

THE EFFECTS OF JOB INSECURITY AND JOB STRESS ON BURNOUT: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF WORKLOAD AMONG EMPLOYEES OF STONE- PROCESSING SMES IN GAMPING VILLAGE, CAMPURDARAT DISTRICT, TULUNGAGUNG

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Abstract

The stone-processing industry is characterized by physically demanding tasks, time pressure, occupational safety risks, production targets, and unstable market demand. This configuration may intensify employees' job insecurity, stress, workload, and burnout. This study examines the effects of job insecurity and job stress on burnout, both directly and indirectly through workload as a mediating variable. An explanatory quantitative design was employed through a survey of 180 employees working in stone-processing SMEs in Gamping Village, Campurdarat District, Tulungagung. Data were collected using a Likert-scale questionnaire and analyzed through partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM). The results indicate that job insecurity has no significant direct effect on burnout ($\beta = 0.004$; $p = 0.949$). Job stress likewise does not directly predict burnout ($\beta = 0.067$; $p = 0.502$). In contrast, job insecurity positively affects workload ($\beta = 0.118$; $p = 0.047$), while job stress exerts a substantially stronger effect on workload ($\beta = 0.633$; $p < 0.001$). Workload significantly increases burnout ($\beta = 0.614$; $p < 0.001$). The indirect-effect analysis identifies workload as a full mediator in the relationship between job insecurity and burnout ($\beta = 0.073$; $p = 0.048$), as well as between job stress and burnout ($\beta = 0.389$; $p < 0.001$). These findings extend the application of Job Demands–Resources theory by positioning workload as the central mechanism through which psychological pressures are transformed into occupational burnout in a labor-intensive industrial setting.

Keywords: burnout; job insecurity; job stress; stone-processing industry; workload.

INTRODUCTION

The stone-processing industry brings together physical demands, occupational safety risks, production pressures, and market uncertainty within a single operational system. In Gamping Village, Campurdarat District, Tulungagung, business units engage in the processing of marble and andesite, ranging from household-scale handicraft enterprises to factories employing dozens of workers. Cutting stone blocks, shaping slabs, grinding surfaces, and completing finished products require sustained precision amid dust, noise, repetitive tasks, and daily production targets. Preliminary observations involving five workers revealed emotional exhaustion, work-related boredom, a tendency to withdraw from social interaction, and a declining sense of personal accomplishment. These symptoms position *burnout* as a critical human resource management concern, since organizational effectiveness depends on the proper management of employment relations, employee development, placement, compensation, and workforce protection (Warongan et al., 2022; Sofyandi et al., 2023).

Burnout is characterized by emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and diminished personal accomplishment resulting from chronic occupational pressure. Within the stone-processing sector, this syndrome may reduce productivity, increase errors and absenteeism, and heighten the risk of workplace accidents. Workers' vulnerability arises not only from task intensity but also from *job insecurity*, which refers to an individual's subjective perception of threats to the continuity or quality of employment. Uncertainty in construction demand, short-term contracts, market competition, organizational restructuring, and automation may undermine employees' psychological security, creativity, commitment, and well-being (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Ashford, 1989; Sverke & Hellgren, 2002; Sanny, 2012). Demeaning leadership, restricted communication, workplace bullying, and

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toxic employment relationships may further intensify perceptions of insecurity (Lipman-Blumen, 2005; Pelletier, 2009, 2010; Rotter, 2011).

Job stress emerges when occupational demands exceed an individual's capacity, control, and available resources. Its consequences may encompass psychological, physiological, and behavioral disturbances, reduced employee retention, and deteriorating health and performance (Sonnetag & Fritz, 2007; Siagian, 2014; Robbins & Judge, 2017; Romy & Ardansyah, 2022; Zainal & Ashar, 2023). Prolonged pressure is also associated with declining psychological capital, impaired work-life balance, and lower workplace happiness (Bandura & Walters, 1977; Edwards & Bach, 2012). Previous findings remain inconclusive. Kim and Kweon (2020) reported a positive association with psychological capital, whereas Akgunduz et al. (2023), Naseem (2018), Rajput and Pathak (2023), and Tarakci et al. (2023) identified adverse consequences. The principal sources of occupational stress include work overload, role conflict and ambiguity, limited control, leadership style, organizational culture, and unclear career prospects (Cartwright & Cooper, 1997; Tulsee, 2021; Shukla & Srivastava, 2016; Sonnetag & Frese, 2012; Ganster & Rosen, 2013).

Workload constitutes a theoretically relevant mechanism through which insecurity and stress may be translated into *burnout*. Physical, mental, temporal, target-related, and psychological demands that exceed employees' capacities deplete energy, disrupt emotional stability, and reduce productivity (Tarwaka, 2015). Both excessive and insufficient workloads may generate inefficiency, while the accumulation of tasks within a limited period can trigger physical and mental fatigue (Saefullah, 2017; Irawati & Carrollina, 2017; Pertiwi et al., 2017). Working conditions, time utilization, performance targets, task volume, and quality standards help explain how initially manageable work may gradually develop into a chronic occupational stressor (Munandar, 2014; Vanchapo, 2020).

Empirical evidence concerning the direct relationships among the study variables remains fragmented. The effect of *job insecurity* on *burnout* was found to be significant by Oroh et al. (2025), Ndun et al. (2023), Rotinsulu (2024), and Ismail (2015), whereas Bitmis and Ergeneli (2015), Pires (2025), and Salendu and Maldini (2021) reported nonsignificant effects. A comparable pattern appears in research on *job stress*. Hidayatul and Handari (2015), Marisa and Utami (2021), Hidayati and Ekhsan (2022), and Parashakti and Ekhsan (2022) supported its influence on *burnout*, while Aseanty (2023), Afiansyah and Adi (2024), and Hidayati and Ekhsan (2022) obtained different results. The relationship between workload and *burnout* is equally inconsistent, ranging from significant findings (Busti et al., 2023; Chandra, 2024; Nadapdap et al., 2024; Tafana et al., 2025) to nonsignificant evidence (JeriYansah et al., 2025; Panhardy et al., 2021; Yusuf et al., 2024).

A further limitation concerns the positioning of workload as a mediating variable. Giunchi et al. (2016) and Kaynak (2021) reported that *job insecurity* affected *workload*, whereas Ainiyah et al. (2025), Pratama and Puji (2024), and Yudhyani et al. (2025) identified different patterns. The effect of *job stress* on *workload* was supported by Karagoz and Erdogan (2023), but was not supported by Arnas et al. (2024), Salsabila et al. (2022), and Wijayanti et al. (2024). Studies conducted by Susilowati and Ayuningsih (2025), Angelis et al. (2021), and Dudija and Putri (2025) have not yet positioned workload as a fully specified mediating pathway linking occupational insecurity and stress to employee burnout.

A contextual gap is also evident because previous research has predominantly focused on banking, hospitality, construction, and healthcare sectors in Indonesia, Malaysia, China, and Türkiye (Chong et al., 2023; Kinter & Kati, 2022; Ni et al., 2022; Rotinsulu et al., 2024; Karagöz & Erdogan, 2023). Differences in employment systems, organizational cultures, pandemic-related conditions, and job characteristics limit the generalizability of those findings to the labor-intensive stone-processing industry. Drawing on the *Job Demands-Resources* framework, this study examines the effects of *job insecurity* and *job stress* on *burnout*, both directly and indirectly through workload, among employees of stone-processing SMEs in Gamping Village.

Theoretical Framework

The *Job Demands-Resources* (JD-R) theory explains *burnout* through the interaction between job demands and job resources. Every occupation encompasses *job demands* that consume energy and *job resources* that facilitate the attainment of work-related objectives (Demerouti et al., 2001; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). A prolonged imbalance between these two components activates the *health impairment process*, which may ultimately culminate in emotional exhaustion, whereas support, autonomy, recognition, and development opportunities function as protective resources through the *motivational process* (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). *Burnout* is manifested through emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and diminished personal accomplishment resulting from chronic stress (Maslach & Jackson, 2001).

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Burnout reflects a multidimensional depletion of energy accompanied by cynicism and a diminished sense of self-worth (Paul, 2012; Wanzhi, 2020; Baron & Greenberg, 2003). Its consequences extend to employee productivity, service quality, and turnover intention (Anjani et al., 2020). The risk becomes more pronounced when demanding performance targets are not balanced by adequate support, healthy interpersonal relationships, empathetic communication, and attention to employees' psychological needs (Kurniati & Kadarsih, 2017; Nugroho & Lestari, 2022; Sari & Hidayati, 2023). Misalignment across workload, control, rewards, community, fairness, and personal values constitutes an important situational antecedent of burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 2022).

Job insecurity refers to employees' subjective perceptions of the threat of job loss or the deterioration of valued aspects of their employment. This construct encompasses quantitative and qualitative insecurity, as well as cognitive and affective dimensions (Borg, 1992; Hellgren et al., 1999). Its principal sources include uncertainty about the future, involuntary threats to employment, and a perceived inability to preserve one's job (De Witte, 1999; Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Sverke & Hellgren, 2002; Sverke et al., 2004; van Vuuren, 1990). Comparable interpretations were advanced by Smithson and Lewis (as cited in Wardani, 2014), Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (as cited in Sora et al., 2010), Rony and Bram (as cited in Sanny & Kristanti, 2012), and Lewis (as cited in Andrinirina et al., 2015). Job conditions, role conflict, career-related concerns, organizational change, job characteristics, and individual dispositions shape employees' perceptions of insecurity (Ashford et al., as cited in Kuding & Kurnia, 2011; Suhartono, as cited in Wardani et al., 2014), while its consequences include stress and reduced well-being (Modrek & Cullen, 2013; Wageenar et al., 2012).

Job stress arises when occupational demands, perceived threats, or resource limitations exceed an individual's adaptive capacity (Luthans, 2006; Robbins, 2008; Robbins & Judge, 2019). Physiological, emotional, cognitive, and behavioral responses to such stress are influenced by job tasks, work roles, interpersonal relationships, and social support (Gadzella, as cited in Gadzella & Masten, 2005; Ivancevich & Ganster, 2014; Robbins, as cited in Jafar, 2018). Occupational pressure undermines health and subjective well-being when work demands intrude upon employees' personal lives (Asih et al., 2018; Frith, 2017; Vandiya & Etikariena, 2018), with environmental, organizational, and individual factors functioning as its primary determinants (Robbins & Judge, 2017).

Workload encompasses time pressure, mental effort, and psychological strain arising from the volume and complexity of assigned tasks (Gawron, 2018). Work becomes burdensome when its demands exceed employees' capacities and available resources (Luthans, 2011; Mangkunegara, 2017; Munandar, 2014; Vanchapo, 2020). Quantitative and qualitative workload are associated with occupational stress and fatigue (Pertiwi et al., 2017; Runtu et al., 2018) and are shaped by task characteristics, organizational arrangements, the work environment, duration, and job difficulty (Manuaba, 2000; Schultz & Schultz, 2006). From an organizational perspective, workload encompasses job volume, task perceptions, time pressure, role conflict, noise, information overload, extreme temperatures, repetitive activities, and responsibility (Budiasa, 2021; Gibson, as cited in Budiasa, 2021; Soelman, as cited in Budiasa, 2021). Regulation of the National Civil Service Agency Number 9 of 2022 positions workload analysis as an instrument for promoting organizational effectiveness and efficiency, while the JD-R framework classifies workload as an energy-depleting job demand when adequate resources are unavailable (Schaufeli et al., 2003).

RESEARCH METHOD

This study employed a quantitative approach using a descriptive and explanatory survey design. The design was selected to examine the causal relationships among *job insecurity* and *job stress* as exogenous variables, *burnout* as the endogenous variable, and workload as the mediating variable. A quantitative approach enables the measurement of constructs through numerical scores and the statistical testing of hypotheses within a positivist framework (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

The study population comprised 265 employees working at six stone-processing SMEs in Gamping Village, Campurdarat District, Tulungagung, namely UD Surya Onix, UD Watu Ireng, UD Mutiara Onix, UD Gemi Mulya, UD Serba Usaha, and UD Mandiri Stone (Sugiyono, 2019). A sample of 158 respondents was selected through *probability sampling* using a *stratified random sampling* technique. The participation criteria included male employees who had worked for at least two years, performed seven to eight hours of work per day, worked during regular operating hours, and voluntarily agreed to participate in the study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

Primary data were collected using a closed-ended questionnaire, while secondary data comprised company profiles, locations, visions, missions, organizational structures, and functional divisions (Usman & Akbar, 2006). The instrument measured *job insecurity* based on Hellgren et al. (1999) and De Witte (2000), *job stress* based on Beehr and Newman (1978), workload based on Tarwaka (2015), and *burnout* based on Maslach and Jackson (1981).

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Responses were assessed using a five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree (Likert, 1932; Neolaka, 2016). Instrument quality was examined through content, predictive, and construct validity assessments (Creswell, 2013). Empirical validity was evaluated at a 5% significance level in accordance with the criteria proposed by Riduwan and Kuncoro (2012), while internal consistency was assessed using *Cronbach's alpha*, with a minimum threshold of 0.70 (Ghozali, 2011; Gliem & Gliem, 2003; Wijaya, 2013).

The analysis began with descriptive statistics to examine the distributions, percentages, and mean values of respondents' answers (Sugiyono, 2016; Supranto, 2011), followed by partial least squares structural equation modeling using SmartPLS 4. The measurement model was evaluated through *outer loadings*, average variance extracted, discriminant validity, *Cronbach's alpha*, and *composite reliability*. The structural model was assessed using R^2 , Q^2 , *effect size*, *goodness of fit*, path coefficients, *bootstrapping*, and indirect-effect analysis to test the proposed mediating relationships (Hair et al., 2019).

RESEARCH RESULTS

Respondent Characteristics

The respondent profile comprised workers from three economically productive age groups. Millennials aged 27–40 years constituted the largest group, accounting for 70 respondents or 38.80% of the sample. Generation X respondents aged 41–55 years totaled 66 individuals or 36.67%, while Generation Z respondents aged 18–26 years numbered 44 individuals or 24.44%. This distribution indicates that stone-production activities are primarily undertaken by adult workers who are within their productive years and have opportunities to accumulate extensive work experience over time.

Table 1. Respondent Characteristics

Characteristic	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Age	Generation Z, 18–26 years	44	24.44%
	Millennials, 27–40 years	70	38.89%
	Generation X, 41–55 years	66	36.67%
Gender	Male	168	93.33%
	Female	12	6.67%
Length of service	Less than 1 year	22	12.22%
	More than 2 years	158	87.78%
Income	Less than IDR 2,000,000	147	81.67%
	IDR 2,000,000–IDR 5,000,000	33	18.33%
Monthly expenditure	Less than IDR 2,000,000	46	25.56%
	IDR 2,000,000–IDR 5,000,000	134	74.44%

Source: Data processed by the researchers, 2026.

The workforce structure was heavily dominated by male respondents, comprising 168 individuals or 93.33%, whereas female workers accounted for only 12 individuals or 6.67%. This composition corresponds to the physical characteristics of stone-processing work, which involves material handling, cutting, grinding, operating production equipment, and performing high-intensity physical activities. The gender distribution reflects the characteristics of the study population and should not be interpreted as a basis for generalizing work capabilities according to gender.

A total of 158 respondents, or 87.78%, had worked for more than two years, whereas 22 respondents, or 12.22%, had less than one year of service. The high proportion of experienced workers indicates relatively strong employment continuity despite the presence of perceived job insecurity. Their longer tenure also suggests substantial familiarity with production targets, task allocation, environmental conditions, communication patterns, and operational risks inherent in stone-processing activities.

From an economic perspective, 147 respondents, or 81.67%, received less than IDR 2,000,000 per pay period, whereas 33 respondents, or 18.33%, earned between IDR 2,000,000 and IDR 5,000,000. Production workers were generally paid every two weeks; consequently, these figures do not directly represent monthly income. Regarding expenditure, 134 respondents, or 74.44%, reported monthly expenses ranging from IDR 2,000,000 to IDR 5,000,000, while 46 respondents, or 25.56%, spent less than IDR 2,000,000 per month.

Descriptive Statistics of the Research Constructs

The descriptive statistics indicate that the three constructs representing occupational demands produced relatively similar mean scores. *Job insecurity*, *job stress*, and workload each recorded an average score of 3.50, while

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burnout obtained a mean score of 3.30. This pattern suggests that perceived employment insecurity, occupational pressure, and task demands were more pronounced than the observed manifestations of work-related exhaustion.

Table 2. Summary of Descriptive Statistics

Construct	Number of Items	Mean	Minimum Indicator Score	Maximum Indicator Score	Category
<i>Job insecurity</i>	6	3.50	3.40	3.60	High
<i>Job stress</i>	7	3.50	3.30	3.70	High
Workload	17	3.50	3.30	3.80	High
<i>Burnout</i>	11	3.30	3.00	3.60	Moderate to high

Source: Data processed by the researchers, 2026.

The *job insecurity* construct yielded an overall mean of 3.50, with indicator means ranging from 3.40 to 3.60. The highest scores were found for concerns regarding employment continuity, potential changes in working conditions, and possible alterations to employment benefits, including compensation, guarantees, or employment status. Each of these indicators recorded a score of 3.60. Perceptions concerning possible changes in employment status and job value produced the lowest scores, at 3.40, although both still reflected a relatively strong tendency toward agreement. This configuration indicates that insecurity was directed more toward the future continuity and quality of employment than toward the immediate threat of job loss.

Job stress recorded a mean score of 3.50. The highest-scoring indicators related to the amount of time devoted to work and the imbalance between the number of tasks and the time available, both of which obtained scores of 3.70. Feelings of worry or tension caused by work represented the lowest-scoring indicator, at 3.30. These findings suggest that the pressure experienced by workers was more strongly reflected in time demands and responsibilities than in emotional reactions such as anxiety. Limited rest periods, the need to regulate emotions, and reduced opportunities to enjoy time outside work received scores ranging from 3.40 to 3.50.

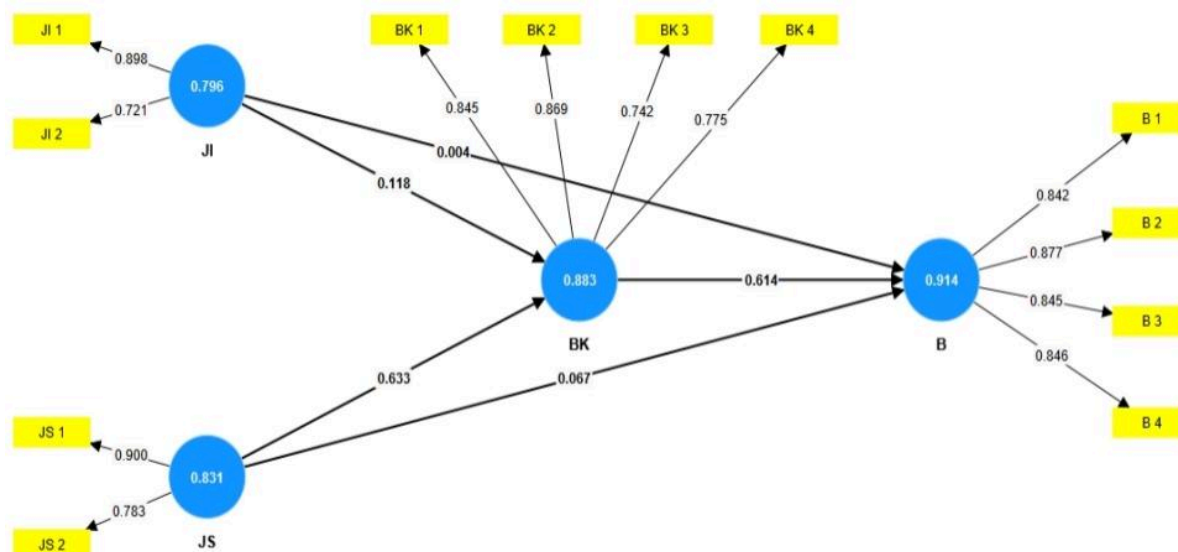
Workload produced an overall mean of 3.50, with indicator scores ranging from 3.30 to 3.80. The demand for mental resilience was the most prominent indicator, with a score of 3.80. Task complexity, the substantial consequences of minor errors, and the requirement for high levels of precision each scored 3.70. Insufficient rest time and the need to control emotions both recorded scores of 3.60. Perceptions concerning excessive task volume, duties exceeding personal capacity, mental fatigue, unclear responsibilities, and difficulty determining priorities each received a score of 3.30. These descriptive findings identify complexity, accuracy, and psychological endurance as more salient workload dimensions than task quantity alone.

Burnout obtained a mean score of 3.30, with indicator scores ranging from 3.00 to 3.60. Physical exhaustion and energy depletion resulting from work activities were the most prominent manifestations, each receiving a score of 3.60. Perceptions of suboptimal achievement of work objectives recorded a score of 3.50, followed by insufficient energy at the beginning of the workday and discrepancies between work outcomes and expectations, both scoring 3.40. Feelings of helplessness and difficulty concentrating received the lowest scores, at 3.00. This pattern indicates that burnout symptoms were more evident in the physical domain than in psychological helplessness, impaired concentration, or disengagement from work.

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Measurement Model Evaluation



The measurement model was evaluated through convergent validity, discriminant validity, and internal consistency assessments. Convergent validity was examined using average variance extracted (AVE) and *outer loadings*. All constructs produced AVE values exceeding 0.50, indicating that each construct explained more than half of the variance in its corresponding indicators, in accordance with the criteria adopted in this study (Hair et al., 2019).

Table 3. Convergent Validity and Construct Reliability

Construct	AVE	Outer Loading Range	Composite Reliability	Cronbach's Alpha
<i>Job insecurity</i>	0.663	0.721–0.898	0.796	0.511
<i>Job stress</i>	0.712	0.783–0.900	0.831	0.606
Workload	0.655	0.742–0.869	0.883	0.825
<i>Burnout</i>	0.727	0.842–0.877	0.914	0.875

Source: Data processed by the researchers, 2026.

The highest AVE value was obtained by *burnout* at 0.727, followed by *job stress* at 0.712, *job insecurity* at 0.663, and workload at 0.655. All indicators also demonstrated *outer loadings* above 0.70 and p-values below 0.001. The *job insecurity* indicators recorded loadings of 0.721 and 0.898; the *job stress* indicators ranged from 0.783 to 0.900; workload indicators ranged from 0.742 to 0.869; and *burnout* indicators ranged from 0.842 to 0.877. These results support the capacity of each indicator to represent its intended construct.

Internal consistency, assessed through *composite reliability*, satisfied the minimum threshold of 0.70. The coefficients ranged from 0.796 for *job insecurity* to 0.914 for *burnout*. Cronbach's alpha values for workload and *burnout* were 0.825 and 0.875, respectively, both exceeding the 0.70 threshold. In contrast, *job insecurity* produced an alpha coefficient of 0.511, while *job stress* yielded 0.606. These values did not satisfy the criterion established by Hair et al. (2019), although the *composite reliability* values for both constructs remained within an acceptable range. This discrepancy should be interpreted in relation to the measurement structure of the two variables, each of which was represented by only two indicators in the PLS model.

Discriminant validity was initially assessed using *cross-loadings*. Each indicator demonstrated its highest correlation with the construct it was intended to measure. The cross-loadings of JI1 and JI2 on *job insecurity* were 0.898 and 0.721, respectively, both exceeding their correlations with the other three constructs. A comparable pattern was observed for the indicators of *job stress*, workload, and *burnout*. No indicator exhibited a higher loading on an alternative construct.

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Construct	Burnout	Workload	Job Stress	Job Insecurity
<i>Burnout</i>	0.853			
Workload	0.660	0.809		
<i>Job stress</i>	0.204	0.296	0.814	
<i>Job insecurity</i>	0.477	0.666	0.280	0.844

The square roots of AVE displayed along the diagonal of the Fornell–Larcker matrix were 0.853 for *burnout*, 0.809 for *workload*, 0.814 for *job stress*, and 0.844 for *job insecurity*. Each diagonal value exceeded the correlations between the corresponding construct and the remaining variables. The *cross-loading* results and Fornell–Larcker criterion consistently supported the empirical distinctiveness of the latent constructs.

Endogenous Variable	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Q ² Predict
<i>Burnout</i>	0.438	0.428	0.205
Workload	0.457	0.451	0.437

The effect-size analysis revealed differences in the substantive strength of the structural paths. The effect of workload on *burnout* produced an f^2 value of 0.365 and was classified as large. The effect of *job stress* on workload yielded an f^2 value of 0.680, which was also categorized as large. By comparison, the effect of *job insecurity* on workload was 0.024 and therefore fell within the small-effect category. The effects of *job insecurity* on *burnout* and *job stress* on *burnout* were 0.000 and 0.004, respectively, indicating negligible direct contributions based on the thresholds of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 adopted from Hair et al. (2019).

Hypothesis Testing

Hypotheses were tested using path-coefficient estimates and probability values obtained through the *bootstrapping* procedure. A relationship was considered statistically significant when the p-value was below 0.05.

Table 6. Direct-Effect Testing

Hypothesis	Structural Path	Coefficient	p-Value	Decision
H1	<i>Job insecurity</i> → <i>burnout</i>	0.004	0.949	Rejected
H2	<i>Job stress</i> → <i>burnout</i>	0.067	0.502	Rejected
H3	<i>Job insecurity</i> → workload	0.118	0.047	Supported
H4	<i>Job stress</i> → workload	0.633	<0.001	Supported
H5	Workload → <i>burnout</i>	0.614	<0.001	Supported

Source: Data processed by the researchers, 2026.

H1 was not empirically supported. The coefficient for the effect of *job insecurity* on *burnout* was only 0.004, with $p = 0.949$. Although the path direction was positive, its magnitude was close to zero and statistically nonsignificant. Changes in perceived employment insecurity were not directly accompanied by changes in burnout levels after the effects of the other variables in the model were taken into account.

H2 was also rejected because the path from *job stress* to *burnout* produced a coefficient of 0.067 with $p = 0.502$. The relationship was positive, although its effect was weak and did not satisfy the statistical significance criterion. The occupational pressure reported by respondents did not directly explain variation in burnout within the structural specification tested.

H3 was supported at the 5% significance level. *Job insecurity* had a positive effect on workload, with a coefficient of 0.118 and $p = 0.047$. Greater insecurity regarding employment continuity, working conditions, benefits, and employment status was associated with stronger perceptions of task demands, although its substantive contribution was small, as indicated by an f^2 value of 0.024.

H4 received the strongest empirical support among the paths leading to the mediator. The effect of *job stress* on workload reached 0.633, with $p < 0.001$. This coefficient indicates that a one-standard-deviation increase in job stress was associated with a 0.633-standard-deviation increase in workload after controlling for *job insecurity*. The f^2 value of 0.680 further demonstrates the dominant role of *job stress* in explaining variation in the mediating variable.

H5 was supported, with a workload-to-*burnout* coefficient of 0.614 and $p < 0.001$. The positive direction indicates that increases in physical, mental, temporal, precision-related, and psychological demands were associated with greater physical and emotional exhaustion, declining work motivation, and reduced occupational accomplishment. The path demonstrated a large effect, as indicated by an f^2 value of 0.365.

Table 7. Indirect-Effect Testing

Hypothesis	Mediation Path	Indirect-Effect Coefficient	p-Value	Decision
H6	<i>Job insecurity</i> → workload → <i>burnout</i>	0.073	0.048	Supported
H7	<i>Job stress</i> → workload → <i>burnout</i>	0.389	<0.001	Supported

Source: Data processed by the researchers, 2026.

H6 was supported because the indirect effect of *job insecurity* on *burnout* through workload was 0.073, with $p = 0.048$. The direct path was nonsignificant, whereas the indirect effect satisfied the 5% significance threshold. This configuration indicates full mediation: perceived employment insecurity was associated with *burnout* only after first increasing the workload experienced by employees.

H7 produced an indirect-effect coefficient of 0.389, with $p < 0.001$. The direct path from *job stress* to *burnout* was nonsignificant, while the relationships between *job stress* and workload and between workload and *burnout* were both positive and statistically significant. This pattern positions workload as a full mediator in the transmission of the effect of occupational stress on work-related exhaustion.

Discussion

Profiles of the Research Constructs

The descriptive profiles reveal a stratified configuration of occupational pressure. *Job insecurity*, *job stress*, and workload were all rated at a relatively high level, with a mean score of 3.5, whereas *burnout* remained at a moderate level, with a mean of 3.3. Perceived insecurity primarily reflected uncertainty regarding employment continuity, income stability, and possible changes in working conditions arising from fluctuations in customer orders and market dynamics. This pattern is consistent with the view that threats to employment continuity may weaken

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employees' psychological control and work attachment (Akkermans & Stynen, 2023; Castro-Castañeda et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2024; Sirola, 2024). Operational stress and workload were mainly associated with production targets, time constraints, quality requirements, repetitive physical tasks, and a production environment demanding sustained concentration (Cahyathi & Riana, 2023; Ibrahim, 2023; Makatita et al., 2023; Octasyilva, 2023; Priandari & Adnyani, 2023; Suryani & Yulius, 2023; Widiyanti & Herlina, 2023). Although burnout had not reached a high level, symptoms such as physical fatigue, energy depletion, and work-related boredom remained evident because accumulated demands may intensify through the interaction between individual characteristics and working conditions (Chandra, 2024; Febrian & Rizki, 2024; Kusumadewi et al., 2023; Rotinsulu et al., 2024).

The Effect of Job Insecurity on Burnout

The nonsignificant direct effect of *job insecurity* on *burnout*, indicated by a coefficient of 0.004 and a *p-value* of 0.949, suggests that perceived employment insecurity does not automatically develop into chronic exhaustion. Most respondents had worked for more than two years, possessed relevant technical skills, and understood order fluctuations as a normal characteristic of the stone-processing industry. Close social relationships between owners and employees may also function as informal resources that buffer the psychological consequences of uncertainty. Within the JD-R framework, employment-related threats constitute job demands, although their deteriorating effects depend on their intensity, duration, and the availability of protective resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

This pattern is consistent with Nainggolan (2022), Michael et al. (2022), Safitri and Anisah (2021), and Febriana et al. (n.d.), who identified support, compensation, and career certainty as factors explaining a weak direct relationship. Similar findings were reported by Yuliana and Lukito (2022), Martínez-Lugo et al. (2021), and Karatepe et al. (2021). A coefficient approaching zero should therefore be interpreted as the absence of a direct relationship within the tested model rather than as evidence that employment security is irrelevant to employee well-being. Uncertainty may still influence workers' conditions through mechanisms more closely connected to their daily operational experiences.

The Effect of Job Stress on Burnout

Job stress also showed no statistically significant direct effect on *burnout*, as reflected in a coefficient of 0.067 and a *p-value* of 0.502. Pressure arising from physical tasks, precision requirements, and production targets appears to have been normalized as part of routine work, particularly among experienced employees who had developed adaptive strategies. From the JD-R perspective, occupational stress does not inevitably culminate in burnout when employees possess sufficient resources, including task mastery, coworker support, effective communication, and opportunities for recovery (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

This result corresponds with the findings of Ramadhani et al. (2019), Utami and Jalil (2021), Aseanty et al. (2023), and Fanani et al. (2020), who also reported nonsignificant relationships across different occupational contexts. Elyanis et al. (2026) emphasized the importance of intervening mechanisms, while Panhardy et al. (2021) demonstrated that increasing pressure does not necessarily produce an immediate rise in *burnout*. Evidence from Lorestan University of Medical Sciences (2016) likewise showed that the relationships between stress and the various dimensions of burnout are not always uniform. Among stone-processing workers, psychological pressure is therefore more plausibly understood as an initial condition that must first be translated into concrete work demands before producing physical and emotional exhaustion.

The Effect of Job Insecurity on Workload

The positive effect of *job insecurity* on workload, with a coefficient of 0.118 and a *p-value* of 0.047, illustrates how a psychological threat may be transformed into intensified work effort. Employees who doubt the continuity of their positions may increase their pace, accuracy, availability, and willingness to assume additional responsibilities in order to remain valuable to the organization. Within the JD-R framework, insecurity operates as a demand that consumes cognitive resources while simultaneously encouraging compensatory behavior, causing an identical set of tasks to be perceived as more burdensome (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

This explanation is consistent with Giunchi et al. (2016), Richter et al. (2010), and De Angelis et al. (2021), who linked employment uncertainty to increased *workload* and heightened psychological demands. Comparable relationships were identified by Mardiana and Asj'ari (2022), Imaroh et al. (2023), Tantri et al. (2025), and Prawira Y et al. (2023). In the stone-processing industry, fluctuations in orders and dependence on production continuity may readily convert employment concerns into a stronger drive to complete more tasks, preserve product quality, and avoid mistakes that could reduce owners' evaluations of workers' contributions.

The Effect of Job Stress on Workload

The path coefficient from *job stress* to workload was 0.633, with a *p-value* below 0.001, making it one of the strongest relationships in the model. This finding indicates that employees' assessments of work intensity are strongly shaped by their psychological condition. When individuals face time pressure, production targets, the risk of errors, and quality demands, their attentional capacity becomes constrained, causing routine work to appear more complex and energy-intensive. This mechanism aligns with the JD-R framework because pressure arising from high demands increases the physical and mental costs associated with task completion (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

The findings support Karagoz and Erdogan (2023), Elyanis et al. (2026), Putra and Santoso (2024), Hasim and Abadiyah (2024), and Herdiana et al. (2024). In stone-production settings, this relationship is reinforced by the need to perform precise work under physically demanding conditions. Stress does not merely represent a final response to workload; it also shapes employees' perceptions of the magnitude of the demands they face. As psychological capacity declines, tasks that were previously manageable may be experienced as substantially more burdensome.

The Effect of Workload on Burnout

Workload emerged as the principal direct predictor of *burnout*, with a coefficient of 0.614 and a *p-value* below 0.001. Continuous physical, mental, temporal, and quality-related demands deplete employees' energy more rapidly than it can be restored. This imbalance explains the emergence of physical exhaustion, reduced concentration, declining motivation, and dissatisfaction with work accomplishments. Within the JD-R framework, workload represents a core *job demand* that activates the health-impairment process when resources and recovery time are insufficient (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

This result is consistent with Tafana et al. (2025), Costin et al. (2023), Bayuardi (2023), Nadapadap et al. (2024), Dewi et al. (2023), Chandra (2024), and Pujiarti et al. (2023). The findings of Tang (2014) and Reichel et al. (2024) enrich this interpretation by suggesting the possibility of a reciprocal relationship: pressure or *strain* may intensify perceptions of demand, while highly perceived demands may subsequently reinforce exhaustion. Among stone-processing workers, such a cycle may arise when increasing orders, limited time, precision requirements, and physical activities are not accompanied by an equivalent redistribution of tasks and adequate recovery opportunities.

Structurally, the model explained 43.8% of the variance in *burnout* and 45.7% of the variance in workload. This moderate explanatory power confirms the relevance of the mechanisms examined, while also indicating the presence of additional determinants outside the model. Differences in effect magnitude are equally important. The direct paths from *job insecurity* and *job stress* to *burnout* were nearly negligible, whereas the paths from *job stress* to workload and from workload to *burnout* exhibited large effects. This configuration shifts the analytical focus away from the assumption that psychological pressure invariably operates through a direct mechanism and toward a process-based interpretation in which pressure becomes detrimental when translated into energy-consuming task demands.

The Mediating Role of Workload in the Relationship between Job Insecurity and Burnout

The indirect effect of 0.073, with a *p-value* of 0.048, accompanied by a nonsignificant direct path, positions workload as a full mediator between *job insecurity* and *burnout*. Employment uncertainty does not immediately exhaust workers to the point of burnout; instead, its influence operates through intensified effort, heightened vigilance, and greater perceived responsibility. This sequence is consistent with the health-impairment process in the JD-R framework: employment threats increase demands, demands consume energy, and the resulting resource deficit promotes *burnout* (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

This result supports Kaynak (2021), who identified the full mediating role of perceived workload in the relationship between *job insecurity* and *burnout*. Within stone-processing SMEs, this mechanism may emerge when employees respond to uncertain order volumes by working more intensively in an effort to maintain their positions. Such intensified effort gradually reduces opportunities for recovery, increases physical demands, and heightens emotional exhaustion.

The Mediating Role of Workload in the Relationship between Job Stress and Burnout

Workload also fully mediated the relationship between *job stress* and *burnout*, with an indirect effect of 0.389 and a *p-value* below 0.001. Occupational pressure did not directly produce exhaustion; rather, it altered how individuals evaluated and performed their work demands. Stress heightened subjective workload, and the resulting increase in burden depleted physical and emotional energy until burnout emerged. This explanation is consistent with

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the JD-R framework, particularly the proposition that psychological demands impair health through the cumulative expenditure of energy (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). This finding is related to Dudija and Putri (2025), who demonstrated the interrelationship among workload, stress, and *burnout*, as well as Survival et al. (2025), who positioned stress as a mechanism through which work demands develop into exhaustion. Although the direction of mediation differs in the present study, both patterns reveal a similar process structure: stress and workload do not operate as isolated symptoms, but form an interconnected sequence that mutually reinforces the development of *burnout* among employees.

Conclusion

This study demonstrates that the development of *burnout* among employees of stone-processing SMEs in Gamping Village does not occur through a simple direct relationship, but rather through a more concrete mechanism involving occupational demands. *Job insecurity* exhibited a very small positive coefficient and had no statistically significant effect on *burnout*. A similar pattern was found for *job stress*, which likewise showed no significant direct influence. Uncertainty regarding employment continuity and the psychological pressure experienced by workers do not automatically develop into emotional exhaustion, cynicism, or diminished personal accomplishment unless these conditions increase the workload they are required to bear.

In contrast to these two direct pathways, *job insecurity* and *job stress* had positive and statistically significant effects on workload. The effect of *job stress* on workload was stronger than that of *job insecurity*, indicating that psychological pressure plays a more dominant role in shaping employees' perceptions of the severity of task demands. Workload, in turn, exerted a positive and significant effect on *burnout*. The greater the physical, mental, temporal, precision-related, and production-target demands faced by employees, the higher the likelihood of experiencing work-related exhaustion.

Workload fully mediated both the relationship between *job insecurity* and *burnout* and the relationship between *job stress* and *burnout*. This pattern indicates that employment insecurity and occupational pressure produce more serious psychological consequences after being translated into greater task intensity, limited recovery time, heightened precision requirements, and increased production responsibilities. These findings reinforce the central role of workload as the mechanism linking psychological demands to *burnout* in stone-processing work environments.

Suggestions and Recommendations

The management of stone-processing SMEs should prioritize workload control by allocating tasks according to employees' abilities, experience, and physical capacity. Production targets should be aligned with the size of the workforce, order complexity, equipment availability, and realistic completion times. Periodic evaluations across each production unit are necessary to identify task accumulation, imbalances in work distribution, excessive working hours, and insufficient rest periods before these conditions develop into chronic exhaustion.

Organizational communication should be directed toward greater transparency regarding task allocation, changes in production targets, order conditions, and the continuity of business operations. Clear instructions and managerial support can reduce uncertainty and prevent stress from developing into perceptions of excessive workload. At the individual level, employees should strengthen time management, task prioritization, physical health maintenance, effective use of rest periods, teamwork, and communication with supervisors when job demands exceed their available capacity.

Future research is encouraged to extend the model by incorporating organizational support, the work environment, leadership, resilience, job satisfaction, or *work engagement*. The respondent base may also be expanded across different regions and industrial sectors to improve external validity. Longitudinal designs, mixed-method approaches, and in-depth interviews are likewise recommended to explain changes in *burnout* over time and to capture employees' subjective experiences more comprehensively.

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