

Impact of HRM Practices on University Teachers' Burnout: Exploring the Mediating Role of Organizational Climate

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Abstract

This study investigated the impact of human resource management (HRM) practices on university teachers' burnout, with organizational climate serving as a mediating variable. The research contributes from theoretical, managerial, academic, and practical perspectives. A quantitative approach and causal-comparative research design were employed. Data were collected through a cross-sectional survey, providing numerical descriptions of the study variables. The study was delimited to teachers from two universities in Lahore, one public and the other private. Specifically, faculty members from the University of Education and Superior University constituted the population. At the first stage, purposive sampling was used to select one public and one private university, after which stratified proportionate sampling identified four departments from each institution. The research instrument was pilot-tested to ensure validity and reliability. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics and inferential techniques, including independent-samples t-tests, one-way ANOVA, correlation, and linear regression. The findings revealed significant positive relationships among the key constructs. Regression analysis indicated that HRM practices significantly reduced faculty burnout while enhancing organizational climate. Furthermore, organizational climate itself showed a strong positive association with burnout. Gender-based differences were identified through the t-test, with male faculty reporting slightly stronger perceptions than female faculty. However, results from the one-way ANOVA showed no significant differences in HRM practices or burnout across demographic variables such as age, department, institutional type, or academic qualifications when organizational climate was considered as a mediator.

Keywords: HRM, Practices, Burnout, Organizational Climate, Mediation, Faculty

Introduction

To achieve institutional goals while addressing the needs of employees, organizations implement a structured and deliberate approach known as Human Resource Management (HRM). This strategy covers a wide range of tasks, including hiring and choosing employees, training and developing employees, evaluating employee performance, managing pay and benefits, and enforcing company policies (Hogan et al., 2023). HRM is essential to higher education because it guarantees that faculty

personnel are not only highly qualified but also driven and content in their positions (Garavan & Coolahan, 2024). Effective HRM initiatives—such as equitable workload distribution, transparent promotion criteria, continuous professional development opportunities, and supportive leadership—enhance job satisfaction and foster organizational commitment. Conversely, ineffective HR practices, lack of recognition, limited career growth, and inadequate support systems may result in stress, dissatisfaction, and ultimately, burnout (Ismail et al., 2021). In academic settings, burnout, commonly characterized by emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced professional accomplishment, has become an increasingly significant issue. Therefore, HRM in universities goes beyond administrative functions, serving as a strategic tool to cultivate a positive organizational climate, strengthen teacher-student interactions, and enhance institutional performance (Kataria et al., 2023). Teacher burnout, as a complex psychological state, often develops due to persistent work-related stress, emotional demands, and insufficient coping mechanisms. It is frequently observed as emotional fatigue caused by heavy teaching loads, continuous classroom challenges, and the pressure to meet institutional expectations. Such burnout adversely affects job satisfaction, turnover intentions, employee performance, and the overall organizational climate, thereby threatening the quality of education. According to Kalay (2022) burnout is a major factor contributing to the decline in academic standards, while Hahn (2022) define it as a prolonged reaction to chronic workplace stress, manifesting through exhaustion, reduced efficiency, and detachment from professional responsibilities. Organizational climate refers to employees' collective perceptions, attitudes, and emotions regarding their workplace, which are shaped by policies, leadership styles, and interpersonal relationships (Maslach et al., 2024). It reflects the overall “atmosphere” within an institution and strongly influences members' behaviors and motivation. A positive climate is characterized by trust, open communication, collegial respect, collaborative leadership, growth opportunities, and fair treatment—all of which foster job satisfaction, commitment, and motivation (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2021). In contrast, poor communication, favoritism, lack of support, and excessive bureaucracy create a negative climate, leading to low morale and increased burnout. Within universities, the organizational climate significantly determines how HRM practices affect faculty well-being, shaping whether they result in improved satisfaction and performance or contribute to stress and disengagement (Jusufi & Ajdarpasic, 2020). Teacher burnout is influenced by several factors, including personal life challenges, financial stress, societal expectations, and most critically, the institutional environment. In demanding professions such as teaching, organizational climate is frequently identified as a key predictor of burnout (Surana & Singh, 2023). Hence, contemporary HRM strategies must aim to empower staff, promote innovation, and enable institutions to adapt to evolving challenges. When employees feel valued and supported, their commitment and performance increase substantially. Recognizing and rewarding innovation helps establish a culture of creativity, while fair and supportive management practices encourage diligence and accountability. Studies consistently highlight that the success of institutions is closely tied to the competencies, dedication, and motivation of their workforce (Liao et al., 2022).

Objectives of the Study

1. To investigate how human resource management practices are implemented at universities as perceived by faculty members.
2. To evaluate the degree of burnout faced by university teachers.
3. To investigate the impact of human resource management practices on the burnout levels of university faculty members.
4. To investigate how organizational climate mediates the relationship between HRM practices and faculty burnout in universities.

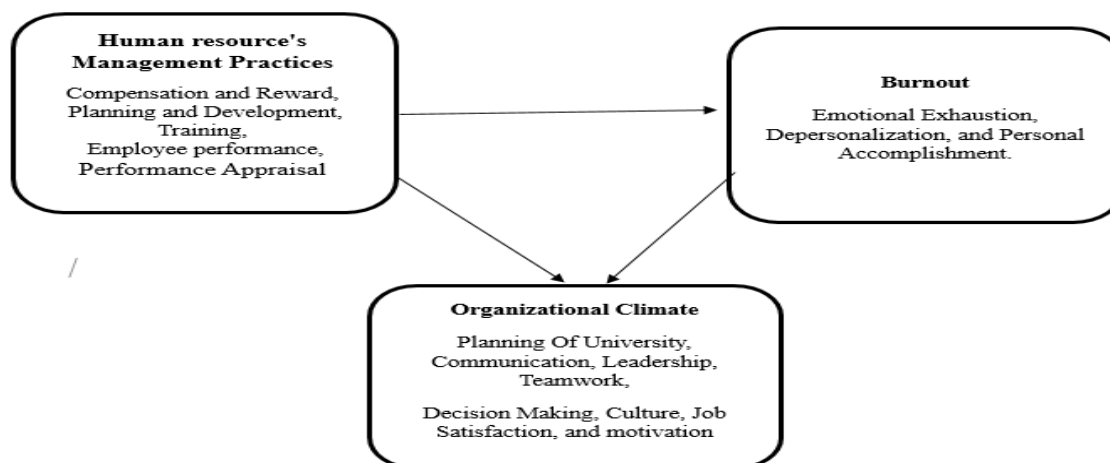
Literature Review

Human Resource Management (HRM) practices are essential in influencing the professional lives of university faculty, especially regarding issues of stress and burnout. Within the higher education sector, academic staff often encounter challenges such as excessive teaching and research demands, publication pressure, and the continuous pursuit of professional growth, all of which can result in emotional strain, detachment, and reduced efficiency if not addressed effectively (Anwar & Abdullah, 2021). Well-designed HRM initiatives—such as fair recruitment procedures, balanced workload allocation, opportunities for capacity building, recognition of achievements, and constructive performance evaluation—help minimize these risks by fostering equity, motivation, and job satisfaction. Nonetheless, the effectiveness of these practices largely depends on the organizational climate, which serves as a key mediating factor (Halid et al., 2024). A supportive climate, marked by trust, open communication, collaboration, and encouraging leadership, enhances the positive influence of HRM policies by creating a sense of security and belonging among teachers. In contrast, even the best HRM strategies may not alleviate burnout if the institutional environment is rigid, unsupportive, or conflict-oriented (Kutieshat & Farmanesh, 2022). Thus, organizational climate functions as the link that converts HRM practices into meaningful outcomes for teacher well-being and productivity. Recognizing this mediating role is crucial for university leaders, as it demonstrates that preventing burnout requires not only strong HRM measures but also a nurturing academic atmosphere built on cooperation, openness, and mutual support (Hogan et al., 2023).

Human Resource Management (HRM) refers to the systematic and organized approach organizations use to manage their workforce in a way that balances institutional objectives with employee needs (Friedman, 2020). Typically, HR departments are responsible for functions such as recruitment, employee safety, performance incentives, promotion policies, professional development, communication channels, and teamwork facilitation (Qiao & Wang, 2019). According to Manzoor et al (2019) who explored the connection between HRM and service quality, key practices include selective hiring, employee retention, continuous development, teamwork, comprehensive performance evaluations, and quality-based reward systems. Similarly, Kyriazos (2018) outlined eleven commonly implemented HR techniques, such as job design, recruitment planning, staff training, performance evaluation, incentive schemes, grievance redressal, job analysis, and attitude assessments. Anwar and Abdullah (2021) emphasized the importance of structured job roles, career progression, evaluation systems, training initiatives, job security, profit-sharing, and employee voice mechanisms as vital HR practices. Alsafadi and Altahat (2021) argued that HRM remains incomplete without focusing on recruitment, employee development, assessment, and compensation. In line with this, Li et al. (2020) highlighted training, hiring, performance reviews, grievance procedures, staff benefits, and advancement policies as significant aspects of HRM. Allkja and Hidri (2020) similarly stressed the role of training, appraisal systems, and reward structures. Collectively, these practices create conditions that promote professional growth, teamwork, and meaningful contributions to organizational success. Hadziahmetovic and Dinc (2020) suggested that HRM directly shapes employee attitudes and behaviors, thereby strengthening organizational competitiveness. Likewise, Wunderlich and Møller (2020) viewed HR systems as internal mechanisms that align employee performance with institutional priorities. By influencing employee behavior, HRM contributes to sustaining a competitive advantage (Mohiuddin et al., 2022). Gabr et al. (2021) noted that recruitment, performance appraisal, compensation, and training remain the most widely applied HR practices, grounded in the principle that employees are valuable organizational resources (Kuzey et al., 2022). Compensation systems, both financial and non-financial, are commonly used to enhance motivation and productivity by rewarding employee achievements. Examples include salary increments, bonuses, profit-sharing, and stock options, while Agarwal (2021) described compensation as the complete set of rewards provided to recognize employees' contributions. Another significant aspect of HRM is career planning, which involves defining professional goals and steps to achieve them, thus ensuring both individual career growth and

institutional success (Petrušić & Đukanović, 2023). Additionally, training is essential since professional growth opportunities boost worker dedication and performance (Zilić et al., 2023). Effective training programs improve institutional output and engagement by equipping employees with updated knowledge and skills (Kutieshat & Farmanesh, 2022). A positive and motivating work environment further encourages employee loyalty and ownership of responsibilities. According to Agarwal (2021) training contributes to individual effectiveness, while Costin et al., (2023) defined performance appraisal as a structured evaluation of employee responsibilities to identify strengths and areas for growth. The concept of burnout was initially introduced by Metin and Demirer, (2021) as a condition of reduced productivity, disengagement, and demotivation arising from unmet needs. Jackson (2022) described burnout as a psychological reaction to chronic stress that results in both emotional and physical exhaustion. Symptoms commonly include fatigue, loss of motivation, reduced efficiency, and difficulty handling routine responsibilities. According to Mahmood, M. (2021) burnout manifests in three dimensions: Emotional exhaustion: characterized by fatigue and a lack of energy for work. Reduced personal accomplishment: where employees doubt their abilities and feel dissatisfied with their achievements. Depersonalization; detachment from professional roles and colleagues, often observed in high-pressure professions like teaching. Friedman (2022), building on Cherniss's work, developed a burnout scale capturing exhaustion, detachment, dissatisfaction, and self-deprecation. Gómez (2022) also designed the Burnout Index (formerly the Tedium Scale), viewing burnout as a general construct of physical, emotional, and mental fatigue across different professions. The concept of organizational climate was developed to describe enduring workplace conditions. Kalay (2022) defined it as a set of stable features—such as culture, structure, and social systems—that characterize an organization. Karatepe (2013) referred to it as the collection of workplace attributes that shape employees' attitudes and behaviors, essentially the “personality” of an institution. Pamungkas and Wulandari (2021) considered organizational climate part of organizational behavior, influenced by internal conditions as well as broader social, political, economic, and technological environments. Leadership approaches and administrative styles strongly influence the type of climate within an organization. Key elements shaping organizational climate include: Planning: structuring tasks and goals to achieve institutional objectives. Communication: sharing ideas, experiences, and emotions across the institution. Leadership: influencing and guiding others toward shared goals. Teamwork: fostering cooperation to accomplish collective objectives. Decision-making: shaping how employees interpret policies and organizational practices. Motivation: internal and external drives that sustain employee effort and engagement. Together, these elements contribute to the organizational atmosphere, directly impacting employee satisfaction, commitment, and performance.

Conceptual Diagram: Human Resource Management Practices Framework



Materials and Methods

This research adopted a quantitative causal-comparative approach to assess the impact of human resource management (HRM) practices on faculty burnout, considering organizational climate as a mediating variable. The data were obtained through a cross-sectional survey utilizing a structured questionnaire. The research was carried out in Punjab, Pakistan, and included both public and private universities. The target population comprised 750 faculty members, with the sample drawn from the University of Education (public sector) and the Superior University (private sector). A multi-stage sampling procedure was used. At the first stage, one public and one private university were selected. In the second stage, four departments—Economics, English, Psychology, and Education—were randomly chosen from each institution. Finally, stratified proportionate sampling was applied, resulting in a total of 175 participants, 87 from the University of Education and 88 from the Superior University. The instrument was a self-developed questionnaire by researchers to measure HRM practices, faculty burnout, and organizational climate. The instrument was structured into two major parts: the first section collected demographic details such as gender, department, and type of institution, while the second section comprised 76 close-ended statements rated on a five-point Likert scale, 21 items assessing burnout, 35 items evaluating organizational climate, and 20 items focusing on HRM practices. The reliability of the tool was confirmed with Cronbach's alpha value of 0.85, reflecting high internal consistency, and its content validity was established through expert evaluation. Data were gathered through direct visits to the selected universities. For the analysis, descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation) were utilized to describe demographic characteristics, whereas inferential statistics were applied to test the research questions. Regression analysis was performed to identify the direct influence of HRM practices on burnout as well as the mediating role of organizational climate. Furthermore, independent-sample t-tests and one-way ANOVA were used to explore variations among different demographic groups.

Results and Discussion

Table 1: Descriptive Analysis of HRM Practices in Universities Based on Faculty Perceptions

| Scale | Range | | MPI | | | Skewness | Kurtosis |
|-------------|----------|-----------|------|-----------|--------|----------|----------|
| | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | | Potential | Actual | | |
| Involvement | 26.73 | 2.62 | 3.65 | 29-46 | 17 | -.068 | -.210 |
| Training | 18.09 | 2.97 | 3.84 | 27-45 | 18 | -.387 | .026 |
| DE | 29.73 | 2.15 | 3.64 | 11-24 | 19 | -.144 | .191 |
| WC | 15.58 | 2.18 | 3.75 | 19-26 | 16 | -.078 | -.120 |
| CBPA | 13.76 | 2.16 | 3.32 | 18-26 | 18 | -.487 | .206 |
| CR | 16.81 | 2.02 | 3.24 | 21-24 | 14 | -.244 | .171 |
| HRM | 44.34 | 4.35 | 3.98 | 80-110 | 28 | .136 | .033 |

N=175

Table 1 presents a summary of the key dimensions of the HRMP Questionnaire, which include Involvement (I), (T), (DE), (WC), (CBPA), and (CR), along with the composite HRMP score. The overall HRMP scores were observed within the range of 80 to 110, with the lowest reported value being 28 ($M = 44.34$, $SD = 4.35$). Among the subscales, Development and Education (DE) recorded the highest average score ($M = 29.73$, $SD = 2.15$) and showed the widest response variation (range = 19), indicating its greater prominence compared to the other components.

Table 2: Statistical Description of Burnout

| Scale | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | MPI | Range | | Skewness | Kurtosis |
|-------|----------|-----------|------|-----------|--------|----------|----------|
| | | | | Potential | Actual | | |
| EE | 18.54 | 1.98 | 4.00 | 12-21 | 9 | -.273 | -.208 |
| PA | 12.87 | 1.65 | 3.95 | 8-18 | 9 | -.357 | .062 |
| D | 16.44 | 1.98 | 3.85 | 11-21 | 9 | -.077 | .173 |
| B | 44.65 | 3.01 | 3.98 | 29-56 | 24 | -.399 | .403 |

N=175

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics for burnout (B), divided into its three components: depersonalization (D), personal accomplishment (PA), and emotional exhaustion (EE). The overall burnout scores fell within a range of 29 to 56 ($M = 44.65$, $SD = 3.01$), reflecting a 24-point variation. Among the sub-dimensions, Emotional Exhaustion emerged as the dominant factor, with the highest mean score ($M = 18.54$, $SD = 1.98$) and a response spread of 9 points.

Table 3: Impact of Human Resource Management Practices on the Burnout Levels of University Faculty Members.

| Model | <i>R</i> | <i>R</i> ² | Adj. <i>R</i> ² | St. Error | <i>F</i> | <i>P</i> |
|-------|----------|-----------------------|----------------------------|-----------|----------|----------|
| 1 | .716 | .475 | .475 | .40612 | 16.71 | .00 |

Table 3 illustrates the predictive relationship between burnout (dependent variable) and (HRM) practices (independent variable). The correlation coefficient ($R = .47$) indicates that HRM practices account for about 47% of the variance in burnout. The model was found to be statistically significant, as shown by the *F* statistic ($F = 16.71$, $p = .00$), with $R^2 = .485$ and Adjusted $R^2 = .475$. Additionally, the regression coefficient ($\beta = .761$, $p < .05$) confirms a strong positive association between HRM practices and burnout.

Equation of Regression**Table 4: Estimated Regression Coefficients (N = 175)**

| Model | Regression Coefficients: Unstandardized vs. Standardized | | | | |
|----------|--|------------|------|----------|----------|
| | <i>B</i> | <i>SEB</i> | B | <i>t</i> | <i>P</i> |
| Constant | 22.615 | .182 | | 7.182 | .00 |
| HRM | 1.688 | .049 | .651 | 7.511 | .00 |

(HRM) practices significantly contribute to the regression model, as seen in Table 4. The following regression equation was the result of the analysis: $B = 22.615 + \text{HRM } 1.688$

Table 5: Organizational climate mediates the relationship between HRM practices and faculty burnout in universities

| Variables | HRM | Burnout | OC |
|------------|--------|---------|------|
| 1. HRM | .435** | | |
| 2. Burnout | .382** | .326 | |
| 3. OC | .476** | .358 | .408 |

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

The variables and their substantial, moderately positive relationships are shown in Table 5. Within the context of HRM practices, the results demonstrate a statistically significant positive association

between teacher burnout and organizational environment ($r = .435, p < .05$). Furthermore, a smaller but still substantial positive correlation between university faculty HRM practices and organizational atmosphere was found ($r = .326, p < .01$).

Table 6: Gender Wise Comparison of Human Resource's Management Practices

| Scale | Gender | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>Df</i> | <i>T</i> | <i>p</i> | Cohn's <i>d</i> /Effect size <i>r</i> |
|-------------|--------|----------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|---------------------------------------|
| Involvement | Male | 16.42 | 2.71 | 148 | 2.91 | .62 | -0.03/ -0.01 |
| | Female | 16.95 | 2.58 | | | | |
| Training | Male | 17.85 | 2.91 | 148 | 2.47 | .00 | -0.04/ 0.02 |
| | Female | 17.21 | 2.84 | | | | |
| DE | Male | 18.19 | 2.12 | 148 | 0.48 | .63 | -0.01/ -0.00 |
| | Female | 18.28 | 2.19 | | | | |
| WC | Male | 14.05 | 1.79 | 148 | 1.03 | .30 | 0.00/ -0.02 |
| | Female | 14.18 | 1.72 | | | | |
| CBPA | Male | 18.65 | 1.92 | 148 | -2.42 | .002 | -0.03/ -0.02 |
| | Female | 18.79 | 1.83 | | | | |
| CR | Male | 16.29 | 1.81 | 148 | -0.25 | .97 | -0.01/ -0.00 |
| | Female | 16.34 | 1.82 | | | | |
| HRM | Male | 75.41 | 4.52 | 148 | .395 | .004 | -0.07/ -0.04 |
| | Female | 74.54 | 4.48 | | | | |

Table 6 summarizes the comparison of HRM practices across gender. The findings reveal only minimal variations in mean scores between male and female instructors. For most HRM dimensions—including involvement, development and education, working conditions, compensation and rewards, and overall HRM—the differences were statistically insignificant, with very small effect sizes. A slight but significant difference was observed in training and competency-based performance appraisal, where males scored marginally higher than females. Nonetheless, the impact sizes stayed low, indicating that faculty members' evaluations of HRM procedures are not significantly influenced by gender.

Table 7: University-Wise Distribution of HRM: Mean and Standard Deviation

| Scales | University | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
|-------------|-------------------------|----------|-----------|
| Involvement | University of Education | 36.47 | 3.11 |
| | Superior University | 36.61 | 2.95 |
| Training | University of Education | 38.10 | 2.78 |
| | Superior University | 38.06 | 2.84 |
| DE | University of Education | 15.37 | 2.08 |
| | Superior University | 15.27 | 1.82 |
| WC | University of Education | 11.08 | 1.51 |
| | Superior University | 11.02 | 1.62 |
| CBPA | University of Education | 14.39 | 1.62 |
| | Superior University | 14.21 | 1.73 |
| CR | University of Education | 18.67 | 1.73 |
| | Superior University | 18.82 | 2.15 |
| HRM | University of Education | 56.37 | 2.08 |
| | Superior University | 46.27 | 1.82 |

N=175

Table 7 describes that 88 teachers from the University of Education participated and 88 teachers from Superior University participated. Thus, the entire sample consisted of 175 teachers. No other institution develops better instructors than the school of education. University instructors' opinions of HRM did not change considerably ($M=56.37$, $SD=2.08$).

Table 8: ANOVA Analysis of HRM across Departments

| Variables | | <i>df</i> | <i>SS</i> | <i>MS</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|-------------|--------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Involvement | Inter Groups | 4 | 41.56 | 5.43 | 6.12 | .48 | .006 |
| | Intra Groups | 135 | 5700.82 | 8.56 | | | |
| Training | Inter Groups | 4 | 42.187 | 11.09 | 1.55 | .17 | .005 |
| | Intra Groups | 135 | 6141.321 | 7.120 | | | |
| DE | Inter Groups | 4 | 20.642 | 3.95 | 1.29 | .26 | .008 |
| | Intra Groups | 135 | 2541.92 | 3.06 | | | |
| WC | Inter Groups | 4 | 6.566 | 1.49 | .57 | .72 | .003 |
| | Intra Groups | 135 | 2078.62 | 2.61 | | | |
| CBPA | Inter Groups | 4 | 40.220 | 8.04 | 2.55 | .25 | .002 |
| | Intra Groups | 135 | 2501.02 | 3.15 | | | |
| CR | Inter Groups | 4 | 9.047 | 1.89 | .50 | .77 | .003 |
| | Intra Groups | 135 | 2853.833 | 3.59 | | | |
| HRM | Inter Groups | 4 | 70.327 | 14.065 | 7.54 | .58 | .008 |
| | Intra Groups | 135 | 1480.868 | 18.651 | | | |

There is a slight variation in the department foundation ($F=7.54$), a modest impact size (.008), and a $p=.58$ for the HRM values for instructors' scores in Table 8.

Table 9: Burnout Comparison by Gender

| Scale | Gender | <i>M</i> | <i>Sd</i> | <i>Df</i> | <i>T</i> | <i>P</i> | Cohn's <i>d</i> /Effect size <i>r</i> |
|-------|--------|----------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|---------------------------------------|
| EE | M | 17.75 | 1.55 | 148 | 2.55 | .00 | 0.86/ 0.00 |
| | F | 15.87 | 1.52 | | | | |
| PA | M | 11.12 | 1.87 | 148 | 1.09 | .27 | 0.05/ -0.00 |
| | F | 11.99 | 1.60 | | | | |
| D | M | 15.43 | 1.87 | 148 | -1.59 | .11 | -0.01/ 0.00 |
| | F | 15.63 | 1.70 | | | | |
| B | M | 43.41 | 2.94 | 148 | .211 | .00 | 0.95/ 0.03 |
| | F | 42.55 | 2.91 | | | | |

Table 9 indicates that male faculty members reported marginally higher burnout scores ($M = 43.41$, $SD = 2.94$) than their female counterparts ($M = 42.55$, $SD = 2.91$), although the effect size was very small (.095/0.03). These minor mean differences across gender groups appear to represent normal variation rather than significant distinctions. Regarding Emotional Exhaustion (EE), male faculty again scored slightly higher ($M = 17.75$, $SD = 1.55$) compared to female faculty ($M = 15.87$, $SD = 1.52$); nevertheless, the effect size (0.86/-0.00) shows that this difference was insignificant. Overall, the findings imply that gender does not play a meaningful role in influencing burnout levels among university faculty.

Table 10: University-Based Comparison of Burnout: Mean and Standard Deviation

| Scales | University | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
|--------|-------------------------|----------|-----------|
| EE | University of Education | 15.91 | 1.92 |
| | Superior University | 15.97 | 1.65 |
| PA | University of Education | 11.81 | 1.48 |
| | Superior University | 11.63 | 1.59 |
| D | University of Education | 16.27 | 1.69 |
| | Superior University | 15.52 | 1.82 |
| B | University of Education | 53.86 | 3.89 |
| | Superior University | 54.12 | 3.15 |

N=175

Table 10 indicates that Data from 87 University of Education faculty members and 87 Superior University faculty members, totaling 175 teachers, are shown in Table 10. The largest percentage of participants came from the University of Education. The results showed that teacher views of burnout did not differ significantly ($M = 54.12$, $SD = 3.15$). The average scores were as low as 11.63 ($SD = 1.59$) and as high as 16.27 ($SD = 1.69$).

Table 11: Department-Wise ANOVA Analysis of PDM

| Variables | | <i>Df</i> | <i>SS</i> | <i>MS</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>P</i> | η^2 |
|-----------|--------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| EE | Inter Groups | 5 | 7.543 | 1.50 | .49 | .78 | .003 |
| | Intra Groups | 145 | 2399.93 | 3.02 | | | |
| PA | Inter Groups | 5 | 24.72 | 4.94 | 2.09 | 0.64 | .002 |
| | Intra Groups | 145 | 1871.59 | 2.35 | | | |
| D | Inter Groups | 5 | 5.278 | 1.05 | 3.21 | .89 | .004 |
| | Intra Groups | 145 | 2586.00 | 3.25 | | | |
| B | Inter Groups | 5 | 22.27 | 4.45 | .51 | .76 | .007 |
| | Intra Groups | 145 | 682.17 | 8.59 | | | |

Table 11 provides a departmental comparison, showing no significant differences in instructors' average burnout scores ($F = .51$, $p = .76$) and a very small effect size (.007).

Table 12: Gender Differences in Perceptions of Organizational Climate

| Scale | Gender | <i>M</i> | <i>Sd</i> | <i>df</i> | <i>t</i> | <i>p</i> | Cohn's <i>d</i> /Effect size <i>r</i> |
|-------|--------|----------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|---------------------------------------|
| POU | M | 16.89 | 1.80 | 798 | 2.58 | .00 | 0.00/ -0.01 |
| | F | 15.05 | 1.67 | | | | |
| C | M | 14.99 | 1.02 | 798 | 1.48 | .19 | 0.01/ -0.01 |
| | F | 14.18 | 1.03 | | | | |
| L | M | 15.36 | 1.89 | 798 | 2.58 | .004 | 0.07/ -0.01 |
| | F | 16.60 | 1.95 | | | | |
| T | M | 15.41 | 1.68 | 798 | .591 | .555 | 0.00/ 0.00 |
| | F | 15.32 | 1.80 | | | | |

| | | | | | | | |
|-----|---|-------|------|-----|------|------|-------------|
| DM | M | 15.90 | 1.43 | 798 | .197 | .846 | 0.01/ 0.00 |
| | F | 15.88 | 1.58 | | | | |
| C | M | 18.90 | 1.91 | 798 | .254 | .000 | 0.05/ -0.01 |
| | F | 19.87 | 2.09 | | | | |
| JS | M | 11.98 | 1.43 | 798 | .919 | .358 | 0.06/ 0.03 |
| | F | 11.88 | 1.58 | | | | |
| M | M | 13.39 | 2.25 | 798 | .874 | .382 | 0.06/ -0.03 |
| | F | 13.53 | 2.13 | | | | |
| OCS | M | 46.95 | 2.86 | 798 | .35 | .00 | 0.06/ -0.03 |
| | F | 45.97 | 3.05 | | | | |

Table 12 shows that male faculty members recorded slightly higher scores on the Organizational Climate (OC) Scale ($M = 46.95$, $SD = 2.86$) compared to female faculty members ($M = 45.97$, $SD = 3.05$). Nonetheless, the small effect size (0.06/−0.03) indicates that this difference is more likely attributable to random variation than to a meaningful distinction. Looking at the sub-dimensions, male instructors obtained higher scores on UOE ($M = 16.89$, $SD = 1.80$) relative to female instructors ($M = 15.05$, $SD = 1.67$); however, the effect size once again reflected no significant difference (0.00/−0.01). For the remaining sub factors, gender-based differences were not statistically significant.

Table 13: University-Wise Distribution of OCS: Mean and Standard Deviation

| Scales | University | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
|--------|-------------------------|----------|-----------|
| POU | University of Education | 14.87 | 1.82 |
| | Superior University | 15.06 | 1.97 |
| C | University of Education | 15.39 | 1.84 |
| | Superior University | 16.13 | 1.64 |
| L | University of Education | 15.29 | 1.78 |
| | Superior University | 15.57 | 1.95 |
| T | University of Education | 16.22 | 1.63 |
| | Superior University | 15.48 | 1.69 |
| DM | University of Education | 15.98 | 1.67 |
| | Superior University | 15.96 | 1.45 |
| C | University of Education | 46.29 | 3.06 |
| | Superior University | 46.98 | 3.03 |
| JS | University of Education | 16.86 | 2.80 |
| | Superior University | 16.23 | 3.15 |
| M | University of Education | 15.48 | 1.69 |
| | Superior University | 14.86 | 1.63 |
| | University of Education | 46.06 | 2.73 |
| OCS | Superior University | 46.26 | 2.99 |

N=175

Table 13 presents the distribution of faculty members across universities, with a total sample of 175 participants, including 87 lecturers from the University of Education and 88 from the Superior University. Faculty at the University of the Education recorded slightly higher average scores on the

Organizational Climate Scale (OCS) compared to those from other institutions; however, this difference was not statistically significant ($M = 46.26$, $SD = 2.99$). Across the sub factors, mean scores ranged from 15.48 ($SD = 1.69$) to 16.22 ($SD = 1.63$), the latter representing the highest average observed.

Table 14: Department-Wise ANOVA Test of OCS

| Variables | | <i>Df</i> | <i>SS</i> | <i>MS</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>P</i> | η^2 |
|-----------|--------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| POU | Inter Groups | 4 | 10.29 | 2.06 | .19 | .85 | .003 |
| | Intra Groups | 145 | 3278.25 | 4.12 | | | |
| C | Inter Groups | 4 | 22.23 | 4.44 | .47 | .56 | .002 |
| | Intra Groups | 145 | 2392.48 | 3.01 | | | |
| L | Inter Groups | 4 | 28.029 | 7.007 | 1.90 | .00 | 0.009 |
| | Intra Groups | 145 | 2927.471 | 3.682 | | | |
| T | Inter Groups | 4 | 6.108 | 1.527 | .50 | .73 | 0.002 |
| | Intra Groups | 145 | 2409.887 | 3.031 | | | |
| DM | Inter Groups | 4 | 13.507 | 3.377 | 1.49 | .20 | 0.007 |
| | Intra Groups | 145 | 8404.75 | 10.57 | | | |
| C | Inter Groups | 4 | 18.943 | 6.314 | 2.09 | .09 | 0.007 |
| | Intra Groups | 145 | 2397.05 | 3.011 | | | |
| JS | Inter Groups | 4 | 9.660 | 3.220 | 1.42 | .23 | 0.005 |
| | Intra Groups | 145 | 1804.30 | 2.267 | | | |
| M | Inter Groups | 4 | 18.99 | 4.13 | .39 | .24 | .003 |
| | Intra Groups Inter | 145 | 2159.69 | 4.64 | | | |
| OCS | Groups | 4 | 86.269 | 17.25 | 1.93 | .57 | .007 |
| | Intra Groups | 145 | 6879.65 | 8.66 | | | |

Table 14 shows a small effect size (.007) and a minimal department-based difference in the OCS values of teachers' scores ($F=1.93$), ($p=.57$).

Discussion

This research investigated how organizational climate mediates the connection between human resource management (HRM) practices and faculty burnout in higher education institutions. The results indicated a strong positive linkage, suggesting that the organizational climate operates as a channel through which HRM practices affect burnout. In particular, within public universities, elements such as promotion policies, reward systems, and performance appraisals were found to be significantly influenced by the prevailing organizational environment. This underscores that HRM reforms achieve greater effectiveness when they align with institutional culture and the broader national context. Global challenges—such as inflation, unemployment, downsizing, and layoffs—have increasingly compelled universities in both developed and developing countries to utilize resources more efficiently (Kataria et al., 2023). As Bakker et al. (2021) argue, employee motivation and commitment remain crucial for institutional success. Core HR functions typically include recruitment, compensation, and training, while Wilson (2022) highlights that collaboration between HR professionals and senior leadership is essential in building trust and psychological safety. Within higher education, faculty members are regarded as valuable strategic assets, contributing long-term competitive advantage due to their expertise and non-substitutability (Wright et al., 2022). Our findings align with previous studies (Manzoor et al., 2019; Alsafadi & Altahat, 2021; Pamungkas & Wulandari, 2021), confirming the positive influence of HRM practices on employee job performance. In the Pakistani context,

sociocultural dynamics heavily influence HR practices. Litwin and Stringer (2022). emphasize that institutional perspectives help explain variations across countries. Organizational institutionalism, as described by Alsafadi and Altahat (2021) offers a useful framework for understanding these practices within broader cultural, historical, and structural contexts. Descriptive analysis divided faculty burnout into high, moderate, and low categories, with organizational climate acting as the mediating construct. Findings revealed that universities emphasized psychosocial aspects of the workplace, including autonomy, communication, and task clarity. However, collegial cohesion was relatively weak, with noticeable disparities in workload distribution, management control, and procedural transparency. Faculty members reported high levels of emotional exhaustion and reduced personal accomplishment, although depersonalization levels were comparatively lower. Differences in self-reported accomplishment may partially reflect social desirability bias. Based on the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), the results indicated that faculty experienced considerable burnout characterized by elevated exhaustion and depersonalization, along with diminished self-efficacy. The study further identified a significant relationship between organizational climate and teaching effectiveness across public and private universities. Public sector institutions were generally associated with more open and autonomous environments, while private institutions tended to display centralized and restrictive structures. Faculty performance was lower in paternalistic or closed climates compared to flexible and participatory ones. These results are consistent with Koys (2019) who argued that closed climates weaken collegial and administrative relationships, thereby hindering performance. Within public universities, administrative practices that promoted esprit and productivity were positively linked to faculty performance, whereas excessive formality and detachment had negative effects. Collegial intimacy showed a small but positive association with performance, while disengagement strongly predicted poor performance

Conclusions

Drawing on the statistical outcomes, this study investigated the link between Human Resource Management (HRM) practices and faculty burnout in universities, with organizational climate assessed as a mediating variable. To achieve the research objectives, both descriptive and inferential methods were applied, including independent-sample t-tests, one-way ANOVA, and linear regression. The findings revealed strong positive relationships among the key constructs. Regression analysis demonstrated that HRM practices played a significant role in lowering faculty burnout while also enhancing the organizational climate. In addition, organizational climate itself showed a positive association with burnout. Gender differences were evident through the t-test, with male faculty members expressing slightly stronger perceptions than their female counterparts. However, results from the one-way ANOVA indicated no meaningful differences in HRM practices or burnout across demographic categories such as age, department, institutional type, or academic qualifications when organizational climate was included as a mediating factor.

Recommendations

HRM policies should be culturally aligned to be more effective and reduce burnout.
 Supportive leadership and a positive organizational climate help lower teacher burnout.
 Wellness programs and counseling services are essential to prevent burnout.
 HR practices should be responsive to gender-based needs of faculty.
 Faculty involvement in decision-making and teamwork should be strengthened.
 Performance appraisal and reward systems must be fair and transparent.
 Continuous professional development keeps faculty motivated and productive.
 Workload should be monitored and adjusted to reduce job-related stress.

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