and women bring to organisations. Various roles, including digital equipment operator, clerk team leader, salesperson, engineer, systems analyst, departmental head, vice president, and board chairperson, often come with conflicting demands and expectations. The author further indicates that recent studies suggest such conflicts could adversely impact performance.

Role Ambiguity: Ackfeldt & Malhotra (2013) define role ambiguity as a circumstance where an employee perceives a lack of clarity in their role and significant information necessary to perform their work roles effectively. This occurs when employees are uncertain about their expectations at work and how their performances are assessed. In other words, employees are unsure about their place in the organisation and the rewards for their performance, regardless of its quality. Johns (2006) provides substantial evidence that role ambiguity can induce stress. The absence of direction can be stressful, particularly for individuals with low tolerance for such ambiguity. Arve and Nair (2010) deduced that role conflict contributes to the feeling of emotional exhaustion.

Position in the workplace: The position or status of an individual in the workplace can influence stress levels. Workplace stress can impact employees across all levels, from those with minimal influence to decision-makers in the company. However, employees with less power (i.e., those with less control over their jobs) are more prone to stress than their powerful counterparts. Both managers and other types of workers are susceptible to work overload (Mosadeghrad, 2014).

2.1.2.3 Interpersonal Relations Stressors

Interpersonal dynamics can lead to negative outcomes for individuals, such as experiencing bullying or harassment from supervisors, colleagues, or clients (Mosadeghrad, 2014). Traits of the individual, like over-commitment, exerting high effort at work (Murcia et al., 2013), and possessing low self-efficacy (Busch et al., 2007), have been linked to poor health perception and increased sick leave. Holmgren (2008) posits that work-related stress, resulting from unfavorable work characteristics, can be perceived as a disparity between physical and psychological job demands on one side, and personal resources like knowledge, skills, or abilities on the other (p. 15).

Workplace Disputes/Bullying: Frequent stressors for employees often include interpersonal disputes in the workplace (Couto & Lawoko, 2011). Such conflicts are seen as a sign of the wider issue of workplace harassment. Bullying at work can also add to stress levels. Dollard et al. (2019) identified five unique domains that can potentially undermine the workplace: challenges to professional standing, assaults on personal standing, feelings of seclusion, excessive workload, and destabilization, which encompasses lack of acknowledgment for one's efforts and engagement in futile tasks. These elements can cultivate an antagonistic work atmosphere, which may

subsequently influence the work principles of the employees and their input to the institution.

Workplace Relationships: Interactions with superiors, peers, and subordinates can significantly influence an employee's feelings. Akanji (2013, p. 77) suggests that "individuals with a high need for relationships perform best in stable work teams where they can establish strong bonds." It may be an overstatement to propose that someone with a high need for relationships would experience stress if they were working with a large group in a setting that does not allow for relationship building, but it is likely that their performance would suffer. Conversely, when an employee has poor relationships with their superiors, peers, and subordinates, their stress levels can rise. This is due to the significant amount of time most employees spend at work, and poor relationships can have a negative impact. It is probable that they would avoid the issue of forced closeness by limiting their interactions with others and mentally distancing themselves through various means. Many individuals prefer to keep their work relationships strictly professional, to the extent that they avoid discussing personal matters.

2.1.2.4 Individual Characteristics Stressors

Characteristics such as personal or family problems, age and experience, and career development may also cause stress to the individual.

Individual or Familial Issues: Staff members grappling with personal or familial issues often bring their concerns and apprehensions into their professional environment. A state of despondency can lead to a lack of focus or motivation, thereby impacting one's capacity to fulfill job duties. The lack of mutual emotional management within a family unit can be a persistent source of stress for women, leading to both physical and

mental exhaustion (Kumari, Saradadevi, 2016). Zarra-Nezhad et al. (2010) posited a positive correlation between occupational stress levels and familial challenges in employed women. Furthermore, Iwasaki et al. (2004) deduced that societal expectations result in women shouldering a higher degree of work-family stress than men. Tomba and Rapheileng (2013) inferred that female entrepreneurs experience more stress than their male counterparts. The struggle to allocate sufficient time for family and friends, childcare, and education are perceived as highly stressful by both male and female entrepreneurs.

Age and Experience: Vedat et al., (2004) explored the correlation between job stress scores, age, and experience, concluding that age and work experience significantly influence job stress. Glanz et al. (2008) suggested that factors such as age, gender, educational attainment, job position, and experience can impact overall stress levels. Moreover, research on natural disasters has shown that older adults perceive these events as less stressful and are less adversely affected (Knight et al, 2020). This could be attributed to improvements in emotional regulation with age and experience. Geall's (2023) study, which analysed stress levels in adults aged 20 to 70 over two decades, found that the frequency of stressful events tends to decline with age, with individuals under 30 reporting the highest stress exposure.

Career Progression: The structure of organisations has evolved to become more horizontal, with power and responsibility distributed throughout. The workforce has diversified, and job and career opportunities have become more limited. For those intent on climbing the organisational ladder, the challenge has intensified. The acquisition of new skills has become a necessity. Career progression can induce significant stress throughout an employee's professional life. Remaining stagnant is rapidly becoming an

ineffective work approach. Insecurity about job stability, fear of becoming redundant, obsolescence, and frequent performance evaluations can induce pressure and tension. Additionally, the frustration of hitting a career plateau or being promoted beyond one's capabilities can lead to stress. Montani et al. (2005) identified multiple roles, lack of career advancement, discrimination, and stereotyping as stress-inducing factors among women, confirming that women report higher stress levels than men.

2.1.3 Employee Well-Being

The significance of well-being within the workplace, a component of subjective well-being, cannot be overstated, as it profoundly impacts the welfare of employees and the sustained success of an organisation (Murat, et al., 2011). This is not just a theoretical construct, but a vital necessity, given that improvements in workplace well-being have a positive correlation with overall organisational performance (Herwanto & Ummi, 2017). It encapsulates a feeling of prosperity originating from work, which is tied to the collective emotions of the workforce (core affect) and the intrinsic and extrinsic value of the work performed (work values) (Anwarsyah & Salendu, 2012). The three main areas of research focus on employee health within organisational life are the relationship between dangerous working conditions and specific diseases, occupational stress, and the distinct correlation between illnesses and personality traits or types of work environments (Aryanti et al., 2020).

The significance of well-being in the professional environment is a predominant concern that is given priority in studies related to organisational behaviour (Wulan & Putri, 2016). The personal experiences of an individual in their workplace, whether emotional or social, have a profound influence on the individual, both within and

beyond the professional sphere. Given that employees dedicate roughly one-third of their time to their jobs, the impact of their work continues to resonate even after they depart from their workplace (De Simone, 2014). Insufficient welfare can have detrimental effects on both the employees and the organisations. Employees suffering from poor welfare may display decreased productivity, make inferior decisions, exhibit a higher tendency towards absenteeism, and consistently reduce their overall input to the organisation (De Simone, 2014).

The role of well-being in the workplace has been crucial in promoting employee involvement (Mangundjaya, 2011). It also has a substantial and positive effect on the growth of an individual's personality traits, as seen in psychological capital elements like hope, self-efficacy, resilience, and optimism (Mangundjaya, 2011). This is consistent with earlier studies suggesting that employees with high levels of well-being seem more content and display healthy physical, mental, and behavioural patterns (Kurniadewi, 2016). On the other hand, an employee's low well-being can result in decreased productivity, a drop in the quality of decision-making, and a reduction in the employee's input to the organisation (Kurniadewi, 2016). As stated earlier, well-being in the workplace is a vital element of organisational sustainability. For instance, it contributes to the organisational commitment of employees and boosts organisational performance (Mangundjaya, 2011). Elements such as demographic features, personality, organisational climate, organisational well-being, and subjective well-being play a role in employee welfare in the workplace (Burns & Machin, 2013). Additional research suggests that job demand also plays a part in workplace well-being (Herwanto & Ummi, 2017; Wulan & Putri, 2016). Furthermore, a multitude of studies highlight the importance of workplace well-being for organisational performance

(Herwanto & Ummi, 2017; Wulan & Putri, 2016). The importance of workplace well-being has led researchers to scrutinise studies centred on this subject. In this article, the author conducts a review of journals that focus on workplace well-being.

The four main themes related to workplace well-being include: the comprehension and definition of well-being within the work context, theoretical models of well-being at work, factors that mould well-being in the workplace, and the consequences of well-being in the professional milieu.

2.1.3.1 The Concept and Definition of Workplace Well-Being

The concept of well-being in the workplace is perceived as a state of prosperity derived from work, which is associated with the overall sentiments of employees (core affect) and the inherent and external work values (Aryanti et al., 2020). The core affect is characterised as a state where comfort and discomfort coexist with enthusiasm, influencing human actions (Anwarsyah & Salendu, 2012; Mangundjaya, 2011). The gathered journals exhibit commonalities in formulating an understanding of workplace well-being. The theoretical constructs used to elucidate the behavior of workplace well-being predominantly refer to the same theory, suggesting that workplace well-being is a state of prosperity derived from work, associated with the overall sentiments of employees (core affect) and inherent and external work values (Aryanti et al., 2020). Workplace well-being is grounded in the inherent and external values derived from work, drawing upon Herzberg's dual motivational theories (Aryanti et al, 2020). Organisational policies, remuneration, interpersonal relationships, working conditions, and superiors constitute the organization's external factors. Conversely, the organisation's inherent factors encompass accomplishment, recognition of

accomplishments, responsibilities, and progress. The external dimension is a dimension that pertains to elements outside of an employee's work but can influence employees at work, comprising eight aspects as follows (Mangundjaya, 2011):

a. Optimal time utilization: This aspect is characterized by employees' perception of the significance of their work time, as it establishes a balance between work and personal life (work-life balance).

b. Working Conditions: This aspect is characterized by employee satisfaction with the work environment, including working spaces and organisational culture.

c. Supervision: This aspect is characterized by the treatment of employees by their superiors, such as good treatment, provision of support and assistance when required, appropriate feedback, and recognition from superiors. Numerous studies have discovered that employees who maintain a positive relationship with their superiors tend to exhibit high well-being and low stress.

d. Promotional Opportunities: This is characterized by a work environment that facilitates professional development for employees.

e. Recognition of good performance: This is characterised by employees' perception that in their work environment, employees who demonstrate good performance receive equitable treatment.

f. Appreciation as an individual at work: This is characterised by the employee's perception that they are valued and accepted as individuals by their colleagues and superiors.

g. Wages (pay): This aspect is characterised by employee satisfaction with wages, benefits, and monetary rewards earned and the work environment.

h. Job security: This is characterised by satisfaction with security in their work position.

2.1.3.2 Modes of a Workplace Well-being

De Simone (2014) identifies three distinct frameworks of occupational well-being: subjective, eudaimonic, and social well-being.

1. **Subjective well-being:** This pertains to an individual's cumulative life experiences that mirror their level of happiness. It encompasses the evaluation of positive attitudes and experiences, as well as negative impacts. A crucial element of subjective well-being is job satisfaction, a positive emotional response derived from an assessment of one's job or personal work experiences. Organisational commitment and the emotional climate also play a significant role in subjective well-being. The purpose of positive emotions in the short run is to expand the range of one's cognitive actions, thereby enhancing long-term cognitive, social, psychological, and physical resources. Positive emotions denote levels of energy, excitement, enthusiasm, interest, gratitude, physical vitality, and cognitive alertness, and they foster social interactions. Conversely, negative emotions represent adverse mood states such as anger, anxiety, depression, fatigue, and fear.
2. **Eudaimonic well-being:** Certain elements within the realm of organisational behaviour suggest that a number of these elements align with eudaimonic well-being. These include aspects such as job involvement, work engagement, thriving, flow, intrinsic motivation, and finding purpose in work. Job involvement is characterised by a deep identification with one's work, and the role it plays in shaping one's identity and self-worth (Fisher, 2014). Work engagement, as defined

by Baker & Demerouti (2014), is a mental state linked to positive work experiences, marked by enthusiasm, commitment, and complete immersion. Thriving is perceived as a sense of vitality coupled with the conviction of personal growth, development, and progression towards self-realisation (Aryanti et al., 2020). Flow is experienced when an individual is fully engrossed in utilising their skills to advance in a demanding task. Intrinsic motivation is typically gauged as a personal experience of interest or enjoyment during task execution, which could coincide with subjective well-being. The significance of work is tied to the function of the work itself, contributing something of value and leading to self-realisation.

3. **Social well-being**: The concept of social welfare encompasses the gratification derived from interactions with colleagues and leaders in the workplace. Another pertinent construct is the provision of social support, which is bifurcated into two primary dimensions: emotional assistance and practical aid. The act of offering or receiving such support is indicative of an individual's well-being. Furthermore, an integral component of social welfare within a professional setting that could be considered is the inherent sense of community and belonging within the work environment (De Simone, 2014).

2.1.3.3 Factors that Influence Workplace Well-Being

Factors that influence workplace well-being include organisational climate, the quality of leader-subordinate interaction, job demands, personality factors and independent variables such as accountability, fair and reasonable policy, and relationship with senior management.

1. **Organisational climate**. Some of the factors that contribute to a positive organisational climate are clarity of expectations, the appropriateness between skills, knowledge, job requirements and alignment between organisational and employee values. With a positive organisational climate, individuals in the organisation will also feel positive feelings that it can bring up the workplace well-being (Chen & Cooper, 2014; Fachruddin & Mangundjaya, 2012; Murat et al., 2011).
2. **The quality of leader-subordinate interaction**. Leaders who are systematic and have emotional stability have a role in the formation of good-quality interactions between subordinate superiors. The good quality of subordinate-boss interactions ultimately increases employee psychological well-being in the workplace (Thompson & Bates, 2007).
3. **Job demands**: The findings indicate a significant impact of job demands on employee well-being within the work environment (Herwanto & Ummi, 2017; Wulan & Putri, 2016). Further investigation into factors believed to influence occupational well-being revealed job demands as a significant variable (Anwarsyah & Salendu, 2012; Wulan & Putri, 2016). Both studies concluded that job demands considerably influence teachers' occupational well-being. This implies that an escalation in job demands could foreseeably lead to a decline in workplace well-being, and the converse is also true.
4. **Personal factors**: Personal characteristics and other individual factors are acknowledged as crucial elements and significant challenges that pose a risk to the organisation, employee health, and overall well-being (Aryanti et al., 2020).

5. **Independent Variables:** such as Responsibility, Equitable and Sensible Policies, and Interactions with Upper Management are believed to exert a positive influence on the well-being within the workplace (Murat et al., 2011). The work environment could be subjected to both internal and external challenges. Internal challenges comprise of job-related stress, subjugation, harassment, disputes, and instances of loss, sorrow, and trauma within the workplace. External challenges that infiltrate the workplace encompass health-related problems, utilization of prohibited substances, familial issues, and sensations of loss, sorrow, and trauma.

Moreover, joint issues like discrimination and undesirable life aspects can influence employee well-being (Chen & Cooper, 2014). The ecological perspective adopts an all-encompassing standpoint, recognising the impact of biological, psychological, environmental, and socio-cultural elements on health. The bio-ecological model considers both the physical and social milieu as vital for fostering health: the physical dimensions include geographical location, architectural design, and technological advancements, whereas the social milieu relates to the cultural, economic, and political forces in operation (Bone, 2015).

2.1.3.4 The Impact of Workplace Well-Being

The impact of workplace well-being includes:

1. **Employee performance** Investigations carried out to ascertain the influence of well-being in the workplace on the performance of teachers reveal a notable correlation between the two, particularly in the context of elementary teachers (Herwanto & Ummi, 2017). The correlation coefficient between the variables of workplace well-being and teacher performance stands at -0.855, indicating that a

decrease in the former results in a corresponding decrease in the latter, and vice versa. This serves as evidence that individual performance is significantly affected by the level of well-being in the workplace (Herwanto & Ummi, 2017). The next equation is about the research respondents who used the subject of the research are teachers (Herwanto & Ummi, 2017; Aryanti et al., 2020; Wulan & Putri, 2016). The results of this study note that the well-being in the workplace, especially of teachers, influences the teacher's performance. The differences found in the journals collected are in terms of subjects where there are other research subjects (employees) (Slemp et al, 2015; Sadida & Fitria, 2018) including nurses (Jarden et al., 2018).

2. **Psychological capital** Well-being also contributes positively and significantly to the emergence of a person's personality characteristics that is reflected in psychological capital namely hope, self-efficacy, resilience, and optimism (Mangundjaya, 2011; Kurniadewi, 2016; Fachruddin & Mangundjaya, 2012).
3. **Staff involvement.** The findings from the research conducted by Mangundjaya (2011), Kurniadewi (2016), and Fachruddin and Mangundjaya (2012) suggest that the well-being of employees in the workplace contributes to the development of positive attitudes, such as employee engagement. Subsequent research has explored the impact of workplace well-being on employee engagement, incorporating the variable of psychological capital (Mangundjaya, 2011; Kurniadewi, 2016). One study posits that workplace well-being influences psychological capital (Mangundjaya, 2011), while another proposes that psychological capital predicts employee engagement (Kurniadewi, 2016; Kimber & Gardner, 2016). The collective findings of these studies indicate that workplace well-being fosters

positive attitudes (employee engagement). However, the studies differ in their positioning of the workplace well-being variable, suggesting that it not only impacts certain aspects or variables but is also affected by them.

4. **Corporate culture**. A work environment where leaders display optimism for the future, communicate compassionately, and exhibit forgiveness when necessary, can foster supportive leader-employee relationships and a nurturing work community. These relationships and communities serve as social resources that can enhance employee happiness at work (Williams et al., 2015).

The sentiment of satisfaction and fulfilment derived from one's profession, referred to as occupational well-being, is closely linked to the overall feelings of employees and both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. Theoretical frameworks of occupational well-being incorporate elements of social, eudaimonic, and subjective well-being within the professional environment (Aryanti et al., 2020). Various factors contribute to occupational well-being, such as the organisational atmosphere, the quality of relationships between managers and their staff, job requirements, individual personality traits, the nature of the work setting, concepts of health and welfare, work-related challenges, issues imported into the professional environment, and occupational stress. The influence of occupational well-being extends to numerous areas, including work output, psychological resources, and employee involvement. It is widely accepted that the improvement of occupational well-being is a duty that can have a positive impact on the overall effectiveness of the workplace (Warr, 2007). Workplace well-being can influence an individual's mindset towards maximizing work performance and realizing personal potential (Mangundjaya, 2011). The concept of workplace well-being applies subjective and psychological well-being to construct the notion of

employee health. Subjective well-being, a positive mental state encompassing all life experiences, includes life satisfaction, positive effect, and negative effect (Herwanto & Ummi, 2017; Kurniadewi, 2016).

2.1.4 Employee Work Performance

The effectiveness with which an individual fulfills their job obligations and tasks is what constitutes employee performance. Numerous businesses evaluate their staff's performance on a yearly or quarterly basis to identify areas requiring enhancement and to promote continued achievement in areas that meet or surpass expectations. The work performance of an employee is defined by the actual tasks they complete, and it also relates to the caliber and volume of work they generate in line with their assigned responsibilities (Salas-Vallina & Fernandez, 2017). Performance, as posited by Al Mehrzi and Singh (2016), is the gauge of a person's comprehensive success in task execution over a defined time frame, compared to various standards such as work norms, objectives, or collectively agreed upon benchmarks. Furthermore, Yang et al. (2016) argue that performance essentially includes the actions employees undertake or choose not to. Performance management involves all initiatives directed towards improving an organisation's performance, inclusive of the performance of every individual and team within the entity. Shmailan (2016) asserts that the activities carried out by employees in fulfilling the organisation's tasks constitute employee performance. The effectiveness in carrying out these tasks is not independent, but is invariably connected to job satisfaction, the extent of reward received, and is influenced by individual competencies, capabilities, and traits (Andreas, 2022).

The outcomes of an organisation's performance are a reflection of the actions executed by its employees, which are based on their proficiency and capabilities. Within the context of an organisation, the collective performance of employees is the aggregate of their skills, exertions, and abilities, all of which contribute to enhancing the productivity of the organisation and facilitating the attainment of its objectives. An increase in organisational performance signifies progress towards goal realisation, albeit necessitating an escalation in the performance of employees (Ellinger et al., 2003). The performance of employees is a pivotal element that significantly influences the success of an organisation. Learning institutions significantly contribute to the improvement of employee performance through the provision of employee training and development (Gitongu et al, 2016). Furthermore, the establishment of management standards for assessing employee performance is crucial in enhancing performance, as they offer a clear depiction of actual performance and its correlation with set benchmarks. In instances where inconsistencies are detected, these standards serve as a guide to realign outputs to their necessary levels (Mackay et al, 2004). The performance of employees is also influenced by their job satisfaction. When employees derive satisfaction from their jobs and the institution, they exhibit a heightened interest in contributing positively towards the achievement of organisational objectives (Dahkoul, 2018; Harter et al., 2002).

Assessing employee performance is considered the paramount yardstick in the realm of human resource administration (Organ & Paine, 1999). The scrutiny and interpretation of this facet are crucial for a multitude of organisational processes, encompassing staff recruitment, compensation and incentives, and professional development. Irrespective of the purpose of the assessment, establishments necessitate

accurate performance evaluations, and it is even more advantageous if these evaluations can be accomplished with minimal expenditure of time and resources (DeNisi & Murphy, 2017).

2.1.4.1 Dimensionality of Work Performance

Rotundo and Sackett (2002) put forth the idea that work performance is tri-dimensional, incorporating task performance, contextual performance, and counterproductive work behaviour. This notion is mirrored by Campbell and Wiernik (2015), who view work performance as a construct, made up of behaviours that employees can control and that advance the organisation's goals. They emphasise that performance is a set of behaviours, not the elements that mould these behaviours or their outcomes. This broad definition is designed to accommodate the substantial variations in work performance across diverse roles (Aguinis, 2013) and temporal changes (Sackett & Lievens, 2008). Despite these variations, there is a consensus on the multidimensional nature of performance (Dalal et al., 2012). Additional dimensions, such as safety performance (Burke et al., 2011) and adaptive performance (Pulakos et al., 2000), have been proposed. Sackett and Lievens (2008) re-emphasise the three core domains of work performance: task performance, contextual performance, and counterproductive work behaviour. These dimensions, taken together, provide a concise yet thorough framework for comprehending overall work performance (Dalal et al., 2012).

Task performance: This term is associated with "actions that aid in the creation of a product or the delivery of a service" (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002, p. 67). The execution of duties varies significantly across diverse occupations, is typically specific to the role, and is frequently incorporated in the job specification (Aguinis, 2013, Morf et al.,

2017). Owing to its intrinsic link to fundamental job tasks, it is arduous to devise universal models for task performance, thus necessitating the employment of context-specific ones. For instance, Salgado and Cabal (2011) developed an assessment of performance for public sector employees, contingent on their level of responsibility. Among roles of high and low stature, merely two out of the five task performance metrics were shared: technical proficiency and productivity (taking into account both volume and quality). Koopmans et al. (2011) advanced towards a universal model by incorporating indicators of task performance such as completion of job tasks, upkeep of current knowledge, precision and neatness in work, planning and coordination, and problem resolution, among others.

Contextual Performance: Also known as Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB), Contextual Performance is characterised as actions that fortify an organisation's goals by enhancing its social and psychological environment (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002, pp. 67-68). It encompasses activities that surpass the boundaries of job responsibilities, such as taking the initiative, being proactive, demonstrating cooperation, and showing enthusiasm (Koopmans et al., 2011). In contrast to task performance, contextual performance aids in the smooth operation of the organisation, albeit without directly impacting employee productivity (MacKenzie et al, 1991). The demarcation between task and contextual performance has been further solidified by subsequent studies, including those by Hoffman, Blair, Meriac and Woehr (2007). The multi-faceted nature of contextual performance has also been examined. For instance, Viswesvaran and Ones (2017) suggested two dimensions: behaviours targeting the organisation (e.g., proposing enhancements) and those focusing on individuals (e.g., assisting others). More extensive studies have indicated that multi-dimensional

approaches are best understood as indicators of a general, latent, single-dimensional construct (Hoffman et al., 2007; Lepine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002).

Counterproductive work behaviour is defined as "deliberate actions that detrimentally affect the welfare of an organisation" (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002, p. 69). It encompasses behaviours such as deviating from assigned tasks, presenteeism, voicing complaints, intentionally executing tasks improperly, and abusing privileges, among others (Koopmans et al., 2011). These aberrant behaviours are associated with negative consequences at both the individual (Aubé et al., 2009) and organisational (Rogers & Kelloway, 1997) levels. Despite the substantial correlation between counterproductive work behaviour and contextual performance, Dalal's (2005) meta-analysis revealed that each aspect possesses its unique identity and sphere. Within the realm of counterproductive work behaviour, a two-dimensional structure is discernible (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Sackett & DeVore, 2001), which includes deviant behaviours directed towards individuals (e.g., disseminating gossip about coworkers) and organisations (e.g., chronic absenteeism). Nevertheless, recent empirical studies on counterproductive work behaviour illustrate examples of both unidimensional (Baloch et al., 2017; Navarro-Carrillo, Beltrán-Morillas et al, 2018; Rehman & Shahnawaz, 2018) and multidimensional approaches (Bragg & Bowling, 2018; Fernández del Río et al, 2018; Fine & Edward, 2017).

2.1.4.2. Lecturers Work Performance

The performance of academic staff, particularly lecturers, has been the focus of various research studies (Alfagira et al., 2017; Onoyase, 2017; McCarthy, 2015; Victor & Babatunde, 2014). Onoyase (2017) characterized lecturers' work performance in terms

of the outcome-dimension, defining it as the degree to which educators fulfil the anticipated educational outcomes. Victor and Babatunde (2014) further elaborated on this by stating that lecturers' work performance is gauged by how effectively they fulfil their teaching duties, which encompass lecture preparation, research, and community service. McCarthy (2015) emphasized that lecture planning involves the strategic selection and organisation of relevant course content, with the aim of covering the necessary subject matter within the allocated time. McCarthy (2015) also highlighted that effective lesson planning requires the identification of suitable teaching materials and instructional methods to ensure student engagement and achievement of learning objectives.

Moreover, the work performance of lecturers extends to delivering lectures as per the schedule, assessing students through coursework, tests, and exams, and submitting their grades for final evaluation and accreditation (Igbojekwe et al., 2015). It also includes guiding research students through their proposals, projects, and dissertations (Ddungu, 2017), as well as conducting research and disseminating findings through academic publications or textbooks (Kakulu, 2016). Furthermore, lecturers' performance is reflected in their participation in community service activities such as public scholarship, community partnership, and civil literacy scholarship (Ddungu, 2018a). Despite the extensive literature on lecturers' work performance, there is a lack of focus on its relationship with stress and well-being, particularly for women lecturers in managerial positions in Ghana's public universities. This highlights the need for research on how stress impacts the well-being and work performance of women lecturers in managerial positions within the Ghanaian context.

2.1.5 Institutional Stress Management Systems

People may attempt to alleviate stress by enhancing their time management skills, ranking tasks based on their significance and urgency, and planning activities in accordance with the established priorities. A survey of the stress management techniques used by workers to handle their stress revealed that a significant majority employ self-care methods (AIS, 2022). While this is beneficial, it does not tackle the root cause of the stress. Stress management programmes would be advantageous not only for the employees but also for the organisation in the long term. Robbins (2004) suggests that stress can be managed through two strategies: individual and organisational. The organisational strategy for stress management encompasses employee training programmes, ensuring effective communication within the organisation, and enhancing personal policies such as attractive welfare packages, incentives, and pension schemes. A well-designed job that improves the physical work environment and provides technical support to employees is essential. Furthermore, management should offer more flexible working hours and indoor and outdoor recreational facilities.

Fevre et al. (2006) broadly categorise stress management interventions (SMIs) as "any deliberate action undertaken to lessen or mitigate the stress experienced by individuals in the performance of their work duties" (p. 548). According to Fevre and his colleagues, Lamontagne et al. (2007), and Akanji (2013), there are three types of SMIs – Primary, Secondary, and Tertiary.

Primary interventions, considered as organisational best practices, are strategies aimed at mitigating, altering, or eradicating stressful occupational demands that adversely affect health and performance. These may encompass work restructuring to

remove stress triggers, labor adaptability measures, and a corporate culture that values employee health. Secondary interventions, on the other hand, are intended to aid employees in coping with occupational stress. These may involve wellness initiatives, coordinated social gatherings, availability of leisure facilities, and stress control training and development. Tertiary interventions, which are therapeutic in nature, are designed to support employees already exhibiting signs of illness or other adverse effects of work stress. Corrective measures such as therapy, employee support programmes, rehabilitation sessions, and injury compensation claims are included in this category. However, several SMI reviewers, including Ackfeldt & Malhotra (2013), have raised concerns about the degree to which secondary and tertiary interventions remain the predominant stress reduction strategies employed by organisations. Biron (2012), backed by Akanji (2013) and Ganesh et al. (2018), underscored that the negative expenses linked with diminished performance, absenteeism, sickness, and employee turnover far outweigh the investment cost of maintaining a healthy, present, and well workforce through the implementation of primary SMIs. Consequently, this review advocates that organisations should primarily concentrate on stress prevention that could potentially eradicate severe stressors, which are invariably detrimental.

The ways in which stress is handled and reacted to differ between genders, with a majority of stress-related research focusing on females. The success of these women in managing the identified stressors is contingent upon the coping mechanisms or strategies they employ (Kim, 2007). They utilized methods such as rationalization, self-care, rational cognitive coping, social support, and recreational activities to mitigate or conquer their stress (Olga & Steptoe, 2002). For instance, despite acknowledging that they undertook tasks beneath their capabilities and lacked sufficient resources and

training in the study by Steptoe and Friends, their rationalization acted as a coping strategy that seemed to diminish the impact of the stressors. Research conducted by Sveinsdottir et al., (2005), and Parveen (2009) in this field indicates the necessity of preventive measures to combat stress. It is suggested that managers should foster the development of female skills and attitudes. They also proposed that an ecosystem approach, focusing on individual, organisational, and societal interventions, should be employed to reduce occupational stress among working women. They further proposed that offering improved health benefits and training on effective stress management could alleviate stress.

Moreover, despite the immense stressors faced by women in managerial roles in Ghana, many organisations fail to recognise that the women themselves contribute to these issues; they silently continue their work using various rudimentary coping strategies. Therefore, employers should establish policies to alleviate the stress these women face, enabling them to diligently perform their duties. Specifically, counsellors and Human Resource Managers should take the lead in discussing job descriptions, performance expectations, and potential risks or hazards that employees will need to manage (Roberts, 2014). “Managers can identify stress in the workplace by discovering work stress complications, by checking frequently the employee’s health and work fulfillment. They can also prevent stress by ascertaining that employees know where to turn to when they face such problems and following up on their recovery if health issues arise” (Ahmed, 2022, p.2).

Lovelace and colleagues (2007) advocate for an interdisciplinary approach that enriches the literature on leadership development by proposing a forward-thinking method for leaders to handle the taxing demands of contemporary work settings.

Lovelace et al. (2007) observe that leaders operate in extremely stressful conditions, yet scant attention has been given to leadership development initiatives aimed at stress management at work. They propose that practices of self-leadership and shared leadership can equip leaders to handle intense job demands and enhance sustained job control. They scrutinized the impact of high-stress jobs, delineated the results of active jobs, underscored physical fitness as a crucial tactic, and identified flow as an inherent result of self-leadership and shared leadership. They contend that the benefits of fitness and flow, which are inherent in self-leadership and shared leadership, foster healthy rejuvenation and heightened engagement, and are therefore crucial for a leader's capacity to handle work stress and foster an active work atmosphere. Their interdisciplinary model provides a forward-thinking method for leaders to handle the taxing demands of contemporary work settings (Swathi & Reddy, 2016; ILO, 2018).

Claude and Cole (2012) proposed that to effectively handle work-related stress, management should contemplate providing work that permits some personal discretion in its execution and the order in which it is performed; promoting employees' involvement in decision-making processes that impact them; setting clear objectives and targets and offering sufficient performance feedback; thoroughly inducting new hires; viewing training as a continuous updating process; consistently rewarding effective output; addressing performance gaps when they occur; offering opportunities for employees to experiment with new roles and varied tasks; designing jobs to maintain even work pressures; promoting team working procedures and congenial work relations; providing secure and equitable personal practices; ensuring a hazard-free work environment. This suggests that if the strategies and measures outlined above are

meticulously implemented, they could significantly reduce the stress levels of employees, thereby enhancing their performance.

2.1.6 Mediating Effect of Well-being on Stress and Work Performance

Individuals' perception and tolerance of stress differ significantly, with some thriving under pressure and others struggling with the "eleventh-hour syndrome" (Krishnan, 2014). Krishnan (2014) further elaborates on the substantial toll excessive stress can take on individuals, organisations, and society as a whole. A considerable number of employees may experience anxiety disorders or illnesses related to stress. In terms of productivity, it's projected that each employee affected by stress, anxiety, or depression forfeits approximately 16 workdays annually. For the purpose of this analysis, stress will be viewed solely as a detrimental factor and will be examined within the confines of the workplace environment.

The degree of stress experienced according to Burnes et al (2004) depends on three functioning protective physiological mechanisms/response stages namely alarm reaction, resistance stage, and exhaustion stage. However, Michie (2002) recognises two stages, namely the alarm stage and adaptation stages with the first being the same as Barnes and friends' stage and the last being different. Thus, the following process:

ALARM REACTION ⟶ **RESISTANCE/ADAPTION** ⟶ **EXHAUSTION**

The Alarm Reaction: When faced with a danger to our well-being, our initial reaction is a physical one: our bodies stiffen, and our respiration and pulse quicken. This reaction is beneficial when the danger is a literal charging bull in a pasture, prompting us to either combat or escape. However, the threats we encounter today are often more psychological, such as unwarranted verbal assaults from a superior in the workplace.

It's typically not socially acceptable to respond with "fight or flight", necessitating an alternative outlet for the ensuing emotional and physical energy. This is where assertive communication comes into play.

The Resistance or Adaptation Stage: The body is faced with the decision to either 'combat or escape'. It strives to augment resources to facilitate maximum adjustment and, ideally, a triumphant restoration of balance for the person. However, if the protective system is ineffective or unable to manage, it results in the progression to the third phase, known as Exhaustion.

The Exhaustion Stage: The final phase, being the third, is reached when the body's resources are completely exhausted, leading to an inability to sustain normal operations. Symptoms associated with the autonomic nervous system, such as perspiration and elevated heart rate, may resurface. If this third stage is prolonged, it could lead to lasting harm due to the exhaustion of the body and immune system, culminating in functional deterioration and eventual breakdown. This could manifest in the form of noticeable diseases like ulcers, depression, diabetes, or even heart-related issues, among other health conditions.

2.1.6.1 Effects of Stress on Well-Being

The concept of well-being, denoted by various terms in psychological studies, significantly influences health outcomes. It encompasses more positive emotions and fewer negative ones. However, the dimensions of this concept vary according to a multitude of theories and viewpoints. Despite efforts by universities and other institutions to enhance staff well-being and positivity, knowledge on how to achieve this remains scarce (Alharbi & Smith, 2018).

1. The pervasive notion that "work is dreadful" is widespread. Ahmed's (2022) report on the State of the Global Workplace, published on Wednesday, 15th June 2022, revealed heightened stress levels among employees. The study revealed that a significant 60% of employees experienced a sense of "emotional detachment" in their workplace, with a further 19% regularly suffering from "misery." These statistics exceeded those recorded in 2020, a year that set a new high in the proportion of workers expressing daily stress. The analysis underscored the disturbingly low levels of global employee engagement and well-being, which are obstructing considerable opportunities for growth. A scant 9% of the global workforce can be described as "thriving and engaged", while the bulk (57%) are "unengaged and not thriving". This has precipitated a notable worldwide decline in the general well-being of workers, especially in South Asia and Europe. A mere 11% of South Asian workers and 47% of European workers perceive their overall life quality as "thriving." Even within the group of "most engaged" workers in the United States and Canada, a mere 33% reported a sense of engagement in their work. Despite high engagement levels, workers in the U.S. and Canada are the most stressed globally. Workers in Australia and New Zealand reported the highest quality of life, yet 63% of respondents claimed they were "flourishing, and 71% of respondents in the U.S. and Canada believe that it is now a good time to look for a different job (Ahmed, 2022).
2. Work-related stress is considered the most significant occupational health issue in the United Kingdom (UK), following musculoskeletal disorders like back problems (WorkStressUK, 2016). Stress-related illnesses and absences cost approximately £4 billion annually. Carr, et al. (2011) explored strategies for fostering a healthier and

more productive environment and discovered that stress adversely impacts employees' health and performance. They also found that stress symptoms could be mental, physical, behavioural, and emotional. Cooper and Blackwell (2004) noted that stress manifests in various ways. For example, a highly stressed individual may develop conditions like high blood pressure and ulcers. These can be classified into three general categories: Physiological, Psychological, and Behavioural symptoms, discussed below:

3. Behavioural effects of stress: Behavioural indicators of stress include changes in eating habits, smoking, alcohol and drug use, rapid speech, and nervous fidgeting, which can lead to work absenteeism and job-hopping, thereby deteriorating performance. Blumenthal (2003) suggested that behavioural effects contribute to accident proneness, impaired speech, restlessness, and forgetfulness.
4. Physiological effects of stress: Blumenthal (2003) stated that physiological responses originate in the brain and affect organs throughout the body. Catecholamine from the adrenal medulla prompts kidneys to increase blood pressure, and the liver releases sugar into the bloodstream. The pituitary gland stimulates the release of corticosteroids, which aid in stress resistance but can suppress the immune system if present for an extended period. These responses are adaptive for dealing with stress in the form of "fight or flight," but this response is rarely useful in urban work areas. The accumulation of stress products in the body suppresses the immune system, contributing to degenerative processes and diseases. Physical symptoms that may occur due to physiological stress include fatigue, headache, upset stomach, muscular aches and pains, weight gain or loss, chronic illness, and sleep disturbances. These are metabolic changes that accompany

stressors. The symptoms include increased heart rate, blood pressure, etc. With this, the wear and tear on the body become noticeable and problematic. The effects of this are back pains, migraine headaches, insomnia, heart disease, hypertension, diabetes, and even cancer which affect employees' performance. Those in blue-collar or manual labour jobs are more likely to develop heart disease compared to those in white-collar jobs (Dwamena, 2012).

5. Psychological effects of stress: High stress levels and poor health threaten employees' health. Like physical symptoms, psychological symptoms can also cause employees' work performance to deteriorate, according to Cooper and Blackwell (2004). This is also known as the subjective effect and leads to anxiety, depression, frustration, fatigue, anger, nervousness, irritability, aggressiveness, and boredom, resulting in low employee performance, low self-esteem, resentment of supervision, inability to concentrate, trouble in making decisions, and job dissatisfaction (Blumenthal, 2003). Moreover, the psychological symptoms of stress can lead to burnout. Job burnout is a prolonged withdrawal from work, causing the sufferer to devalue their work and view it as a source of dissatisfaction.

Prolonged exposure to stress has profound and detrimental effects on health. Stress is implicated in the onset of various health conditions such as asthma, amenorrhea, coronary heart disease, chest discomfort, diarrhoea, dyspepsia, headaches, migraines, diabetes mellitus, ulcers, and diminished sexual drive, among other potential complications. In an era where the prevalence of AIDS is alarmingly high, it is crucial to understand that stress can suppress the immune system. This suppression makes individuals with HIV more susceptible to potential infections and diseases. These may include Depression, characterized by frequent feelings of loneliness, dissatisfaction,

despondency, low energy, and loss of sexual interest; Anger, marked by frequent loss of temper, annoyance, irritation, criticism of others, and anger over trivial matters; Cognitive disturbance, often manifested as difficulty in remembering or concentrating, and experiencing a blank mind; Suicide, the potential act of ending one's life; Anxiety, and frequent upset or sour stomach (Dar et al., 2011).

2.1.7 Moderating Effect of Institutional Stress Management Systems on Stress, Well-being and Work Performance

The strain of physical and mental demands surpassing an individual's capabilities has been identified as a risk factor for chronic stress, particularly among women. This is especially true when there is a lack of control over work schedules, leading to increased self-reported stress and a higher likelihood of taking sick leave (Ala-Mursula et al., 2005). The repercussions of occupational stress on work performance and the wider economy are substantial. It can significantly undermine workers' overall productivity, affecting both their efficiency and precision (Lovelace et al., 2007). Occupational stress accounts for roughly 40% of employee turnover and half of all absences from work. The annual financial burden of work-related stress and its consequences in the US is estimated to exceed 60 billion for employers and between 250 and 300 billion for the economy (ILO, 2016).

Elevated stress levels can also lead to increased absenteeism, higher turnover rates, more accidents, deteriorating physical and mental health, poor job quality, and reduced performance. Absenteeism has become a significant issue in industrialized nations due to its economic implications. For example, data on sickness absence indicates that the US industry loses approximately 550 million working days (3-7%)

annually, while in the UK, this figure stands at 3.7% of the total working days (Rhenen et al, 2007). Johansson and Abrahamsson (2018) argued that issues in the working environment should be viewed as production problems to realize economic benefits. Gray-Stanley et al. (2010) suggested that those involved in occupational health and employee medical expenses are starting to acknowledge the immense hidden costs of stress.

Research exploring the effects of work-related stress on organisational outcomes has uncovered several associated behaviours that impact performance, competitiveness, and the company's public image. For instance, a poor psychosocial work environment that contributes to work stress can lead to increased absenteeism and presenteeism, decreased motivation, satisfaction, and commitment, and a higher rate of employee turnover and intention to leave (Vahtera et al., 2000). All these factors can result in negative human, social, and financial costs. Absenteeism has been extensively studied due to its common occurrence and the associated costs to businesses and society, while presenteeism has received less attention (Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005).

Mathis and Jackson (2000) proposed that the evaluation of an organisation's human resource performance necessitates the consideration of unit labour cost or the total labour cost per unit of output. They further posited that an individual's performance is influenced by three elements:

a. capacity to perform the task;

b. degree of exertion; and

c. the assistance provided to the individual.

The principles widely acknowledged in organisational theory propose that Performance (P) is the outcome of Ability (A), Effort (E), and Support (S), that is, (P =

A x E x S). The absence or reduction of any of these components results in a decline in performance. The significance of evaluating the standard of production as an aspect of performance is emphasised, as one strategy could be to augment quantity at the cost of quality. As articulated by Chase et al. (2008), performance is assessed by the outputs produced per labour hour. Nevertheless, this measure does not assure profitability, particularly when surplus output remains unsold and builds up as inventory. To determine if performance has been enhanced, questions such as 'Has the action taken increased output or decreased inventory?' and 'Has the action taken reduced operational costs?' should be asked. This leads to a refined definition: Performance includes all actions that drive a company towards its goals. Mathis and Jackson (2000) defined performance as an evaluation of the volume and standard of work completed, considering the cost of the resources used.

However, individual reactions to identical work differ due to personal factors that also influence stress. For example, type A personalities, who are driven by work and feel obligated to be timely and meet deadlines, usually expose themselves to more stress than others (Desseler, 2000). This is further reinforced by Eatough et al. (2011), who emphasised that the interaction between work and personal lives and how individuals handle work-related stress is a complex issue. Blumenthal (2003) employed an inverted U-shaped curve to demonstrate the effect of stress on performance, indicating that performance escalates with increasing stress, but after a certain point, performance reaches its peak and starts to deteriorate. This suggests that while stress can boost performance, it becomes harmful and counterproductive when it escalates to a level of severe discomfort. Blumenthal (2003) further argued that excessive stress is detrimental, destructive, and undermines human well-being and performance. Stress

can impact an individual's well-being by causing dysfunction or disruption in various areas, which can permeate into the organisational sphere and lead to decreased productivity (Muhammad and Kishwar, 2019).

Frost (2003) posits that such type of agony manifests in individuals through a reduced sense of self-esteem, and a loss of confidence and optimism, which can be detrimental to both performance and morale. The tangible repercussions of this include a decrease in profits due to factors such as reduced productivity or even a large-scale departure. Furthermore, Frost (2003) suggests that aside from the financial implications of employees leaving, actions such as retaliation, sabotage, theft, vandalism, withdrawal tendencies, discussions with friends and family, or generally exhibiting cynicism or distrust can all contribute to direct or indirect financial burdens on the organisation. To conclude, Frost (2003) asserts that if leaders within an organisation can identify and address emotional distress as it arises, they could potentially reverse situations in the workplace that could otherwise be fatal.

Throughout the years, the scientific community has extensively studied the impact of psychosocial hazards on organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, motivation, commitment, and the propensity to resign, as these are deemed as key indicators of individual and organisational performance. The significance of job satisfaction as a determinant of workers' health, well-being, and performance has been underscored (Faragher et al., 2005). Comprehensive research supports the conclusions drawn from smaller studies, highlighting that job satisfaction is influenced by psychosocial hazards such as extended work hours, job demands, limited opportunities for career progression and promotion, unsatisfactory work relationships, emotional fatigue, burnout, conflict between work and family, and exposure to workplace bullying

and harassment. These hazards are further intensified by work-related stress (Mosadeghrad et al., 2011; Chung & Kowalski, 2012; Kazi & Haslam, 2013). Moreover, work-related stress and job dissatisfaction negatively affect workers' motivation and commitment, thereby increasing their likelihood to resign. There is substantial evidence indicating that the inclination to leave a job is associated with work stress (Tominaga et al, 2007; Yeh & Yu, 2009; Ofili et al., 2009, Bonsdorff, 2010).

In contrast, relationships that provide support indirectly contribute to the reduction of stress and the intention to leave a job by influencing the perception of stress, while communication relevant to the job directly impacts the intention to leave (Kim & Lee, 2009). The direct and indirect expenses associated with this are only now starting to be calculated. However, certain developed nations are beginning to evaluate the economic consequences of work-induced stress, related behavioural tendencies, and health issues. For instance, the annual cost of depression related to work in Europe is estimated to be €617 billion. This figure encompasses the costs of absenteeism and presenteeism (€272 billion) borne by employers, productivity loss (€242 billion), healthcare expenses (€63 billion), and social welfare costs in the form of disability benefits (€39 billion) (Matrix Insight, 2012). On a national scale, Safe Work Australia (SWA) approximated that the annual cost of work-related stress to Australian society was AU $5.3 billion in 2008/2009. This amount includes costs incurred due to production interruptions and medical expenses (SWA, 2015).

Furthermore, the economic burden of depressive disorders on Australian businesses is substantial, with an estimated annual cost of AU $8 billion due to employee absenteeism and reduced productivity. This figure includes AU $693 million attributed to occupational stress and harassment (SWA, 2015). Similarly, Canadian

employers faced an estimated annual cost of CA $20 billion due to health-related issues, as reported in a 2011 study (Andersen et al., 2012). The economic burden of occupational stress in France was estimated to range from €1.9 to €3 billion in 2007. This estimation included the cost of medical care (€124–199 million), employee absenteeism (€826–1,284 million), loss of activity (€756–1,235 million), and productivity decline due to premature death (€166–279 million) (Trontin et al., 2010). In 2008, the annual expense of work-induced stress in Germany was projected to be €29.2 billion, incorporating direct expenditures such as prevention measures, rehabilitation, continuous treatment, and administrative costs (€9.9 billion), as well as indirect costs like lost labor years due to incapacity, disability, and premature mortality (€19.3 billion) (Bodeker & Friedrichs, 2011). In Spain, the direct medical expenses associated with work-induced mental and behavioural disorders were projected to be between €150 and €372 million in 2010. Concurrently, occupational diseases led to 2.78 million days of sick leave, translating to an economic deficit of €170.96 million (EASHW, 2014).

WorkStressUK (2016) and Dollard et al. (2019) reported that recent figures from the United Kingdom (UK) indicate that work-related stress, depression, or anxiety were responsible for the equivalent of 9.9 million days lost, accounting for 43% of all working days lost to sickness in the 2014/2015 period. The Sainsbury Centre for Mental Health, in a 2007 study, calculated that the total yearly cost to employers due to health disorders among their employees was close to £26 billion. This translates to £1,035 per employee, with £335 attributed to absenteeism, £605 to presenteeism, and £95 to staff turnover (ILO, 2018).

The researcher posits that stress, contrary to popular belief, isn't always detrimental. Despite its numerous adverse effects, stress can also yield positive results. As Payne et al. (2005) and Shaikh et al. (2013) suggest, excessive stress can indeed lead to negative consequences and severe health issues, but a moderate amount can be advantageous and invigorating. They further argue that without a certain level of stress, many individuals might not accomplish much, as they would be preoccupied with future tasks rather than focusing on the present, which could strain their relationships. Taylor (2003) also underscores the significance of stress for several reasons. Primarily, it aids in identifying common daily stressors and provides further proof of the stress-disease correlation. Taylor also asserts that while it's impossible to evade all work-related stress, understanding the stress-inducing aspects of a job can pave the way for job redesign and the implementation of stress management strategies. However, Guzzo et al. (2022) found that job tenure, rather than age, has a significant impact on team performance. They discovered that the tenure of team leaders, not their age, positively affected team performance. This finding aligns with individual-level psychological research, which doesn't support an age-performance correlation, contrasting with economic research literature that often identifies a negative relationship between age and performance across all study levels.

The research conducted by Stankeviciene et al. in 2021 meticulously examines the mediating role of work-life balance (WLB) in the relationship between the structural elements of work culture, including temporal flexibility, supportive supervision, and operational flexibility, and employee well-being. The data for this study was gathered through a survey administered to employees in both the private and public sectors in Lithuania. The findings of the study underscore that each aspect of work culture

significantly shapes the well-being of employees, has a profound direct impact on well-being, and influences WLB. The study suggests that the direct influence of work culture on well-being was markedly greater than the indirect influence via WLB. Furthermore, the study suggests that a work environment that is supportive of families can assist employees in enhancing their WLB, which subsequently leads to increased job satisfaction, reduced stress, and improved well-being and work performance. This research expands the application of well-being as a mediating factor in organisational settings, and its conclusions could be valuable for professionals aiming to enhance employee well-being to augment performance within their organisations. This paper aims to bridge the knowledge gap concerning the potential for institutional stress management programmes to moderate the relationship between stress and well-being, while directly impacting employee performance.

2.2 Theoretical Review/Perspective of this Research

In this segment, an exploration was undertaken to comprehend the perspectives of various authors and theorists on the notions of stress and performance. The literature on stress, as penned by numerous experts and authors in the stress domain, was also scrutinised.

2.2.1 Theories that Support Stress

In this research, three fundamental theories and three theoretical models pertinent to stress are examined: the Demand Control Model (Karasek & Theorell, 1990), the Job-Demand-Resource Model, the Effort-Reward Imbalance Model, the Response Theory, the Stimulus Theory, and the Transaction Theory. The trio of

theoretical models, namely the Demand Control Model, the Job-Demand-Resource Model, and the Effort-Reward Imbalance Model (Holmgren, 2008, pp. 15), evaluate the stressful attributes related to work and are commonly employed in research endeavours that aim to forecast the likelihood of disease and absences due to sickness among the workforce.

2.2.1.1 The Demand-Control Model

Karasek's (1979) demand control model posits that high-strain occupations, characterized by high psychological demands and low decision-making freedom, often lead to symptoms of illness. Research by Lidwall & Marklund (2006), Bourbonnais & Mondor (2001), and Vahtera et al. (2000) supports this, indicating that elevated demand and diminished control in the workplace heighten the likelihood of stress and sickness absence. Women, in particular, appear to experience higher demand and less control than their male counterparts (Smet et al., 2005). Moreover, jobs with high demand and control, known as active jobs, seem to pose a stress risk for women (Lidwall & Marklund, 2006), unlike for men (Holmgren, 2008). The demand-control model has been expanded to include social support from supervisors and colleagues (Holmgren, 2008, p. 16), with low social support linked to increased stress risk (Oxenstierna et al., 2005).

The Demands-Control Model (DCM) is universally acknowledged as a pivotal structure linking job attributes, including restricted autonomy and excessive workload, to occupational stress and associated health consequences. The DCM underscores the psychological and social dimensions of job demands and control (or decision-making capacity), concentrating on the interplay between the employee and the work

environment, and the necessity to evaluate the extent of employee decision-making power and skill discretion. Elevated demands paired with diminished control forecast "high strain", which subsequently correlates with increased incidences of depression, fatigue, cardiovascular disorders, and mortality (Chiang & Chang, 2012).

Nevertheless, substantial control can alleviate the detrimental impacts of demands, resulting in lower sickness prevalence (Meischke et al., 2020). Social support can also function as a safeguard in high-demand scenarios (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007; Cooper et al., 2001; Karasek & Theorell, 1990). In the scenario of deploying NG911 technologies, the DCM implies that technological modifications such as text-to-911 could engender a "High Strain" occupational environment, escalating the threat of stress and related health complications, potentially culminating in increased intention to leave, absenteeism, and diminished job satisfaction and performance. However, introducing additional stressors in a high-strain work environment could exacerbate the strain on an already overwhelmed and exhausted workforce.

Moreover, the DCM does not explain why identical degrees of demand and control can lead to diverse behavioural or health outcomes in employees with comparable backgrounds (Lim, 1996). It also overlooks the fact that there are various kinds of demand, some of which may be beneficial, such as the challenge of mastering a new skill (Perrewe & Zellars, 1999; Cox et al., 2000).

2.2.1.2 Job-Demands-Resources (JDR) Model

The theoretical model of Job-Demands-Resources (JDR), introduced by Bakker and Demerouti in 2014, suggests that job demands and resources, such as managerial backing, can have a combined or sequential impact on job-related stress and its subsequent consequences like employee attrition, burnout, and absence due to illness or work-related problems (Kompier, 2003; Bakker et al., 2005). This model enhances the DCM by integrating resources, which are components in the work setting that aid in achieving work goals, alleviate demands, or promote growth and career advancement. As per this model, resources of any type can alleviate the impact of demands on stress outcomes (Kompier, 2003). It also incorporates personal characteristics that boost resilience to stress, including but not limited to self-efficacy, organisation-based self-esteem, and optimism (Bakker et al., 2005).

2.2.1.3 Effort-Reward Imbalance Model

Siegrist's (1996) Effort-Reward Imbalance Model posits that work-related stress arises from a disparity between high exertion and low compensation, whether monetary, in recognition, or career progression. Studies have indicated that this imbalance, coupled with over-commitment, can lead to negative health effects and increased instances of sick leave (Fahlén et al., 2006; Head et al, 2007; Niedhammer et al., 2006; Siegrist & Marmot, 2004; Vegchel et al., 2005). The Job Demand-Control Model, conceived in the 1970s for industrial workers, and the Effort-Reward Imbalance Model, primarily explain the correlation between occupational stress and cardiovascular outcomes (Holmgren, 2008; Calnan et al., 2004). Despite their successful application across various sectors and diagnoses, these models were not designed with a gender

lens, but were predominantly based on studies conducted on male workers (Calnan et. al., 2004, Vegchel et. al., 2005). Given that research has highlighted gender-based differences in responses, particularly in active jobs (Fahlen et al., 2006; Lidwall & Marklund, 2006; Smet et al., 2005), it is crucial to incorporate a gender perspective and explore innovative methods to evaluate work-related stress in women.

2.2.1.4 Response Theory

Selye (1956), the progenitor of the Response Theory, interprets stress as a physiological reaction to external triggers. His research, tracing back to 1936, revealed three distinct stages of stress response through rat experimentation. The initial response to stress is the alarm phase, characterized by physiological changes such as elevated heart rate, respiration, blood pressure, metabolic rate, muscle tension, and sweating of palms and soles. Prolonged exposure to stress ushers in the second phase, resistance, where the body remains vigilant but adjusts to the stimuli. Persistent stress could escalate to the final stage, exhaustion, where physiological responses persist even during rest or sleep. If this irregular pattern persists, it could culminate in fatality (Selye, 1956, p. 37).

Scholars who approach stress from a response perspective perceive an imbalance between the need to adapt and the individual's capacity. Stress entails a transaction requiring resource mobilization, placing a strain on the individual when automatic and adequate resources and coping mechanisms are insufficient to meet the demand. The stimulus may inflict some immediate damage, but the real implications of stress stem from the individual's reaction to the perceived threat (Shaikh et al., 2013).

2.2.1.5 Stimulus Theory

Theorists of stimulus posit that there exists a threshold of stimulation that an individual can withstand before stress sets in. When the level of stimulation surpasses this limit, the individual experiences stress (Cox, 1978). This concept of stimulus primarily concentrates on situational circumstances or occurrences. Stress, when perceived as a stimulus, is often associated with situations that are novel, intense, rapidly evolving, abrupt, or unforeseen, such as high-pressure timelines, workplace interpersonal conflicts, or accidents. Stress seems to manifest as a modified state of the individual, resulting from a failure to adapt rather than a challenge to adapt. While certain events or situations may potentially provoke stress, the actual stress resides in the individual's response (Lazarus, 1966). Events such as failure or the threat thereof, harmful or unpleasant environmental factors, isolation, bereavement, and swift societal changes are included in stress stimuli. However, the stimulus concept is contentious as it does not account for the varied reactions of different individuals to the same stressor.

When stress is solely considered from the stimulus perspective, the interpretive significance of the event tends to be overlooked (Bernard, 2009, p. 37). Given that individuals respond to their life situations or social conditions based on their personal interpretation of these situations, it is challenging to endorse the theory that certain situations or relationships are inherently stressful while others are not. Most situational circumstances or events induce stress in some individuals.

2.2.1.6 Transaction Theory

The theoretical model of Job-Demands-Resources (JDR), introduced by Bakker and Demerouti in 2014, suggests that job demands and resources, such as managerial

backing, can have a combined or sequential impact on job-related stress and its subsequent consequences like employee attrition, burnout, and absence due to illness or work-related problems (Kompier, 2003; Bakker et al., 2005). This model enhances the DCM by integrating resources, which are components in the work setting that aid in achieving work goals, alleviate demands, or promote growth and career advancement. As per this model, resources of any type can alleviate the impact of demands on stress outcomes (Kompier, 2003). It also incorporates personal characteristics that boost resilience to stress, including but not limited to self-efficacy, organisation-based self-esteem, and optimism (Bakker et al., 2005).

2.2.2 Theoretical Framework on Well-being

The contemporary work environment is characterised by increasing demands and pressures, leading to elevated stress levels among employees. This has significant implications for individual well-being and organisational productivity. Understanding the factors that influence well-being in the context of work-related stress is crucial for developing effective interventions. This extensive theoretical framework aims to explore the multidimensional nature of well-being under stress at work, incorporating key theoretical perspectives and empirical findings to provide a comprehensive understanding of this complex phenomenon.

2.2.2.1 Transactional Model of Stress and Coping

Lazarus and Folkman's Transactional Model of Stress and Coping (1984) serves as a fundamental theoretical foundation for understanding stress in the workplace. This

model suggests that stress is a result of an individual's appraisal of work-related demands and their perceived ability to cope with those demands.

According to this model, stress is not solely determined by external factors but is also influenced by cognitive evaluations and subjective interpretations. Individuals engage in coping strategies to manage stress and maintain their well-being. By examining the cognitive and emotional processes involved in stress appraisal and coping, this model highlights the subjective nature of stress experiences and their potential impact on well-being (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

2.2.2.2 Job Demands-Resources Model

The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014) provides valuable insights into the interaction between job demands, job resources, and employee well-being. According to this model, job demands encompass workload, time pressure, role ambiguity, and interpersonal conflicts, which may lead to increased stress levels. On the other hand, job resources such as autonomy, social support, feedback, and opportunities for development act as buffers against stress and promote well-being. The JD-R model emphasizes the importance of considering both negative job characteristics and positive resources in understanding well-being under stress at work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014).

2.2.2.3 Psychological Capital

Psychological Capital (PsyCap) theory (Luthans et al., 2015) posits that individual well-being can be enhanced through the cultivation of positive psychological resources, including self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience. These resources can

buffer the negative effects of stress, facilitate effective coping strategies, and foster well-being. PsyCap theory suggests that individuals with higher levels of these positive psychological resources are more likely to perceive work-related stressors as challenges rather than threats, leading to better well-being outcomes (Luthans et al., 2015).

2.2.2.4 Social Support

The role of social support in promoting well-being during stress at work is well-established (Cohen & Wills, 1985). Social support can be derived from various sources, including supervisors, colleagues, and family. It provides emotional, informational, and instrumental resources that help individuals cope with stressors, reduce their negative impact, and enhance well-being. Supportive relationships at work can provide a sense of belonging, reduce feelings of isolation, and increase individuals' confidence in their ability to manage stress. Considering the social support dimension within the framework acknowledges the influence of interpersonal relationships on well-being outcomes (Cohen & Wills, 1985).

2.2.2.5 Organisational Culture and Climate

Organisational culture and climate play a crucial role in shaping well-being under stress at work. Organisational culture refers to the shared values, beliefs, and norms within an organisation, while climate refers to the prevailing perceptions of the work environment. A positive organisational culture and climate that prioritize employee well-being, work-life balance, and supportive relationships can contribute to reduced stress levels and enhanced well-being. Conversely, a toxic or unsupportive

work environment can exacerbate stress and negatively impact well-being (Schein, 2010).

In conclusion, the above theoretical framework integrates multiple perspectives to provide a holistic understanding of well-being under stress at work. By incorporating Lazarus and Folkman's Transactional Model of Stress and Coping, the JD-R model, PsyCap theory, the significance of social support, and the influence of organisational culture and climate, this framework highlights the complex interplay between individual cognitive processes, job characteristics, interpersonal dynamics, and the broader organisational context in influencing well-being outcomes. Understanding these relationships can inform the development of interventions and strategies aimed at enhancing well-being and reducing stress in the workplace.

2.2.4 Institutional Stress Management Systems Theories

In today's fast-paced and demanding work environments, stress has become a prevalent issue affecting individuals and organisations alike. Excessive stress can have detrimental effects on employees' physical and mental well-being, leading to decreased productivity, increased absenteeism, and higher turnover rates. Recognising the significance of managing stress, institutions have started implementing various stress management systems to promote employee well-being and enhance organisational performance. This theoretical framework aims to explore the components and strategies of institutional stress management systems in the context of stress at work.

2.2.4.1 The Transactional Model

The Interactional Stress Model (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) underscores the reciprocal relationship between individuals and their surroundings, proposing that stress emerges from a perceived disparity between occupational demands and a person's capacity to manage these demands. The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Framework (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014) asserts that occupational demands (for instance, workload, time constraints) and job resources (such as autonomy, social support) interplay to shape employee wellness and work performance. The Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory (Hobfoll, 1989) posits that stress is triggered when individuals sense a menace to their resources, like potential job termination or overwhelming workload. Institutions can implement stress management systems to safeguard and replenish employees' resources.

2.2.4.2 Supportive Organisational Culture

Supportive Organisational Culture posits that an institution's culture should prioritize employee well-being, provide emotional support, and promote work-life balance (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Leaders should inspire and motivate employees, foster positive relationships, and create a supportive work environment (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Employees should have the autonomy to modify their tasks, relationships, and perceptions of their work to increase meaningfulness and reduce stress (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Institutions can offer flexible scheduling, telecommuting, or compressed workweeks to enhance work-life balance and reduce work-related stress (Allen et al., 2015). Stress Awareness and Education: Institutions can provide training programmes to enhance employees' understanding of stress, its impact, and coping strategies (Sonnentag & Frese, 2014). Encouraging physical exercise and promoting

healthy eating habits can help manage stress and improve overall well-being (Taylor, 2003).

2.2.4.3 Social Support Systems

Peer Support Networks suggest that institutions can facilitate the formation of supportive networks among employees, allowing them to share experiences and provide emotional assistance (Wang et al., 2020). Employee Assistance Programmes (EAP) offer confidential counselling and resources to employees facing personal or work-related stressors (Joseph et al., 2018).

Conducting a comprehensive assessment of employees' stress levels, sources, and coping mechanisms to inform the design and implementation of stress management interventions (Murphy, 1995). Encouraging active employee participation in the development and evaluation of stress management programmes to increase their ownership and effectiveness (Noblet et al., 2008). Regularly monitoring and evaluating the outcomes of stress management systems, seeking employee feedback, and making necessary adjustments to improve effectiveness and relevance (Van den Broeck et al., 2008). In conclusion, institutional stress management systems play a crucial role in addressing stress at work by considering the multifaceted nature of stress and its impact on employees and organisations. By adopting a comprehensive approach that encompasses organisational culture, leadership, work design, health promotion, social support, and involving employees in the process, institutions can create an environment that promotes employee well-being, reduces stress, and enhances organisational performance.

2.3 Conceptual Framework

This section gives a composite picture/diagram of the study and explains how the variables in the study are related. Figure 1 shows the conceptual framework of this study and relates independent variables to the dependent variable. It considers variables that have a great impact on women lectures in managerial positions' work performance (the dependent variable) in higher educational institutions.

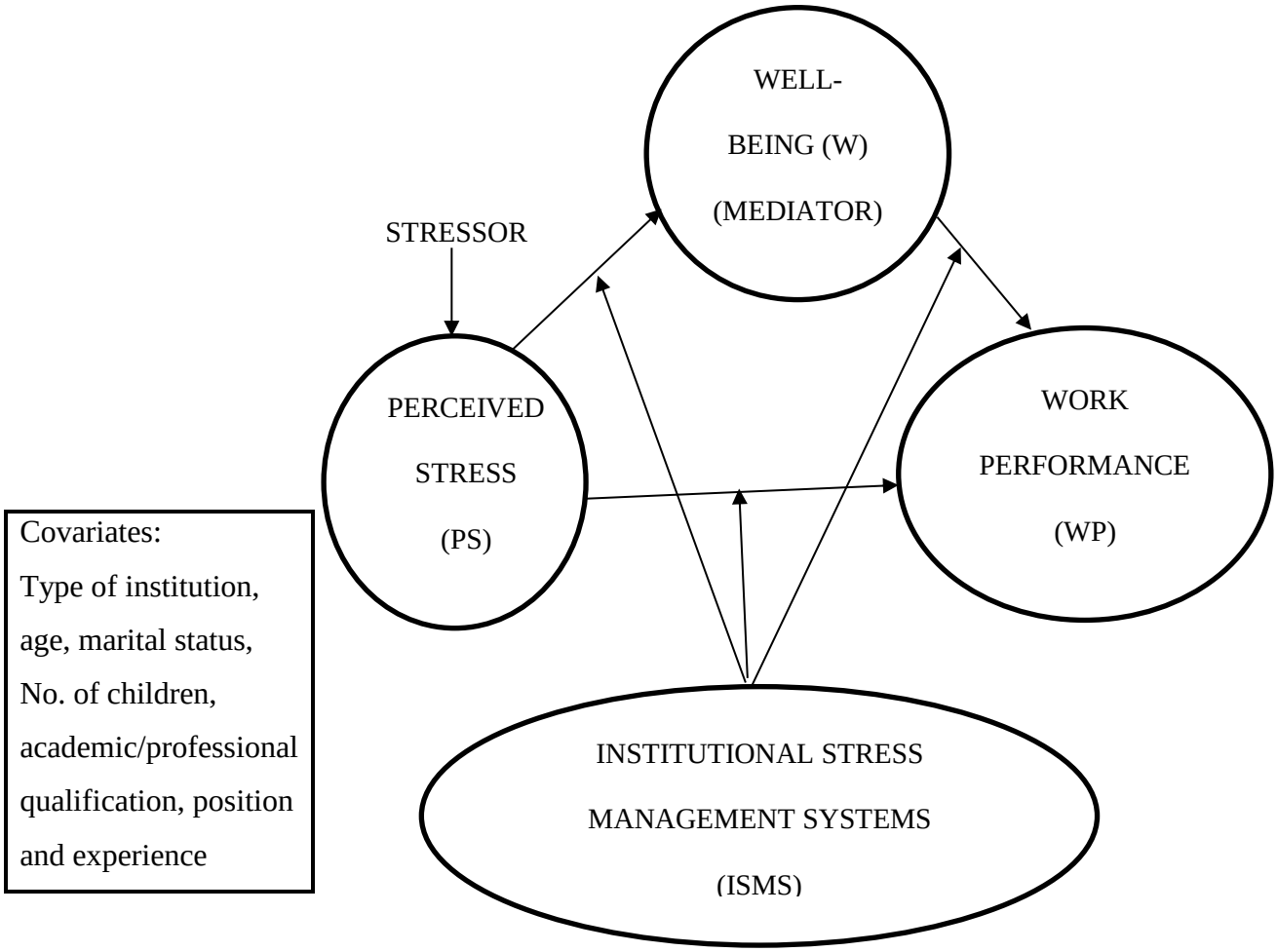

Figure 1: Relationship between Perceived Stress, Well-being, Institutional Stress Management Systems and Work Performance

Source: Author, 2023

Figure 1 indicates that the study examined the influence of perceived stress (PS) (independent variable) by stressors, how well-being (W) mediates the relationship between perceived stress and work performance (WP) (dependent variable) and the moderating effect of institutional stress management systems (ISMS) on perceived

stress, well-being and work performance in the presence of covariate such as the respondents' type of institution (public, technical, or private), age, marital status, children, academic and professional qualification, position and experience., in a conditional process analysis. The output is influenced by work stressors – organisational factors, work environment, interpersonal relationships and individual characteristics – interacting through the process of individuals performing their jobs in an organisation. Deebom et al. (2018); Abuairub (2004) and Michie (2002 p. 67), point out that "if the interaction is healthy, then the output (WP) will increase". However, a negative interaction between the individual and work factors may lead to emotional strain affecting a person's behavioural, physiological and psychological conditions. Thus, the right organisational, environmental, interpersonal and individual characteristics will eliminate effect of the stressors, improve well-being which will intern improve work performance.

2.4 Summary of Literature Review

The escalating issue of stress in the professional environment is of significant concern, especially for employed women. The repercussions of elevated stress levels can manifest in physical, psychological, and behavioural forms within an individual. Female workers often report enduring, non-lethal health issues that can be debilitating over time. The most severe implications of stress pertain to performance. The second chapter delved into empirical research on stress, its influence on well-being, its effect on performance, and the institutional mechanisms in place to manage stress and mitigate its adverse impact on performance. Occupational stress is a phenomenon that has affected every working individual in various organisations, corporations, or

institutions, either positively or negatively. A review of literature on occupational stress, well-being, work performance, and institutional stress management systems revealed that regardless of whether the organisation is public or private, there is no consensus among researchers regarding the performance indicators. Scholars from diverse disciplines have employed varying parameters to gauge the influence of stress on work performance.

The primary conclusion drawn from most of the research articles and journals reviewed is that there is a negative correlation between work stress and work performance. Theories such as the Demand Control Model, Job-Demands-Resources, Effort-Reward Imbalance Model, Response Theory, Stimulus Theory, Transaction Theory, Psychological Capital Theory, Social Support Theory, and Organisational Culture Theory were deemed pertinent to the research. This is due to their ability to forecast the interplay between the study's variables, which, when thoroughly examined, will aid in the application of stress management strategies like well-structured stress policies or guidelines to alleviate employee stress and enhance their performance.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This segment delves into the exploration of the research framework, location, and the attributes of the subjects under study, while pinpointing the demographic for the investigation and the intended sample size. Furthermore, it elaborates on the techniques and processes implemented for data collection and analysis. The credibility of the research tools and ethical considerations within the research are also addressed in this chapter. The research approach adopted in this study was descriptive, utilizing a quantitative methodology.

3.1 Research Design

Bryman (2008) posits that a research design serves as a blueprint for the collection and analysis of data. Durrheim (2004) views it as a strategic scheme linking research questions to the implementation or utilization of the research methodology. In a similar vein, Creswell and Plano-Clark (2007) define a research design as a method for amassing, examining, interpreting, and disseminating data in research investigations. It is the comprehensive strategy that connects theoretical research issues with relevant (and feasible) empirical research. Essentially, the research design outlines the process for obtaining the necessary data, the techniques for collecting and analyzing this data, and how this will address the research problem (Parahoo, 2014; Gray, 2014). Burns and Grove (2009) argue that it is a structure for conducting a study with maximum control over factors that could compromise the validity of the results. Martinez-Mesa et al. (2016) depict it as a plan for choosing participants, research

locations, and data gathering methods to tackle the research question(s). They further suggest that the objective of a robust research design is to yield results that are deemed trustworthy.

Robson (2002) distinguishes three potential categories of research design: exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory, with the categorization based on the research field's objective as each design fulfils a unique end objective. For instance, a descriptive study strives to portray a situation, person, or event or illustrate how things are interconnected and occur naturally (Blumberg et al., 2005). Nonetheless, descriptive studies cannot clarify why an event occurred and are more suitable for a relatively new or uninvestigated research area (Punch, 2005). Therefore, in circumstances with sufficient descriptive information, alternative research designs like explanatory or exploratory methods are suggested.

When there is a lack of comprehensive understanding about a particular subject matter and the problem is not clearly defined, exploratory research is initiated (Saunders et al., 2009). This type of research does not aim to offer absolute and final solutions to the research inquiries, but rather, it delves into the research subject with varying levels of intensity. Its primary objective is to tackle novel issues where minimal or no previous research has been carried out (Bartholomew & Brown, 2012). In its most intense form, exploratory research paves the way for more conclusive research, determining the preliminary research design, the method of sampling, and the technique of data collection (Singh, 2007).

On the other hand, an explanatory study is designed to clarify and justify the descriptive data. Hence, while descriptive studies may raise 'what' type of questions, explanatory studies are more inclined to ask 'why' and 'how' questions (Gray, 2014). It

extends beyond exploratory and descriptive research to pinpoint the actual causes of a phenomenon. Explanatory research is aimed at finding causes and justifications, providing evidence to either support or debunk an explanation or prediction. It is carried out to uncover and document the relationships among various facets of the phenomenon being studied.

The main objectives of the study are to assess the perceived stress levels of women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected higher educational institutions, identify the type of stressors that affect their stress levels, examine their well-being at work, examine their work performance and investigate institutional stress management systems which are available in the selected higher educational institutions in Ghana. Thus, exploring how perceived stress levels, well-being, institutional stress management systems and the work performance of women lecturers in managerial positions are related to each other and as they naturally occur (Blumberg et al., 2005). In order to accomplish the objectives, the research employed a descriptive methodology. The purpose of this approach was to accurately portray the subject or phenomenon under investigation in its natural state. This methodology is typically utilised to collect data from a broad demographic, and to offer both descriptive and inferential insights into the study's variables (Cohen et al., 2018; Fraenkel et al., 2012; Polit & Beck, 2012).

Kim et al. (2017) characterized descriptive research as a systematic empirical inquiry where the independent variables are not directly controllable by the investigator, either due to their pre-existing manifestation or their inability to be artificially manipulated. In this type of research, the investigator initiates with the observation of a dependent variable, followed by a retrospective examination of

potential correlations and impacts (Cohen et al., 2018). Such a study allows for the drawing of inferences about the interrelationships among variables without direct interference from the concomitant variables of independent and dependent variables. In this context, there was no effort to alter the variables being studied; instead, conclusions were drawn from the gathered evidence. This research design was chosen because the variables' manifestations had already taken place. The section further elucidates the rationale behind choosing the descriptive research design for this study, including the Research Approach/Method and the Philosophical stance of the study.

3.2 Methodology of Investigation

Three distinct methodologies exist for conducting research: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2007; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009; Morse, 2016).

3.2.1 Qualitative Approach

The methodology of qualitative research is designed to provide scholars with a mechanism to understand a phenomenon by observing or interacting with the subjects of the study (Patton, 2015). Therefore, qualitative researchers are interested in investigating and clarifying phenomena as they occur in their organic settings (Kim et al., 2017). This suggests that qualitative researchers scrutinize elements in their inherent environments, endeavouring to understand or decode phenomena based on the interpretations individuals assign to them. A notable strength of qualitative techniques is their capacity to generate comprehensive accounts of the cognitive processes of

participants and their propensity to focus on the underlying reasons for the occurrence of a phenomenon (Baskarada & Koronios, 2018).

3.2.2 Quantitative Approach

Quantitative research is a methodology that elucidates a phenomenon by gathering numerical data that are statistically analysed (Aliaga & Gunderson, 2005). This approach involves the researcher using inquiry strategies such as experiments and surveys and gathering data on pre-established instruments that produce statistical data (Creswell, 2013). The most notable advantage of quantitative research is that its methods yield reliable and quantifiable data that can potentially be extrapolated to a larger population (Cooper, 2010). Furthermore, it is apt for testing and validating pre-existing theories about how and why phenomena transpire through the testing of hypotheses that are formulated prior to data collection (Jenkins-Smith, et al., 2017).

3.2.3 Mixed Method Approach

A mixed-methods investigation involves the collection or examination of both quantitative and qualitative data within a single research project. This data can be gathered simultaneously or in a sequential manner, prioritised, and merged at one or more points during the research procedure (Morse & Niehaus, 2016). Fundamentally, this methodology allows the investigator to address queries that cannot be resolved exclusively through qualitative or quantitative techniques (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2012). Mixed methods contribute to a more holistic perspective by pinpointing patterns and generalisations, as well as offering a profound comprehension of the perspectives of the participants (Monrad, 2013). This approach is also typified by the amalgamation

of quantitative and qualitative data in a single study, thereby augmenting each other by capitalising on their respective strengths (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2008).

Among the three methodologies discussed, the investigator opted for the quantitative research approach or methodology, with the benefit that the investigator can gather and analyse a larger amount of information and make general assertions about what is likely to be accurate (Amin, 2005). It will also assist the investigator in elucidating the phenomena by gathering numerical data and analysing them statistically (Monrad, 2013). Furthermore, the quantitative method yields reliable and quantifiable data that can potentially be extrapolated to a larger population (Cooper, 2010). Additionally, it is apt for testing and validating pre-existing theories about how and why phenomena transpire through the testing of hypotheses that are formulated prior to data collection. A potential disadvantage could be a lack of depth (e.g., reasons why, context, emotions, or feelings). Also, it necessitates mathematical and/or statistical knowledge to effectively analyse the data.

Furthermore, among the specific strengths of using quantitative method for this study, it allows for a brother study, involving a greater number of subjects (e,g. 270 women lectures in managerial positions in this study), and enhancing the generalisation of the results (Hathcoat & Meixner, 2017). It also allows for the greater objectivity and accuracy of results. Again, vast sources of information can be summarised and comparisons made across categories and over time. In addition, personal bias can be avoided by keeping a distance from participating subjects and using accepted computational techniques (Hasan, 2016).

3.3 Research Philosophy

Scholarly perspectives, also known as paradigms (Lincoln et al., 2011; Mertens, 2010), epistemologies, and ontologies (Neuman, 2009), embody the overarching philosophical viewpoint regarding the universe and the essence of research that an academician employs in a study. These perspectives are shaped by disciplinary orientations, the inclinations of the students' mentors, and past research encounters (Monrad, 2013). The convictions held by researchers, moulded by these elements, frequently steer them towards a qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods strategy in their research (Caruth, 2013). Four primary research ideologies are extensively debated in scholarly literature: postpositivism, constructivism, transformativism, and pragmatism (Morse & Niehaus, 2016).

Postpositivist suppositions, traditionally linked with research, are more pertinent to quantitative research than qualitative. Postpositivists subscribe to a deterministic philosophy where causes (presumably) govern effects or results (Morse & Niehaus, 2016). As a result, the problems postpositivists explore mirror the need to identify and assess the causes impacting results, such as those found in experiments. It also embraces a reductionist approach (Hasan, 2016; Acum & Yilmazer, 2019), striving to condense concepts into a concise, clear set for examination (Liu, 2022), like the variables that shape hypotheses and research queries (Baskarada & Koronios, 2018).

In contrast, the Constructivist embraces a distinct worldview. Constructivism or social constructivism (frequently conflated with interpretivism) is a viewpoint typically linked with qualitative research (Bergman, 2018). Social constructivists assert that individuals endeavour to understand the world they live and operate in (Patton, 2015). Individuals create subjective interpretations of their experiences—interpretations

directed towards specific objects or entities. These interpretations are varied and plentiful, leading the researcher to pursue the complexity of perspectives rather than reducing interpretations into a handful of categories or concepts (Acum & Yilmazer, 2019).

The Transformativist critique targets the post-positivist suppositions for their imposition of structural laws and theories that fail to consider the marginalized individuals in our society or address matters of power, social justice, discrimination, and oppression. Transformativists contend that research investigations should be intertwined with politics and an agenda for political change to confront social oppression wherever it manifests (Mertens, 2010; Acum & Yilmazer, 2019; Bazeley, 2016).

The Pragmatic paradigm is born out of actions, situations, and consequences, not antecedent conditions (as in post-positivism). It focuses on applications—what is effective—and problem-solving (Patton, 2015; Hathcoat & Meixner, 2017). Rather than focusing on methodologies, researchers give precedence to the research problem and employ all possible approaches to comprehend the problem. As a philosophical underpinning for mixed methods studies, Morgan (2014), Patton (2015), and Tashakkori and Teddlie (2010) emphasize the importance of focusing on the research problem in social science research and then using pluralistic approaches to acquire knowledge about the problem.

As a result, this study is rooted in the Postpositivist (Positivist) paradigm (Creswell, 2009). This is because this study investigates the factors that influence outcomes, such as those identified in experiments. This research process includes the development of claims and then the refinement or rejection of some of these claims in

favor of others that are more robustly supported. Moreover, the researcher collects data on instruments based on measures completed by the participants or by observations recorded by the researcher. Additionally, this research seeks to develop pertinent, accurate statements that can clarify the situation of concern or that describe the causal relationships of interest by promoting the relationship among variables and framing them in terms of questions or hypotheses. Therefore, the most appropriate choice for this study is a quantitative research method since this research involves the researcher examining methods and making conclusions for biases to maintain objectivity (Uwe, 2011). Maintaining objectivity is a vital aspect of proficient inquiry.

3.4 Site and Subject Characteristics

The term "site characteristics" is used to describe the unique physical attributes of a location, such as its size and accessibility (Harris, 2005). On the other hand, "subject characteristics" pertain to the traits of the individual participants involved in the research. The study was carried out across twelve public higher education institutions in Ghana. The Republic of Ghana, officially recognised as such, is home to a variety of educational institutions. These encompass four public universities (PTU) - the University of Ghana, located in Legon, Greater Accra Region, University of Cape Coast, situated in Cape Coast, Central Region, Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology in Kumasi, Ashanti Region, and University of Education, Winneba in Winneba, Central Region. Additionally, there are four public technical universities (PTeU) - Accra Technical University in Accra, Greater Accra Region, Tamale Technical University in Tamale, Northern Region, Kumasi Technical University in Kumasi, Ashanti Region, and Takoradi Technical University in Takoradi, Western

Region. Furthermore, four private universities (PU) are also present - Valley View University in Oyibi, Greater Accra Region, Regional Maritime University in Nungua, Greater Accra Region, All Nations University in Koforidua, Eastern Region, and Central University in Tema, Greater Accra Region.

Geographically, Ghana is nestled between Ivory Coast to the west, Burkina Faso to the north, Togo to the east, and the Gulf of Guinea and the Atlantic Ocean to the south (Jackson, 2001) (Figure 2). Its position, slightly north of the Equator on the Gulf of Guinea, gifts it with a tropical climate (Ghana: Geography Physical, 2021). Covering a landmass of 238,535 km2 (92,099 sq mi), Ghana prides itself on an Atlantic coastline that extends 560 kilometres (350 miles) on the Gulf of Guinea into the Atlantic Ocean to its southernmost point (Ghana: Location and Size, 2021). The geographical coordinates of the country are situated between latitudes 4°45'N and 11°N, and longitudes 1°15'E and 3°15'W ("Ghana: Location and Size, 2021). The industrial port city of Tema in Ghana is bisected by the Prime Meridian (Ghana: Geography Physical, 2021). Intriguingly, in terms of geographical coordinates, Ghana is closer to the Earth's "centre" than any other country, despite the theoretical centre, (0°, 0°) being located in the Atlantic Ocean approximately 614 km (382 mi) southeast of Ghana on the Gulf of Guinea. The population of Ghana is projected to be approximately 34 million (Ghana Demographics, 2023).

The nation's terrain is characterized by a mix of grasslands, coastal shrublands, and forests, with the forest extending from the south-western coast of Ghana on the Gulf of Guinea in the Atlantic Ocean for 320 kilometres (200 miles) northwards and about 270 kilometres (170 miles) eastwards. The southern region of Ghana, also known

as the Kingdom of Ashanti, is a significant hub for the extraction of industrial minerals and timber (Ghana: Geography Physical, 2021).

Figure 2: Map of Ghana depicting the administrative regions and their capital

Source: https://mapofworld.com (2002-2022)

Established in 1948, the University of Ghana (UG) is the oldest and most extensive among the 13 public universities in Ghana. It is a coeducational institution of higher learning, accommodating between 30,000 and 34,999 students (uniRankenrollment, 2023), and is situated on the western side of the Accra Legon hills,

with a population ranging from 1,000,000 to 5,000,000 inhabitants (Sasu, 2023) (Figure 2). The National Accreditation Board, Ghana, officially accredits UG, and it provides a variety of academic programmes, including pre-bachelor, bachelor, master, and doctorate degrees in several disciplines (uniRank, 2023).

The Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST) is the second oldest and largest of the thirteen Ghanaian national public universities. It was founded in 1951, a large (uniRankenrollment range: 25,000-29,999 students) coeducational higher education institution located in the urban setting of the metropolis of Kumasi (population range of 1,000,000-5,000,000 inhabitants), Ashanti (uniRank, 2023). The Ashanti Region (Figure 2) is located in south Ghana and is the third largest of 16 administrative regions (formerly 10), occupying a total land surface of 24,389 km^2 (9,417 sq mi) or 10.2 per cent of the total land area of Ghana. The Ashanti Region is centrally located in the middle belt of Ghana. It lies between longitudes 0.15W and 2.25W, and latitudes 5.50N and 7.46N. The region shares boundaries with six of the sixteen political regions, Bono, Bono East, and Ahafo Regions in the north, the Eastern region in the east, the Central region in the south, and the Western region in the Southwest. Kumasi is a city in Ashanti Region and is among the largest metropolitan areas in Ghana. Kumasi is approximately 500 kilometers (300 mi) north of the Equator and 200 kilometers (100 mi) north of the Gulf of Guinea. KNUST is accredited by the National Accreditation Board (NAB), Ghana. KNUST offers pre-bachelor degrees (i.e., certificates, diplomas, associate or foundation), bachelor degrees, master's degrees, and doctorate degrees in several areas of study (uniRank, 2023).

The University of Cape Coast (UCC) is the third oldest and largest of the thirteen Ghanaian national public universities in Ghana. It was established in 1962 and is a very large (uniRankenrollment range: 30,000-34,999 students) coeducational higher education located in the suburban setting of the small city of Cape Coast (population range of 50,000-249,999 inhabitants), Central Region (uniRank, 2023). Cape Coast is a city, fishing port, and the capital of the Cape Coast Metropolitan District and Central Region of South Ghana (Figure 2). The university, which is five kilometers west of Cape Coast, is on a hill overlooking the Atlantic Ocean. UCC offers pre-bachelor degrees (i.e., certificates, diplomas, associate or foundation), bachelor degrees, master's degrees, and doctorate degrees in several areas of study (uniRank, 2023).

The University of Education, Winneba, the fourth oldest Ghanaian University was founded in 1992. It is a non-profit public higher education institution located in the suburban setting of the large town of Winneba (population range of 10,000-49,999 inhabitants), Central Region (Figure 2). UEW is accredited by the NAB, Ghana. University of Education, Winneba (UEW) is a large (uniRank enrolment range: 10,000-14,999 students) coeducational Ghanaian higher education institution (uniRank, 2023). University of Education, Winneba (UEW) offers pre-bachelor degrees (i.e. certificates, diplomas, associate or foundation), bachelor degrees, master's degrees, and doctorate degrees in several areas of study (uniRank, 2023).

Accra Technical University (ATU) is a non-profit public higher education institution located in the metropolis of Accra (population range of 1,000,000-5,000,000 inhabitants), Greater Accra (Figure 2). ATU was founded in 1949 as a Technical School and commissioned in 1957 as Accra Technical Institute. ATU then (Accra Technical

Institute) became the first Technical Institute to be established (https://atu,edu,gh). In 1963 the Institute assumed a new name as Accra Polytechnic. It was elevated to tertiary status to offer Higher National Diploma and certificate programmes. It began to offer Bachelor of Technology programmes in 2007. Accra Polytechnic converted into a Technical University with the name Accra Technical University in 2016 by the Technical University Act, 2016 (Act 922) (https://atu,edu,gh). Officially accredited by the NAB, Ghana. ATU is a coeducational Ghanaian higher education institution. ATU offers bachelor's degrees in several areas of study (uniRank, 2023). Currently the University has 5 faculties and 16 departments (https://atu,edu,gh).

Tamale Technical University (TaTU), a non-profit public higher education institution located in the small city of Tamale (population range of 50,000-249,999 inhabitants), Northern Region (Figure 2). It was founded in 1951 as a Trades Training Centre, became the Government Training School in 1954. It was converted to a Junior Technical Institute in 1960, (https://tatu,edu,gh). TaTU then (Junior Technical Institute) became the second Technical Institute to be established (https://tatu,edu,gh). It was elevated to the statutes of a Polytechnic in August 23, 1992. It was elevated to tertiary status to offer Higher National Diploma and certificate programmes. It began to offer Bachelor of Technology programmes in 2007. Tamale Polytechnic converted into a Technical University with the name Tamale Technical University in 2016 by the Technical University Act, 2016 (Act 922) (https://tatu,edu,gh). Officially accredited by the NAB, Ghana. TTU is a coeducational Ghanaian higher education institution. TTU offers bachelor's degrees in several areas of study (uniRank, 2023). Currently the University has 8 faculties and 19 departments (https://atu,edu,gh).

Kumasi Technical University (KsTU), a non-profit public higher education institution located in the metropolis of Kumasi (population range of 1,000,000-5,000,000 inhabitants), Ashanti. KsTu was established in 1954 as Kumasi Technical Institute (K. T. I.) to offer craft course It was the third oldest Technical Institute to be established in Ghana. In 1963, the Institute was converted to a non-tertiary Polytechnic status under the Ghana Education Service to start offering, in addition, technician diploma and sub- professional courses. The Polytechnic Law, 1992 (PNDC L.321) elevated the Polytechnic to a tertiary institution to provide high calibre skilled manpower with reference to manufacturing, commerce, science and technology to act as a catalyst for technological development. As a Polytechnic it was one of the famous, elegant and vibrant Polytechnics in Ghana. The Technical University Act 2016, (Act 922) converted Kumasi Polytechnic to the present Kumasi Technical University with the aim of providing higher education in engineering, applied arts, science technology based disciplines, technical and vocational training. Officially accredited by the NAB, Ghana. KTU is a coeducational Ghanaian higher education institution. KsTU offers bachelor's degrees in several areas of study (uniRank, 2023).

Takoradi Technical University (TTU), is a non-profit public tertiary education institution (university) located in Sekondi-Takoradi, the capital of the Western Region of Ghana (population range of 2,500-9,999 inhabitants) (Figure 2). It was established in 1954 as a government technical institute, became the fourth oldest Technical Institute and part of the State Tertiary Education System. Later, after the passage of the Polytechnic Law of 1992 (PNDCL 321), it was replaced by the Polytechnics Law (Act 745) in 2007. In 2016, the bill to convert six out of the 10 polytechnics (including Takoradi Polytechnic) into a fully-fledged university received the unanimous approval

of Ghanaian legislators. Officially accredited by the NAB, Ghana. TTU is a medium-sized (uniRank enrollment range: 9,000-9,999 students) coeducational Ghanaian higher education institution (uniRank, 2023). TTU offers pre-bachelor degrees (i.e. certificates, diplomas, associate or foundation) in several areas of study (uniRank, 2023).

Valley View University (VVU), was the first private higher education institution to be established in country. It is located in the urban setting of the metropolis of Accra (population range of 1,000,000-5,000,000 inhabitants), Greater Accra. It was founded in 1979.. Officially accredited by the NAB, Ghana. VVU is a large (uniRank enrollment range: 10,000-14,999 students) coeducational Ghanaian higher education institution formally affiliated with the Christian-Adventist religion (uniRank, 2023). VVU offers pre-bachelor degrees (i.e. certificates, diplomas, associate or foundation) in several areas of study (uniRank, 2023).

Regional Maritime University (RMU) is the second oldest private university and was founded in 1983. It is a non-profit private higher education institution located in the urban setting of the metropolis of Accra (population range of 1,000,000-5,000,000 inhabitants), Greater Accra. Officially accredited by the NAB, Ghana. RMU is a coeducational Ghanaian higher education institution. RMU offers pre-bachelor degrees (i.e. certificates, diplomas, associate or foundation) in several areas of study (uniRank, 2023).

All Nations University (ANU), founded in 1996 is the third oldest private university. It is a non-profit private higher education institution located in the suburban setting of the small city of Koforidua (population range of 50,000-249,999 inhabitants), Eastern Region (Figure 2). Officially accredited by the NAB, Ghana. ANU is a small

(uniRank enrollment range: 3,000-3,999 students) coeducational Ghanaian higher education institution formally affiliated with the Christian-Nondenominational religion. ANU offers pre-bachelor degrees (i.e. certificates, diplomas, associate or foundation) in several areas of study (uniRank, 2023).

Central University (CUC), established in 1997 is the fourth oldest private university in Ghana. It is a non-profit private higher education institution located in the suburban setting of the small city of Tema (population range of 50,000-249,999 inhabitants), Greater Accra. This institution also has branch campuses in the following locations: Prampram, and Mataheko. Officially accredited by the NAB, Ghana. CUC is a medium-sized (uniRank enrollment range: 8,000-8,999 students) coeducational Ghanaian higher education institution formally affiliated with the Christian-Evangelical religion (uniRank, 2023). CUC offers bachelor's degrees, and master's degrees in several areas of study (uniRank, 2023).

3.5 Population

Population has been defined by Martinez-Mesa et al. (2016) as a group of elements or cases, whether individuals, objects, or events that conform to specific criteria in research. The population is the entire set of individuals to which generalisations are made based on an experimental sample (Gerrig & Zimbardo, 2002). It is the number of people, objects, or events having common observable characteristics in which the researcher is interested. According to Neuman (2014), there are various ways to construct a population depending on the characteristics of interest. For this study, the target population was women lecturers in managerial positions in twelve selected higher educational institutions in Ghana. The total population was 454,

comprising of 231, 128 and 95 women lecturers in managerial from the four public traditional universities, four public technical universities and the four private universities in this study, respectively. This is represented in Table 1.

3.6 Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

A sample, as defined by Parahoo (2014) and Martinez-Mesa et al. (2016), is a fraction of the population that is selected in such a way that its findings can be extrapolated to the entire population. Bhardwaj (2019) further elaborates that a sample comprises a collection of individuals, objects, or items extracted from a larger population for the purpose of measurement. It is crucial in research that the sample mirrors the population as closely as possible, encapsulating most of its characteristics.

Sampling, as elucidated by Elfil & Negida (2017, p. 5), is a method employed to choose a sample from a single entity or a larger population for a specific research objective. It becomes a vital instrument in research when dealing with a large population size. Shorten & Moorley (2014) categorise sampling into two primary types: probability and nonprobability sampling, each of which is further broken down into subcategories.

3.6.1 Probability sampling

In the realm of probability sampling, each individual within the population possesses a quantifiable likelihood of being chosen for the sample, as noted by Martínez-Mesa et al. (2016). In instances where the population exhibits high homogeneity, the likelihood of each individual's selection into a sample is significantly high. Consequently, the sample obtained is a fair representation of the entire population.

Probability sampling can be categorised into five distinct types: simple random sampling, stratified random sampling, systematic sampling, cluster sampling, and multistage sampling (Bhardwaj, 2019)..

In the case of simple random sampling, the selection of sample members is purely random and entirely left to chance, ensuring that the sample's quality remains unaffected as each member has an equal probability of selection. This sampling method is most effective when dealing with a highly homogeneous population (Joseph et al., 2014). There are two primary methods of executing this type of sampling: firstly, the lottery or envelope method, where unique identifiers are assigned to each population member, and selections are made randomly until the desired sample size is achieved; secondly, the random number table method, which utilizes various random tables to select the sample (Bhardwaj, 2019).

Simple random sampling can further be divided into two subtypes: simple random sampling with replacement (SRSWR), where "n" units are selected from "N" units one by one in such a manner that at each selection stage, each unit's sample has an equal probability of selection, i.e., 1/N; and simple random sampling without replacement (SRSWOR), where "n" units are selected from "N" one by one at any selection stage in such a way that any of the remaining units have the probability of being selected as a sample, i.e., 1/N (Martínez-Mesa et al., 2016).

Stratified random sampling initially segregates the population into subgroups, known as strata, based on common characteristics, and then randomly selects members from each stratum (Martínez-Mesa et al., 2016). The objective here is to tackle the problem of population heterogeneity and to create a genuinely representative sample (Saunders et al., 2011). Two forms exist: (a) Proportional stratified random sampling,

where the sample size corresponds directly to the total population of each stratum, meaning each stratum sample has an identical sampling fraction. (b) Non-proportional stratified random sampling, where the sample size does not correlate with the population size.

Systematic sampling involves selecting a population member at a predetermined interval, with the chosen member referred to as the Kth element (Martínez-Mesa et al., 2016). Two systematic sampling types exist: Linear systematic sampling (where a sequential list of the entire population is created, and the sample size and sampling interval are determined by the formula: K = N/n, where K is the Kth element, N is the total population, and n equals the number of samples. A random number between 1 and K is chosen as the sample, and K is added to this number to identify the next sample) and circular systematic sampling (where the sample interval is established, and the number closest to N/n is chosen).

Cluster sampling considers different population segments as clusters, and members are randomly selected from each cluster (Martínez-Mesa et al., 2016).
Multistage sampling, as the name suggests, involves multiple stages. In this method, each sample cluster is further subdivided into smaller clusters, and members are randomly selected from each of these smaller clusters (Joseph et al., 2014).

3.6.2 Nonprobability sampling

Nonprobability sampling, as defined by Saunders et al. (2011), is a sampling method where the likelihood of each population member being chosen for the sample is unknown. This sampling method is categorised into five types: purposive, convenience, snowball, quota, and consecutive sampling.

In purposive sampling, the selection of sample members is driven by the study's objective, hence it is also referred to as judgmental or deliberate sampling. Convenience sampling, on the other hand, is characterized by the selection of sample members based on their easy accessibility (Saunders et al., 2011).

Snowball sampling, also known as sequential or chain sampling, is employed when one participant identifies additional participants (Teddlie & Yu, 2007). This method can be further divided into three types: linear snowball sampling, where data collection begins with one individual who then refers to another, forming a chain until a sufficient number of individuals are gathered for analysis; exponential nondiscrimination snowball sampling, where one participant provides information about multiple individuals who then refer to others, forming a chain and collecting data; and exponential discrimination snowball sampling, where one participant provides multiple referrals, but only one is recruited based on the research study's nature and type (Bhardwaj, 2019).

Quota sampling involves selecting members based on specific characteristics chosen by the researcher, which serve as a quota for sample selection. It can be controlled, where the researcher's choice is limited, or uncontrolled, where there are no limitations and samples are selected at the researcher's convenience (Saunders et al., 2011).

Lastly, consecutive sampling involves the researcher selecting samples at his/her convenience, similar to convenience sampling but with slight modifications. Here, the researcher initially selects a group of individuals for research, conducts the study for a certain period, collects samples, provides results, and then proceeds to the next group once the research is completed (Hendlin et al., 2019).

In this study, the purposive sampling technique was used to select the institutions according to specific criteria the researcher has set (Sincero, 2012b), that is, in terms of their year of establishment with students' enrolment above 3,000.00. Also, the researcher used the purposive sampling method to select the target population – women lecturers in managerial positions because the researcher was selecting only women who were Lectures, Senior Lecturers, Associate Professors or Professors and were Heads of Department (HODs), Deputy/Assistant Heads of Departments, Deans or Vice Deans in the twelve selected institutions.

A sample size of 270 women lecturers in managerial positions in Table 1 was determined using proportional stratified sampling technique (Bhardwaj, 2019). First, according to Krejcie and Morgan (1970), a total population of 454 to 460 will have representative sample of 270. The sample size of 270 was distributed proportionately among the strata or subgroups within the population (type of universities and their population size), according to the proportion or percentage each represents in the total population. This was to ensure that each group was fairly represented and that any characteristics measured truly reflect their nature. Furthermore, this method is dependable as it ensures an equal selection of items that display diverse characteristics, thereby creating a sample that accurately reflects the entire population. Consequently, this sample offers a more comprehensive representation of the total population.

The proportional stratified sampling method was again used to select the members from each institution that came together to form the members of each stratum in Table 1. The lottery method of simple random sampling (Bhardwaj, 2019) was then employed for the selection of the specific participants from each institution. For the lottery method, the names of all the women lecturers in managerial positions from each

institution were put in different containers with the names of the institutions labelled on each. The researcher then picked at random from each container until the required number was reached for each institution.

Table 1: Population and Sample Distribution

Name of Institution	Names of Institution	Population Size		Sample Size	
Public Traditional Universities	UG, Accra	61	231	36	137
	KNUST, Kumasi	59		35	
	UCC, Cape Coast	63		37	
	UEW, Winneba	48		29	
Public Technical Universities	ATU, Accra	35	128	21	76
	TTU, Tamale	28		16	
	KTU, Kumasi	32		19	
	TTU, Takoradi	33		20	
Private Universities	VVU, Accra	26	95	16	57
	RMU, Accra	20		12	
	ANU, Koforidua	25		15	
	CUC, Accra	24		14	
Total		**454**	**454**	**270**	**270**

Source: Survey Results from the Twelve Universities, 2023

3.7 Data Collection Instrument

The study utilized a close-ended questionnaire for data collection. This type of questionnaire provides pre-determined response options, compelling the participant to select the one that most accurately reflects her views, beliefs, or knowledge. Close-ended queries are most effective in quantitative research as they facilitate the gathering of statistical data from participants. If the objective of a researcher is to amass a

substantial volume of data that can be swiftly analysed, then posing close-ended questions is the most suitable approach (Gray, 2009). These types of questions are straightforward and prompt to respond to (Gillham, 2007).

The close-ended questionnaire had five sections namely, A, B, C, D, E and F. Section A was used to find out the demographic variables, such as age, marital status, years of experience in current position and professional qualification of the respondents. Sections B, C, D, E and F covered the main themes mentioned in the research questions. Section B consisted of 10 items that required respondents to indicate their perceived stress levels. Section C comprised 22 items that sort to find out the types of stressors respondents that affect the perceived stress levels of respondents. Section D comprised of 10 items which sort to find respondents views on well-being at work. Section E consisted of 10 items that sort to find out respondents' work performance. The final part, section F consisted of 15 items that sought to find out the institutional stress management systems available in the respondents' institutions.

3.7.1 The Likert Scale

Information was collected through a survey instrument grounded in the Likert Scale, a sequential psychometric measure utilized for assessing attitudes, perceptions, and viewpoints (Mcleod, 2008). Each question posed a proposition, and participants were prompted to indicate their degree of concurrence or dissent using a multiple-choice approach. The Telaprolu and George's (2005) Employee Occupational Stressors Scale (EOSS) was utilised in the second section, with potential responses varying from "never" equating to 1, "rarely" equating to 2, "sometimes" equating to 3, "frequently" equating to 4, "always" equating to 5. The subsequent sections provided answer choices

ranging from strongly disagree (SD) equating to 1, disagree (D) equating to 2, neutral (N) equating to 3, agree (A) equating to 4, up to strongly agree (SA) equating to 5. The Likert Scale, predominantly used in surveys, is straight forward and easy to comprehend. The responses can be easily quantified and subjected to mathematical analysis. As it doesn't necessitate a definitive yes or no response, it doesn't compel the participant to adopt a specific stance, but rather allows them to express their level of agreement, simplifying the response process (Johnson & Christensen, 2014).

Moreover, the response options catered to the neutral or undecided sentiments of the participants. These responses are straightforward to code during data compilation, as a single digit represents the participant's response. Likert surveys are swift, effective, and cost-efficient means of data collection. They offer great flexibility and can be distributed via mail, online, or in person. The use of scales facilitates statistical analysis, enabling easy calculation of means, standard deviations, and so on.

3.7.2 The Employee Occupational Stressor Scale

The Employee Occupational Stressor Scale (EOSS), a renowned tool for gauging stress levels, was conceived by Telaprolu and George in 2005. This instrument continues to be a preferred option for researchers aiming to comprehend the impact of varying circumstances on individuals' emotions and stress levels. The scale's queries probe into the respondents' stress levels over the preceding months. The resultant scores are categorised into high, moderate, low, and very low. The scale comprises 20 statements and utilizes a five-point grading system, including "always", "frequently", "sometimes", "rarely", and "never", corresponding to scores of 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1,

respectively. The scores span from 0 to 100. The stress levels were quantified based on the cumulative scores, as depicted in Table 2.

Table 2: Categories of Level of Stress

Category Range	Range	Mean
Very low stress	0 – 25	0.00 – 0.25
Low stress	26 – 50	0.26 – 2.50
Moderate stress	51 – 75	2.60 – 3.75
High stress	76 – 100	3.75 – 5.00

Source: Telaprolu and George (2005)

3.7.3 Reliability and Validity of the Instrument

Reliability, while crucial, is not the sole determinant of a test's effectiveness. It must also exhibit validity (Patton, 2015). Patton (2015) emphasizes that both validity and reliability are critical considerations for any researcher during the process of study design, data analysis, and evaluation of the study's quality. This convinces the audience of the significance of the research findings (Silverman, 2006). The assessment of a study's quality within its specific paradigm hinges on its perceived validity and reliability, as posited by Healy and Perry (2000).

3.7.3.1 Reliability of the Instrument

Reliability is a critical attribute that signifies the consistency of measurement, serving as a crucial determinant of a robust quantitative research tool. It encapsulates the precision, accuracy, dependability, and constancy with which a tool gauges the characteristics it is intended to assess. Furthermore, reliability is indicative of the

stability, predictability, and trustworthiness of the scores procured, and their consistency for each individual across different administrations of the tool and various item sets (Kumar, 2008; Cohen et al., 2018).

The instrument's reliability was evaluated through factor analysis, a method chosen due to the multi-scored nature of most items, aimed at pinpointing those specifically pertinent to the study. The selection of factor analysis was justified by Jackson (2006) and Ofori and Dampson (2011), who argue that it aids in identifying only those questionnaire items or indicators that align with the concept the researcher aims to measure or that bear relevance to the research topic, thereby enhancing its construct validity. In essence, factor analysis streamlines the indicators by choosing only those that provide an accurate assessment of the concept under scrutiny, thereby confirming the components' reliability. Any questionnaire items or statements deemed irrelevant to the study or failing to measure the study's concept were discarded following the pre-test (Appendix). Specifically, any questionnaire items with a sampling accuracy measure below 0.50 in the factor analysis were excluded, a point underscored by Field (2009). He suggested that the principal component analysis of the Kaiser-Mayer Olkin measure of sampling accuracy (SMA) should exceed 0.50 for each variable and the variable set. Consequently, the Kaiser-Mayer Olkin SMA is considered excellent if it is 0.90 or above, commendable if it is 0.80, average if it is 0.70, mediocre if it is 0.60, and unacceptable if it falls below 0.50. Based on the factor analysis outcomes (Table 6), the researcher dismissed any questionnaire item with an SMA less than 0.50, excluding it from the main work's questionnaire. This exclusion was due to the inability of such statements to measure the concepts the study aims to explore.

The instrument's consistency was assessed by computing Cronbach's alpha for all items. The reliability of scaled items was determined using the 26th version of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The reliability outcomes for all the study's variables are displayed in Table 3. Constructs B, C, D, E, and F, which encapsulate the study's primary theme, achieved reliability coefficients of 0.903, 0.912, 0.825, 0.737, and 0.843 respectively. The reliability scale was within the acceptable range, with Cronbach's Alpha (α) exceeding .7 for all variables. Given that the instruments were scored multiple times, Cronbach's alpha is considered the most suitable. This is corroborated by Creswell and Plano-Clark (2007), who noted that Cronbach's alpha is employed when measures contain multiple scored items.

Table 3: Reliability Results for the Variables of the Study

Variable (N = 270)	M	SD	Cronbach's Alpha (α)
Work performance	3.739	.654	.903
Perceived Stress Levels	3.792	.532	.912
Stressors	3.516	.198	.825
Well-being	3.625	.473	.737
Institutional Stress Management Systems	4.037	.684	.843

**Correlation is significant at p< 0.1 (two-tailed)

Before the regression analysis was undertaken, a thorough examination of the instrument's components was carried out using principal components extraction and varimax rotation to confirm the construct validity. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) metric was utilized to assess the sample's sufficiency by contrasting the size of the observed correlation coefficients. If KMO values are less than 0.5, factor analysis is

deemed inappropriate. Sixty-seven questions related to the variables of the study were subjected to factor analysis, employing principal component analysis paired with Varimax rotation (See Table 3 for reference). This analysis yielded five factors, which represented 51.43 per cent of the total variance for the entire variable set.

3.7.3.2 Validity of the Instrument

Johnson & Christensen (2004, p 140) define validity as the suitability of the deductions, implications, and actions derived from test scores. They further elucidate that the assurance of validity in research tools is crucial. Therefore, to guarantee validity, it is essential to confirm that the test accurately gauges what it is designed to gauge, for the specific demographic and the specific content, as well as the interpretations. In a similar vein, Hair et al. (2005) propose that validity is indicative of how accurately a concept is delineated by its measure. Amedahe (2002) posits that the validity lies in the robustness of the interpretations assigned to the assessment scores, not the tool itself. This suggests that if the tool gauges what it is designed to gauge and the outcomes are utilized for the intended objective, then the tool can be deemed valid. The ultimate objective of this procedure is to yield results that are genuine, innovative, and dependable (Silverman, 2006). The validity of the instruments was established on three levels, namely; Face Validity, Content validity, and Construct validity (Moskal, & Leydens, 2000).

3.7.3.2.1 Face validity

Face validity pertains to the apparent ability of a test to measure what it purports to measure (Creswell & Miller, 2000). When the objective of a test is readily

discernible, even to untrained respondents, it is considered to possess high face validity. Conversely, tests with ambiguous objectives are deemed to have low face validity (Healy & Perry, 2000). An explicit evaluation of face validity can be achieved by soliciting individuals to appraise the validity of a test based on their perception (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). This could potentially involve the use of a Likert scale to evaluate face validity. For instance, the test could be rated on its suitability for a specific purpose, ranging from extremely suitable to very suitable, adequate or inadequate, irrelevant, and unsuitable (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). Face validity was granted by giving the research instrument to the researcher's peers for their comments. The issues such as the length of the questionnaire, the order of questions, the demand characteristics of some tests, and the general state of clutter were some of the factors that were considered. Their corrections were incorporated into the instrument.

3.7.3.2.2 Content validity

Content validity pertains to the degree to which a measurement method encapsulates the construct it aims to measure (Winter, 2000). Similar to face validity, the assessment of content validity involves a meticulous comparison of the measurement technique with the theoretical definition of the construct (Creswell & Miller, 2000). As Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) suggest, the content validity of a tool can be enhanced through the judgment of experts. Consequently, the researcher sought the opinions of her supervisors, specialists, and other academic staff regarding the content of the tools, which contributed to the improvement of the tools' content validity. Their suggested modifications were integrated into the tool.

3.7.3.2.3 Construct validity

The concept of construct validity pertains to the degree to which a specific theoretical construct or characteristic is encapsulated by a test (Cozby, 2001). Rather than merely addressing the straightforward, factual query of whether a test gauges a certain attribute, construct validity delves into the intricate issue of whether the interpretations of test scores align with a nomological network that includes both theoretical and observational terms (Davies & Dodd, 2002). The validation of the construct was conferred by my overseeing authorities and specialists in the research domain. Their suggested amendments were integrated into the tool.

3.7.4. Trustworthiness of Instrument

The principle of trustworthiness is integral to the dependability of a research investigation or assessment test. It functions as a marker of the consistency in the researcher's approach across different researchers and initiatives (Gibbs, 2007). The reliability or solidity of a study is a measure of the assurance in the data, interpretation, and methodologies employed to guarantee the study's quality (Polit & Beck, 2014). It falls upon the shoulders of investigators in each study to establish the necessary protocols and procedures for their study to be deemed deserving of consideration by the audience (Amankwaa, 2016. These standards include credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability, with authenticity being added subsequently (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). Each of these standards and the frequently used procedures were elaborated. Not all procedures are applied in every investigation. In the quest for establishing trustworthiness, it is incumbent upon scholars to accurately identify and depict the subjects of their research. The term 'dependability' denotes the consistency

of data across time and varying circumstances. 'Confirmability' is indicative of impartiality, or the potential for agreement among two or more independent individuals regarding the precision, pertinence, or importance of the data. 'Transferability' concerns the capacity for inference, premised on the belief that findings can be generalised or applied to different contexts or groups. The final criterion, 'authenticity', pertains to the degree to which researchers truthfully and precisely reflect diverse realities (Polit & Beck, 2012).

3.7.5. Pilot Test or Pre-Test of Instruments

Blaxter, Hughes, and Tight (2006) define a preliminary or pilot study as an initial evaluation of a survey or interview plan, which aids in pinpointing both the issues and advantages linked to the tool. Kumar (2011) posits that the pre-evaluation of a research tool involves a meticulous scrutiny of each question's comprehension and its interpretation by a respondent. Echoing Donald (1990), Frimpong (2004) emphasizes the necessity of a study's pre-evaluation as it assists the investigator in determining the study's feasibility and value for further pursuit. This also offers a chance to evaluate the suitability and practicality of the data gathering tool. Gay, Mills, and Airasian (2009) concurred with Frimpong (2004), suggesting that a pre-evaluation could be employed to modify questions in the guide that are vague or elicit adverse responses from participants. Frankel (2000) advocated for the importance of a "pre-test" in the process of survey or interview design, highlighting its potential to reveal unclear instructions, ambiguities, and questions that may be poorly constructed or misunderstood. A preliminary study was carried out with ten women lecturers holding managerial positions at the University of Mines and Technology, Tarkwa, chosen for its similarities

with the final study's participants. The leaders chosen for this exercise offered valuable insights into the strengths and shortcomings of the questions. To bolster the validity of the tools, the preliminary interview guide and questionnaire were presented to specialists in the field of measurement and evaluation for pertinent recommendations, which were subsequently incorporated to enhance the tools. The feedback from the pre-test instilled confidence in the researcher about the significance of the pre-test in the data collection process, reinforcing its role in ensuring the relevance and reliability of the data gathered for the project. Furthermore, various researchers have observed that pre-testing a questionnaire is the most effective means of pre-testing to increase clarity, layout, and appearance as well as validity (Cohen et al., 2018; Kumar, 2011).

3.8 Data Collection Procedure

The investigator procured a preliminary letter from the Educational Leadership Department, addressed to the Vice Chancellors of the universities involved in the study. This letter served to introduce the investigator and articulate the necessity for her assistance in data collection for her thesis, as well as the objective of the study. The investigator then visited these universities to gather the names, contact numbers, and email details of female faculty members who were part of the study's demographic.

In the process of data collection from these educational institutions, the respondents were briefed about the study's objective. The investigator personally administered a closed-ended questionnaire to gather the required data. This questionnaire, which was used as the primary data collection tool, included statements that described the participants' stress levels, their well-being at work, their work performance, and the stress management systems in place at their respective

institutions. The questionnaire's introductory section provided an explanation of the study's purpose, its importance, the measures taken to maintain the confidentiality of the collected data, the strategies employed to safeguard the respondents' anonymity, and other pertinent matters.

The researcher gave respondents enough time – about one (1) month to respond. After that, the researcher followed up with constant reminders through emails, WhatsApp messages and face-to-face visits and phone calls because of the nature of the respondents (lecturers/academic leaders) and had to give them much time to respond to the questions at their convenience. In this case, the researcher took about four (4) months to get completed data for analysis.

3.9 Method of Data Analysis

The research adopted a descriptive methodology and a numerical investigative strategy. The analysis of the survey data was conducted using both descriptive and inferential statistical methods. To scrutinize the second, third, fourth, and fifth research inquiries, descriptive statistical tools like averages and standard deviations were employed. However, for the first research question, the analysis was performed using frequencies, percentages, averages, and standard deviations.

Similarly, the first and second hypotheses were tested using descriptive statistics, one-way ANOVA and Turkey HSD Test for Multiple Comparison. The third hypothesis was tested using Multiple Regression while the fourth, fifth and sixth hypotheses were tested using the Conditional Process analysis using multiple regression analysis using Hayes (2018) PROCESS macro v3.2 (Model 4).

Blaxter et al. (2006) posited that descriptive research offers a precise depiction of specific individuals, situations, or groups' traits, enabling the uncovering of new

insights, outlining existing conditions, quantifying its prevalence, and classifying data. The objective of such analysis is to investigate and elucidate the phenomena in real-world scenarios. During the examination of the results, connections and correlations among responses were scrutinized to draw interpretations. Pinder (2017) suggested that multiple regression analysis enables scholars to evaluate the intensity of the correlation between a result (the dependent variable) and multiple predictor variables, as well as the significance of each predictor in the relationship, often with the influence of other predictors statistically removed. The multiple regression analysis in this study was performed to evaluate how well-being intermediates the correlation between stress (the independent variable) and work performance (the dependent variable), and the potency of the mediation. I present the components of mediation analysis, concentrating on the simplest possible mediation model comprising a causal precursor variable connected to a single resultant variable via a single intermediary or mediator. The study employed a conditional process analysis using Hayes (2018) process macro v3.2 (Model 59). Conditional process analysis is a modelling approach used to delineate the conditional or contingent characteristics of the mechanism(s) through which a variable imparts its effect on another and to test hypotheses about such contingent effects. It merges two concepts - process analysis (also referred to as mediation analysis) and moderation analysis, both conceptually and analytically. Process analysis is employed to quantify and scrutinize the direct and indirect routes through which a precursor variable X imparts its effect on a resultant variable Y via an intermediary M. Moderation analysis is utilized to investigate how the impact of a precursor X on a resultant Y is dependent on a third moderator variable M (interaction).

Moreover, moderated mediation analyses allow researchers to examine the underlying mechanisms through which a mediator variable operates, while taking into account the influence of a moderator variable. The conduct of moderated mediation analyses was done using the Hayes (2018) Process Macro v3.2, specifically focusing on Model 59. Model 59 in Hayes (2018) Process Macro v3.2: Model 59 refers to a specific type of moderated mediation analysis where both the direct and indirect effects of the independent variable (X) on the outcome variable (Y) are examined, while considering the moderating effect of a third variable (W) on the indirect effect. This model allows for a more comprehensive understanding of the relationships among variables and their conditional effects. In conducting the moderated mediation analyses, I ensure that your dataset is properly organised with appropriate variable labels and check for missing data and handle it using appropriate techniques (e.g., imputation). I loaded the necessary software (e.g., SPSS, R) and the Hayes (2018) Process Macro v3.2 and specify the independent variable (X), the mediator variable (M), the moderator variable (W), and the outcome variable (Y) in the analysis software. I conducted preliminary analyses to assess the assumptions of moderation and mediation (e.g., linearity, normality, homoscedasticity) and run the moderated mediation analysis using Model 59 in the Hayes (2018) Process Macro v3.2. The interpretation of the results of the analysis, paying attention to the direct, indirect, and conditional effects were carefully looked at. I examined the significance of the direct effect (c') of X on Y, which represents the total effect of X on Y. Assessed the significance of the indirect effect (ab) of X on Y through the mediator M, which demonstrates the mediating effect and analyse the conditional effect (c) of X on Y at different levels of the moderator W, indicating the moderating effect. Finally, I examined the significance of the conditional

indirect effect (ab') of X on Y through M at different levels of W, representing the moderated mediation effect.

In conclusion, moderated mediation analyses using Model 59 in the Hayes (2018) Process Macro v3.2 provide researchers with a valuable tool to explore the conditional relationships among variables. By considering the moderating effect of a third variable, researchers can gain deeper insights into the underlying mechanisms and conditional processes involved in their research questions. Proper execution and interpretation of moderated mediation analyses can contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of complex relationships within a given study.

3.10 Ethical Considerations

The integrity of this study was upheld by addressing ethical concerns that could potentially impact its credibility. Measures were taken by the investigator to safeguard the interests of stakeholders, participants, and the dozen universities involved, thereby ensuring the research adhered to globally recognised standards. As Barbbie (2005) asserts, it is crucial to maintain and safeguard the mental well-being and dignity of participants, protecting them from any harm. Blaxer et al. (2006, pp. 158-159) emphasize that ethical research necessitates obtaining informed consent from those being interviewed, questioned, or observed. This process includes establishing agreements regarding data usage and the manner in which its analysis will be reported and disseminated, and adhering to these agreements once they are in place. The anonymity of respondents, the confidentiality of their information, the credibility of the research, respect for respondents' privacy, and avoidance of plagiarism were all treated

with utmost importance. This ensured that the data gathered from the participants was exclusively utilised for the advancement of the study.

3.12.1 Lack of informed consent

The concept implies that potential study participants should receive all necessary details to make an educated choice about their willingness to be involved in the research. The notion of informed consent further includes the understanding that even when individuals are aware they are being invited to partake in a study, they should be thoroughly educated about the research procedure (Bryman, 2008). In this investigation, consent from the participants was obtained prior to their inclusion in the study. An introductory letter was dispatched from the Educational Leadership Department, presenting the researcher and outlining the nature of data required from the institutions. Furthermore, the participants were comprehensively informed about the specific data required from them, the reason for its collection, its intended use, their anticipated role in the study, and the potential direct and indirect impacts on them, prior to the commencement of the study. The researcher clarified the study's objectives and took intentional measures to reassure all participants that their contributions to the research would be used solely for scholarly purposes and would remain entirely confidential. Additionally, all participants were advised to refrain from responding to any queries that caused them discomfort.

3.12.2 Invasion of privacy

The underlying principles of educational research have been identified as respect for the dignity and privacy of those people who are subjects of research (Kumar,

2011). This right to privacy is a tenet that should be regarded as crucial, and transgressions of this right in the name of research are unacceptable. In this research, participants were allowed to refuse the invasion of their privacy. Participants choose where they wanted to sit and answer the questionnaire.

3.12.3 Anonymity and confidentiality

The investigator guaranteed the privacy of the data related to the study's participants. In certain instances, specific types of delicate data were deliberately left unrecorded. The preamble of the survey reassured participants that their contributions would be exclusively utilised for scholarly objectives, with a guarantee of confidentiality and anonymity. The investigator took measures to ensure that the personal identifiers of individual participants were absent from the analytical discourse and deliberation.

3.12.4 Plagiarism

Plagiarism is copying directly from another person’s work or paraphrasing it so closely that it is recognisably similar (Barbbie, 2005). The act of plagiarism is characterised by the unauthorized use or representation of another individual's intellectual output as one's own, irrespective of whether the original author's permission was obtained or not. This is typically done by integrating the borrowed work into one's own without providing adequate recognition (Bryman, 2008). To avoid plagiarism, all ideas, phrases, or passages taken from other researchers’ works have been properly cited and well-referenced in this thesis.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND PRESENTATION

4.0 Introduction

In this chapter, the data collected from all the related sources are presented for critical analysis. The demographic information of the respondents is covered in the first part. The second segment presents respondents' views to investigate stress and work performance: a moderated mediation model of well-being and institutional stress management systems in selected higher educational institutions in Ghana. The findings were presented according to the research questions and hypotheses set out for the work. Finally, these findings were analysed alongside the concepts discussed throughout the literature review.

4.1 Preliminary Analysis

4.1.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Women Lecturers in Managerial Positions

Table 4 presents an analysis of the demographic characteristics of 270 women lecturers in managerial positions in the twelve selected institutions in Ghana, categorised into three, namely; four Public Traditional Universities as Institution A, four Public Technical Universities as Institution B and four Private Universities as Institution B. The section looks at the respondent's type of institution, age, marital status, number of offspring, academic and professional qualification, position and years of experience in the current position.

Table 4: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Type of Institution		
Institution A	137	50.7
Institution B	76	28.2
Institution C	57	21.1
Age in Ranges		
40-45 years	33	12.2
46-50 years	65	24.1
51-55 years	79	29.3
56-60 years	74	27.4
Above 60 years	19	7.0
Marital Status		
Married	187	69.3
Unmarried	83	30.7
Offsprings		
Yes	192	71.1
No	78	28.9
Academic Qualification		
MPhil Degree	72	26.7
PhD Degree	198	73.3
Professional Qualification		
Lecturers	35	13.0
Senior Lecturers	189	70.0
Associate Professor	37	13.7
Professors	9	3.3
Position		
HOD/Deputy HOD	119	44.1
Dean/Vice Dean	67	24.8
Director/Deputy Director	26	9.6
Unit Head/Sectional Heads	58	21.5

Years of Experience in Current Position		
0-1 year	67	24.8
2-3 years	116	43.0
4-5 years	73	27.0
Above 5 years	14	5.2
Total	**270**	**100.0**

Source: Field Data, 2023

According to the results, 33.33 per cent of the women were selected from each of the institutions A, B and C. Also, when respondents were asked to indicate their age in years ranging from 30 years to above 60 years, 12.2 per cent of the women stated that they were between the ages of 40 to 45 years while 24.1 per cent stated that they were between the ages of 46 to 50 years. 29.3 per cent were between 51 to 55 years, 27.4 per cent were between 56 to 60 years and 7.0 per cent were above 60 years. This shows that the majority (80.8%) of the women were between the ages of 46 to 60 which is an indication that respondents are experienced and should have the ability to perform better at work.

Table 4 also shows that the majority (69.3%) of the respondents have marital commitments which may affect their stress levels and performance at work. Again, results in Table 4 indicate that 71.1 per cent of respondents had offspring while 28.9 per cent did not. This implies that the majority of the respondents have other family commitments which may affect their stress levels and performance at work. In addition, when the women were asked to indicate their highest academic qualifications, 72 (26.7%) of the women indicated that they had MPhil degrees while 198 (73.3%)

indicated that they had Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) degrees. Equally, on their highest professional qualifications, 35(13.0%) of the women indicated that they were Lecturers, 189(70.0%) indicated that they were Senior Lecturers, 37(13.7%) indicated they were Associate Professors while only 9(3.3%) indicated that they were Professors. This implies that all the women qualify in terms of the subjects they teach and have been adequately trained in their job and hence can provide needed information for the study.

Furthermore, table 4 shows that 44.1 per cent of the women representing the majority were either Heads of Department or Deputy Heads of Department, 24.8 per cent were either Deans or Vice Deans, 9.6 per cent were either Directors or Deputy Directors while 21.5 per cent were either Unit Heads or Sectional Heads. This implies that they are well equipped to provide information on their stress levels and how it affects their well-being and work performance.

Lastly, the results in Table 4 revealed that most respondents have a considerable working experience in their current position. 43.0 per cent of the respondent representing the majority have about 2 to 3 years in their current positions, 24.8 per cent have spent about 1 or below 1 year in their positions, 27.0 per cent have spent from 4 to 5 years in their positions while a handful of the respondents representing 5.2 per cent respondents have spent above 5 years.

4.1.2 Means, Standard Deviations, Reliability and Correlation Results for the Work Performance, Stressors, Perceived Stress Levels, Well-being and Institutional Stress Management Systems

The statistical data presented in Table 5 provides an overview of the averages, variability, consistency, and interrelation of work performance, stressors, perceived

stress levels, well-being and institutional stress management systems. The data reveals that the Institutional Stress Management Systems possess the greatest average value, standing at 4.037, accompanied by a variability measure of .684. Conversely, Well-being records the lowest average, at 3.525, with a variability index of .473.

Table 5: Means, Standard Deviations, Reliability and Correlation Results for the Variables of the Study

Variable (N = 270)	M	SD	Cronbach's Alpha (α)	Correlation (r) 1	2	3	4
Work performance	3.739	.654	.903	-			
Stressors	3.648	.719	.842	.294**	-		
Perceived Stress Levels	3.792	.532	.912	.317**	.311**	-	
Well-being	3.525	.573	.737	.247**	.201**	.272**	-
ISMS	4.037	.684	.843	.263**	.229**	.218**	.251**

****Correlation is significant at p< 0.1 (2-tailed) N= 270**
ISMS = Institutional Stress Management Systems
Source: Field Data, 2023

Moreover, the reliability scale was within the acceptable range, as evidenced by Cronbach's Alpha exceeding .7 for all variables. The correlation results indicated a positive relationship between all variables and work performance, with stress exhibiting the strongest correlation (r=.317, p<.01). This was followed by Institutional Stress Management Systems (r=.263, p<.01), while well-being demonstrated the weakest, yet still positive, correlation (r=.247, p<.01).

Before embarking on regression analysis, a thorough examination of the instrument's components was undertaken using principal components extraction and varimax rotation to confirm the construct validity. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) metric was utilized to evaluate the adequacy of the sample by contrasting the magnitude of the observed correlation coefficients. Factor analysis is deemed inappropriate for KMO values that fall below 0.5. Sixty-seven questions that were relevant to the variables of the study were subjected to factor analysis, employing principal component analysis and Varimax rotation (see Table 6 for reference). This analysis resulted in five factors, accounting for a cumulative 51.43 per cent of the variance across all variables.

Table 6: Factor Analysis

Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin measure of sampling adequacy .758					
Bartlett's test of sphericity approx. Chi-square 3422.420					
df 1954.000					
Sig .000					
Variables and measures items (NB: 1-5 components 1-5)	1	2	3	4	5
Work performance items loaded under component 4					

I quit more than 5 lecture sessions a semester (removed)	
A lot of students fail my papers each semester (removed)	
In preparation for each class I instruct, I engage in meticulous planning	.814
I strive to ensure that the objectives of each lecture are met.	.732
Prior to delivering any lecture, I make it a point to update the subject matter.	.614
I am responsible for teaching all the lectures assigned to me each semester.	.763
I give all coursework students should to do in a semester	.607
I design exams for the students.	.593
I also oversee the exams I set for the students.	.561
I am committed to grading all the coursework I assign to students promptly.	.725
Similarly, I ensure that the exams I administer are marked in a timely manner.	.835
I submit students' coursework marks for grading in time	.773
I am diligent in submitting the coursework grades of students for evaluation promptly.	.813
I am tasked with supervising the research students assigned to me, and I adhere to the schedule.	.732
I am able to do enough research as required	.624
I am able to publish the required number of articles for promotion as required	.763
I have authored a number of textbooks recently	.604
I have presented a number of conference papers recently.	.533
Engaging in initiatives where I impart my specialized knowledge to community participants forms a part of my responsibilities.	.725
I actively engage in discussions with corporations to secure internships for my students.	.834
I have been instrumental in creating software solutions aimed at addressing societal challenges.	.757

I am an active participant in public discourse, deliberating on potential solutions to matters of public concern.			.823
My research endeavours are inclusive, providing tangible benefits to the community.			.817
I foster partnerships with community organisations, working on projects that yield mutual benefits.			.739
I also take it upon myself to disseminate information to the wider public on topics of public significance.			.653
Perceived Stress items loaded under component 2			
In the last six month,			
How often have you encountered distress due to unexpected occurrences?	.549		
How frequently have you felt a lack of control over the crucial elements of your life?	.763		
How recurrently have you been subjected to tension and anxiety?	.784		
How many times have you been confident in your ability to resolve your problems?	.569		
How frequently have you felt that situations were working in your favor?	.731		
How often have you realized that you were incapable of managing all your obligations?	.635		
How regularly have you succeeded in controlling the annoyances in your life? How many times have you felt in control of circumstances?	.632		
How often have you felt in command of situations?	.734		
How often have you been exasperated by incidents that were out of your control?	.668		
How frequently have you felt that obstacles were piling up to a degree that you couldn't overcome them?	.705		
Well-being items loaded under component 3			
I exercise and/or eat balanced diet		.802	

I am positive about my personality and satisfied with life in general		.811
I mostly feel anxious, tensed, depressed, restless, bored, or frustrated at work		.763
I suffer from musculoskeletal disorders e.g. arthritis, back pain, and repetitive strain injury.		.653
I am provided with the necessary resources and support to help when times are tough		.685
I have been feeling optimistic about the future		.721
I frequently experience headaches, stomach upsets and or feel feverish at work		.803
I have been feeling useful, loved, cheerful and happy to work		.764
I am personally confident, motivated and have control over my safety to work		.783
My knowledge and ideas are being considered within the working environment.		.913
Institutional Stress Management Systems items loaded as variable 1		
Management encourages more institutional communication with the staff	.596	
Management uses better signs and symbols which are not misinterpreted by the staff	.763	
Management encourages staff participation in decision-making	.701	
Management grants staff greater independence	.652	
Management grants staff meaningful and timely feedback and greater responsibility	.728	
Management encourages decentralisation	.793	
There is a fair and just distribution of incentives	.686	
There is a fair and just distribution of the salary structure	.817	
Management promotes job rotation and job enrichment	.704	
My institution has effective recruitment and orientation procedure	.697	

Management appreciates the staff for accomplishing and over-exceeding their targets	.765
My institution organises wellness programmes e.g. keeping fit, exercising, health screenings,	.733
Management ensures the provision of confidential counselling services to staff	.673
The institutional goals are realistic and stimulating	.639
My institution has Stress Management Policy	.785
Stressors items loaded under component 5	
Shift hours (removed)	
Position/Status (removed)	
Bullying (removed)	
Family problems (removed)	
Age and Experience (removed)	
Obsolescence (removed)	
Workload	.925
Extended working hours	.857
Tight deadlines	.872
Slow career progress	.763
Multiple roles/responsibilities	.813
Numerous performance appraisal	.690
Inadequate resources	.754
Harassment/Assault	.658
Gender Discrimination/stereotyping	.873
Workplace conflict	.744
New technology	.842
Role conflicts	.798
Lack of support	.694
Physical surroundings	.713
Job description	.652
Job insecurity	.617
Terms and conditions	.673
Fear of redundancy	.612
Low self-efficacy	.636

Employment contract	.715
Over promotion	.782
Role ambiguity	.936
Number of publications needed for promotion	.702
Source: Field Data, 2023	**N= 270**

4.2 Analysis of Research Questions

The study sought to assess stress and work performance: a moderated mediation model of well-being and institutional stress management systems in selected higher educational institutions in Ghana. The findings were based on the following research questions of the study:

1. What are the perceived stress levels of the women lecturers in managerial positions in selected higher educational institutions?
2. What are the stressors of women lecturers in managerial positions in twelve higher educational institutions?
3. What is the well-being of women lecturers in managerial positions in selected higher educational institutions?
4. What is the work performance of women lecturers in managerial positions in selected higher educational institutions?
5. What are the institutional stress management systems available in the selected higher educational institutions?

4.2.1 Perceived Stress Levels of Women Lecturers in Managerial Positions in the Selected Institutions

The results discussed in this section seek to find answers to research question 2 which mean = states “What are the perceived stress levels of the women lecturers in

managerial positions in the selected higher educational institutions? Table 7 presents the frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations of the various perceived stress levels of respondents. According the EOSS (Telaprolu and George, 2005), a score of 0 to 25 (mean = 0.00 – 0.25) shows a very low perceived stress, 26 to 50 (mean = 0,26 – 2.50) shows low perceived stress, 51 to 75 (mean = 2,60 – 3,75) shows moderate perceived stress while 76 to 100 (3,75 – 5.00) indicates high perceived stress.

Table 7 reveals that 16 (5.9 per cent, mean=0.203; 2.519) respondents had very low perceived stress levels, 21 (7.8 per cent, mean=1.912; sd=1.073) respondents had low perceived stress levels, 82 (30.4 per cent, mean=3.437; sd=0.924) had moderate perceived stress while the majority, that is, 151 (55.9 per cent, mean=4.043; sd=1.753) demonstrated high perceived stress levels.

Table 7: Frequencies, Percentages, Means, and Standard Deviations of Perceived Stress Levels of Women Lecturers in Managerial Positions

Stress Level	Frequency	Percentage	Mean	Std. Dev.
Very Low	16	5.9	0.203	2.519
Low	21	7.8	1.912	1.073
Moderate	82	30.4	3.437	0.924
High	151	55.9	4.043	1.753

Source: Field Data, 2023 **N= 270**

4.2.2 Stressors Encountered by Women Lecturers in Managerial Positions in the Selected Institutions

The results discussed in this section seek to find answers to research question 2 which states “What are the stressors (causes/sources of stress) among women lecturers in managerial positions in twelve selected higher educational institutions?” Table 8

presents the mean and standard deviation of the various sources of the respondents' work stress. The responses as displayed by the table and concerning the interpretation of the mean and the standard deviation show that respondents strongly agreed with the fact that workload (Mean=4.841; sd=1.913), extended working hours (Mean=4.815; sd=1.772), tight deadlines (Mean=4.771; sd=1.782), slow career progression (Mean=4.613; sd=1.531), and multiple roles (Mean=4.588; sd=1.509) respectively highly stress the women lecturers in managerial positions. Table 8 also shows that respondents agreed that numerous performance appraisals (mean=3.821, sd=1.258), inadequate resources (mean=3.742, sd=1.239), number of publications needed for promotion (mean=3.653, sd=1.195), workplace conflict (mean=3.622, sd=1.173), new technology (mean=3.615, sd=1.216) and role conflicts (mean=3.578, sd=1.123) put some stress on them. The results in Table 8 further indicate that respondents either disagreed or strongly disagreed that the following are sources or causes of their stress. They are; lack of support (mean=3.437, sd=1.673), physical surroundings (mean=3.417, sd=1.185), job description (mean=2.651, sd=1.109), job insecurity (mean=2.432, sd=0.963), terms and conditions (mean=2.331, sd=1.026), fear of redundancy (mean=2.233, sd=0.881), low self-efficacy (mean=2.173, sd=1.154), employment contract (mean=1.765, sd=0. 158), over promotion (mean=1.546, sd=1.108), role ambiguity (mean=1.475, sd=0.692), violence/aggression (mean=1.238, sd=0.952), gender discrimination/ stereotyping (meam=1.213, sd=1.375) and harassment/assault (meam=1.209, sd=0.718).

Table 8 also shows that respondents agreed that numerous performance appraisals (mean=3.821, sd=1.258), inadequate resources (mean=3.742, sd=1.239), number of publications needed for promotion (mean=3.653, sd=1.195), workplace

conflict (mean=3.622, sd=1.173), new technology (mean=3.615, sd=1.216) and role conflicts (mean=3.578, sd=1.123) put some stress on them. The results in Table 8 further indicate that respondents either disagreed or strongly disagreed that the following are sources or causes of their stress. They are; lack of support (mean=3.437, sd=1.673), physical surroundings (mean=3.417, sd=1.185), job description (mean=2.651, sd=1.109), job insecurity (mean=2.432, sd=0.963), terms and conditions (mean=2.331, sd=1.026), fear of redundancy (mean=2.233, sd=0.881), low self-efficacy (mean=2.173, sd=1.154), employment contract (mean=1.765, sd=0. 158), over promotion (mean=1.546, sd=1.108), role ambiguity (mean=1.475, sd=0.692), violence/aggression (mean=1.238, sd=0.952), gender discrimination/ stereotyping (meam=1.213, sd=1.375) and harassment/assault (meam=1.209, sd=0.718).

Table 8: Means and Standard Deviations of Stressors Experienced by Women Lecturers in Managerial Positions

Causes/Sources of Stress	Mean	Std. Dev.
Workload	4.841	1.913
Extended working hours	4.815	1.772
Tight deadlines	4.771	1.782
Slow career progress	4.613	1.531
Multiple roles/responsibilities	4.588	1.509
Numerous performance appraisal	3.821	1.258
Inadequate resources	3.742	1.239

Number of publications needed for promotion	3.653	1.195
Workplace conflict	3.622	1.173
New technology	3.615	1.216
Role conflicts	3.578	1.123
Lack of support	3.437	1.673
Physical surroundings	3.417	1.185
Job description	2.651	1.109
Job insecurity	2.432	0.963
Terms and conditions	2.331	1.026
Fear of redundancy	2.233	0.881
Low self-efficacy	2.173	1.154
Employment contract	1.765	0.158
Over promotion	1.546	1.108
Role ambiguity	1.475	0.692
Violence/aggression	1.238	0.952
Gender discrimination/stereotyping	1.213	1.375
Harassment/Assault	1.209	0.718
Mean of Means	**3.032**	**1.196**

Source: Field Data, 2023 **N= 270**

Decision criteria: 5 = Strongly agree, 4 = Agree, 3 = Neutral, 2 = Disagree, 1 = Strongly Disagree

4.2.3: Well-being of Women Lecturers in Managerial Positions in the Selected Institutions

The results discussed in this section seek to find answers to research question 3 which states "What is the well-being of women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected higher educational institutions?" Table 9 presents the results.

The responses displayed in Table 9 with reference to the interpretation of the mean and the standard deviation of respondents' well-being show that "I do exercise and/or eat balanced diet (Mean=2.413; sd=1.108), "I am positive about my personality

and satisfied with life in general" (Mean=4.306; sd=1.119), "I mostly feel anxious, tensed, depressed, restless, bored or frustrated at work" (Mean=4.271; sd=1.070), "I suffer from musculoskeletal disorder e.g. arthritis, back pain, repetitive strain injury" (Mean=4.221; sd=1.065), "I am provided with the necessary resources, and support to help when times are tough" (Mean=2.219; sd=1.026), "I have been feeling optimistic about the future" (Mean=3.030; sd=1.354), "I frequently experience headaches, stomach upsets and or feel feverish at work" (Mean=4.226; sd=1. 758), "I have been feeling useful, loved, cheerful and happy to work" (Mean=3.341; sd=1.114), "I am personally confident, motivated and have control over my safety to work" (Mean=3.412; sd=1.692) and "My knowledge and ideas are being considered within the working environment" (Mean=3.507; sd=1.135).

Table 9: Means and Standard Deviations of Well-being of Women Lecturers in Managerial Positions

Well-being of Women Lecturers	Mean	Std. Dev.
I exercise and/or eat a balanced diet	2.413	1.108
I am positive about my personality and satisfied with life in general	4.306	1.119
I mostly feel anxious, tensed, depressed, restless, bored, or frustrated at work	4.271	1.070

I suffer from musculoskeletal disorders e.g. arthritis, back pain, and repetitive strain injury.	4.221	1.065
I am provided with the necessary resources and support to help when times are tough	2.219	1.026
I have been feeling optimistic about the future	3.030	1.354
I frequently experience headaches, stomach upsets and or feel feverish at work	4.226	1.758
I have been feeling useful, loved, cheerful and happy to work	3.341	1.114
I am personally confident, motivated and have control over my safety to work	3.412	1.692
My knowledge and ideas are being considered within the working environment.	3.507	1.135
Mean of Means	**3.495**	**1.244**

Source: Field Data, 2023 **N= 270**

Decision criteria: 5 = Strongly agree, 4 = Agree, 3 = Neutral, 2 = Disagree, 1 = Strongly Disagree

4.2.4 Work Performance of Women Lecturers in Managerial Positions in the Selected Institutions

The results discussed in this section seek to find answers to research question 4 which states "What is the work performance of women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected higher educational institutions?" Table 10 presents the results. The responses displayed in Table 10 concerning the interpretation of the mean and the standard deviation show how respondents perform on their work.

From the results in Table 10, respondents performed averagely in setting examination for students every semester (Mean=3.493; sd=0.276), overseeing the examinations they administer to students (Mean=3.457; sd=1.277), submitting

students' coursework marks for grading in time (Mean=3.475; sd=1.425), and submitting examination marks for grading in time (Mean=3.439; sd=1.352). also, respondents performed below average in planning for each lecture they deliver to students (Mean=2.489; sd=1.032), ensuring that each lecture's objectives are achieved (Mean=2.498; sd=1.142), updating their subject matter before any lecture (Mean=2.379; sd=1.053), teaching all lectures allocated to them every semester (Mean=2.488; sd=1.212), giving all the coursework students should do in a semester to them (Mean=2.465; sd=1.235), marking all the coursework they give to students in time (Mean=2.457; sd=0.343), and marking examinations they give to students on time (Mean=2.464; sd=1.436).

Table 10: Means and Standard Deviations of Work Performance of Women Lecturers in Managerial Positions

Work Performance Items	Mean	Std Dev.
In preparation for each lecture I present to students, I meticulously plan in advance.	3.489	1.032
I am committed to ensuring that the objectives of each lecture are met.	2.498	1. 042
Prior to delivering any lecture, I make it a point to update the subject matter.	2.379	1.053
I am responsible for teaching all the lectures assigned to me each semester.	2.488	1.212
I assign all the coursework that students are expected to complete within a semester.	2.465	1.235
At the end of each semester, I prepare exams for the students.	3.493	0.276
I oversee the exams I set for the students.	2.457	1.277

I mark all the coursework I give to students in time	2.557	0.343
I mark the exams I administer to students in time	2.464	0.436
I submit students' coursework marks for grading in time	3.475	1.425
I submit students' examination marks for grading in time	3.739	1.352
I supervise research students allocated to me as scheduled	1.468	1.312
I am able to do enough research as required	1.365	1.431
I am able to publish the required number of articles for promotion as required	1.623	0.346
I have authored a number of textbooks recently	1.346	2.037
I have presented a number of conference papers recently.	1.084	1.319
I am involved in projects in which I share my expertise with community actors	1.267	1.135
Total Score	**2.350**	**1.141**

Source: Field Data, 2023 **N=270**

Decision criteria: 5 = Strongly agree, 4 = Agree, 3 = Neutral, 2 = Disagree, 1 = Strongly Disagree

However, the women lecturers in managerial position scored poorly in supervising research students allocated to them on time (Mean=1.468; sd=1.312), doing enough research as required (Mean=1.365; sd=1.431), publishing the required articles for promotion as required (Mean=1.623; sd=1.346), having authored a number of textbooks recently (Mean=1.346; sd=2.037), publishing a number of conference papers recently (Mean=1.084; sd=1.319), and being involved in projects in which they share their expertise with community actors Mean=1.267; sd=1.135). The total mean score of 2.350 with standard deviation of 1.142 indicates that women lecturers in managerial positions in this study underperform.

4.2.5 Institutional Stress Management Systems in the Selected Institutions

The results discussed in this section seek to find answers to research question 5 which states "What are the institutional stress management systems in the three selected institutions? Table 11 presents the results on institutional stress management systems in the selected institutions indicating that institutions have a fair and just distribution of salary structure (mean=4.047, sd=0.513), and have realistic and stimulating institutional goals (mean=3.946, sd=0.254).

Also, respondents somehow agreed that the management of their institutions encourages more institutional communication with the staff (mean=3.467, sd=0.533), grant staff greater independence (mean=3.440. sd=0.560), grants staff meaningful and timely feedback and greater responsibility (3.485, sd=0.515), and encourage decentralisation (mean=3.494, sd=0.506).

Table 11: Means and Standard Deviations of Institutional Stress Management Systems Available in the Selected Institutions

Items	Mean	Std. Dev.
Management encourages more institutional communication with the staff	3.467	0.533
Management uses better signs and symbols which are not misinterpreted by the staff	2.289	0.711
Management encourages staff participation in decision-making	2.469	0.531
Management grants staff greater independence	2.440	0.860
Management grants staff meaningful and timely feedback and greater responsibility	3.485	0.515
Management encourages decentralisation	3.494	0.506
There is a fair and just distribution of incentives	2.215	0.715
There is a fair and just distribution of the salary structure	4.047	0.513

Management promotes job rotation and job enrichment	2.473	1.127
My institution has effective recruitment and orientation procedure	2.465	0.542
Management appreciates the staff for accomplishing and over-exceeding their targets	2.445	0.555
There is an organise wellness programmes such as keeping fit, exercise, health screenings, etc., in my institution	2.481	1.249
Management ensures the provision of confidential counselling services to staff	2.298	0.702
The institutional goals are realistic and stimulating	3.946	0.254
My institution has Stress Management Policy	1.731	1.436
Mean of Means	**2.435**	**0.717**

Source: Field Data, 2023 **N=270**

Decision criteria: 5 = Strongly agree, 4 = Agree, 3 = Neutral, 2 = Disagree, 1 = Strongly Disagree

Again, respondents totally disagreed that management of their institutions uses better signs and symbols which are not misinterpreted by the staff (mean=2.289, sd=0.711), encourages staff participation in decision-making (mean=2.469, sd=0.531), have a fair and just distribution of incentives (mean=2.215, sd=0.715), promote job rotation and job enrichment (mean=2.473, sd=1.127), have effective recruitment and orientation procedure (mean=2.465, sd=0.542), appreciate the staff on accomplishing and over-exceeding their targets (mean=2.445, sd=0.555), organise wellness programmes such as keep fit, exercise, health screenings, etc. (mean=2.298, sd=1.249), and ensure the provision of confidential counselling services to staff (mean=2.298, sd=0.702).

Lastly, Table 11 indicates that the majority of the respondents (mean=1.731, sd= 1.436) indicated that their institutions do not have a stress management policy.

4.3 Analysis of Research Hypothesis

4.3.1 Descriptive Statistics, One-Way ANOVA Test of Perceived Stress Levels of the Groups in the Selected Institutions in this Study

The data under this section seeks to discuss research null hypothesis 1 which states that "There is not significant difference between the perceived stress levels of women lecturers in managerial positions from different higher educational institutions." Table 12 shows the descriptive statistics for the institutions with their respective SD, SE, and CI statistics.

Table 12: Descriptive of Perceived Stress Levels of the Groups in the Selected Institutions in this Study

					95% Confidence Interval for Mean			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Institution A	137	3.952	1.843	.832	2.030	4.343	1.00	7.30
Institution B	76	3.637	.795	.525	2.075	4.312	1.00	8.05
Institution C	57	3.523	1.657	.547	2.005	4.252	1.00	7.32

Source: Field Data, 2023 **N = 270**

The results in Table 12 indicate that the perceived stress levels of respondents in Institution A differ from that of Institution B and Institution C in this study. Thus, the average mean scored by Institution A was (Mean=3.952; sd=1.843) compared with

Institution B (Mean=3.637; sd=.795) and Institution C (Mean=3.523; sd=1.657) are statistically different.

Table 13: One-Way ANOVA Test for Stress Levels of the Women Lecturers in Managerial Positions in this Study

Stress Levels	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	166.628	2	83.314	32.624	<.002
Within Groups	1358.724	257	7.853		
Total	1525.352	269			

Source: Field Data, 2023 **N = 270**

Based on the descriptive statistics in Table 13, the study showed that the mean differences observed between the three institutions were significant (F (2) = 32.624, p<.05). Therefore, the study rejects the null hypothesis 1 and concludes that the stress levels of women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected institutions in this study have statistically differed.

Table 14: Tukey HSD Test for Multiple Comparisons between Institutions

					95% Confidence Interval	
(I) Stressors	(J) Stressors	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Institution A	B	-.73212*	.14965	<.044	-.1056	-.3275
	C	-.62764*	.05674	<.038	-.1431	-.2964
Institution B	A	.71289*	.23060	<.044	.2076	.4953
	C	.64531*	.19859	<.048	.1237	.3154

Institution C	A	-.63421*	.14190	<.038	-.4372	.2683
	B	-.59853*	.04328	<.048	-.2969	.2954

***. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level. Dependant Variable: Stress Levels**
Source: Field Data, 2023 **N = 270**

The posthoc results in Table 14 illustrate that there are significant differences existing between Institution A and B (p>.05), B and C (p>.05), and Institution A and C (p>.05). Statistically, stress levels results obtained differ between the three tertiary institutions in Ghana.

4.3.2 Descriptive Statistics, One-Way ANOVA Test and Tukey HSD Test for Stressors of the Women Lecturers in the Selected Institutions in this Study

The data under this section seeks to examine research null hypothesis 2 which states that "There is no significant difference between the stressors of women from different institutions." Table 15 shows the descriptive statistics for the institutions with their respective SD, SE, and CI statistics.

Table 15: Descriptive Statistics of Stressor of the Groups in the Selected Institutions in this Study

					95% Confidence Interval for Mean			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Institution A	137	3.634	.181	.115	2.330	3.913	1.00	4.21
Institution B	76	3.628	.176	.123	2.275	3.826	1.00	4.07
Institution C	57	3.633	.122	.102	2.195	3.791	1.00	4.10

Source: Field Data, 2023 **N = 270**

The results in Table 15 indicate that the stressors of women lecturers in Institution A, Institution B, and Institution C in this study are the same. Thus, the average mean scored by Institution A was (Mean=3.634; sd=.181) compared with Institution B (Mean= 3.628; sd=.176) and Institution C (Mean=3.633; sd=.122) are statistically the same.

Table 16: One-Way ANOVA Test for stressors of the women lecturers in this Study

Stressors	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	157.938	4	78.969	29.197	<.073
Within Groups	1245.499	255	.275		
Total	1403.437	269			

Source: Field Data, 2023 **N = 270**

Based on the descriptive statistics in Table 16, the study showed that indeed, the mean differences observed between the three institutions were not significant (F (4) = 78.969, *p*>.05). Therefore, the study confirms the null hypothesis 2 and concludes that the stressors of women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected institutions in this study are statistically not different.

Table 17: Tukey HSD Test for Multiple Comparisons Between Institutions

(I) Stressors	(J) Stressors	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Institution A	B	-.62500*	.03735	<.061	-.1038	-.2624
	C	-.68601*	.19321	<.071	-.1391	-.2841
Institution B	A	.54076*	.14317	<.063	.7670	.2997
	C	.52400*	.13047	<.101	.0889	.2960
Institution C	A	-.57576*	.12673	<.091	-.6498	-.2186
	B	-.64687*	.14532	<.151	-.3416	-.2362

***. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level. Dependent Variable: Stressors**
Source: Field Data, 2023 N = 270

The posthoc results in Table 17 illustrate that there are no significant differences existing between Institution A and B ($p>.05$), B and C ($p>.05$), and; A and C ($p>.05$). Statistically, stressors results obtained do not differ between the three tertiary institutions in Ghana.

4.3.3 Testing for Mediation Effect of Well-being on the Relationship between Perceived Stress and Work Performance

In the process of examining Hypothesis 3, the research projected that well-being would serve as a mediator in the relationship between perceived stress and work performance. The mediation effect was analysed by adhering to the four-step procedure outlined by MacKinnon (2012). This method necessitates:

a. a significant correlation between perceived stress and well-being;

b. a significant correlation between well-being and work performance;

c. a significant correlation between perceived stress and work performance, taking into account the factor of well-being;

d. a significant coefficient for the indirect route from perceived stress to work performance via well-being. The bias-corrected percentile bootstrap method is employed to ascertain the fulfilment of the final condition.

The study incorporated variables such as the respondents' type of institution (public, technical, or private), age, marital status, children, academic and professional credentials, position, and experience in all analyses.

Table 18 delineates the outcomes of the multivariate regression analysis, executed via the PROCESS macro v3.2 (Model 4) as proposed by Hayes (2018). The initial phase of the analysis (Table 18, Model 1) uncovers a noteworthy association between stress and well-being, as indicated by a coefficient of .264 and a p-value less than .001. This particular model elucidates 25.7% of the total variance (R2= .257), while all the control variables were found to be non-significant. In the subsequent step (Table 18 Model 2), a significant correlation was discovered between well-being and work performance, with a coefficient of .352 and p<.00. This model explains 29.4% of the variance (R2=.29.4). In the final step (Table 18 Model 2), stress was found to be significantly correlated with work performance, with a coefficient of -.256 and p<.001, while adjusting for well-being.

Table 18: Results for mediation effect of well-being on the relationship between perceived stress and work performance

Predictors	**Model 1 (Well-being) Coeff.**	**T**	**Model 2 (WP) Coeff.**	**t**	**Model 3 (WP) Total Effect Coeff.**	**T**

Institution	.021	.162	.017	.047	.005	.142
Age	-.082	-.736	-.063	-.012	-.193***	-.819
Offprings	.053	.033	-.095***	-.243	-.017	-.432
Academic qualification	-.017	-.950	.027	.040	.068***	.297
Professional qualification	-.029	-.643	.031	.038	.059***	.325
Position	.043	.625	.048	.021	.092	.604
Experience	.035	.575	.097	.052	.363***	1.186
Perceived Stress	-.264***	-6.868	-.256***	-6.059	-.278***	-.8.366
Well-being	-	-	.352***	5.024	-	-
R^2	.257		.294		.285	
F	18.932***		39.615***		29.965	

***p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001.**
Source: Field Data, 2023 **N = 270**

Once more, the comprehensive influence of the research outcomes is disclosed in Model 3 of Table 18, where stress exhibits a coefficient of .278, with a significance level of p<.001. The covariate analysis suggests that factors such as age category, academic and professional credentials, and tenure significantly influence the performance of employees at work.

Subsequently, the bias-adjusted percentile bootstrap technique's outcomes, as shown in Table 19, demonstrate a substantial indirect effect of stress on work performance via well-being (b = .223, t = 4.750, SE=.223, 95 per cent CI= [.127, 0.269]), thereby endorsing rejecting null hypothesis 3. The direct influence of stress on work performance, in the context of the mediating factor (Well-being), was also significant (a =.416, p <.001). Therefore, it can be inferred that well-being plays a partial mediating role in the relationship between stress and work performance.

Table 19: Mediation Summary

Total Impact PS -> WP	Direct Impact PS -> WP (a)	Relationship	Indirec Impact (b)	Boot SE	Confidence Interval (CI) LLCI	ULCI	t-stat.	Conclusion
-.278 (0.000)	0.416 (0.000)	H1: PS -> W -> WP	0.223		0.127	0.269	4.75	Partial Mediation

Source: Field Data, 2023 **N = 270**

4.3.4 Testing for Moderation Effect of Institutional Stress Management Systems on Perceived Stress and Well-being

The analysis of the conditional process in Table 20, utilising Hayes (2018) process macro v3.2 (Model 59), reveals the study's findings. The initial multiple regression, denoted as Model 1 in Table 20, examined the moderating role of institutional stress management processes on the trajectory from perceived stress to well-being. The model yielded an R2 of .193, signifying that it explained 19.3% of the variance. Despite the inclusion of covariates in the model, none proved to be significant. The data further demonstrated a direct and significant impact of perceived stress on well-being, with a coefficient of -.394 and a confidence interval of -.310 to .068. The results also suggested a significant direct influence of institutional stress management systems on well-being, with a coefficient of .254 and a confidence interval of .078 to .154. Moreover, these systems were found to moderate the link between stress and well-being, with a coefficient of .216 and a confidence interval of -.037 to .146, thereby rejecting null hypothesis 4.

4.3.5 Testing for Moderation Effect of Institutional Stress Management Systems on the Relationship between Well-being and Work Performance

The subsequent regression analysis, as depicted in Table 20, Model 2, was conducted to examine the moderating effect of organisational stress management mechanisms on the correlation between employee well-being and work performance. The results, as presented in Table 20 Model 2, indicate a notable influence of the interplay between organisational stress management systems and the connection between well-being and work performance, with a coefficient of .135 and a confidence interval ranging from .069 to .267. Given that the confidence intervals do not encompass zero, this study do not provide support for null hypothesis 5.

Table 20: Moderating Effect of Institutional Stress Management Systems on Perceived Stress, Well-being and Work Performance

Predictors	Model 1: Well-being				Model 2: Work Performance			
	Coeff.	T	LLCI	ULCI	Coeff.	t	LLCI	ULCI
Institution	.019	.201	-.143	.195	.036	1.750	.102	.903
Age	-.085	-.934	-.156	.167	-.019	-1.084	-.321	.218
Offsprings	.047	.293	.131	.163	.203	.754	-.563	.374
Position	.083	1.562	.035	.135	.276	.529	-1.078	.364
Academic qualification	.030	.493	-.173	.094	.276***	-6.532	.174	.342
Professional qualification	.034	.479	-.182	.089	.283***	-6.714	.153	.406
Experience	.067	2.671	.361	.633	.301***	.094	.209	.543
Perceived stress	-.394***	-6.523	-.310	.068	-.327***	3.853	.2.32	.496
Well-being	-	-	-	-	.255***	1.673	-.098	.271
ISMS	.254***	4.732	.078	.154	.158**	.963	-.734	.167

S x ISMS	.216***	2.058	-.037	.146	-.094*	-3.120	.047	.243
W x ISMS	-	-	-	-	.135**	1.875	.069	.267
R^2	.193				.436			
F	17.046***				.32.542***			

***P<.05, **P<.01. ***P<.001, ISMS, Institutional Stress Management Systems; W = Well-being, PS=Stress**
Source: Field Data, 2023 **N = 270**

4.3.6 Testing for Moderation Effect of Institutional Stress Management Systems on the Relationship between Perceived Stress and Work Performance

The regression analysis, denoted as Model 2 in Table 20, further investigated whether the institutional stress management system moderates the trajectory from perceived stress to work performance. As indicated in Model 2, perceived stress (coefficient of -.327, confidence interval of .2.32 to .496), well-being (coefficient of .255, confidence interval of -.098 to .231), and institutional stress management systems (coefficient of .158, confidence interval of -.734 to .167) all exert a significant direct influence on work performance. Furthermore, the interaction of institutional stress management systems on the relationship between perceived stress and work performance was found to be statistically significant (coefficient of -.094, confidence interval of .047 to .243). This was conducted in the presence of covariates, with both academic and professional qualifications, and experience indicating a significant effect with coefficients of .276, .283, and .301, and p-values less than .001, respectively. This model explained 43.6% of the total variance, with an R2 of .436, thereby rejecting null hypothesis 6.

4.3.7 The Conditional process analysis showing the indirect effects at three levels of Institutional Stress Management Systems

The investigators postulated that distinct mechanisms would be at play linking stress, well-being, and work performance, influenced by the varying degrees of the participants' organisational stress control systems. Upon analysing the data across three tiers of organisational stress control systems, it was revealed in Table 21 that conditional indirect impacts were observed between perceived stress and work performance through well-being, with one standard deviation beneath the mean of attitude (coefficient = .043, standard error = .035, confidence interval = .026, .107). This was also significantly present at the mean level (coefficient = .086, standard error = .029, confidence interval = .044, .138), and at elevated levels of organisational stress control systems (coefficient = .139, standard error = .047, confidence interval = .075, .216). However, the conditional indirect impact was considerably more potent when the organisational stress control systems were highly effective (plus one standard deviation above the mean). Consequently, these results tend to reject null hypothesis 6.

Table 21: The Conditional process analysis showing the indirect effects at three levels of Institutional Stress Management Systems

Different levels of the moderator ISMS on the indirect effect	Coeff.	SE	LLCI	ULCI
Low ISMS (mean – one standard deviation) = 1-)	.043	.035	.026	.107
Mean ISMS (mean = 0)	.086	.029	.044	.138
High ISMS (mean plus one standard deviation = -1)	.139	.047	.075	.216

CI = 95 per cent confidence interval for the indirect effect: if CI does not, I include zero, the indirect effect is considered statistically significant.
Source: Field Data, 2023

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.0 Introduction

Chapter Five presents the discussions of the significant research findings about the research objectives that guided the study. The research objectives were to: (a) assess the perceived stress levels of the women lecturers in managerial positions; (a) investigate the stressors which affect respondents' stress levels; (c) examine the well-being of the women lecturers in managerial positions; (d) examine the work performance of the women lecturers in managerial positions; (e) find out if institutional stress management systems are available in the selected institutions. The chapter highlights the major findings of the research and the inferences made from them given findings from related previous studies.

5.1 Perceived Stress Levels of Women Lecturers in Managerial Positions in the Selected Institutions

Numerous elements, including individual traits, way of life, societal backing, life occurrences, and socio-demographic and professional variables, can shape the degree of stress an individual encounters. Consequently, this research aimed to evaluate

the perceived stress levels among women lecturer holding managerial positions in certain institutions examined in this study.

According to Table 7, majority of respondents – 151 out of 270 (55.9 per cent, mean=4.043; sd=1.753) experience high perceived stress levels. Also, according to Section 4.3.1, the perceived stress levels of women from different institutions in this study statistically differ with Institution A having the highest perceived stress level, followed by Institution B and then C. The findings of the research align with several studies, including those by Kabito et al. (2020), Kakula (2016), Liang et al. (2016), Wakida et al. (2018) and Shen and Slater (2021). These studies indicate that university lecturers including women are encountering an extraordinary surge in stress levels due to the evolving dynamics of the workplace, the handling of distinct and demanding student-related problems, and shifts in the higher education market. These changes have recalibrated the anticipations and workload of those working in higher education. However, these studies could not single out the effect these demanding roles are having on the women lecturers especially those in managerial postions.

The findings of this research, indicating that a significant 55.9% and 30.7% of the women lecturers in managerial positions in the twelve selected Universities in Ghana respectively reported high and moderate stress levels, suggest a concerning pattern when juxtaposed with the outcomes of studies undertaken by Amponsah and Owolabi (2011) and Azumah (2014). The former study by Amponsah and Owolabi (2011) revealed that 70% of fresh students in Ghana experienced moderate stress, with a mere 3.5% exhibiting high stress levels. In contrast, Azumah's (2014) study disclosed that 80.8% of supporting staff at the central administration in the University of Ghana had moderate stress, with only 10.3% showing high stress levels. It is evident that with

the progression of years, the stress levels of women lecturers in managerial positions within selected tertiary institutions in Ghana escalate into the "high-level" bracket (i.e., from 3.5% in 2011 to 10.3% in 2014 and 55.9% in the current study). Consequently, not only do these women lecturers in managerial positions face stress in their professional roles, but they also experience an intensification of stress levels as they handle their managerial duties. This may arguably suggest that stress levels may change due to type position or responsibilities assigned to a woman lecturer in managerial position in a Ghanaian university.

Again, the aspect of this study which indicates the perceived stress levels of the women lecturers in managerial positions differed from one institution to the other (Institution A with Mean=3.952, Institution B with 3.637, and Institution C with Mean=3.523), and were significantly different (F(2) =32.624) is supported by the study of Zarra-Nezhad et al. (2010) and Balusu (2011), who posit that perceived stress levels differ from one occupation to the other. Zarra-Nezhad et al. (2010) studied occupational stress and family difficulties of working women and found out that the stress levels of these women are different in different occupations. However, such evidenced study was not found in among women lecturers in managerial positions in higher educational institutions.

5.2 Stressors Encountered by Women Lecturers in Managerial Positions in the Selected Institutions

The level of stress one undergoes in varying circumstances could be influenced by numerous elements, such as the individual's interpretation of the situation. This could be linked to previous encounters (Gay, 2023), self-worth (Dollard et al., 2019),

and the functioning of cognitive processes (Edwards, 2017) (for instance, whether the person is inclined to perceive things optimistically or pessimistically). The way a person handles that specific kind of strain based on their experience, their emotional fortitude in the face of stress, the quantity of additional burdens they are managing concurrently, and the extent of assistance they are receiving, could also play a significant role.

Results in Table 8 and regarding the interpretation of the mean and the standard deviation indicated that the amount of stress experienced by respondents greatly comes from workload, extended working hours, tight deadlines, slow career progression, and multiple roles. They also indicated that numerous performance appraisals, workplace conflict, new technology, number of publications needed for promotion and role conflict put some stress on them.

The findings bear a resemblance to, and thus validate, the conclusions of several scholarly works. They echo the assertions of Deebom et al. (2018), Daniel (2019), and Cirjaliu et al. (2016), who argue that the primary stressor for women is the strain resulting from prolonged work hours, stringent deadlines, and an escalating workload. Watson (2022) and Bowling et al. (2015) also suggest that excessive work demands can instigate stress in employees. Furthermore, Stenbeck and Persson (2006), corroborated by Bowling et al. (2015), found in their research that a significant number of women experience more physically taxing and stressful jobs, an increased workload, and sleep disturbances due to work. Jensen et al. (2015) also concluded in their study that contemporary work patterns encompass extended work hours, an augmented workload, and strict deadlines. Additionally, Montani et al. (2020), and Burke and Richardsen (2019) identified the juggling of multiple roles and the absence of career advancement as stress-inducing factors for women, noting that long working hours contribute to

stress among women lecturers in managerial position. Katz and Kahn's (2016) research revealed that half of the workforce stated they worked under stringent deadlines for at least a quarter of their work time in 1990, a figure that rose to 56% in 1995, 60% in 2000, 62% in 2005, 63% in 2010 and 65% in 2015. Surprisingly, the researcher could not find any supporting previous research supporting the fact that number of publications needed for promotion is a source of stress to employees in the educational sector.

A lot of studies in the literature confirm the above results that numerous performance appraisals (Montani et al., 2020), inadequate resources (Bakker et al., 2019) workplace conflict (Chung & Kowalski, 2012; Couto & Lawoko, 2011), new technology (Paganin & Simbula, 2021) and role conflicts (Ackfeldt & Malhotra, 2013) have a measurable amount of stressing effect on female workers.

Correspondingly, the study of Bakker et al. (2019) confirms the above result that inadequate resources such as resources shortage, problems with colleagues, and poor management styles can be stressful. Mosadeghrad (2014) also says that anything related to interpersonal relationships that produce adverse consequences for an individual such as conflict among managers, co-workers and customers increases the stress levels of workers.

Again, large-scale studies corroborate findings from smaller studies such as Chung and Kowalski (2012), Watson (2022), Ackfeldt and Malhotra (2013), and Arve and Nair (2010), showcase the fact that work stress increases when there is role conflict. Couto and Lawoko (2011) also found that interpersonal conflict among people at work was the most frequently noted stressor for employees. Moreover, Paganin and Simbula (2021) explain that new technology has added the burden of information overload and

the changes that have taken place specifically relating to the workplace as a result of changing workplace and economic conditions within a short period and the new technological advancement in the workplace has increased workplace stress.

However, according to Table 8, respondents stated that lack of support, physical surroundings, job description, job insecurity, terms and conditions, fear of redundancy, low self-efficacy, employment contract, over-promotion, role ambiguity, violence/aggression, gender discrimination/stereotyping and harassment/assault are not their sources or causes of their stress. This result shows a deviation from what exists in the literature except for Gibbons and Gibbons (2007) who found that there is no significant difference in the number of working conditions such as employment contracts and job descriptions and stress. According to Jensen et al. (2013), Tang and Vandenberghe (2021), and Mosadeghrad (2014), job insecurity, surroundings of the work place, and role ambiguity are factors that cause much work stress.

Surprisingly, the following stressors that various researchers found to have significant effect on employing stress did not have significant effect on the women lectures' stress. They are; lack of job security and fear of redundancy (Montani et al., 2020), role ambiguity, lack of job security and under/over promotion (Watson, 2022), aggression/violence (Baugher & Gazmararian, 2015), discrimination/stereotyping (Montani et al., 2017; Chen & Cooper, 2014) and harassment/assault (Mosadeghrad et al., 2011; Mosadeghrad, 2014) are found to have a significant effect on employees' stress. This may be the case because the same criteria are used to assess both males and females for promotion and positions. It may also come from the fact that they are in leadership roles and are part of the decision making team of their faculties, departments and units.

Furthermore, it was noticed from Section 4.3.2 (Tables 15, 16 and 17) that the mean differences in stressors of the women observed between the selected institutions were not significant ($F(4) = 3.624$, $p>.05$). Thus, the women from the selected different institutions suffered the same/similar cause/sources of stress. This may probably mean that stressors cut across all higher educational institutions with most employees experiencing the same stressors. This, unfortunately, do not support the results of Roberts (2014) who posit that stressors vary from one occupation to the other due to changes in organisational policies, work environment and interpersonal relationship. It is surprising to note that even though the Universities have different working environments, different organisational policies/cultures and different interpersonal relationships, they all experience similar types of stressors. This may emanate from the fact that all the selected Universities are regulated by one body – Ghana Tertiary Education Commission (GTEC) and operate with one Scheme and Condition of Service.

5.3 Well-being of Women Lecturers in Managerial Positions in the Selected Institutions

In the past, the discourse around employee welfare was predominantly centred on health benefits. However, the concept of employee welfare extends beyond merely the absence of sickness. It encapsulates the enhancement of every employee's health. This notion is not confined to physical health alone, but also includes other facets of wellness that are indispensable when considering the health and functionality of individuals or employees. Thus, the definition of employee welfare has evolved beyond the conventional perspective of merely providing medical care to employees. Presently,

employers recognise the multifaceted nature of employee welfare and are striving to foster a healthier and more content workforce. Table 9 regarding the interpretation of the mean and the standard deviation shows that even though the women lecturers in managerial positions are positive about their personality, fairly optimistic about the future and somehow feel useful, loved, cheerful and happy, they do not get time to exercise and/or eat a balanced diet, mostly feel anxious, tensed, depressed, restless, bored, or frustrated at work, sometimes suffer from musculoskeletal disorders e.g. arthritis, back pain, repetitive strain injury and frequently experience headaches, stomach upsets and/or feel feverish at work.

Also, the women lecturers in managerial positions indicated that they are not provided with the necessary resources, and support to help when times are tough. Lastly, the women acknowledged that their knowledge and ideas are being considered within their working environment.

Aryanti et al. (2020) conducted a comprehensive review of literature on employee well-being in the workplace, and their conclusions are consistent with the results of this study. They suggested that the overall feelings and job satisfaction of employees are closely linked to the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards they receive from their work. The factors that were found to affect workplace well-being include the climate of the organisation, the quality of relationships between superiors and subordinates, job requirements, individual personality traits, the characteristics of the work environment, perceptions of health and welfare, work-related challenges, problems introduced into the workplace, and occupational stress. The influence of workplace well-being is far-reaching, affecting performance, psychological capital, and employee engagement. Other models of workplace well-being encompass social,

eudaimonic, and subjective well-being in the work context. Moreover, a positive correlation has been established between workplace well-being and the cultivation of positive attitudes, such as employee dedication (Kurniadewi, 2016). In their research, Barnett and Hyde (2001) argued that as women employees in higher education institutions rise to senior management positions, they experience an increased prevalence of stress-related health issues, including gastrointestinal disorders, headaches, high blood pressure, muscle pain, and fever. However, the dimensions of this concept vary across a spectrum of theories and viewpoints. Despite efforts by universities and other organisations to enhance staff well-being and positivity, knowledge on how to achieve this remains limited (Alharbi & Smith, 2018).

5.4 Work Performance of Women Lecturers in Managerial Positions in the Selected Institutions

The performance of staff members is a pivotal element in the triumph of an organisation, contributing significantly to enhancing overall efficiency, profitability, and employee morale. The key to success lies in the performance of each employee, who must strive towards the organisation's vision and mission. Evaluating the performance of employees can provide insights into potential shortcomings in your training programme, offering guidance on areas of improvement. The accomplishment of an organisation's objectives is heavily reliant on the performance of its employees - satisfied and efficient employees can serve as valuable resources in directing an organisation towards victory. However, numerous managers encounter difficulties in inspiring employees and enhancing their performance. As a manager, it is crucial to

intentionally establish workplace frameworks and supports that can facilitate the flourishing of your team.

The results displayed in Table 10 concerning the interpretation of the mean and the standard deviation shows that the women lecturers performed averagely in setting examination for students every semester, invigilating the examinations they administer to students, submitting students' coursework marks for grading in time, and submitting examination marks for grading in time. Also, respondents performed below average in planning for each lecture they deliver to students, ensuring that each lecture's objectives are achieved, updating their subject matter before any lecture, teaching all lectures allocated to them every semester, giving all the coursework students should do in a semester to them, marking all the coursework they give to students in time, and marking examinations they give to students on time. However, the women lecturers in managerial position scored poorly in supervising research students allocated to them on time, doing enough research as required, publishing the required articles for promotion as required, having authored a number of textbooks recently, publishing a number of conference papers recently, and being involved in projects in which they share their expertise with community actors.

The total mean score in table 10 suggest that women lecturers in managerial positions in Ghana's universities on the average underperform their duties. This underperformance is evidenced in all the areas of the lecturers' work, however, it was more critical in the conducting of research and participation in community service than in the teaching.

The data presented in Table 10 aligns with Nassuna's (2013) investigation into the challenges of team building in relation to student completion and lecturer

effectiveness at the College of Education and External Studies. Nassuna discovered that a significant 80% of the lecturers involved in the study failed to deliver all the lectures assigned to them. Furthermore, he noted that 70% of these lecturers were frequently unavailable for supervising the research students under their care.

In a similar vein, Kakulu's (2016) research on the impact of staff development programmes on the performance of academic staff in Ugandan universities revealed that a staggering 78% of lecturers from Kyambogo University who were part of the study did not complete all their assigned lectures. Additionally, 67% of these lecturers were often ill-prepared before delivering lectures to students, and 56% were late in evaluating students, leading to delays in graduation, particularly at the postgraduate level.

Ddungu's (2017) study on the difficulties of supervising postgraduate educational research and its impact on quality also highlighted that many lecturers tasked with guiding research students often failed to adhere to scheduled meetings, even when students attempted to arrange appointments in advance. These lecturers frequently cancelled these appointments at the last moment, postponing the supervision to an unspecified future date, often due to other research commitments. Moreover, Ddungu (2018a) found that the lecturers' community service participation was disappointingly low, and their engagement in research and publication was unsatisfactory (Ddungu, 2018b).

Wakida et al.'s (2018) findings also suggest that a majority of lecturers in Uganda's public universities are not performing up to par. However, this underperformance is likely influenced by various factors identified in numerous studies, including job dissatisfaction (Ssesanga & Garrett, 2005), institutional

management and financing issues (Liang et al., 2016), governance policies, academic staff remuneration, poor working conditions (Alfagira et al., 2017), administrative leadership (Kezar & Holcombe, 2017), instructional leadership (Ersozlu & Saklan, 2016; Lineburg, 2010: Namutebi, 2019), and notably, work stress (Swathi and Reddy, 2016: Bernard, 2009; Amponsah, 2010; Roberts, 2014; and Mosadebhrad, 2014).

Swathi and Reddy (2016) studied stress among working women and posited that "stress affects performance negatively". Also, Bernard (2009) studied the stressors and coping trategies of women in leadership position, Research conducted by Amponsah (2010) on the stress levels and coping mechanisms of non-UK university students, Roberts (2014) on the stress management strategies of Ghanaian women in leadership roles, and Mosadebhrad (2014) on similar subjects, all concluded that stress has a detrimental impact on performance. Sincero (2012a), who investigated the impact of stress on performance, also discovered that employee performance is negatively affected by stress. The evidence and related literature imply that women lecturers in managerial positions are not effectively aiding the universities enough in achieving its goal of developing the highest calibre of human capital needed by Ghana to stimulate innovative and sustainable national development as envisioned. Therefore, strategies should be put in place by stakeholders in higher education to improve the work underperformance of women lecturers in managerial positions in higher educational institutions in Ghana.

5.5 Institutional Stress Management Systems in the Selected Institutions

Irrespective of their professional role, sector, or duties, a significant 80% of employees experience workplace stress (The Seventh Annual Labour Day Survey,

2018). Research by the CDCP's National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health reveals that 40% of American workers are "severely stressed at work" (CDCP, NCHS, USDHHS report, 2018).

Furthermore, the American Psychological Association (2017) states that over one-third of American professionals' grapple with persistent occupational stress. This stress in the professional environment is causing companies and institutions to lose billions annually due to medical expenses and absenteeism (APA, 2013). However, the financial implications are just the tip of the iceberg. The impact of occupational stress on physical and mental health is becoming a critical issue in today's organisations. Unchecked stress, apprehension, and anxiety in the workplace can severely affect an employee's life quality and overall health.

The necessity to address the comprehensive well-being of employees, including stress management and coping mechanisms for workplace stress, is paramount. By assisting employees in managing and reducing stress, they can enhance their mindfulness, psychological health, and life quality. Employers have a responsibility to aid their employees in achieving their potential by guiding them towards a personal and professional future with significantly less stress. According to the results in Table 13 on institutional stress management systems in the selected institutions, respondents indicated that apart from their institutions having fair and just distribution of salary structure and having realistic and stimulating institutional goals, the management of their institutions fairly encourages more institutional communication with the staff. Respondents also indicated that the Management of their institutions does not grant staff meaningful and timely feedback and greater responsibility, does not encourage decentralisation, does not use better signs and symbols which are not

misinterpreted by the staff, and does not encourage staff participation in decision-making. Again, the women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected higher educational institutions does not grant staff greater independence, does not distribute incentives fairly and justly, does not promote job rotation and job enrichment, does not have effective recruitment and orientation procedure, and does not appreciate the staff on accomplishing and over-exceeding their targets. Furthermore, the women in this study indicated that management of their institutions does not organise wellness programmes such as keep fit, exercise, health screenings, etc., and does not ensure the provision of confidential counselling services to staff. In addition, all the respondents indicated that their institutions do not have a stress management policy.

The research corroborates the findings of Claude and Cole (2012), advocating that for efficient handling of job-related stress, the administration should contemplate the following measures: offering tasks that permit some individual discretion in their execution and order; fostering the involvement of employees in decision-making processes that impact them; establishing unambiguous objectives and targets, and supplying sufficient performance feedback. Besides demonstrating to the workforce that your institution intends to mitigate stress, it is crucial to outline how it plans to assist potential victims. The formalization of a strategy to combat stress through an occupational stress management policy serves as an effective demonstration of a commitment to addressing stress within the professional environment. The Health, Safety and Well-being Committee of the University of Glasgow (2020) says: “A formal stress policy will show employees that their organisation is serious about protecting their health and well-being. As well as outlining the steps that employees can take to

deal with stress it will also help to create a culture where they feel they can talk about issues relating to it."

5.6 Mediation Effect of Well-being on the Relationship between Stress and Work Performance

Typically, individuals may exhibit anger, hostility, or aggressive tendencies in response to stressful circumstances, which can also lead to health complications. Indeed, the manifestations of stress can impact one's physical state, cognitive processes, emotions, and actions. Recognising the common indicators of stress can aid in its management. Unaddressed stress can lead to a variety of health issues, including hypertension, cardiac diseases, obesity, and diabetes. As shown in Table 18, Model 1, there is a significant correlation between stress and well-being, with a coefficient of .264 and a p-value of less than .001. This model accounts for 25.7% of the variance (R2= .257), with all control variables deemed insignificant. This finding aligns with the study by Barnett and Hyde (2001), which posits that female employees in higher education institutions are more prone to stress-induced ailments such as gastrointestinal disturbances, headaches, hypertension, musculoskeletal discomfort, and fever, particularly as they ascend to senior management roles. Furthermore, Ford et al. (2011) linked high job demands, both psychological and physical, to illness symptoms and increased sick leave, especially among women. The demand-control model, proposed by Karasek and Theorell, implies that jobs with high psychological demands and low decision-making autonomy can lead to illness symptoms. Again, studies such as Lidwall and Marklund (2006), Bourbonnais and Mondor (2001), Vahtera et al. (2000) posit that employees get headaches, tension, frustration, anxiety, distress, restless, bored and depression when they experience high levels of stress. It can therefore be

deduced from the above discussion that stress greatly affects all kinds of employees' well-being without discrimination in terms of gender or socio-cultural background.

In Table 18 Model 2, a significant correlation was discovered between well-being and work performance, with a coefficient of .352 and p<.00, accounting for 29.4% of the variance (R2=.29.4). This result is in line with the research by Wulan and Putri (2016), which emphasizes the paramount importance of workplace well-being in organisational studies related to work performance. In a similar vein, De Simone (2014) posited that an individual's experiences in the workplace, be they emotional or social, undeniably impact the individual both professionally and personally. This is due to the fact that employees dedicate approximately one-third of their time to their jobs and continue to be affected by their work even after leaving their place of employment. Consequently, well-being exerts a substantial influence on work performance.

The recent pandemic of COVID-19 has underscored the significant influence of employee wellness on their productivity and, in turn, on the overall business outcomes. The heightened anxiety and stress experienced by employees necessitated employers to adopt a more empathetic approach. Businesses began to understand that proactive measures to prevent employee wellness issues such as burnout, stress, and illness were more cost-effective than addressing these problems post-occurrence. Specifically, the sedentary lifestyle of employees heightens the risk of diseases like diabetes and hypertension. Furthermore, employees reporting frequent or constant burnout are 63% more likely to avail sick leaves, indicating a direct correlation between employee wellness and the cost of absenteeism for employers. Recognising these advantages, businesses began to introduce wellness initiatives. These programmes, while varying in their scope and focus, have demonstrated cost-effectiveness. For instance, Johnson

and Johnson (2022) reported savings of $250 million in healthcare expenses over the past ten years due to their wellness initiatives, yielding a return of $2.71 for every dollar invested in employee wellness. Research indicates that smokers are twice as likely to be absent from work, and obese workers take three to six more sick days annually compared to their normal-weight counterparts. Conversely, employees who manage stress effectively are less prone to burnout. In essence, optimizing employee wellness enhances their focus and productivity. The COVID-19 crisis highlighted the criticality of maintaining employee morale. Implementing wellness initiatives like health workshops or inter-departmental fitness competitions can significantly boost employee morale. As a part of their employer branding strategy, 78% of employers offer wellness programmes to attract and retain talent. The competition for top talent is fierce, and prospective employees have multiple options to consider for their next employer. Therefore, offering wellness benefits that align with the expectations of your future workforce is crucial to attract top-tier candidates, thereby ensuring your business's success.

In the face of relentless schedules filled with meetings, impending deadlines, incessant emails, and frequently an unmanageable amount of work, workers often find themselves operating non-stop, extending into the weekend, only to awaken on Monday morning to recommence the cycle. Indeed, some thrive in this bustling environment, while others are simply passionate about their profession. Regardless of one's perspective, it is undeniable that employees grapple with significant stress. Their proficiency at their job or their affinity for the disorder is irrelevant – if stress is not managed and is allowed to persist for extended periods, it can result in burnout, a negative attitude, and underperforming or unproductive staff. The persistent issue of

employee stress poses a significant challenge for organisations, as it leads to a decline in organisational performance, a reduction in overall employee productivity, an increased rate of errors, substandard work quality, elevated staff turnover, and frequent absenteeism.

In addition, in Table 18 Model 2, perceived stress was significantly associated with work performance with, coeff. = -.256, p<.001, while controlling for well-being. The finding of the study showed a significant negative relationship between employee perceived stress (independent variables) and employee work performance (dependent variable). This implies that as the stress level of women lectures in managerial positions in this study increases, their performance decreases and vice versa., implying that performance increases as perceived stress reduces and vice versa. The work of Biron (2012) supported by Ganesh et al. (2018), and Akanji (2013) confirms the above results that perceived stress reduces employee performance, increases absenteeism and sickness, and reduces turnovers. Blumenthal (2003) posits that stress-induced behavioural symptoms can result in work absenteeism, subpar planning and budgeting, ineffective task completion, diminished self-confidence, concentration difficulties, decision-making struggles, and job discontent, all of which contribute to a decline in performance. Similarly, Fisher (2014), Muhammad and Kishwar (2019), and Desseler (2000) concur that perceived stress, at the organisational level, is accountable for outcomes such as performance degradation, dissatisfaction, a decrease in both the volume and quality of work output, a lack of drive and dedication, an escalation in absenteeism, and a reduction in turnover or productivity.More so, the result above is supported by several research studies such as Swathi and Reddy (2016) who posit that "stress affects performance negatively"; Bernard (2009), Amponsah (2010), Roberts

(2014), and Mosadebhrad (2014) who opine that stress influences performance negatively; Kossek et al. (2012) who concluded that perceived stress negatively affects employee performance. Sincero (2012a) focussed on how perceived stress affects performance and found out that perceived stress negatively affects the performance of employees; Biron (2012), Akanji (2013) and Ganesh et al. (2018) emphasised that perceived stress reduces performance. It can therefore be concluded that perceived stress influences employees' performance negatively.

Again, Table 18 Model 3 reveals the total effect of the study findings with perceived stress having a coeff =.278, p<.001. Results of the covariates indicate that the type of age, qualification and experience have a significant effect on employee work performance. The finding disconfirms Guzzo et al. (2022) that tenure, as opposed to age, significantly influences unit performance. Moreover, the individual level is consistent with the absence of evidence for an age-performance relationship, economics research literature typically finds negative associations between age and performance at all levels of study. There is no indication of nonlinearities in the correlations between tenure, age, or performance heterogeneity. Ageism and companies' employment of gig or contract labour is highlighted as practical consequences of the results. The variation may be a result of different geographical settings and participates.

In conclusion, the bias-corrected percentile bootstrap method's outcomes, as presented in Table 19, demonstrated a notable indirect influence of perceived stress on work performance via well-being (b = .223, t = 4.750, SE=.223, 95 per cent CI= [.127, 0.269]), thereby dismissing the null hypothesis 5 (Ho5). The direct influence of perceived stress on work performance, considering the mediating role of well-being, was also significant (a =.416, p <.001). Consequently, well-being was found to be a

partial mediator in the connection between perceived stress and work performance. This conclusion is plausible as Krishman (2014) posited that stress perception varies among individuals, with their stress tolerance differing. Some individuals perform optimally under pressure, while others struggle with the "last minute syndrome".

5.7 Moderation Effect of Institutional Stress Management Systems on Perceived Stress and Well-being

The analysis of the conditional process, as demonstrated in Table 20, utilized Hayes' (2018) process macro v3.2 (Model 59). The initial multiple regressions, denoted as Model 1 in Table 20, examined the moderating role of institutional stress management procedures on the trajectory from perceived stress to well-being. The model yielded an R2 of .193, signifying that it explained 19.3% of the variance. Despite the inclusion of covariates in the model, none proved to be significant. The data further revealed a substantial direct impact of perceived stress on well-being, with a coefficient of -.394 and a confidence interval of -.310 to .068. Additionally, the institutional stress management systems were found to exert a significant direct influence on well-being, with a coefficient of .254 and a confidence interval of .078 to .154. Moreover, these systems were observed to moderate the link between perceived stress and well-being, with a coefficient of .216 and a confidence interval of -.037 to .146. Consequently, the fourth null hypothesis is not corroborated by the findings.

5.8 Moderation Effect of Institutional Stress Management Systems on Well-being and Work Performance

In the second regression analysis, as depicted in Table 20, Model 2, the examination was conducted to ascertain if the institutional stress management systems

(SMS) have a moderating effect on the relationship between well-being and work performance. The results presented in Table 20, Model 2, indicate that the interaction of institutional stress management systems does significantly influence the correlation between well-being and work performance, with a coefficient of .135 and a confidence interval ranging from .069 to .267. Given that the confidence intervals do not encompass zero, the fifth null hypothesis is dismissed in this research. These findings corroborate the results of Stankeviciene et al. (2021), which demonstrated that the direct influence of workplace culture on well-being significantly surpasses the indirect effect of work-life balance. With the quest of substituting WLB with SMS, there was no variation in findings. It would, therefore, suggest that there is more to explore. Finally, the findings agree with Huo and Jiang (2023) that work-life conflict hurts employees' well-being, which compromises their ability to execute their jobs effectively.

5.9 Moderation Effect of Institutional Stress Management Systems on Perceived Stress and Work Performance

The subsequent regression examination, as depicted in Model 2 of Table 20, evaluated the moderating role of the institutional stress management system on the trajectory from perceived stress to work performance. As evidenced in Model 2 of Table 20, perceived stress (coefficient = -.327, Confidence Interval (CI): = .2.32, .496), well-being (coefficient = .255, CI = -.098, .231), and institutional stress management systems (coefficient = .158, CI =-.734, .167) all exert a substantial direct influence on work performance. Moreover, the interaction effect of institutional stress management systems on the link between perceived stress and work performance was found to be statistically significant (coefficient = -.094, CI = .047, .243). This analysis was

conducted considering the covariates of both academic and professional qualifications, and experience, all of which demonstrated a significant impact with coefficients = .276, $p < .001$, = .283, $p < .001$ and = .301, $p < .001$, respectively. The model accounted for 43.6% of the total variance, as denoted by an R2 value of .436, which led to the rejection of null hypothesis 6. This aligns with previous research suggesting that when physical and mental demands surpass an individual's ability, it poses a risk for chronic stress, especially among women (Ala-Mursula et al., 2005).

Lack of control over work schedules has been associated with increased self-reported stress and a higher likelihood of taking sick leave, particularly among women (Ala-Mursula et al., 2005). In a similar vein, Gray-Stanley et al. (2010) posited that professionals in occupational health and those interested in employee health and healthcare costs are starting to acknowledge the substantial hidden costs of stress. While the stress management system could directly address problems, it would not function as a buffer between stress and well-being.

5.10 Chapter Summary

The major factors accounting for the work-related stress suffered by women lecturers in managerial positions across academia are numerous as revealed by the findings of this study. The topical factors include the heavy nature of their workloads, long working hours, the multiple roles in their everyday work, and the deadlines they have to meet. Other factors identified are related to how slow and difficult it is to advance in their career, conflicts in their work roles, workplace conflicts, advances in work-related technology and politics that arise in times of promotion. In addition, this study points to the fact that in academia, the number of papers published greatly

influences promotion decisions. However, women face a lot of time constraints in publishing papers mostly because they may have to spend more time with their family and friends after their working house. Those who are determined to write more papers for publication may have to cut down the time spent with family and in social engagements and this is another major stressor of this category of women. Furthermore, leadership selection issues, and difficult co-workers and subordinates account for significant causes of stress.

Per the findings of this study, women who are in managerial positions in academia, especially in higher education institutions such as universities, are likely to be affected by these same stressors. However, the levels of perceived stress may not be the same across all institutions. This may be attributed to the fact that job roles and perceived stress levels may change due to cultural differences across different job roles in the same or different organisations. Regardless of this difference in perceived stress levels across institutions in academia in Ghana, there exist high levels of perceived stress among women in managerial positions. Compared with research conducted previously, the perceived stress levels encountered are on the ascendancy. Similarly, perceived stress affects the well-being of women in managerial positions in academia differently. Notwithstanding, the dominant effects of perceived stress on well-being are namely; depression, headaches, stomach upsets, muscle pains, workplace tension, the feeling of frustration, restlessness, feverishness, and anxiety as well as boredom.

The above effects of perceived stress on the well-being of women will certainly adversely affect their work output. This study rightly reveals that the core function of women in academia is the biggest loser in this case. i.e., their ability to carry out academic research for promotion, policymakers, and allied industries greatly diminish.

Even when they can churn out some research, it is likely to be of poor quality. This also means that the amount of output expected from these women is not met as it may become challenging for a "stressed" woman to accomplish a given task and execute a job role satisfactorily. This challenge in accomplishing a task stem from dwindling motivation levels, appetite for work, commitment to work, and concentration levels during work. A lack of appetite for work simply builds up the intuition to quit the job. Thus, as stress levels rise, performance decreases. Again, as stress levels may change due to cultural differences across different job roles in the same or different organisations, the effects of stress on work performance vary per institution in Ghana.

Managing stress, however, is not the sole responsibility of the victim. It must rather be a holistic approach that involves the employer, and the academic institution. Consequently, all institutions in academia must develop a well-formulated stress management policy. This study finds that the salary structure in academia must be fairly distributed to serve as a motivation factor in the workplace. The objectives of the entity ought to be both achievable and sufficiently appealing to female employees. Furthermore, associated establishments should foster enhanced institutional dialogue with personnel, employ more effective and unambiguous signs and symbols, stimulate extensive employee involvement in decision-making processes, and bestow upon staff increased autonomy. It is also crucial to provide employees with significant and prompt feedback, as well as heightened responsibility. The promotion of decentralisation, equitable and just allocation of rewards, job rotation and job enhancement, and efficient hiring and induction procedures are also recommended. Recognising employees for meeting and surpassing their objectives, implementing wellness initiatives such as fitness programmes, health check-ups, and the like, and guaranteeing the availability of

private counselling services for employees are also essential. It was also noticed in Table 21 that performance relates positively to Institutional Stress Management Systems ($r=.352$, $p<.0.05$). This implies that performance increases as Institutional Stress Management System increases in this study. However, perceived stress relates negatively to Institutional Stress Management System ($r=-.401$, $p<.0.05$), implying that perceived stress decreases as Institutional Stress Management System increases and vice versa in this study. Additionally, it can be inferred from Table 21 that the application of good institutional management strategies decreases perceived stress and improves performance. Conclusively, it can be deduced that if institutions implement proper stress management systems, perceived stress levels of employees will decrease thereby increasing their work performance.

Nurturing the well-being of employees is beneficial for both the individuals and the institution. The encouragement of well-being can serve as a deterrent to stress and foster positive work atmospheres where both the individual and the institution can prosper. Optimal health and well-being can act as a fundamental facilitator of employee involvement and institutional efficacy. The recent COVID-19 crisis has further elevated the importance of employee health and well-being in business considerations in recent years.

The advocacy and facilitation of employee well-being is central to our mission of advocating superior work and work-life balance, as an efficient workplace well-being scheme can yield mutual advantages for individuals, institutions, economies, and societies. The expanding health and well-being agenda report indicates that health-centric workplaces enable individuals to thrive and realize their potential. This entails

the establishment of an environment that actively encourages a state of satisfaction, benefiting both the employees and the institution.

Currently, there is a wider comprehension and application of comprehensive health and well-being strategies in numerous workplaces. However, it is evident that there is a gap in implementation, with several institutions yet to fully adopt the health and well-being agenda. Allocating resources towards the welfare of employees can lead to heightened resilience, increased staff engagement, diminished sickness, lessened absenteeism, and superior performance and productivity. Nonetheless, initiatives aimed at promoting well-being frequently fail to achieve their maximum impact as they are detached from everyday business activities. For palpable advantages, it is essential to weave stress management tactics and employee welfare priorities into the fabric of an organisation. These elements should be deeply embedded in its ethos, leadership style, and human resource management. The human resource profession is uniquely positioned to drive this agenda, convince top-level management to give it precedence, and ensure that supervisors are adequately prepared and skilled to bolster their team's welfare for enhanced performance.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0 Introduction

This is the final chapter which contains the summary of the findings of the study, the conclusions that were reached, limitations of the study, recommendations made as well as suggestions for further studies. This study, perceived stress, well-being, institutional stress management systems and work performance of women lecturers:

conditional process analysis was conducted specifically to assess how perceived stress impacts the work performance, the type of stressors that affect perceived stress levels, how well-being mediates the relationship between perceived stress and work performance and the role of institutional stress management systems in moderating the relationship between perceived stress, well-being and work performance among women lecturers in managerial positions in twelve selected higher educational institutions. Therefore, six objectives were set out and these were to: assess the perceived stress levels of women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected higher educational institutions; identify the type of stressors that affect the perceived stress levels of women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected higher educational institutions; examine the well-being of women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected higher educational institutions; examine the work performance of women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected higher educational institutions; and explore the availability of institutional stress management systems in selected higher educational institutions. To achieve these objectives, five research questions and six hypotheses were set out to guide the study:

To develop a conceptual framework to guide the entire study, literature was reviewed around many issues, including perceived stress levels, stressors, well-being and work performance of the women lecturers, and availability of institutional support systems in the twelve selected higher educational institutions.

The sample for the study comprised 270 respondents selected from 454 women lecturers in managerial positions in twelve higher educational institutions in Ghana. The institutions were obtained through a purposive sampling technique. A descriptive survey design in a quantitative approach was employed for the study. The research

revealed several findings in respect to how perceived stress impacts the work performance, the type of stressors that affect perceive stress levels, how well-being mediates the relationship between perceived stress and work performance and the role of institutional stress management systems in moderating the relationship between stress, well-being and work performance among women lecturers in managerial positions in twelve selected higher educational institutions. The summary of the key findings which have significant implications is presented in the next section:

6.1 Summary of Key Findings

Research question one assessed the perceived stress levels of the women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected higher education institutions. The results revealed that the perceived stress levels of majority (55.9%, mean=4.043) of the women lecturers in managerial positions in the twelve higher educational institutions were high. This was also evidenced in the perceived stress levels across the three categories of institutions.

Research question two investigated the types of stressors that affect the perceived stress levels of women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected higher educational institutions. The results revealed that stressors of the women lecturers in managerial positions in the twelve institutions come from workload, extended working hours, tight deadlines, slow career progress, multiple roles, numerous performance appraisal, workplace conflict, new technology, role conflicts, inadequate time to publish enough papers needed for a promotion, number of publications needed for a promotion, problematic subordinates, politics in promotion and selecting leaders, and not getting enough time for family and social engagements.

Research question three examined the well-being of women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected higher education institutions. It was found out that women lecturers in managerial positions do not get enough time to exercise, do eat a balanced diet, mostly feel anxious, tensed, depressed, restless, bored, or frustrated at work, and sometimes suffer from musculoskeletal disorders e.g., arthritis, back pain, repetitive strain injury and frequently experience headaches, stomach upsets and or feel feverish at work. It was also evidenced that the women lecturers are not provided with the necessary resources and support to help when times are tough, which have negative effect on their well-being. However, the results showed the women lectures in managerial positions are positive about their personality and satisfied with life in general.

Research question four examined the work performance of women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected higher education institutions. It is established that women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected higher educational institutions in Ghana on the average, underperform their duties. This underperformance is evidenced in all the areas of the lecturers' work; however, it was more critical in the conducting of research and participation in community service than in the teaching.

Research question five explored the availability of institutional stress management systems in the selected higher educational institutions. It was found that the institutions have fair and just distribution of salary structure and have realistic and stimulating institutional goals Regrettably, the administration of these establishments fails to: foster enhanced communication within the institution, employ more effective and unambiguous signs and symbols, stimulate extensive employee involvement in decision-making processes, bestow upon staff increased autonomy, provide staff with

significant and prompt feedback along with heightened responsibility, advocate for decentralisation, ensure an equitable and just allocation of rewards, endorse job diversification and enhancement, implement efficient hiring and induction procedures, acknowledge staff for meeting and surpassing their objectives, coordinate health and wellness initiatives such as fitness activities, health check-ups, etc., and guarantee the availability of private counselling services for staff. It was also evidenced that in the results that none of the twelve institutions has a well-formulated stress management policy.

Research hypothesis one and two tested the differences in the perceived stress levels and stressors of the women lecturers in managerial positions from different higher educational institutions. The results from hypothesis one showed that there is a statistical difference between the stress levels of women in Institution A, Institution B, and Institution C. Thus, Institution A has the highest perceived stress levels followed by Institution B and then Institution C. However, the results from hypothesis two indicated that the stressors of women in the three categories of institutions, Institution A, Institution B, and Institution C in this study statistically did not differ.

The outcomes of the third research hypothesis demonstrated a significant mediation by well-being in the correlation between perceived stress levels and work performance ($p<.001$). The results from the third hypothesis also indicated a substantial negative correlation between stress experienced by employees (independent variable) and their work performance (dependent variable) (coeff. = -.256, $p<.001$), with well-being as a control variable. This suggests that an increase in perceived stress among women lecturers in managerial roles in this study corresponds to a decrease in their performance, and the converse is also true, indicating that performance escalates as

stress diminishes and vice versa. The bias-corrected percentile bootstrap method's outcomes also disclosed a significant indirect influence of perceived stress on work performance via well-being, corroborating the third hypothesis. The direct influence of perceived stress on work performance in the presence of the mediator (well-being) was significant, (a =.416, p <.001). Therefore, well-being partially mediated the correlation between stress and work performance. Hypothesis four sought to test whether institutional stress management systems moderate the relationship between perceived stress levels and the well-being. It was found out that institutional stress management systems have a significant direct moderating effect on the relationship between perceived stress and well-being.

It was found form hypothesis five that the interaction of institutional stress management systems is significant on the relationship between well-being and work performance, and that institutional stress management systems moderates the relationship between well-being and work performance.

Hypothesis six established that, institutional stress management systems interacted significantly with on the relationship between stress and work performance in the presence of the covariates with both academic and professional qualifications, and experience indicating significant effect. Thus, institutional stress management system moderates the path from stress to work performance implying that all institutional stress management systems have significant direct effect on work performance.

6.2 Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study, it can be concluded that:

High perceived stress levels reduce work performance. Thus, work performance decreases as their perceived stress levels increase and vice versa. Also, high perceived stress level among women lecturers in managerial varies in different institutions. Thus, the impact of perceived stress on performance differs in context from one job to the other and even in the same job.

In addition, stressors cut across context. It is tied to a specific job irrespective of context. Thus, women who are in managerial positions in academia, especially in higher educational institutions are likely to be affected by these same stressors. However, individuals experiencing the same stressors may have different stress levels due to their different reactions toward the same stressors.

Again, women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected higher educational institutions in Ghana on the average, underperform their duties. This underperformance is evidenced in all the areas of the lecturers' work; however, it was more critical in the conducting of research and participation in community service than in the teaching.

Furthermore, the study highlights the complex interplay between stress, well-being, institutional stress management systems and work performance for women, emphasising the importance of a comprehensive approach that addresses all three factors to optimise women's performance in the workplace.

Finally, Ghanaian higher educational institutions do not have stress management policies or proper guidelines for managing stress. Institutional stress management systems play a moderating role in the relationship between; stress and well-being, well-being and work performance, and stress and work performance of the women lecturers. Thus, effective implementation of stress management strategies can

help decrease stress, mitigate the detrimental effects of stress on well-being and improve performance.

6.3 Limitations of the Study

Getting the right information at the right time, given the limited time and resources for the research was a challenge. Also, it was difficult having access to the respondents who had busy schedules. Even though this limitation did not affect the data directly, it caused the researcher to spend a long time and much money on transportation, as the researcher had to go to the institutions on several occasions.

6.4 Recommendations

In light of the conclusions drawn from the research, several suggestions have been put forth. Firstly, it is imperative for both GTEC and VCG to guarantee that each tertiary educational establishment in Ghana implements a structured policy for managing stress among staff. This policy should aim to foster a healthy work environment, proactively mitigate the occurrence of job-induced stress and associated health issues where feasible, and explicitly outline the measures that will be taken to assist employees grappling with stress-related complications.

Two, management of higher educational institutions in Ghana should ensure that their institutions have formal stress management policies or support systems for staff in their institution which should be accessible to staff. This will help to reduce their work-related stress and improve their performance at work. They should also recruit more staff to each the stress on university staff. They should offer training programmes to educate Deans and HODs about the impact of stress on women's

lecturers work performance. Provide them with tools and techniques to identify and address stressors effectively, create supportive work environments.

Three, Deans, UTAG and Welfare Associations should develop and implement stress management programmes specifically designed to address the unique stressors faced by women lecturers in the universities. These programmes should provide tools and strategies to help women lecturers effectively manage stress and enhance their well-being and work performance. They should also create a positive and supportive work culture that prioritises employee well-being. Encourage open communication, provide resources for stress reduction, and promote work-life balance initiatives to support women lecturers in managing stress and improving their work performance. Again, they should conduct regular assessments to identify the specific stressors affecting women lecturers in the universities. Use this information to tailor interventions and support systems to address these stressors effectively and improve work performance. In addition, promote self-care practices among women lecturers, such as mindfulness, exercise, and time management techniques. Encourage breaks and encourage employees to prioritise self-care activities, which can contribute to improved well-being and work performance. Furthermore, Deans, UTAG and Welfare Associations should create opportunities for women to connect and support each other within the organisation. Establish support groups, mentorship programmes or employee resource groups that focus on addressing stress and enhancing well-being. By fostering social support networks, organisations can provide additional resources for women to manage stress and improve work performance.

Finally, staff in higher educational institutions in Ghana should develop personal management strategies to improve their health status, general well-being and their performance at work.

6.5 Suggestions for Future Research

The research was exclusively conducted in Ghana, focusing on women lecturers in managerial positions across four traditional public, four technical, and four private higher educational institutions, with a total target demographic of 454. Given the restricted geographical range and specific demographic, it is recommended that this research be duplicated to encompass other higher educational institutions within the nation that have a larger demographic, as this could yield varying outcomes.

Moreover, the investigation was solely centred on women lecturers in managerial positions, suggesting that future research could include all lecturers or specifically male lecturers from different institutions for comparative analysis.

Lastly, the research methodology employed was quantitative, utilizing a closed-ended questionnaire for data collection. It is suggested that subsequent studies consider employing qualitative or mixed methodologies, as these could potentially uncover additional aspects related to the study's variables.

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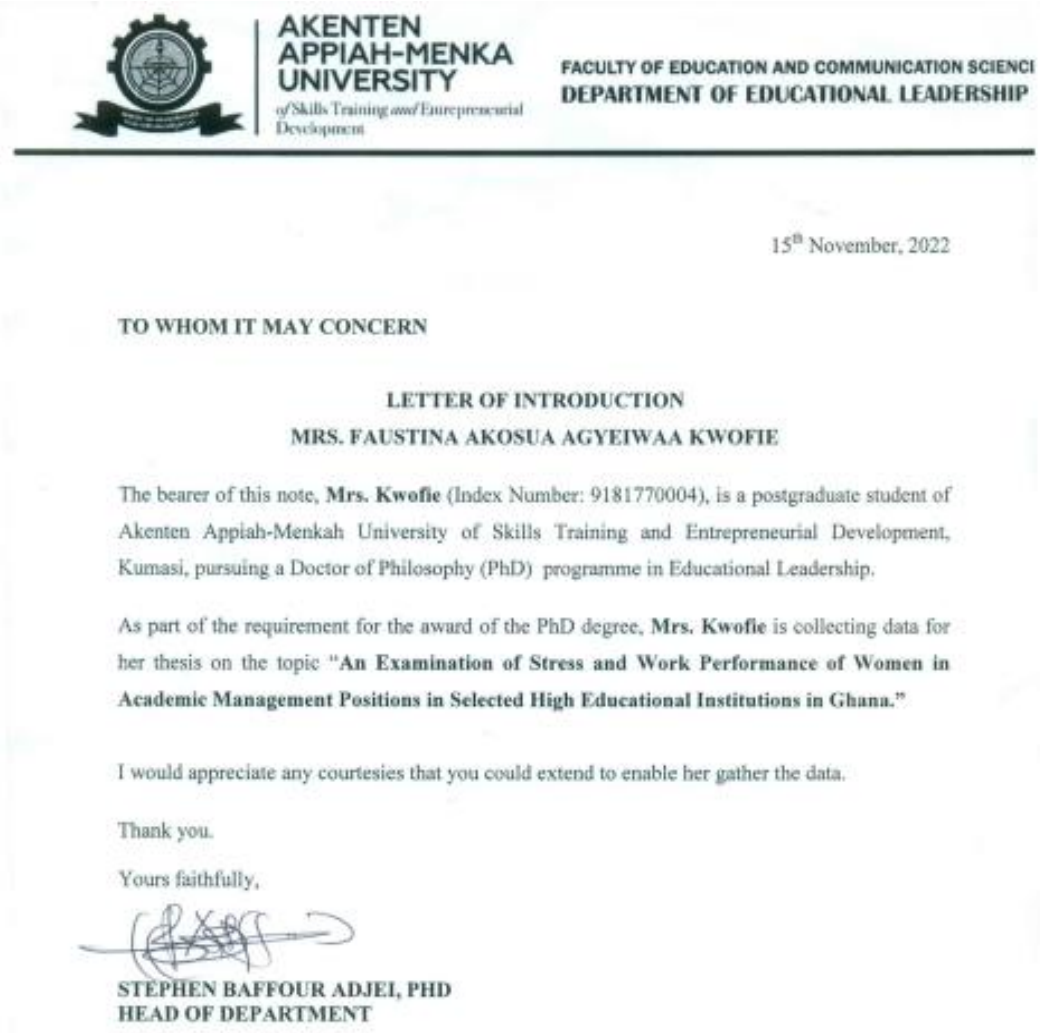
APPENDICES

APPENDIX A:

Introductory Letter from Department



AKENTEN APPIAH-MENKA UNIVERSITY
of Skills Training and Entrepreneurial Development

FACULTY OF EDUCATION AND COMMUNICATION SCIENCI
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

15th November, 2022

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

MRS. FAUSTINA AKOSUA AGYEIWAA KWOFIE

The bearer of this note, **Mrs. Kwofie** (Index Number: 9181770004), is a postgraduate student of Akenten Appiah-Menkah University of Skills Training and Entrepreneurial Development, Kumasi, pursuing a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) programme in Educational Leadership.

As part of the requirement for the award of the PhD degree, **Mrs. Kwofie** is collecting data for her thesis on the topic "**An Examination of Stress and Work Performance of Women in Academic Management Positions in Selected High Educational Institutions in Ghana.**"

I would appreciate any courtesies that you could extend to enable her gather the data.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

STEPHEN BAFFOUR ADJEI, PHD
HEAD OF DEPARTMENT

APPENDIX B

Personal Introductory Letter

Administration

UNIVERSITY OF MINES AND TECHNOLOGY (UMaT)
P. O. Box 237, Tarkwa, Ghana, West Africa
Tel: +233 3123 22324/20280; Fax: +233 362 21877
E-Mail: info@umat.edu.gh

20th January, 2023

Dear Sir/Madam,

REQUEST FOR DATA

I am a PhD student of the Department of Educational Leadership, University of Education, Winneba, researching on the topic "An Examination of Stress and Work Performance of Women Lecturers in Managerial Positions in Selected High Educational Institutions in Ghana". Among the selected institutions is the

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As part of my research, I am required to collect the following data from your institution:

1. The staff strength in terms of gender;
2. Teaching staff strength in terms of gender;
3. Teaching staff holding leadership positions in term of gender;
4. Total number of women lecturer in managerial positions i.e. V.C., Pro V.C., HoDs, Deputy HoDs, Deans, Vice Deans, Directors, Deputy Directors, and Unit Heads.

I will be grateful if you could provide me with the above listed data to enable me meet the requirement of my thesis.

I am counting on your usual co-operation on this request.

Please find attached an introductory letter from my department.

Yours faithfully,

Faustina A. A. Kwofie (Mrs)
Assistant Registrar
Human Resource Unit

APPENDIX C

Questionnaire for Women Lecturers in Managerial Positions in Higher Education

University of Education, Winneba

Department of Educational Leadership

I am Faustina Akosua Agyeiwaa Kwofie, a final year PhD student of the University of Education, Winneba. As part of the academic requirement, I am conducting research on stress, wellbeing, work performance and institutional stress management systems: conditional process analysis of women lecturers in managerial positions. I assure you that any information provided shall be used solely for academic purposes, confidentiality and anonymity are assured. **(Please tick and specify when appropriate).**

Section A: Demographic characteristics of respondent

1. Please, indicate your institution.

   Public Traditional University [ ],

   Public Technical University [ ],

   Private University [ ].

2. Please, indicate your age bracket.

   Below 39 years [ ], 40-45 years [ ], 46-50 years [ ],

   51-55 years [ ], 56-60 years [ ], above 60 years [ ].

3. Do you have offsprings?

   Yes [ ], No [ ]

4. What is your academic qualification?

   (a) Postgraduate Diploma Degree [ ] (b) MPhil Degree [ ] c) PhD [ ].

Others, please specify…… …….

5. What is your professional qualification?

   Lecturer [ ] Senior Lecturer [ ]

   Associate Professor [ ] Professor [ ]

6. Are you in this role?

   HOD [ ] Dean/Vice Dean [ ]

   Director/Deputy Director [ ] Unit/Sectional Head [ ]

   Others please specify ……

7. For how long have you been holding your current role in this University?

   0 – 1 year [ ], 2 – 3 years [ ], 4 – 5 years [ ], above 5 years [ ]

Section B: Perceived Stress Levels Experienced by Women Lecturers in Managerial Positions in the Selected Institutions

8. The table below shows the perceived stress levels experienced by women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected institutions. For each question below, please choose from the following alternatives: **1 – never, 2 – rarely, 3 – sometimes, 4 – frequently, 5 – always.**

1. Reflect on the past half-year and consider the frequency of the following experiences. How recurrently have you found yourself distressed due to unforeseen events?
2. How often have you perceived a lack of control over significant aspects of your existence? Have you frequently experienced feelings of anxiety and stress?
3. How regularly have you felt assured in your capacity to manage personal issues?
4. Have you often felt that circumstances were favouring you?

5. How many times have you felt overwhelmed, unable to juggle all your responsibilities? How frequently have you successfully managed life's irritations?
6. Have you often felt in command and on top of situations?
7. How often have you been provoked to anger by circumstances beyond your control? Lastly, how frequently have you felt as though challenges were amassing to insurmountable heights?

Section C: The Sources of Stress or Stressors Experience by Women Lecturers in Managerial Positions in the Selected Institutions

9. The table shows causes or sources of stress women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected institutions. Please, tick by rating using the scale.

1-Strongly Disagree (SA), 2-Disagree (A), 3- Neutral, 4-Agree (D), 5-Strongly Agree (SD).

	Causes/Sources of Stress Items	**SA**	**A**	**N**	**D**	**SD**
1	Workload					
2	Extended Working Hours					
3	Job Insecurity					
4	New Technology					
5	Terms & Conditions					
6	Tight Deadlines					
7	Employment Contract					
8	Job Description					
9	Physical Surroundings					

10	Inadequate Resources					
11	Role Conflict					
12	Role Ambiguity					
13	Number of publications needed for promotion					
14	Lack of Support					
15	Workplace Conflict					
16	Violence/Aggression					
17	Gender discrimination/stereotyping					
18	Harassment/assault					
19	Low Self-Efficacy					
20	Fear of Redundancy,					
21	Numerous Performance Appraisals					
22	Multiple Roles/responsibilities					
23	Slow Career Progress					
24	Sexual Harassment/Assault					

Section D: Wellbeing of Women Lecturers in Managerial Positions in the Selected Institutions

10. The table below shows the wellbeing of women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected institutions. Please tick by rating using the scale: **1-Strongly Disagree (SA), 2-Disagree (A), 3-Neutral, 4-Agree (D), 5-Strongly Agree (SD).**

	Wellbeing of Women Lecturers Statements	**SA**	**A**	**N**	**D**	**SD**
1	I do exercise and/or eat balanced diet					
2	I am positive about my personality and satisfied with life in general					
3	I mostly feel anxious, tensed, depressed, restless, bored or frustrated at work					
4	I suffer from musculoskeletal disorder e.g. arthritis, back pain, repetitive strain injury.					
5	I am provided with the necessary resources, and support to help when times are tough					
6	I have been feeling optimistic about the future					
7	I frequently experience headaches, stomach upsets and or feel feverish at work					
8	I have been feeling useful, loved, cheerful and happy to work					
9	I am personally confident, motivated and have control over my safety to work					
10	My knowledge and ideas are being considered within the working environment.					

Section E: Work Performance of Women Lecturers in Managerial Positions in the Selected Institutions

11. The table shows the work performance of women lecturers in managerial positions in the selected institutions. Tick by rating using the scale **1-Strongly Disagree (SA), 2-Disagree (A), 3-Neutral, 4-Agree (D), 5-Strongly Agree (SD).**

	Work Performance Statements	**SA**	**A**	**N**	**D**	**SD**
1	I ensure that the objectives of each lecture I give to students are met by conducting advance planning.					
2	I update any lecture's subject matter before I deliver it.					
3	I deliver all of the lectures that are assigned to me each semester.					
4	I provide students with all required coursework for a semester.					
5	At the end of each semester, I give exams to my students.					
6	I set exams for students every end of semester					
7	I see to it myself the exams I give them					
8	I grade all of the coursework I assign to students on time,					
9	I submit the completed coursework for grading on time					
10	I submit the results of the exams I give to students on time.					
11	I submit students' examination marks for grading in time					
12	I manage research students who are assigned to me according to the schedule					
13	I have access to enough research as needed.					

14	I am able to publish the required number of articles for promotion as required					
15	I have authored a number of textbooks recently					
16	I have presented a number of conference papers recently.					
17	In the projects I engage in, I extend my professional knowledge to community stakeholders.					
18	I engage in discussions with corporations to secure internships for my students.					
19	I have created software solutions aimed at addressing societal challenges.					
20	I actively partake in public discourse, deliberating on potential solutions to matters of public concern.					
21	My research endeavours are designed in such a way that the community reaps tangible benefits.					
22	I foster partnerships with community organisations, working on projects that yield mutual advantages.					
23	I also make it a point to converse with the wider public on topics that are of public significance.					

Section F: Institutional Stress Management Systems in the Selected Institutions.

12. The table shows institutional stress management systems in the selected institutions. Please tick by rating using the scale: **1-Strongly Disagree (SA), 2-Disagree (A), 3-Neutral, 4-Agree (D), 5-Strongly Agree (SD).**

	Stress Management Systems Statements	**SA**	**A**	**N**	**D**	**SD**
1	Management encourages more institutional communication with the staff					
2	Management uses better signs and symbols which are not misinterpreted by the staff					
3	Management encourages staff participation in decision-making					
4	Management grants staff greater independence					
5	Management grants staff meaningful and timely feedback and greater responsibility					
6	Management encourages decentralization					
7	There is a fair and just distribution of incentives					
8	There is a fair and just distribution of the salary structure					
9	Management promotes job rotation and job enrichment					
10	My institution have effective recruitment and orientation procedure					

11	Management appreciates the staff for accomplishing and over-exceeding their targets					
12	There is an organise wellness programmes such as keeping fit, exercise, health screenings, etc., in my institution					
13	Management ensures the provision of confidential counselling services to staff					
14	The institutional goals are realistic and stimulating					
15	My institution has Stress Management Policy					

Thank you!