

Moderators of the Relationship between Job Stress and College Teachers Intention to Quit

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Abstract

This paper examines the possible models of the causal relationship between job stress and employees' turnover: It is found from the data analysis that the nature of institutes and experience are not positively correlated with each other. Further it is ascertained that the relationship between job stress and Labour turnover is quiet positive. The nature of institutes has 4.531 Labour turnovers and experience has 0.923. This implies that the nature of institutes does not have any impact on Labour turnover but experience has impact on Labour turnover, which means, when employees get increase their experience, the Labour turnover is get decreased and vise versa. Additionally with the help of correlation analysis ($r = 0.576$), the hypotheses are proved, i.e., high job stress is associated with high Labour turnover and Low job stress is related with the desire of employees to stay in their present organization.

Introduction

Labour Turnover is still a major issue for organizations and industries; research indicates the cost can be more devastating in a competitive economy. An average, labour turnover costs companies 18 months' salary for each manager or professional who leaves, and 6 months' pay for each hourly employee who leaves. This amounts to major organizational and financial stress, considering that one out of every three employees plans to leave his or her job in the next two years, according to a study completed by IPO-Reid. The commitment and energy levels of the best employees are critical to the organization in trying times, yet often very more fragile than they realize. For instance, labour turnover has surged by more than 25% over the past five years. There are proven ways to predict labour turnover and identify its causes. By asking employees the right questions, labour turnover can be controlled and retention can be promoted. When budgets are tight, institutes should consider the opportunity to invest in listening to their people. However, this is actually the time to focus on retaining high-performing employees and keeping them motivated. Al most all the institutes are entrapped with labor turnover problem amidst stiff and staff competition from each other's due to various reasons. Most of the financial resources of the organizations are met merely recruiting, training and placing the employees routinely. Such kind of practice has become regular activity and part and parcel of day to day activities of Industries. So this study focuses particularly about job stress of employee and its role in labour turnover.

Conceptual Development

It can be argued that understanding the extent and nature of teacher attrition is clouded by definitional and methodological problems. Documents which focus on educational work force planning, and in particular, the questions of teacher supply and demand, position attrition within the sphere of “wastage” which, in turn, is part of the broader issue of teacher turnover. Wastage differs from turnover in that turnover refers to the annual rate of teachers leaving their particular College position. Therefore, turnover includes wastage together with the lateral movement of teachers within collegiate educational systems.

Wastage can be considered as the number of teachers who leave full-time teaching in the college sectors of education through causes such as death, retirement, resignation, dismissal, temporary withdrawals, and resignation within education (Williams, 1979). The British Department of Education and Science (1990) categorized two forms of wastage in its statistical analysis: (a) premature retirement – those who retire earlier than normal because of efficiency or redundancy measures; and (b) other wastage – all other leavers, including normal retirements and those who choose to leave early.

While not always explicitly stated, much of the study of attrition is positioned within an individualistic, human capital theory perspective in line with empirical-analytic methods. Theoretically, this suggests that teachers consider monetary (income, promotion, other benefits) and non-monetary (conditions of work such as the physical environment, convenient hours, relationships with co-workers) factors in making career decisions alongside considering the costs involved in undergoing retraining for a new occupation and income foregone during this process. Thus, individuals enter into or change occupations to “maximize net returns, taking into account both benefits and costs” (Arnold et al., 1993 p. 26). In staying in an occupation one often accrues knowledge, skills and contacts that are relevant to that occupation, an investment in that location (e.g. home ownership) and knowledge and/or seniority within a particular institution. It is argued that as these capitals increase, the less likely a teacher is to leave.

An outcome of these definitional and methodological issues is the lack of a cohesive literature on teacher attrition. Globally, the need is recognized for some shared understanding of what is attrition and how it can be studied in ways which account for variables of sex, age, qualifications, ethnicity, location, specializations, re-entry, economic climate, mobility within teaching, and the like (Forojalla, 1993). Such a database is considered essential if educational planners are to address the broader questions of the extent to which teacher attrition is a problem and how it might be reduced.

Brief Review of Literature (Patterns of attrition)

This section draws on government reports and empirical research in order to convey the range in patterns of attrition. The reports are generally those prepared by agencies such as UNESCO, the OECD, the International Labour Office (ILO), the World Bank, and the International Bureau of Education (IBE), and are accessible through the libraries of those organisations. Where government reports such as those submitted to the IBE/UNESCO International Conference on Education (1996) raise attrition, the parameters of what is understood by attrition are infrequently articulated and statistics are considered as approximate. Less economically and socially stable countries have reported varying rates which reflect the general trends outlined above. Malawi, with a slow economy, has reported an 8% attrition rate (Mchazime & Siege, 1996), while the economic “freedom” in the Czech Republic and Liberia has contributed to attrition rates of 20% (Czech Republic, 1996) and 20–30% (Chapman, 1994) respectively. Hofmeyr and Jaff (1996) note that the South African 6% average rate of attrition was arrived at by conflating a 3.7% attrition rate amongst the African teaching population with a 10.7% rate of attrition amongst the “white” teaching population, a reflection perhaps of the available choices.

Research has also focused on specific subject areas or specializations. While there is much concern expressed about the shortages of teachers in areas such as the Languages, Science and Mathematics [suggested in 1996 IBE/UNESCO reports from e.g. Australia, Russia, and Yugoslavia, and the International Labour Office (ILO, 1991a) for countries such as Barbados, Cameroon and Nepal], few statistics are available which specifically address the attrition of teachers from these areas. In England and Wales, subject areas which suffer the highest rates of attrition are English, Music, Technology, Physical Education and Science (Department of Education and Science, 1990). In the USA, Bobbitt et al. (1994) claim there is little evidence of differences between subjects although Wagner (1993) disagrees, citing shortages in the Sciences and Mathematics. Research within “marginal” subjects such as Physical Education suggest relatively high rates of attrition with 50% from an Australian cohort (Macdonald, Hutchins & Madden, 1994) and the expressed intention to leave by 80% of male and 40% of female Physical Education teachers in England (Evans & Williams, 1988). Similarly, the stresses associated with work in Special Education in the USA have generated a profile of attrition rates varying from 9 to 24% (e.g. Pyecha & Levine, 1995).

Other variables around which attrition has been mapped include teacher qualifications and location. There is widespread evidence that those younger teachers who are university graduates are more likely to move out of teaching than their counterparts who only have certificates (e.g. Murnane & Olsen, 1989). Many attrition studies in both less developed (e.g. sub-Saharan Africa: Gottelmann-Duret & Hogan, 1996) and developed countries (e.g. Australia: Howse, 1991) also report higher rates in rural areas. In other developed countries such as the

USA, Wagner (1993) reports attrition is higher in major cities and schools which have increasing minority enrollments. These statistics may be clouded however by questions of whether they are reporting turnover (which includes moving to other locations but remaining within the profession) and attrition (Gritz & Theobold, 1996).

Some attrition research, primarily conducted in developed countries, has attempted to monitor what teachers do when they leave teaching. Patterns suggest there is a strong possibility that a large proportion of those teachers who leave will return to the profession. In Australia, 50% of a cohort had taken approved leave with a view to returning. Those who left teaching more permanently reported home duties (8% predominantly for women), travel (7.2%), private industry (16.8%) and non-teaching work in education (18%) as their intentions (Schools Council, 1990). These patterns are similar to those reported for the USA (Arnold et al., 1993) although Bobbitt et al. (1994) reported higher rates of home duties (19%) and non-school occupations (35.8%) amongst teachers who had worked in private schools. It is the case of college teachers. From the review of literature, it found that there is relationship between job stress and Intention of quitting among college teachers in India.

Concept of Job Stress

Job stress is nothing but inclination and intention of employees about pressure of the job. The stress is classified into two type namely high job stress and low job stress. Low job stress is stress which can motivate the employees and give job satisfaction. High job stress is the stress which cannot motivate the employees and does not give job satisfaction. Here the attitudes about job stress are built up and developed based upon the following variables: Salary, Job Changes, Supervisor Behaviour, Feedback, Quality of Work Life, Nature of Work, Responsibility, Growth, Working Time, Organization belongingness, Additional Work, Superior Behaviour.

Labour Turn Over

In this study stress of employees are very essential in measuring turnover. Labor turnover means an employee one who withdraws himself permanently from one company to switch over another very frequently. This study focuses how the job stress of employees plays its role in labor turnover. Both low and high job stress may lead to more or less turnover or job withdrawal behavior. It is described by following chart.

High Job Stress

High job stress happens in the organization and industries due to following things and makes employees to leave the present organization.1. Low Salary, 2. Frequent Job Changes, 3. Poor Supervisor Behaviour, 4. Negative Feedback, 5. Poor Quality of Work Life, 6. Tough

Work, 7. Absence of Responsibility, 8. Absence of opportunity for Growth, 9. Long Working Time, 10. Absence of Organization belongingness, 11. Additional Works, 12. Bad Superior Behaviour.

Low Job Stress

Low job stress happens in the organizations and industries due to following things and which make employees to stay in the present organization. 1. High Salary, 2. Absence of job Changes, 3. Polite Supervisor Behaviour, 4. Positive Feedback, 5. Good Quality of Work Life, 6. Easy Work, 7. Presence of Responsibility, 8. Presence of opportunity for Growth, 9. Limited Working Time, 10. Presence of Organization belongingness, 11. Absence of Additional Work, 12. Polite Superior Behaviour.

Objectives of the Study

Followings are the main objectives of the study

1. To ascertain relationship between job stress and job Labour turnover.
2. To find out the association between nature of institute and job stress.
3. To find out the association between nature of institute and Labour turnover.
4. To fathom the relationship between experience and job stress.
5. To ascertain the association between experience and Labour turnover.

On the basis of above objectives the hypotheses may be developed as follows

1. Low job stress is related to desire to stay in the organization.
2. High job stress leads to job stress in the organization.

Methodology

A self-administered questionnaire was used to collect the necessary data for this study. 250 questionnaires were distributed to the college teachers who were working in Kancheepuram, Vellore and Thiruvannamalai districts of Tamilnadu but only 150 could be collected, out of 150, 114 were usable for analysis and rest of the questionnaires could not be used due to lack of information. The instrument has three parts. Part I was deal with personal data of employees and Part II was dealt with statement job stress of employees. These items are selected by the researcher based on the literature in field of job stress and turnover, work motivation and turnover and job stress and turnover. The items were placed on five point scale. Part III was dealt with questions relating to measurement of turnover. Percentage analysis and chi square test were used to test hypotheses. Wherever it was felt that it was necessary, chi-square and correlation were made to confirm the proof of the significance of the hypothesis as well as to confirm the nature of correlations.

Results and Discussion

The data analysis and interpretation of the study with respect to each objective are made here. Inferential analysis is made to give the personal inference of researcher on each and every table to attain the objectives of this project. , Chi-square and correlation have been used to analysis the data and to give inference to attain the objectives of this study. This analysis is made on sample of the study. Description is made on the actual data were obtained from the sample respondents. Under this analysis the detailed explanations are given for each and every representative of sample. The detailed analysis is made on the following tables by using the percentage analysis.

Table 1: Frequency Distribution of Job Stress

Level Stress	Frequency	Percentage
Low	33	28.95
Average	51	44.74
High	30	26.32
Total	114	100.00

Table 1 shows the frequency distribution of job stress out of 114 sample respondents, 33 respondents have low job stress, 51 respondents have average job stress and 30 respondents had high job stress. The above table clearly indicates that the job stress is inevitable in the occupational life. Average job stress has got first rank, it means everyone has job stress at least to some extent. Low job stress has got second rank, it shows and confirms that the job stress is common and inevitable and everyone is entrapped with job stress at least to some minimum level. High job stress has got the last rank. It shows that high job stress is not common to everyone, which happens only to meager percentage of people.

Table 2 shows the mean score secured by each statements individually. There are 24 Job stress statements are there. The mean sum of each and every statement is ascertained and shown is front of the same statement. The mean sum amounted to indicate the job stress level. If the mean score get increased the stress level in job also get increased. The states are derived from variables of job stress.

Table 2: Mean Score of Job Stress

No	Statements	Mean Score
1	Changing of my job very frequently causes.	2.08
2	Expectation of high performance with same pay within short time causes.	2.64
3	Expectation of unrealistic performance with less pay with insufficient time causes.	2.98
4	Behavior pattern of boss causes.	2.54
5	Frequent changes in job design causes.	2.58
6	The negative feedback causes.	2.89
7	Poorly delivered feedback causes.	2.77
8	Poor quality of work life causes.	3.11
9	Routine and boring work causes.	2.83
10	Diminished responsibility causes me.	2.59
11	When there is no opportunity for personal growth and development, causes me.	3.16
12	Organization politics causes.	2.86
13	When there is no sense of belongingness to organization causes	2.44
14	When I am working in untime, I am subject to	2.60
15	Working for long hours causes.	3.16
16	Responsibility without authority leads to.	2.76
17	Frequent interference of my supervisor causes.	2.74
18	When there is simultaneous occurrence of two or more sets of pressure causes.	2.68
19	New work being allotted me without adequate training and guidance causes.	2.49
20	When others job allotted to you causes.	2.63
21	Limited opportunity for future growth causes me.	3.02
22	Insufficient support from senior management causes.	2.87
23	When superiors misuse the power to torture me, it causes.	3.51
24	Absence of relationship between your role and main activities of organization gives.	2.76

Table 3: Frequency Distribution of Labour Turnover

Level of Labour Turnover	Frequency	Percentage
Low	29	25.44
Average	53	46.49
High	32	28.07
Total	114	100.00

Table 3 shows the frequency distribution of Labour Turnover out of 114 sample respondents, 29 respondents have got low turnover, 53 respondents have got average turnover and 32 respondents have got high turnover. The above table clearly asserts that average turnover has got first rank, which means majority of people i.e., 46.49% of respondents prefer average turnover they wish to change their job from present institution into some where they can get stress free job, which is more appropriate for their expectation. High Turnover has got second rank i.e., 28.07% sample represents have got high turnover. High turnover might occur when there is high job stress in the present institution. Low turnover has got last rank i.e., 25.44% respondents have got minimum level of turnover, which clearly shows that Labour turnover is happening in educational sectors also not only in IT / ITES above.

Table 4: Mean Score of Labour Turnover

No	Questions	Mean score
1	Will you leave the present job, if better pay offer comes on your way?	3.70
2	Would you like to change your institution, if there is no autonomy?	3.01
3	Will you quit your present job, if your achievement is not recognized?	3.29
4	Would you like to resign your present job, if there is no job security?	3.39
5	Will you resign the present job, when there is no opportunity for growth?	3.17
6	Will you resign the present job, when incentives and bonus are not given to you?	3.07
7	Will you quit the Present job, when it is not challenging and stimulating?	3.00
8	Would you like to resign the present job, when there is no fair treatment in your institution?	3.11
9	Will you resign your job, when there is no support and guidance from your superior?	3.07
10	Will you resign your present job, if the task given to you is not up to your expectation?	2.94

Table 4 shows the mean sum of Labour Turnover. Here the Labour turnover is taken as single variable. The mean sum is calculated and shown in front of each and every statement. The mean score shows the intention level of employees for leaving the present job. Question 1 has got highest mean score. i.e., which plays vital role in making employees to leave the present organization? When mean score is getting increased, the intention level also gets increased automatically for leaving the present job.

Null Hypothesis: there is no significance difference between government and private college with respect to labour turnover.

Table 5: “t” test for the significance difference between government and private college employees with respect to labour turnover

Variables	Number of Samples	Mean	SD	t value	P value
Government	32	28.5000	9.695	3.00	0.003
Private	82	33.0122	6.022		

Since P value is greater than 0.01%, the null hypothesis is rejected at 1% level significant. Hence it is concluded that there is significant difference between government and private college employee with respect to labour turnover. It is found on the basis of mean score obtained by them that the private college employees are more inclined to withdraw themselves from the present job. It could be due to lack of job security, low pay packages, absence of recognition for achievement and so on. But generally the job stress is common to all types’ educational institutions’ employees. In spite of this they wish to change their job when they find better opportunity for the above things.

Null Hypothesis: there is no relationship between numbers of years of experience respect to job stress.

Table 6: Chi-square test for the relationship between numbers of years of experience of college employees with respect to job stress

Experiences	Low	Average	High	Row total	Chi-value	P.value
Below 10 years	(25) [24.3]	(39) [37.6]	(20) [22.1]	(84)	1.393	0.845
10-20 years	(5) [4.9]	(6) [7.6]	(6) [4.5]	(17)		
Above 20 years	(3) [3.8]	(6) [5.8]	(4) [3.4]	(13)		
Column total	[33]	[51]	[30]	114		

Since P value is greater than 0.05%, the null hypothesis is accepted at 5% level significant. Hence it is concluded that there is no relationship between years of experience with respect to job stress. Hence it is evident from the above table that each and every employee is prone to job stress irrespective of their experience.

Null Hypothesis: there is no relationship between numbers of years of experience respect to labour turnover.

Table 7: Chi-square test for the relationship between numbers of years of experience of college employees with respect to labour turnover

Experiences	Low	Average	High	Row total	Chi-value	P.value
Below 10 years	(19) [21.4]	(39) [39.1]	(26) [23.6]	(84)	2.430	0.657
10-20 years	(6) [4.3]	(7) [7.9]	(4) [4.8]	(17)		
Above 20 years	(4) [3.3]	(7) [6.0]	(2) [3.6]	(13)		
Column total	[29]	[53]	[32]	114		

Since P value is greater than 0.05%, the null hypothesis is accepted at 5% level significant. Hence it is concluded that there is no relationship between years of experience with respect to job stress. Hence it is concluded from the above table that each and every employee is prone to labour turnover irrespective of their experience and they wish to change their job from present institute to other institute when they find better opportunity than the present job.

Table 8: Correlation co-efficient variables in the equations

Variables	Co-efficient	SE	t.value	P.value
Constant	3.508	3.181	1.136	0.000
Nature of institutes	7.531	1.634	2.733	.0071
Experiences	-0.923	1.547	-0.597	-0.552
R	0.576			
R ²	0.141			

The correlation coefficient is shown in Table 8. R = 0.576 measures the degree of relationship between the actual values and the predicated values of attrition. Because the actual values are obtained the linear contribution of two variables, the co-efficient values of 0.576 indicated the relationship between attrition and job stress is quiet moderate and positive. The value of R²=0.141 means generally that the majority of the variation in the labour turnover is

explained or accounted for the estimated sample regression equation that uses job stress and labour turnover. This is quite useful in asserting the overall accuracy of the labour turnover. The coefficient 7.531 has interpretable meaning that the average level of labour turnover could be positive when there is high job stress among the government and private college employees. The coefficient -0.923 represents the partial effect of labour turnover on college teachers. The estimated negative sign implies that such effect is negative while absolute value implies that labour turnover would decrease.

Summary and Conclusion

Here, the researcher summarizes the whole study by taking into account all the objectives of the study. Based upon all the objectives, hypotheses have been framed, on the basis of hypotheses; the summary is made as follows. It is found from the data analysis that the nature of institutes and experience are not positively correlated with each other. In further it is ascertained that the relationship between job stress and Labour turnover is quite positive. The nature of institutes has 4.531 Labour turnovers and experience has .923. This implies that the nature of institutes does not have any impact on Labour turnover but experience has impact on Labour turnover, which means, when employees get increase their experience, the Labour turnover is get decreased and viceversa. Additionally with the help of analysis and interpretation, the hypotheses are proved, i.e., high job stress is associated with high Labour turnover and Low job stress is related with the desire of employees to stay in their present organization.

Teacher attrition is positioned within a range of discourses addressing teacher shortage, the wastage of resources and loss of expertise, as well as those concerning teachers' lowly status, poor working conditions, and dissatisfaction. Accordingly, most literature approaches attrition as a problem for education systems although an occasional voice argues that attrition can be the result of an effective education system which fuels a vibrant economy which in turn offers alternative employment to teachers (e.g. Chapman, 1994). From the latter perspective, attrition might also be seen as a conduit through which the teaching profession is revitalized with educational innovation and new recruits.

Most frequently, and across varying socio-economic contexts, remuneration has attracted attention as a primary incentive to contain or decrease attrition together with attracting quality candidates into the teaching profession. Remuneration has been closely linked to the somewhat elusive notion of increasing the *status* of the teaching *profession* which occupies a central, yet to date ill-defined, place in the attrition debate (Senate Employment, Education and Training References Committee, 1998). Despite the focus on remuneration, there is also a strong line of argument that single focus strategies seldom work (Chapman, 1994). Yet, to simultaneously rise, for example, teachers' salaries and working conditions is complex and may be more costly than the impact of attrition. Rather, effective strategies must be seen as part of socio-economic reform and a corollary to social and economic reforms. Therefore each country should appraise its own

target attrition rate, high impact and realistic strategies, and review these regularly in line with changing conditions (Chapman et al., 1993). Failure to do so jeopardizes attracting and retaining well-qualified and motivated teachers, and thereby puts future generations at risk.

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