Factors affecting job performance: an integrative review of literature

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Abstract

Purpose – Job performance is an important variable, which primarily affects outcomes at three levels: the micro level (i.e. the individual), the meso level (i.e. the group) and the macro level (i.e. the organisation). This paper aims to identify, analyse and synthesise factors that affect job performance.

Design/methodology/approach – Through an extensive integrative review of literature, this study identifies and classifies the factors that affect job performance. A synthesised model based on the schema of demands, resources and stressors is also developed.

Findings – The demands identified are grouped into physical, cognitive and affective. Stressors adversely affecting job performance are classified at an individual level, job level and family level. Finally, resources are classified at an individual level, job level, organisational level and social level.

Research limitations/implications – This review enhances the job demands-resources (JD-R) model to job demands-resources-stressors (JD-R-S) model by identifying a separate category of variables that are neither job demands nor resources, but still impede job performance.

Practical implications – The subgroups identified under demands, resources and stressors provide insights into job performance enhancement strategies, by changing, managing or optimising them.

Originality/value – This study helps in better understanding the factors that go on to impact job performance differentially, depending on the group to which they belong. It gives a holistic picture of factors affecting job performance, thereby integrating classifying and synthesising the vast literature on the topic.

Keywords Review, Resources, Job performance, Job demands, Organizational theory and behaviour, Stressors, Job demands-resources-stressors model

Paper type Literature review

Introduction

Job performance refers to "scalable actions, behavior, and outcomes that employees engage in or bring about that are linked with and contribute to organizational goals" (Viswesvaran and Ones, 2000, p. 216). Job performance is linked to both employee- and organisational-level outcomes. It has been a variable of interest for scholars and practitioners alike owing to its impact on outcomes affecting the organisational bottom line. This relationship between job performance and organisational performance has been echoed by Alessandri *et al.* (2017, p. 207) "issues relating to the nature and significance of their relationship has fascinated organisational researchers since the beginning of this discipline". Meta-analytical studies also link job performance and organisational bottom line to an important attitudinal variable like turnover intention (Zimmerman and Darnold, 2009), which in turn, is related to behavioural outcomes of actual turnover (Steel and Ovalle, 1984), finally impacting organisational performance at large (Hancock *et al.*, 2013). From the organisational context,

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its performance would be a function of the performance of its individual members (Bowen *et al.*, 2000). It is thereby crucial to have a holistic understanding of what exactly are the influencers of job performance at an individual level, group level and finally, organisational and societal levels. The next section discusses different conceptualisations and subsequent measurements of job performance.

Conceptualisation of job performance
Job performance has been seen through different angles; while some conceptualise it as a single dimension (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993), others highlight its multidimensional nature (Conway, 1999). Similarly, applicability is also a criterion wherein some view it as a generic concept/construct applicable across jobs (Campbell, 1990), whereas others customise it based on jobs' specifics (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986) and question its portability to different domains without necessary changes. Strictly speaking, performance in itself may be viewed from both behavioural and outcome aspects (Roe, 1999). While the former (i.e. behavioural aspect) looks at "what" employees do at work (e.g. number of house visits by salesmen), the latter (i.e. outcome aspect) looks into the "results" of such behaviours (e.g. the value of the sales generated); therefore, both these aspects are not mutually exclusive. These differing conceptualisations result in differing measurement parameters for job performance in terms of "how" and "whom" to measure. Some examples include job knowledge (Campbell, 1990) and ratings by self, peers and or supervisor (Viswesvaran *et al.*, 1996). These measures have been subjective, objective or a mixture of both; for example: performance can be based on a subjective rating by supervisor on how he/she feels the employee has performed or an objective score based on the fraction of actual sales to actual sales achieved by the employee.

Research gap and research question
There have been several studies in the past identifying the antecedents to "job performance". These studies may be classified into two streams: one that looks at the antecedent of job performance by collecting survey-based data; this includes, for instance, a multisource study on leadership, work engagement and job performance (Breevaart *et al.*, 2016) and charismatic leader's influence on followers' stress appraisal and job performance (LePine *et al.*, 2016) among many others. Studies in this stream look at specific antecedents of job performance, and at times, try to uncover mediating, moderating and moderated mediating affects to these specific relationships. For example, Frieder, Wang and Oh (2018) developed a moderated mediation model for linking job-relevant personality traits, transformational leadership and job performance via perceived meaningfulness at work.

The second stream consists of reviews and meta-analysis that use studies from the previous stream as inputs to further test specific relationships; for instance, relationship of trust, trustworthiness and trust propensity with job satisfaction (Colquitt *et al.*, 2007) and evaluation gender biases with job performance (Bowen *et al.*, 2000). This particular stream of research has narrowly focused on consolidation of a small set of variables through different forms of literature review or quantification of a previously debated relationship through meta-analysis.

In both streams, the studies are too specific and cover a narrow range of variables. This restricts in developing a large schema that identifies and classifies a broad range of variables, which can be achieved by a review of literature. In fact, there have been attempts to address the same by Vinchur *et al.* (1998), wherein they identify the predictors of job performance for salespeople. However, Vinchur *et al.*'s (1998) study has been done almost two decades back and was restrictive to salespeople. There has not yet been a thorough review of literature, which shows the factors affecting job performance holistically without bracketing concepts or contexts.

This research through its extensive review of literature fills this lacuna by uncovering factors that go on to affect job performance, whereby it does not restrict itself to select minute and specific contexts with their variables, but rather chooses to take a bird's eye view in order to answer the moot research question: What are the factors that affect job performance?

To address this question more meaningfully, this study enlists the following objectives:

- identify the factors that affect job performance;
- synthesise the factors that affect job performance; and
- develop a framework from the factors to model variables that affect job performance meaningfully.

This paper is based on the doctoral thesis work of Pandey (2017).

Method

This research uses integrative literature review (ILR) to answer the research question. ILR is a "form of research that reviews, critiques and synthesizes representative literature on a topic in an integrated way such that new frameworks and perspectives on the topic are generated" (Torraco, 2005, p. 356). Considering that this study aims to identify, synthesise and integrate factors affecting job performance into a new framework, ILR was adopted and the following process was used.

Search

As practiced in the ILR method, Google Scholar along with databases provided by EBSCO to the author's institute library (Bartlett and Bartlett, 2011) were searched. These databases include but are not limited to arXiv, Business Source Ultimate, Business Insights: Essentials, Emerald Insight, JSTOR, PsycARTICLES, ScienceDirect, etc. Keywords used for the search was "job performance" without putting any limitation on the "year" of publication. The results yielded several subject areas and disciplines, which were not relevant to this review and thereby not used (e.g. "physical sciences"). Some of the subject areas included: business administration, personnel management, behavioural and social sciences.

Inclusion and exclusion criteria

The initial searches led to several articles; their inclusion for the first round was subject to them satisfying the following conditions:

- Manuscript must be published in a peer-reviewed journal.
- Manuscript must have the keyword "performance" anywhere in the text.
- Manuscript must be in the English language

The next process comprised removing duplicates followed by a secondary-level screening, which was done by reading the title and abstract. The exclusion criteria at this stage were:

- If the study was "an essay, book review, letter, editorial, opinion, journalistic or antidotal article" (Parris and Peachey, 2013, p. 381).
- Papers where job performance was not studied as an outcome and/or mediating variable.
- Studies whose primary aim was to develop instruments were also excluded.
- Studies that dealt with organisational performance and not job performance were also excluded.

Final selection
It was only after careful reading of the whole papers that the author selected them. The selection criteria included:

- Job performance was an important variable in the study, i.e. a direct relationship between job performance and of the antecedent variables was proposed or hypothesised.
- The paper selected, needed to have at least ten references as a method for ensuring scholastic aptitude of the research.
- A careful reading of the whole paper should indicate to the researcher at least one antecedent of job performance was of statistical significance. Papers where no antecedent was statistically significant were not selected.

The papers finally selected were from reputed titles and publishers (e.g. Elsevier, Springer, Emerald, Sage, Taylor, Wiley, etc.). As a form of triangulation, while ensuring reliability and validity of the process, two independent research scholars were asked to repeat the selection process by systematically going through the procedure followed by the author. The papers that these two scholars selected were the same as the ones selected by the author, thus justifying the process.

Analyses
The analyses stage involved reading the full papers to determine the antecedents of job performance. Recent articles published were given preference due to their methodological rigour in terms of newer developments in the field following which, a list of variables was recorded and a deductive approach was used to classify them. Then, the job demands-resources model (JD-R model) (Demerouti *et al.*, 2001) used in the past to predict job performance (Bakker *et al.*, 2004) was used to segregate these variables into two distinct categories (i.e. job demands and job resources). Variables, which were neither job demands nor resources, were classified as stressors. After classifying these three categories, a subgrouping of these variables into broader categories was done to ensure a better understanding. This led to the review based on the JD-R-S framework which has also been observed in previous studies (Pandey, 2018a). The next section explains the definitions of demands, resources and stressors.

Job demands-resources model
Job demands refer to:

> [...] those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort or skills and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007, p. 312).

Job resources refer to:

> [...] those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that are either/or functional in achieving work goals, reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, stimulate personal growth, learning, and development (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007, p. 312).

This research therefore defines stressors as physical, psychological, social or organisational variables that are neither job demands nor resources, but are impediments to job performance either directly or indirectly.

Findings

Factors affecting job performance: JD-R perspective

Job demands

- *Physical*: Uppal *et al.* (2014) classified jobs requiring a physical effort on the part of an employee as contextual job characteristic. An increase in physical demand has quite naturally been linked to physiological outcomes like discomfort and fatigue (Campion, 1988) as well as attitudinal outcomes like job disengagement and job dissatisfaction (Christian *et al.*, 2011).

- *Cognitive*: Many jobs require extensive use of cognitive faculties like information processing (Demerouti *et al.*, 2001); they have thus been classified as cognitive demands by (Bakker and Demerouti, 2014).

- *Affective*: Affective demands deal with requirements of affective displays along with the emotional labour expectations from a job. Hochschild (1983), for instance, established the importance of emotions when performing service roles. Similarly, Greenidge *et al.* (2014) have shown the impact of emotional regulation, which is a form of emotional labour. Figure 1 represents these demands.

Resources

Individual resources. Figures 2 and 3 summarize individual resources. Individual resources (i.e. physical, cognitive and affective) act as valuable resources aiding in job performance. Physical fitness, for instance, becomes a vital resource for many jobs. Schmidt and Mckune (2012) identified various indicators of physical fitness related to job performance, for instance, lean muscle mass, overall fitness, strength endurance and aerobic capacity among others.
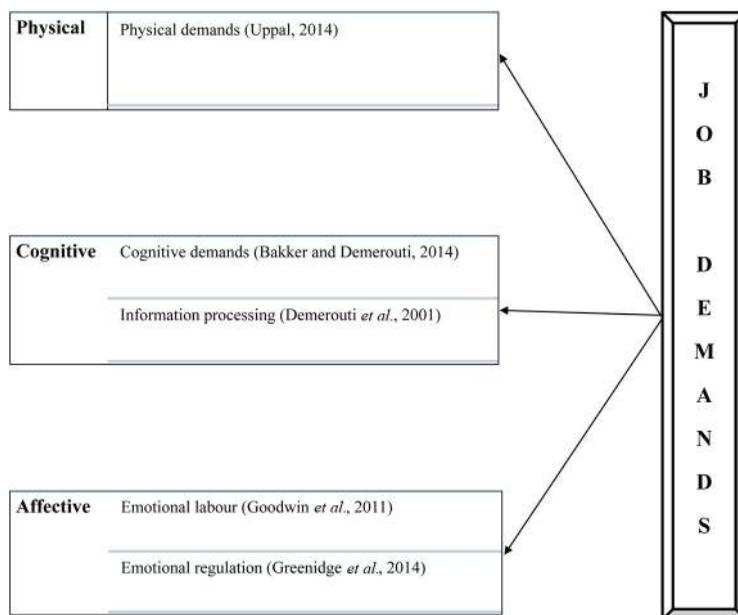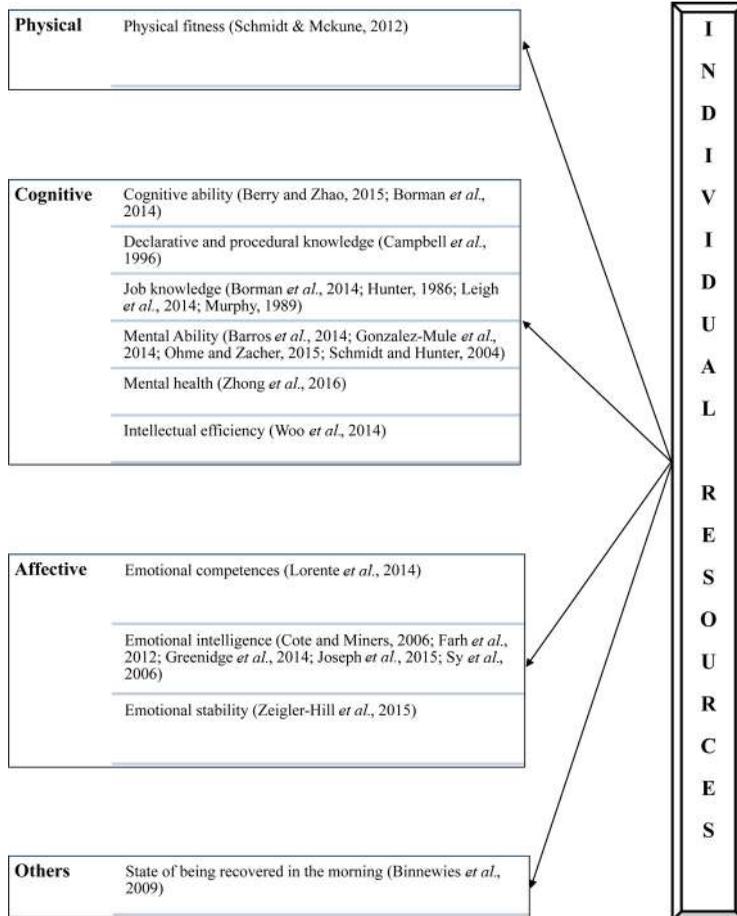

Figure 1.
Job demands

Figure 2.
Individual
resources (a)

Among cognitive resources, mental ability was found to be associated with job performance (Barros *et al.*, 2014). A meta-analysis by Gonzalez-Mulé *et al.* (2014) and Mount *et al.* (2014) reiterates that the general mental ability is indeed a good predictor of the task performance as well as overall job performance. DeCarlo *et al.* (2014) indicate the importance of contingent and context-specific procedural knowledge. Campbell *et al.* (1996) bring in the significance of declarative knowledge in conjunction with procedural knowledge. The importance of cognitive facets has been explicit in extant researches highlighting the impact of ability, skill and knowledge on performance (Borman *et al.*, 2014). Other cognitive qualities that are reservoirs of cognitive resources include mental health (Zhong *et al.*, 2016) and intellectual efficiency (Woo *et al.*, 2014).

Affective resources encompass emotional competence (Lorente *et al.,*. 2014) and emotional intelligence (Cote and Miners, 2006; Farh *et al.*, 2012; Greenidge *et al.*, 2014; Joseph *et al.*, 2014; Sy *et al.*, 2006). Emotional stability also has a positive association with job performance (Zeigler-Hill *et al.*, 2015).
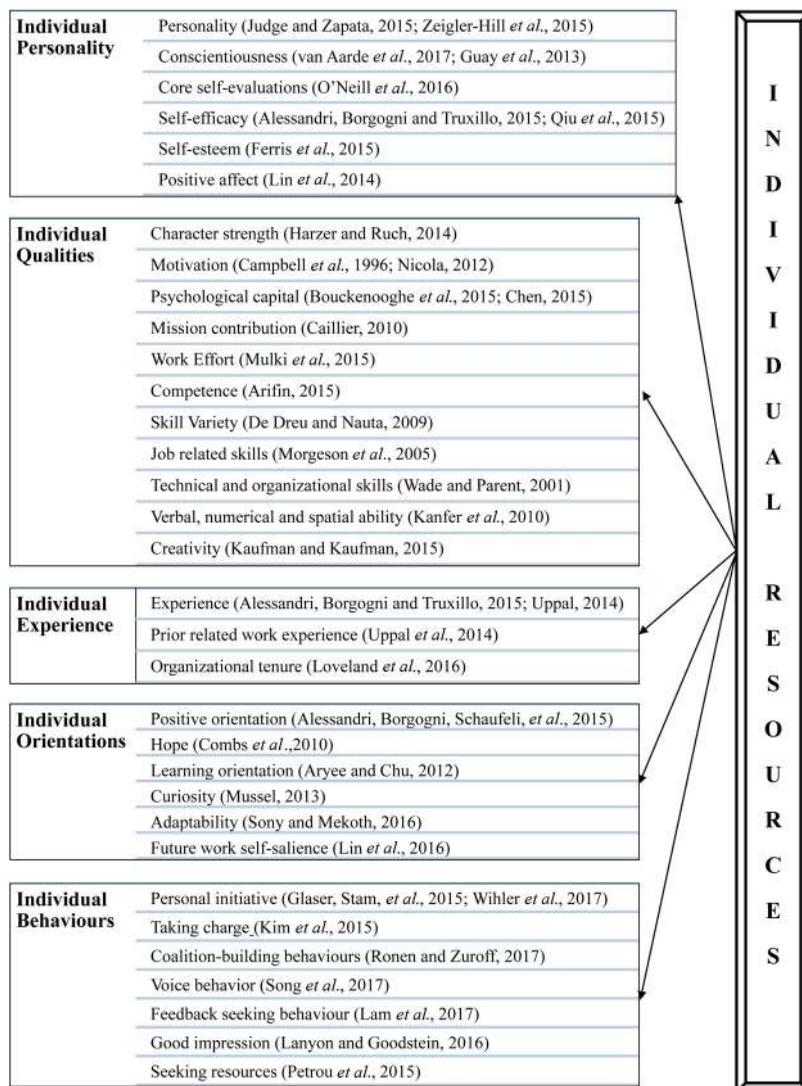
Individual Personality	Personality (Judge and Zapata, 2015; Zeigler-Hill *et al.*, 2015)
	Conscientiousness (van Aarde *et al.*, 2017; Guay *et al.*, 2013)
	Core self-evaluations (O'Neill *et al.*, 2016)
	Self-efficacy (Alessandri, Borgogni and Truxillo, 2015; Qiu *et al.*, 2015)
	Self-esteem (Ferris *et al.*, 2015)
	Positive affect (Lin *et al.*, 2014)

Individual Qualities	Character strength (Harzer and Ruch, 2014)
	Motivation (Campbell *et al.*, 1996; Nicola, 2012)
	Psychological capital (Bouckenooghe *et al.*, 2015; Chen, 2015)
	Mission contribution (Caillier, 2010)
	Work Effort (Mulki *et al.*, 2015)
	Competence (Arifin, 2015)
	Skill Variety (De Dreu and Nauta, 2009)
	Job related skills (Morgeson *et al.*, 2005)
	Technical and organizational skills (Wade and Parent, 2001)
	Verbal, numerical and spatial ability (Kanfer *et al.*, 2010)
	Creativity (Kaufman and Kaufman, 2015)

Individual Experience	Experience (Alessandri, Borgogni and Truxillo, 2015; Uppal, 2014)
	Prior related work experience (Uppal *et al.*, 2014)
	Organizational tenure (Loveland *et al.*, 2016)

Individual Orientations	Positive orientation (Alessandri, Borgogni, Schaufeli, *et al.*, 2015)
	Hope (Combs *et al.*, 2010)
	Learning orientation (Aryee and Chu, 2012)
	Curiosity (Mussel, 2013)
	Adaptability (Sony and Mekoth, 2016)
	Future work self-salience (Lin *et al.*, 2016)

Individual Behaviours	Personal initiative (Glaser, Stam, *et al.*, 2015; Wihler *et al.*, 2017)
	Taking charge (Kim *et al.*, 2015)
	Coalition-building behaviours (Ronen and Zuroff, 2017)
	Voice behavior (Song *et al.*, 2017)
	Feedback seeking behaviour (Lam *et al.*, 2017)
	Good impression (Lanyon and Goodstein, 2016)
	Seeking resources (Petrou *et al.*, 2015)

INDIVIDUAL RESOURCES

Figure 3.
Individual
resources (b)

Personality plays an important role in how an individual behaves at the work place. Judge and Zapata (2015) along with Zeigler-Hill *et al.* (2015) are among those who have given prime importance to personality *vis-à-vis* job performance. From the trait-based conceptualisation, Guay *et al.* (2013) studied the impact of conscientiousness on task performance; van Aarde *et al.* (2017) later confirmed this through a meta-analysis. From an integrative approach to personality, the value of core self-evaluations (O'Neill *et al.*, 2016) has been established multiple times in extant literature. Examples include the works of Ferris *et al.* (2015), who showed the impact of self-esteem on job performance, and Lin *et al.* (2014), who studied the impact of positive affectivity aiding job performance.

Individual qualities like character strength along with psychological capital (Bouckenooghe *et al.*, 2014) and motivation (Campbell *et al.*, 1996; Nicola, 2012) have also been found to be positively associated with job performance (Harzer and Ruch, 2014). Amount of effort is a work resource that influences job performance (Mulki *et al.*, 2016); however, job-related skills (Morgeson *et al.*, 2005), which include both technical and organisational skills (Wade and Parent, 2002) are also important resources that need to complement and supplement the efforts put forth in job performance. Additionally, some jobs also demand skill variety (De Dreu and Nauta, 2009) and competence (Arifin, 2014). In a rapidly changing business environment, verbal, numerical and spatial ability (Kanfer *et al.*, 2010) supplement the demand for creativity (Kaufman and Kaufman, 2015). Past research shows that high-performing employees are those who directly contribute to the mission of the agency (Caillier, 2010).

An individual's experience has also been found to be an invaluable resource for positive job performance. Individual experience is split into two: generic experience as propounded both by Alessandri *et al.* (2015) and Uppal *et al.* (2014), and specific prior work-related experience (Uppal *et al.*, 2014) coupled with organisational tenure (Loveland *et al.*, 2016).

An individual's orientation towards work is also a key resource in affecting job performance positively, including positive orientation (Alessandri *et al.*, 2015) and hope (Combs *et al.*, 2010). Dynamic work environments today, have sown the seeds of learning orientation (Aryee and Chu, 2012) enhancing both curiosity (Mussel, 2013) and adaptability (Sony and Mekoth, 2016).

In addition to an individual's behaviours, in terms of taking personal initiatives (Glaser *et al.*, 2015; Wihler *et al.*, 2017) and charge (Kim *et al.*, 2015), which are proven factors enhancing job performance, work settings within teams have encouraged coalition-building (Ronen and Zuroff, 2017) and feedback-seeking behaviours (Lam *et al.*, 2017). Further, voice behaviour (Song *et al.*, 2017), behaviours for good impression (Lanyon and Goodstein, 2016) and seeking resources (Petrou *et al.*, 2015) add onto the existing factors aiding job performance.

Job resources. Figure 4 summarize job resources. Along with personal resources, job resources are important predictors of job performance (Kroon *et al.*, 2015). Glaser *et al.* (2015) indicated the importance of work-related resources in predicting job performance. From the perspective of work attitudes, job commitment (Siders, 2001; Yu *et al.*, 2014) and organisational citizenship behaviour (Ozer, 2011) are important predictors. Tims *et al.* (2014), and Miraglia *et al.* (2017) have highlighted the effect of job crafting, while others like Baines (2015) and Wang *et al.* (2015) have looked into the outcome of job crafting: in other words, an individual's engagement affecting job performance.

According to some scholars (Häusser *et al.*, 2014), the repetitiveness of jobs also acts as an important resource in aiding job performance. Lin *et al.* (2014) lay emphasis on the fitment of a person to a job, while Lorente *et al.* (2014) show that job control leads to increased job performance. Scholars like Lee *et al.* (2004) have laid emphasis on "on-the-job embeddedness", which in fact shares several characteristics with job engagement, and has thereby been shown to act as a job performance enhancer.

Work group provides resources for successful job performances. Jirawuttinunt and Imsuwan (2015) have highlighted the importance of group work and collaboration skills. Beehr *et al.* (2000), along with Cross and Cummings (2004), showed the impact of co-worker support, bringing to the fore the effect of positive relationships between workers. Miao *et al.* (2014) emphasised the effect of trust at work on employee's job performance. Comparative variables in group settings, like objective internal and external pay standing
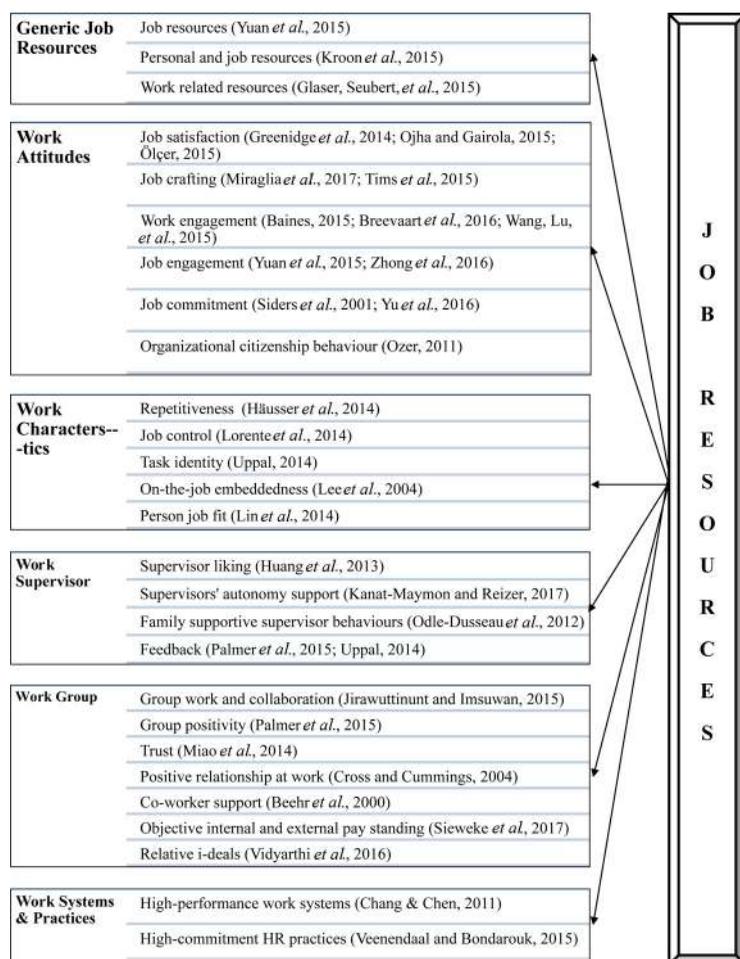
Generic Job Resources	Job resources (Yuan *et al.*, 2015)
	Personal and job resources (Kroon *et al.*, 2015)
	Work related resources (Glaser, Seubert, *et al.*, 2015)

Work Attitudes	Job satisfaction (Greenidge *et al.*, 2014; Ojha and Gairola, 2015; Ölçer, 2015)
	Job crafting (Miraglia *et al.*, 2017; Tims *et al.*, 2015)
	Work engagement (Baines, 2015; Breevaart *et al.*, 2016; Wang, Lu, *et al.*, 2015)
	Job engagement (Yuan *et al.*, 2015; Zhong *et al.*, 2016)
	Job commitment (Siders *et al.*, 2001; Yu *et al.*, 2016)
	Organizational citizenship behaviour (Ozer, 2011)

Work Characters--tics	Repetitiveness (Häusser *et al.*, 2014)
	Job control (Lorente *et al.*, 2014)
	Task identity (Uppal, 2014)
	On-the-job embeddedness (Lee *et al.*, 2004)
	Person job fit (Lin *et al.*, 2014)

Work Supervisor	Supervisor liking (Huang *et al.*, 2013)
	Supervisors' autonomy support (Kanat-Maymon and Reizer, 2017)
	Family supportive supervisor behaviours (Odle-Dusseau *et al.*, 2012)
	Feedback (Palmer *et al.*, 2015; Uppal, 2014)

Work Group	Group work and collaboration (Jirawuttinunt and Imsuwan, 2015)
	Group positivity (Palmer *et al.*, 2015)
	Trust (Miao *et al.*, 2014)
	Positive relationship at work (Cross and Cummings, 2004)
	Co-worker support (Beehr *et al.*, 2000)
	Objective internal and external pay standing (Sieweke *et al.*, 2017)
	Relative i-deals (Vidyarthi *et al.*, 2016)

| Work Systems & Practices | High-performance work systems (Chang & Chen, 2011) |
| | High-commitment HR practices (Veenendaal and Bondarouk, 2015) |

JOB RESOURCES

Figure 4.
Job resources

(Sieweke *et al.*, 2017) and relative i-deals (Vidyarthi *et al.*, 2016) have proved to be important job performance enhancers.

A supervisor and/or the manager plays an important role in enhancing job performance, especially within a group. Huang *et al.* (2013) and Miao *et al.* (2014) showed the trust that a supervisor/manager reposes on a subordinate, makes a significant impact on his/her job performance.

In terms of work systems and processes, HRM plays a major role in organisations and can be a source of sustained competitive advantage (Barney, 1991). High-performance work systems along with high-commitment HR practices (training and development, supportive supervision, compensation and information sharing) also impact job performance (Chang and Chen, 2011).

Organisational resources. Figure 5 summarizes organisational resources. An organisation's orientation programmes like customer orientation (Chakrabarty *et al.*, 2014),
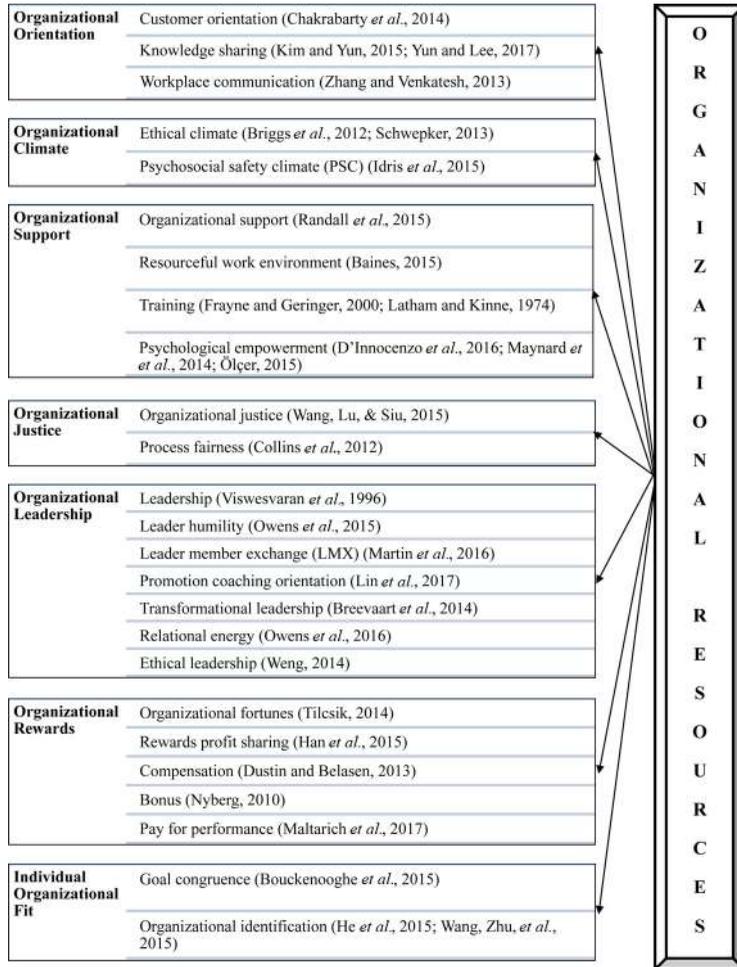
Figure 5.
Organizational resources

workplace communication (Zhang and Venkatesh, 2013) and knowledge sharing (Kim and Yun, 2015) also impact job performance.

In terms of organisational climates, psychological safety climate, which aids in psychological health and safety in the workplace, has been found to be a facilitator aiding job performance (Idris *et al.*, 2015). Looking at an organisation holistically, its ethical climate is an important variable; extant literature has validated and established the role of psychological and perceptual evaluation of ethical climate impacting job performance (Briggs, Jaramillo, and Weeks, 2012; Schwepker, 2013).

Organisational support (Randall *et al.*, 2015), i.e. resource availability, training and psychological empowerment ((D'Innocenzo *et al.*, 2016; Frayne and Geringer, 2000; Latham and Kinne, 1974; Maynard *et al.*, 2014; Ölçer, 2015), is also known to enhance job performance (Baines, 2015).

Organisational justice through process fairness perception also have an impact on job performance (Collins *et al.*, 2012 and Wang *et al.*, 2015).

Under organisational leadership, scholars have performed meta-analyses to establish that leader–member exchange (LMX) positively impacts both task and citizenship performance (Martin *et al.*, 2016). Leadership characteristics like humility at workplace (Owens *et al.*, 2015), along with transformational leadership, increase the intrinsic value of work of their workforce, thereby enhancing job performance (Breevaart *et al.*, 2014). The same is applicable to ethical leadership, which subsumes morality (Chen *et al.*, 2010); additionally, Chen (2015) highlighted the psychological capital of leader, another crucial facilitator enhancing performance of a subordinate.

Organisational rewards including compensation (Dustin and Belasen, 2013), pay for performance (Maltarich *et al.*, 2017), rewards in terms of profit sharing and/or bonus dictate employee performance (Tilcsik, 2014), thereby aiding in job performance enhancement (Han *et al.*, 2015; Nyberg, 2010).

Individual–organisation fit in terms of goal congruence (Bouckenooghe *et al.*, 2014), organisational identification, referring to members' perceived unanimity with and belongingness with their organisation are significant predictors of job performance (Wang *et al.*, 2015).

Social resources. Figure 6 summarizes social resources. Organisations and society do not exist in mutual exclusivity, thereby societal resources aid in job performance. While AbuAlRub (2004) highlighted the importance of social support through his study on
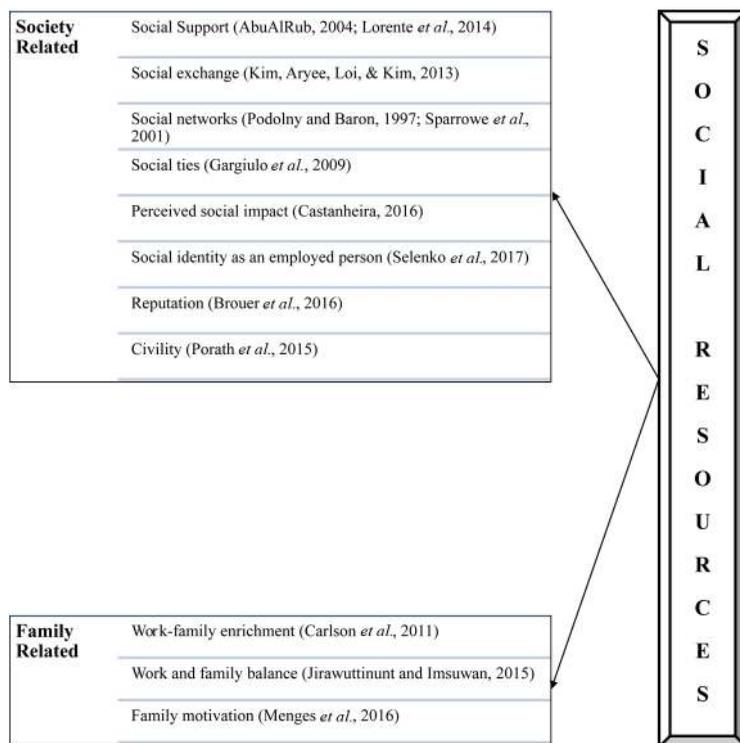
Figure 6.
Social resources

hospital nurses, Lorente *et al.* (2014) studied the same variable with construction workers. Social support rests on a social network of an individual, which facilitates social exchange; therefore, they (i.e. social networks, social ties and social exchange) individually and in amalgamation have an impact on job performance (Gargiulo *et al.*, 2009; Kim *et al.*, 2013; Podolny and Baron, 1997; Sparrowe *et al.*, 2001). Porath *et al.* (2015), along with Castanheira (2016), have gone a step ahead to show the impact of civility within society and the perceived social impact of jobs enhance an employee's job performance.

Family forms an important linkage affecting job performance. Balancing work and family is crucial to an individual's integrated growth in society. Jirawuttinunt and Imsuwan (2015) show that work–life balance predicts job performance. Similarly, work–family enrichment influences job performance directly through resource gain and inter-domain transfer of skills and indirectly through a change in attitudes (Hobfoll, 1989, 2002; Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974). Enrichment here is defined as "the extent to which experiences in one role (e.g. work) improve the quality of life in another role (e.g. family)" (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006, p. 73). Carlson *et al.* (2011) have further established the link between work–family enrichment and job performance, and have proposed mediating mechanisms for the same. A recent longitudinal study has a very interesting finding that family motivation enhances job performance "part by providing energy, but not by reducing stress" (Menges *et al.*, 2017, p. 695). These findings are consistent with the conceptualisation this study, and thereby positions family motivation as a vital resource for enhancing work performance.

Stressors

Individual stressors. Figure 7 summarizes individual stressors. In terms of an individual's personality, Sun and van Emmerik (2015) showed that in case an employee has low political skill, then proactive personality actually reduces task performance; other researchers have also opined in similar lines. Uppal *et al.* (2014) brought out the negative relation between neuroticism and job performance, while Chang and Huand (2011) have focussed more on personality variable external *locus* of control.

Negative perceptions formed by employees at work impede job performance along with perception of pressure (Wu, 2011) and stress (Edwards *et al.*, 2014). Psychological disorders, like attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (Halbesleben *et al.*, 2013) have also been shown to be stressors that have an adverse effect on job performance.

Job stressors. Figure 8 summarizes job stressors. Job stress is a key factor that negatively affects job performance (Ojha and Gairola, 2015). Liu *et al.* (2013) study specifically about hindrance stressors that prompt passive coping style like withdrawal from one's effort towards work that leads to reduced job performance. Glaser *et al.* (2015) classify work overload as an important job stressor, while others have focused more on job insecurity (De Cuyper *et al.*, 2014; Wang *et al.*, 2015). A fit between person and the work environment is also important in dictating one's performance; a misfit between the individual and her/his vocation leads to reduced job performance (Iliescu *et al.*, 2015). Variability in work does also act as a stressor impacting job performance (Beehr *et al.*, 2000).

Affective stressors like "burnout" is an important variable that drains resources and detracts job performance. In fact, two of its sub-dimensions (i.e. disengagement and exhaustion) have been widely studied, and have been found to be highly negative in terms of their relation to job performance. Among others, while Halbesleben and Bowler (2007) emphasised on "emotional exhaustion", Demerouti *et al.* (2014) focused more on "disengagement", with both playing a negative role in terms of job performance. Other affective variables like over commitment (Feuerhahn *et al.*, 2012) and frustration (Iliescu *et al.*, 2015) also are detrimental to job performance.
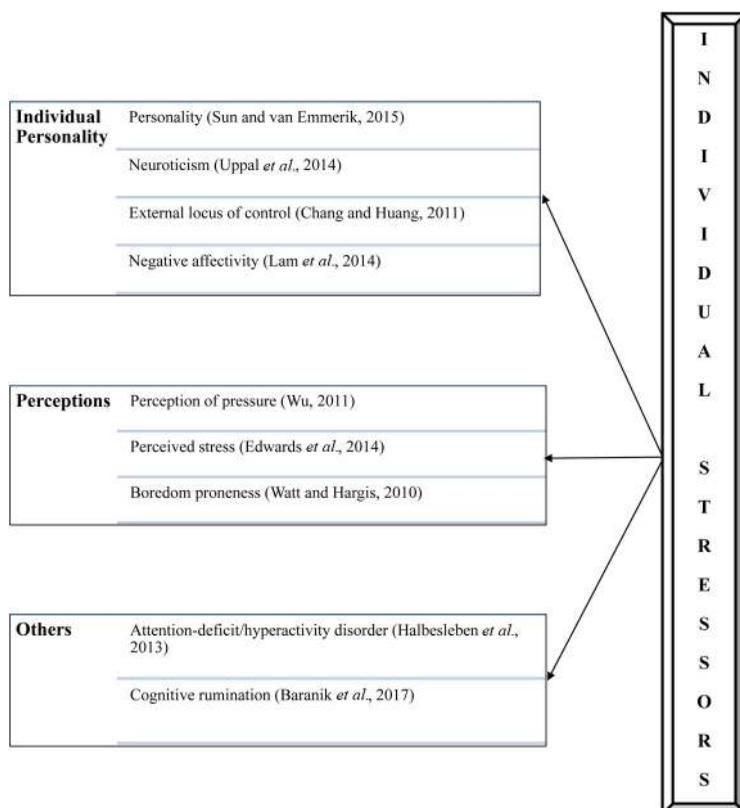
Figure 7.
Individual stressors

Studies posit that network constraint negatively predicts job performance (Tilcsik, 2014), especially so, if organisations are conceptualised as huge networks, wherein the supervisor forms a critical node in this network. Given this context, abusive supervision is negatively associated with job performance (Walter and Lam, 2015). Having said this, it is important to de-energise relationships in these networks, as in these relations, people often find it challenging to restrain their emotions, leading to controlled information processing, thereby creating a vacuum in terms of concentrating on the job at hand, and thus, negatively affecting job performance (Gerbasi et al., 2015). Similarly, a disruption in this network may also be caused by activities like mass layoff and breach of psychological contract (López Bohle et al., 2017), again negatively affecting job performance.

Rewards and punishments within an organisation are closely associated with performance. Feuerhahn et al. (2012) studied the adverse effect of an imbalance between effort and rewards on job performance, while Lee and Oah (2015) focused on penalising employees, thereby again leading to reduced performance.

Each individual plays certain roles within an organisation; these roles at times become stressors and retard job performance. Role ambiguity reflects a lack of job-related information (Breaugh and Colihan, 1994; Rizzo et al., 1970), and has been found to be negatively associated with job performance (Tubre and Collings, 2000; Yun et al., 2007). Fried et al. (1998) have included role conflict in addition to role ambiguity as significant
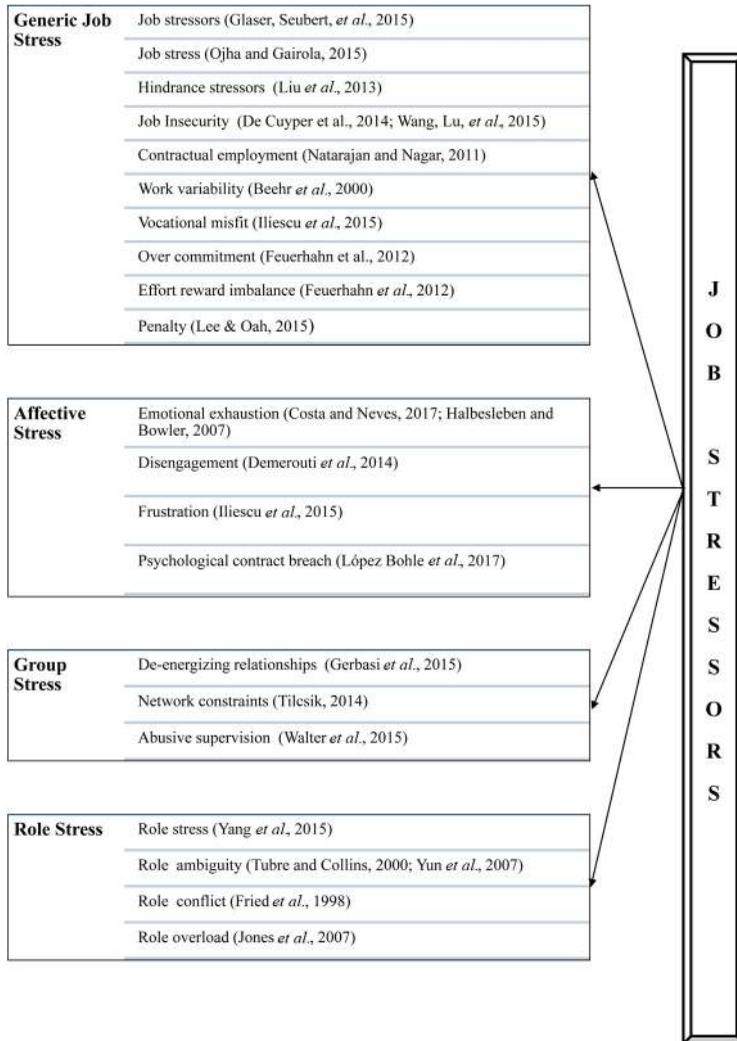
Figure 8.
Job stressors

stressors that impede job performance. Scholars have also studied other variables like role stress (Jones *et al.*, 2007) and role overload (Yang, Lee, and Cheng, 2015), and have confirmed that they too are impediments in terms of job performance.

Family stressors. Figure 9 summarizes family stressors. Family-level variables can be an inhibitor of job performance when acting as stressors. Work–family conflict is a major variable that dictates the negative interference of the demands of these two domains on each other. These conflicts in the family (Nohe *et al.*, 2013; Witt and Carlson, 2006) and work (Nohe *et al.*, 2013; Witt and Carlson, 2006) lead to a decrease in job performance of the individual. How the family members behave is also an important factor; Lim and Tai (2014) have indicated the negative effects of family incivility on job performance. Spouse is an

Family Stress	Family to Work Conflict (Nohe *et al.*, 2009; Witt and Carlson, 2006)
	Family incivility (Lim and Tai, 2014)
	Conflict in Family (Butler and Skattebo, 2004)
	Partner aggression (LeBlanc *et al.*, 2014)
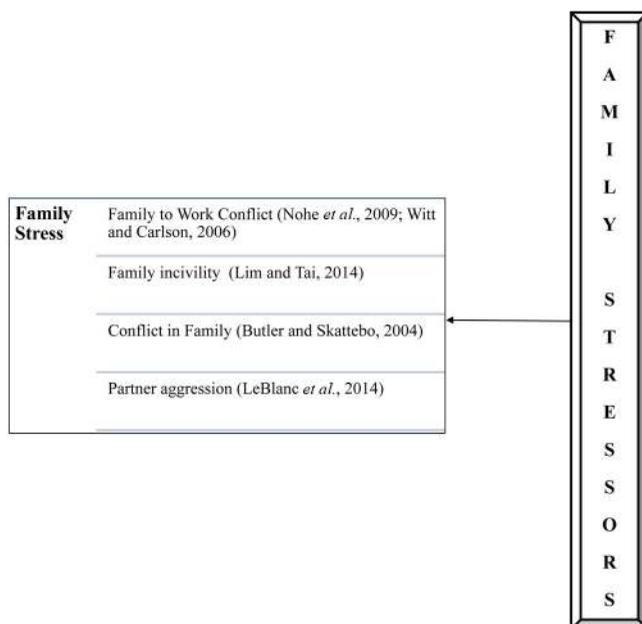
Figure 9.
Family stressors

important member of the household of married individuals LeBlanc, Barling and Turner (2014) highlighted partner aggression as stressors that impact performance.

Discussion
The findings above indicate the different job demands that decrease job performance. From an organisational perspective, there are two strategies to deal with demands: the first would be to decrease demands if possible, and other would be to manage demands more effectively. In today's business environment characterised by volatility, uncertainty, complexity and ambiguity (VUCA) (Bennett and Lemoine, 2014), it makes more sense to manage demands rather than just reducing them. Recent studies for example have highlighted that "job demands may lead to good performance when employees' job security is high" (Lu *et al.*, 2017, p. 28); thus "job security" actually manages demands in such a way that they lead to enhanced performemance. In the context of resources, there are again two strategies that could be thought of: increasing the resources and optimising the use of resources. By and large, resources for any organisation are not always scarce or unlimited; thus, organisations need to make use of limited resources judiciously, thereby optimising them – a preferred strategy to aid in job performance. Stressors too need to be reduced and/or managed. The first priority should be to reduce stressors; however, when it is not possible, it may be worthwhile to manage them to cushion their impacts. For example, in the context of marines, it was found that "Marines whose leaders were judged by superiors to exhibit charismatic leader behaviors appraised challenge stressors as being more challenging, and were more likely to respond to this appraisal with higher performance" (LePine *et al.*, 2016, p. 1036); thus, the resource of leadership style as highlighted here, manages how stressors impact job performance. Similarly, the stressor of job insecurity has also been shown to be

nullified by high organisational justice (Wang *et al.*, 2015) and forgiveness can buffer the impact of psychological contract breach on job performance (Costa and Neves, 2017).

Practical contribution
All three categories of factors idenfied provide insights to practioners for enhancing job performance. The "demands" category identfies and highlights affective demands in addition to cognitive and physical demands (that are widely recognised by practioners) as ones that actually affect job performance. With the rise of service economy, affective demands like performance of emotional labor must also be recognised and rewarded.

Similarly under the "resources" category, in addition to individual, job, group and organisational resources, this study has highlighted resources that exist outside organisational domains like social and family resources. The challenge with management practioners now lie in tapping into these resources to aid performance of employees by maintaining favourable ties with the actors involved in these arenas.

Lastly, "stressors" show that in addition to individual- and job-level variables, there are family-level variables, which are outside the organisational ambit, impeding employee performance and organisation's performance thereby. Thus, it is crucial to either help employees lower these stressors or provide resources to buffer the impact of these stressors.

Theoretical contribution
One of the major theoretical contributions of this study is the augmentation of the job demands-resources (JD-R) model to the job demands-resources-stressor (JD-R-S) model. In addition to the existing job demands and resources, it identifies stressors that are conceptually different from demands as well as resources but impede job performance. The other contribution is the grouping of different variables under demands, resources and stressors into meaningful subcategories.

Limitations, future directions and conclusion
The potential limitations for SLR must be acknowledged. The search process was confined to the subscribed databases of the institute's library with a linguistic restriction. There may also be a few instances of omission of articles by overlook. Future reviews could include studies in other languages. Non-indexed journals, dissertations and books were not included in the review. A more comprehensive review can augment the findings of this review by including these. This review also excludes studies that do not directly deal with job performance but with variables which are then connected to job performance like job satisfaction (Pandey and Singh, 2016) burnout (Pandey and Singh, 2015) emotional labor (Pandey *et al.*, 2018), empowerment (Pandey, 2016) and organizational commitment to name a few (Jha and Pandey, 2015). Future studies can look at these variables as well.

This review develops sequential and linear relationships, i.e. demands and stressors impede performance, whereas resources aid in job performance. There is possibility of existence of serial and parallel mediation which can be verified by future studies. For example, certain demands can reduce resources and then subsequently affect job performance. Similarly there is also possibility of the identified variables to act as moderators. For example, stressors can act as potential moderators between the relationships of demand and job performance and resources and job performance. Future studies can look into developing these mediating and interactional effects and develop propositions based on applicable theories.

Future studies could also look at quantifying the relationships presented in the review through meta-analytical procedures. This would help in confirming the relationship and also present the strength of these relationships. Similarly there is ample scope for identifying the

overlaps between the various variables presented in the review and develop overreaching constructs that could comprise these variables and bring in more parsimony to the model developed. Thus, the two existing streams of research on-job performance discussed in the section of research gap can either borrow a part of the model to develop moderations and mediations or collate studies to quantify the proposed relationships in this paper.

This paper has focused on individual-level conceptualization (micro level) of performance; however, a similar study can be done at group (meso level) and organizational levels (macro level). Further there is scope for consolidating the antecedents and outcomes of many organizational-level practices like downsizing that in turn have a bearing on performance at all the three levels encompassing financial and non-financial variables.

The study has extensively reviewed literature and developed a frame that identifies, classifies and clarifies factors affecting job performance. The schema will provide an easy reference for scholars and practitioners to identify factors and thus create and/or modify their systems and processes to align with objective of enhancing job performance through an HRM-based approach (Pandey, 2018b).

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