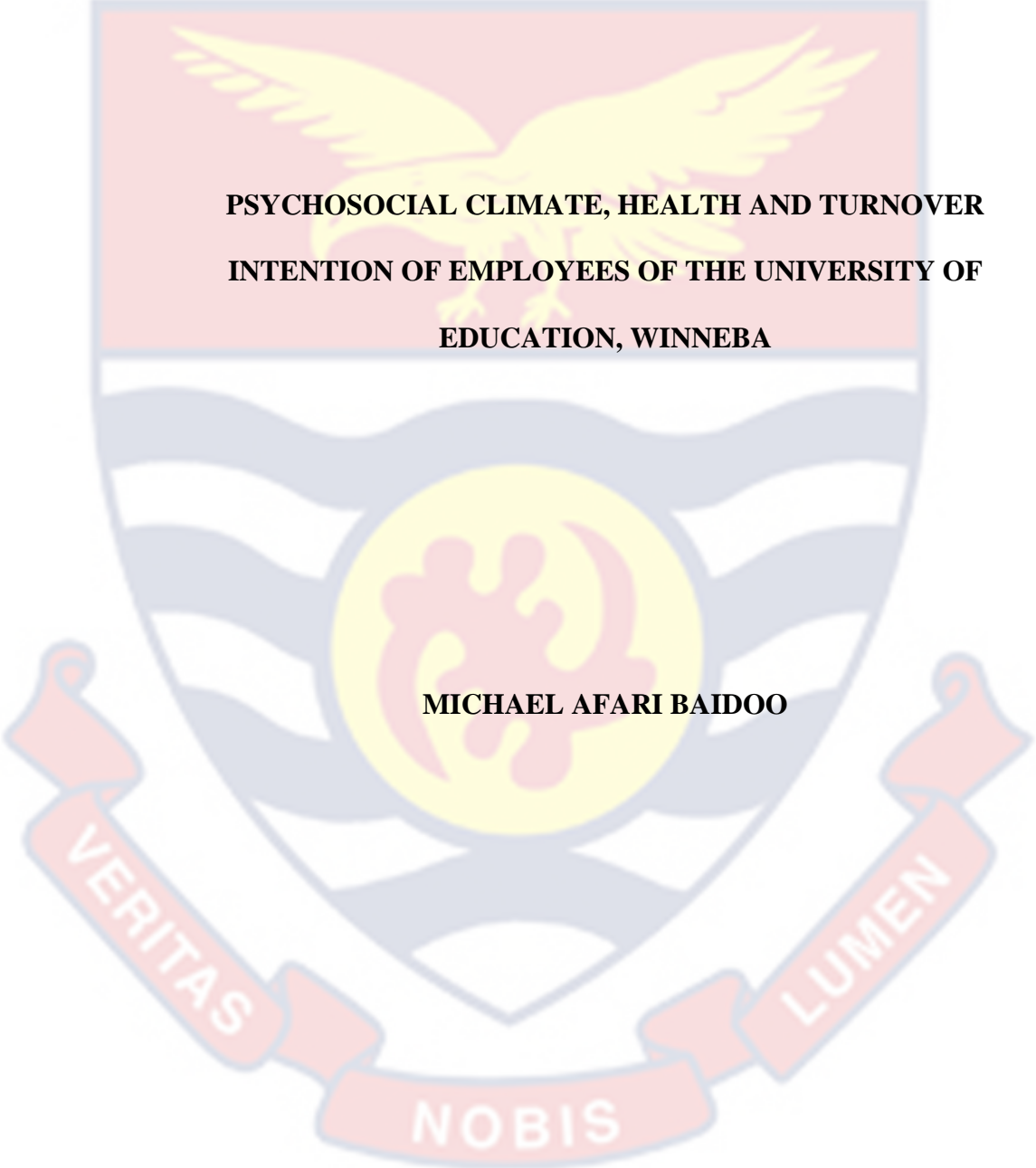


UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST



PSYCHOSOCIAL CLIMATE, HEALTH AND TURNOVER
INTENTION OF EMPLOYEES OF THE UNIVERSITY OF
EDUCATION, WINNEBA

MICHAEL AFARI BAIDOO

2022



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PSYCHOSOCIAL CLIMATE, HEALTH AND TURNOVER INTENTION
OF EMPLOYEES OF THE UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

BY

MICHAEL AFARI BAIDOO

Thesis submitted to the Department of Health, Physical Education and Recreation of the Faculty of Science and Technology Education, College of Education Studies, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy Degree in Health Promotion (Environmental and Occupational Health Promotion)

DECEMBER 2022

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature: Date:

Name: Michael Afari Baidoo

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature: Date:

Name: Prof. Samuel Essien-Baidoo

Co-Supervisor's Signature: Date:

Name: Dr. Edward Wilson Ansah

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the psychosocial climate of the University of Education, Winneba and how that affects the health and turnover intention of the employees. A cross-sectional survey was used for the study involving a sample size of 1,222 employees at the university. An instrument obtained from four already existing ones was used for data collection. The questionnaire generated composite reliabilities ranging from 0.920 to 0.968. Frequency counts and structural equation modelling (SEM) were employed for the data analysis. The findings of the study indicated a high level of burnout, discrimination, harassment, job demands, job decision latitude, social support (supervisor and co-worker support) and a moderate level of turnover intention among the workers engaged in the research. The predominant chronic health conditions among the workers were hypertension, diabetes, work-related stress, backache, eye injury, non-cardiac chest pain and repetitive strain with a prevalence of 19.0%, 14.3%, 54.0%, 35.9%, 12.3%, 1.6% and 2.5% respectively. Among the psychosocial factors, job demand, job decision latitude, and harassment significantly influenced the turnover intentions of the employees. Furthermore, two of the dimensions of burnout, thus, depersonalization and diminished personal accomplishment significantly influenced turnover intention. Therefore, it is vital that the management of the University of Education, Winneba consciously creates a positive work climate in such a way that it may reduce workload, discrimination, harassment, burnout and turnover intentions employees experience on their job.

KEYWORDS

Burnout

Health conditions

Health promotion interventions

Psychosocial climate

Turnover intention

University employees



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DEDICATION

To my wife and children, Nana Borsah Ackah, Maame Aba, Fosuwaa
and Papa Kwabedu



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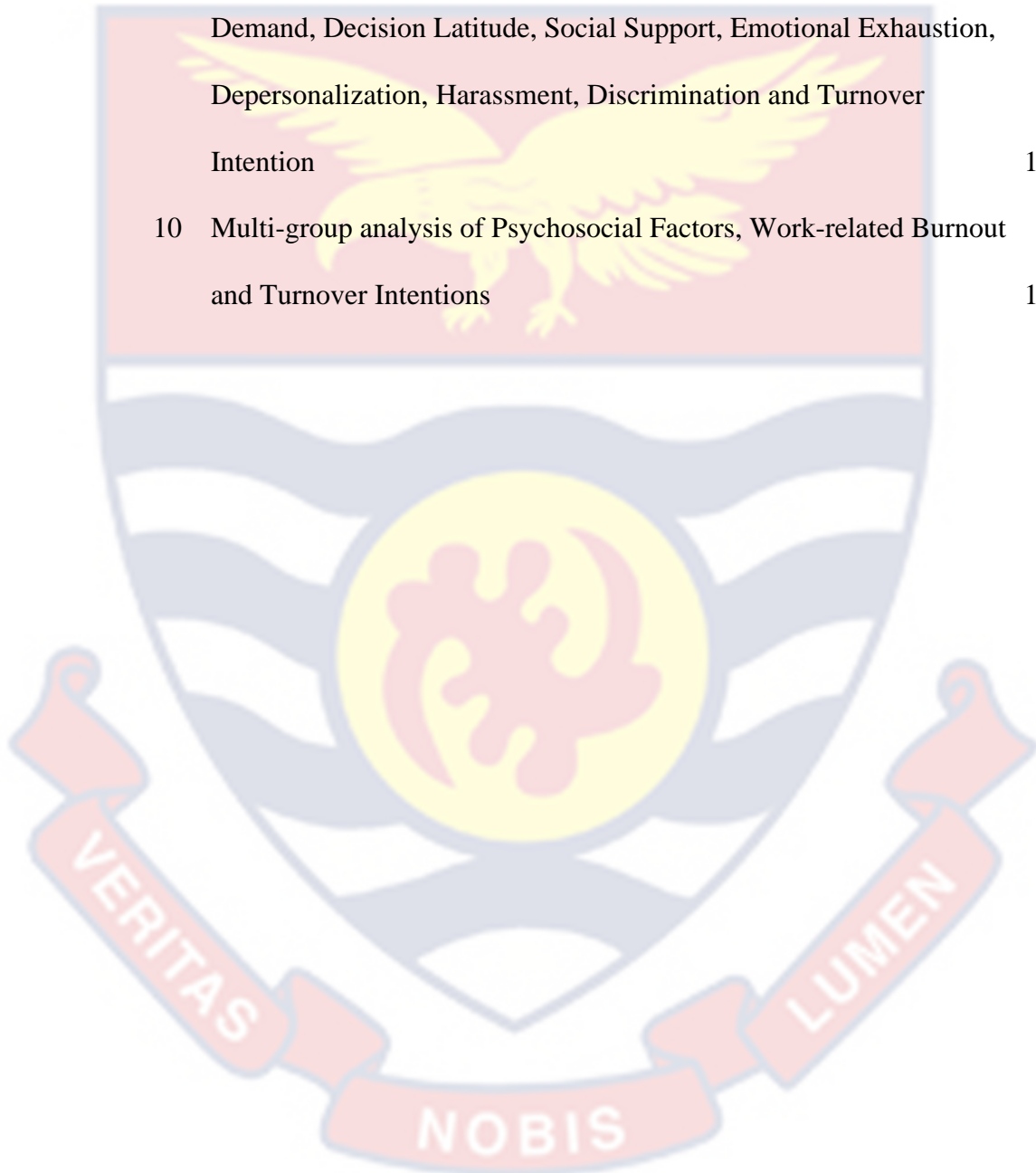
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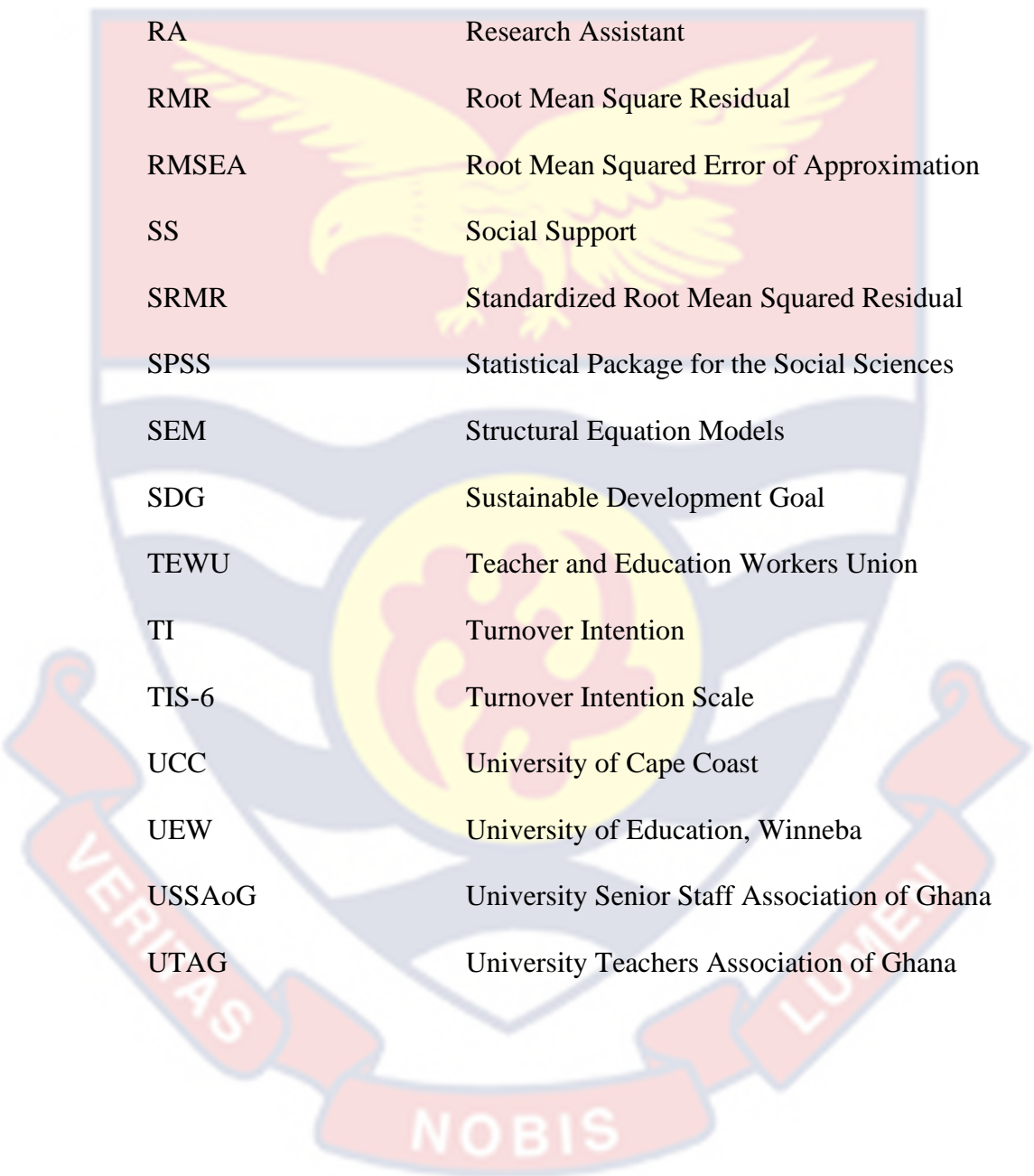


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LIST OF ACRONYMS

AGFI	Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index
ACEI	Angiotensin-converting Enzyme Inhibitors
AVE	Average variance extracted
BMI	Body Mass Index
CWDH	Chronic Work Discrimination and Harassment
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CR	Composite Reliability
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
DCSQ	Demand-Control-Support Questionnaire
DP	Depersonalization
DP	Diminished Accomplishment
D	Discrimination
EE	Emotional Exhaustion
FSHS	Free Senior High School
GAUA	Ghana Association of University Administrators
GES	Ghana Education Service
AGFI	Goodness of Fit Index
H	Harassment
IFI	Incremental Fit Index
IRB	Institutional Review Board
DL	Decision Latitude
JD	Job Demands
JD-C	Job Demands-Control
MBI-ES	Maslach Burnout Inventory - Educators Survey

The background of the page features a large, semi-transparent watermark of the University of Cape Coast logo. The logo is a shield-shaped crest with a yellow eagle with outstretched wings at the top. Below the eagle is a yellow circle containing a red silhouette of a person. The shield is flanked by two red banners with white text: 'VERITAS' on the left and 'LUMEN' on the right. At the bottom of the shield is a red banner with the word 'NOBIS' in white.

MSO	Musculoskeletal Disorders
NFI	Normed Fit Index
OHS	Occupational Health and Safety
PSC	Psychosocial Safety Climate
RA	Research Assistant
RMR	Root Mean Square Residual
RMSEA	Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation
SS	Social Support
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Squared Residual
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SEM	Structural Equation Models
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
TEWU	Teacher and Education Workers Union
TI	Turnover Intention
TIS-6	Turnover Intention Scale
UCC	University of Cape Coast
UEW	University of Education, Winneba
USSAoG	University Senior Staff Association of Ghana
UTAG	University Teachers Association of Ghana

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

The importance of a positive workplace climate transcends worker health to productivity and economic expansion, social and psychological improvement to increase worker morale to heightened overall organisational image and having competitive advantage (Kim, Kim, Newman, Ferris, & Perrewé, 2019). Psychosocial climate is the interaction between personal experiences (e.g., thoughts, emotions, and behaviour) and wider social experiences (e.g., relationships, tradition and culture) that influence behaviour and development in the workplace (Rugulies, 2018). Thus, work climate has a tremendous effect on health and subsequently affects workers whether they remain or leave the organisation. It is closely related to personal and social factors; and organizational systems. For example, the work demand at universities in Ghana has increased significantly in recent times because of the increase in enrolment at the pre-tertiary level. According to the World Bank (2020), university enrolment (% gross) in Ghana has increased to 15.69 % in 2018 compared with 6% in 2008. The increase in enrolment at the pre-tertiary level is likely to cause an increase in enrolment in universities as many qualified Senior High School (SHS) graduates continue to apply for admission.

The increase in numbers from the pre-tertiary level is because of the government's policy on Free Senior High School (FSHS) Education (Asumadu, 2019). Therefore, it is expected that such development would bring about

increased employment opportunities in the tertiary education sector, including recruitment of more lecturers, senior lecturers, associate professors and professors, administrators, technicians, artisans, drivers and orderlies to meet the demands being created as a result of increased intake of students. However, this is not the case as staff strength appears to remain constant with a rather increasing workload at their various offices.

Despite the positive advances that Ghana's tertiary education sector is undergoing, there are many challenges that the personnel who work in the institutions must endure. For example, the psychosocial factors including the way work is carried out such as meeting deadlines, workload, work method and the context in which work is performed, relationships and interactions with principals, deans, heads of departments, coworkers and students are increasing and becoming more complex. For instance, academic employees such as lecturers, senior lecturers, associate professors and professors have to teach for long hours, undertake scholarly activities and also perform administrative and community services. Additionally, academic staffs are responsible for preparing students for competitions such as those in student associations, congresses and inter-level competitions, student counselling and fresh student admission processes may present an overload of work.

Nonacademic employees, according to Johnson, Willis and Evans (2019) often perform highly demanding tasks based on instructions from their superiors without any control which exposes them to work overload. Some of the tasks nonacademic staffs perform include registration of students, report writing and

preparation of annual meeting schedules and academic calendars. Again, supporting staff are expected to keep all staff and students' records and information, process advertisements for admissions and issue admission letters to potential students. Admittedly, excessive workload, less job autonomy, strained relationships among coworkers, discrimination and psychological demands of the workplace can affect the health, safety and well-being of employees of the universities.

One core duty of the academic staff which has the potential of distressing their health and general well-being is teaching. Teaching at the university is a difficult task and requires a high level of dedication to be successful. There is therefore the need for proper research, preparation of the lesson, punctuality and the use of appropriate teaching methodology for impactful lecturing. It also involves the evaluation of students through tests, assignments and examinations, and marking of scripts and the production of results. Alongside teaching, academic staff act as counsellors, examination officers, directors, heads of departments, deans, and provosts for undergraduate and graduate students (Boyko & Jones, 2010). Some academic staff could rise to become Vice-Chancellors and Pro Vice-Chancellors who are members of the university governing council entrusted with the power and authority to steer the affairs of the institution. In addition, academic staff are expected to attend academic conferences and present papers, write papers, books and publish articles for their promotion and the visibility of their respective institutions (Bampoh-Addo & Abedi-Boafo, 2014).

Most often, the extra academic works tend to increase the workload of faculty members.

The supporting or nonacademic staff such as administrators, artisans, drivers, technicians, and labourers sit for long hours performing administrative tasks and related activities. The resultant effects of the workload on employees of the university are stress-related discomforts such as musculoskeletal disorders (MSO), burnout, diabetes, high blood pressure, backache, eye injury, chest pains and strain injury. Moreover, during the recent coronavirus (Covid-19) pandemic when it became necessary that universities resort to virtual modes of teaching delivery, staff became more burdened, especially older workers who are not conversant with the use of online teaching tools (Sun, Tang, & Zuo, 2020). Thus, the efficiency and effectiveness of employees in performing their basic duty is mostly not guaranteed in the face of too much workload. This is because generally, most employees work effectively when the workload is within their capacity. For instance, work done by Gregory and Lodge (2015) has shown that the workload on university employees is heavy and that during particular peak times when their workload exceeds their capacity to manage, it significantly impacts both their teaching effectiveness and efficiency.

An excessive workload that creates stress results in a loss of concentration, which affects performance. Gregory et al. maintain that most often, university employees carry over official duties to the home which also results in work-family conflict that can lead to the development of deviant behaviour among workers (Wiegel, Sattler, Göritz, & Diewald, 2016). According to Wiegel et al.

(2016), such deviant behaviours include lateness, absenteeism, poor decision-making, bad judgment, nagging, sleeping on duty, insults, threats, sabotage, physical violence, and burnout. Again, too much work in quantity and quality that demands thinking can lead to restlessness and sleeplessness in the bid to accomplish the tasks, and can also lead to role conflict, frustration, emotional exhaustion, cynicism and poor personal accomplishment i.e. burnout (Zábrowská, Mudrák, Šolcová, Květon, & Blatný, 2018).

The psychosocial climate of the universities becomes very important in the face of increasing student enrolment, academic-administrative duties, the quest to work hard for promotion, the fast-changing mode of lesson delivery and the general leading to work overload (Essiam, Mensah, Kudu, & Gyamfi, 2015). Thus, too many of these may negatively influence health and turn away many employees. The American Psychological Association (2002) opined that regardless of how much an employee is paid if the work environment is not friendly, supportive, safe, healthy and non-discriminatory, workers may resign and move to other institutions. Perhaps, a low level of psychosocial climate can contribute to some diseases that can impede the employee from achieving work effectiveness. It can lead to long-term suffering of employees, with the worker intending to leave (turnover intention). In the worst-case scenario, a low level of psychosocial climate may result in severe ill health conditions, which in itself can result in turnover or intention to leave.

The turnover intention of employees refers to the likelihood of an employee leaving his/her current job (Ngamkroekjot, Ounprechanit, &

Kijboonchoo, 2012). Regardless of its location, size, or character, every institution, including universities, needs to be constantly worried about employee turnover and turnover intention. In many organisations, turnover is a major problem because it has an impact on profitability, product, service quality, and productivity (Kumar, 2011). Similarly, Shamsuzzoha and Shumon (2013) noted that turnover is a known, expensive, and seemingly unsolvable human resource concern that many institutions throughout the world face. According to Gyensare (2016) turnover drives up costs for institutions in terms of hiring and selecting staff, training new staff, and, most importantly, losing knowledge acquired by employees while on the job. Turnovers may have more damaging effects in higher education institutions like universities. When employee turnover is this high, the money spent over the years on hiring and developing workers of high calibre is wasted. Additionally, a high personnel turnover rate in universities detracts from the motivation of current workers, increases workloads, and complicates work planning, particularly in areas with significant student populations and a desire for high-quality research output.

Even though personnel turnover is a costly expense for universities, Habib (2015) noted that it is impossible to completely avoid it. It can be advantageous for the institution because it might open up opportunities for it to hire new staff members with innovative ideas to enhance its activities. So, a healthy turnover rate is always desired by the top management of universities to ensure healthy innovative growth of the institution. When turnover is too low, fresh blood and new ideas are lacking and the university can quickly find itself turning into “an

ageing machine’’, unable to cope with contemporary changes (Loquercio, Hammersley, & Emmens, 2016). Therefore, certain universities accept a relatively moderate level of staff turnover because it keeps the institution dynamic and at a certain reasonable level of competition (Figueron, 2015). Some staff turnover is helpful and can boost productivity by improving the match between jobs and workers and providing more freedom to promote and develop dependable employees (Loquercio et al., 2016).

The University of Education, Winneba (UEW) is a public university in Ghana. The institution has always had a conducive work atmosphere for academic and non-academic activities to take place. However, recent disturbances in the university could have negative implications on the work atmosphere thereby affecting the university in fulfilling its mandates (Ofori, 2020). The UEW has the mandate to train teachers, educational administrators and other cadres of staff in the educational sector. The university has two campuses with over forty study centres through distance learning covering the entire country. The faculty members who teach, supervise, and mentor regular students are mostly the same staff who travel across the country almost every week to teach and offer administrative services at these distance-learning centres (Larkai, Ankomah-Asare, & Nsowah-Nuamah, 2016). Thus, the likelihood of these senior faculty members facing psychosocial issues such as workload, job decision latitude, relationships and provision of resources and discrimination could be high. In such circumstances, the health and safety of these categories of staff could be compromised leading to ineffectiveness on their job and high level of turnover

intentions. Thus, effective management of the psychosocial climate within the university would go a long way in decreasing workload, stress, discrimination, and associated health issues, making university personnel more successful in carrying out their jobs.

Statement of the Problem

Psychosocial work climate often includes aspects of the job and work environments such as organizational climate, work roles, job decision latitude, interpersonal relationships at work, and the design and content of tasks (e.g., variety, meaning, scope, repetitiveness). In addition, it encompasses factors outside of the workplace that may have an impact on an employee's employment and health, such as home demands and a worker's personality and views (Rugulies, 2018). The psychosocial climate of a workplace presents new and subtle threats to the health of an employee with a possible risk of somatic cardiovascular disease, stress and turnover intentions. According to Weinberg, Bond, Cooper and Sutherland (2010), these have been necessitated by increasing workload, unavailability of job resources, strained relationships among coworkers, discrimination and psychological demands of the workplace as may be the case among university senior faculty members (Essiam et al., 2015).

Idris, O'Driscoll and Anderson (2011) reported that the economic implications of job-related stress on universities' academic work could lead to lowered productivity, dissatisfaction and poor physical health. Most often, university management emphasizes academic excellence, responsibility, accountability and competitiveness, increasing the level of academic stress with

attendant absenteeism, presenteeism, tardiness and rising turnover. Pucciarelli and Kaplan (2016) opined that university employees are likely to face more problems in their job as their management would be setting new goals to survive the increasing pressure and competition from other universities. For instance, Kusi, Mensah and Gyaki (2014) and Martin (2014) observed that job stress has become a major issue for most universities in Ghana, as many of their employees are ageing and the job demand keeps on increasing because of high student enrolment (Atuahene, 2014). In the 2012/2013 academic year, the total student enrolment for UEW was 43, 460. However, in the 2019/2020 academic year the total student enrolment rose to 83,963, an almost 100 percent increase in enrolment in 5 years (UEW, 2021). Meanwhile, in the same period, the staff strength and resources remained barely the same.

Since 2017, the UEW has been in some institutional crisis (Ofori, 2020). The institution has been plagued with a myriad of controversies and disturbances taking the center stage in both traditional news media and most importantly, online news portals in Ghana (Ofori, 2020). Key among the issues has been the suspension, demotion, dismissal and transfer of some principal officers including the Vice-Chancellor and the finance officer. A violent demonstration by some students rocked the university because of the suspension, demotion and dismissal at the Winneba and Ajumako campuses. These violent protests ultimately led to the temporary closure of the aforementioned campuses by the Central Regional Security Council on March 14, 2019, and students were asked to vacate the

respective campuses (Ofori, 2020). It is believed that this affected the psychosocial climate of the university.

Evidence suggests that in such an unstable workplace and too much workload, there is a likelihood of stress, alienation, discrimination, harassment, bullying, and intimidation (Oleksiyenko, 2018). Such a workplace creates fear, anxiety and other serious psycho-emotional and physical health consequences for the employees (Kakumba, Wamala, & Wanyama, 2014; McKay et al., 2008). Preliminary information from the University's clinic indicates that work-related illness in the university is causing a loss of hundreds of working days in a year. Moreover, the workers report eye injuries, muscular disorders including back pain and repetitive strain injury and acute respiratory infections such as chest pains, and high BP (Wiegel et al., 2016). However, there seem to be no available research findings from the university on the psychosocial climate. A few studies on worker psychosocial climate in Ghana have concentrated on unregulated worker groups like fuel station attendants (Ansah, 2017; Ansah, Mintah & Ogah, 2018; Ansah & Ofosuhenne, 2020). Furthermore, there appears to be no available literature on how psychosocial climate affect the workers of academic institution intention of leaving their job.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the psychosocial climate of the University of Education, Winneba and how that affects the health and turnover intention of the employees.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

1. What are some of the prevalent chronic health conditions among employees of the University of Education, Winneba?
2. What are the levels of burnout, discrimination, harassment, turnover intention, job demands, job decision latitude and social support (supervisor and co-worker support) among employees of the University of Education, Winneba?
3. What organizational measures are there to protect and promote the health and psychosocial safety climate of the workers and the University of Education, Winneba?
4. What is the extent to which psychosocial factors influence burnout of employees of the University of Education, Winneba?
5. What is the extent to which burnout and psychosocial factors predict the turnover intention of employees of the University of Education, Winneba?

Significance of the Study

Issues related to psychosocial climate and its influence on the health of employees are critical in determining whether employees would stay or leave an organization. The imperative of safeguarding labour rights and advancing safe and secure working environments for all workers, particularly women and those in precarious employment is underscored by Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 8, Target 8. Similarly, SDG 3 calls for promoting wellbeing and ensuring healthy lives for people of all ages. Since a section of the employees of UEW

such as technicians, health professionals and sanitary workers use chemicals and reagent which may be harmful to their health, it is important for the management of UEW to ensure they are fully protected and healthy. The SDG 3, Target 9 emphasizes that by 2030, there should be a significant decrease in the number of fatalities and diseases caused by dangerous chemicals as well as pollution and contamination of the air, water, and soil. The significance of this study, therefore, lies in its ability to document the nature of the psychosocial climate that prevails in the university and how that is affecting the health status of the employees.

The study would help employees of UEW become more aware of the work environment and help them make an informed decision on job-related issues which could have an effect on their health, safety and general well-being. Furthermore, the findings of the study would enable leaders of employee unions such as the University Teachers Association of Ghana (UTAG), Ghana Association of University Administrators (GAUA), University Senior Staff Association of Ghana (USSAoG) and Teacher and Education Workers Union (TEWU) of the university to advocate for improved working conditions on behalf of their members, realizing that an environment that is conducive to employee well-being and reduced employee stress would, over time, result in a more engaged workforce that is also healthier as emphasized in MDG 8. Moreover, it is anticipated that the study's conclusions would help the management of the university regarding the psychosocial climate to prioritize the health of the employees through policy-making in the university.

Delimitation

The study was delimited to using a descriptive cross-sectional survey design to examine the associations among psychosocial factors such as job demands, job decision latitude, social support (supervisor and co-worker support), discrimination, harassment and employee health (burnout) and turnover intention. Furthermore, it was delimited to using only pre-existing survey instruments for data collection. Again, only percentages, means, standard deviation and structural equation models were statistical tools used for the data analysis.

Additionally, the study was delimited to surveying employees of UEW. The population of the university includes Senior Members (Academic), Senior Members (Non-Academic), Senior Staff and Junior Staff. Moreover, only full-time, confirmed employees of the university took part in the study. Part-time and casual employees were not included. Employees involved in the study included lecturers, administrators, technicians, accountants, health professionals, artisans, drivers and orderlies. Also, background information included in the study were age, gender, years of work and educational level.

Limitations

Looking at the personal and sensitive nature of psychosocial factors and health conditions, I recognize that there may be some under-reporting, misrepresentations and misinformation by respondents, especially in answering the research instrument. Even though the study offers significant explorative intuitions into some of the key experiences of employees, it may not be a wholly accurate measure for generalizing the psychosocial climate of UEW. Recognition

of the differences may exist in the qualification, nature of work and experiences of the employee. Moreover, the results, findings and conclusions of the study are only representative of the participants who agreed to take part in the study and not the entire workforce of the university. This is because not every employee of the university took part in the study.

Definition of Terms

Psychosocial Climate: The interaction between personal experiences (e.g., thoughts, emotions, and behaviour) and wider social experiences (e.g., relationships, tradition and culture) that influence behaviour and development in the workplace (Rugulies, 2018).

Health: A state of balance, an equilibrium that an individual has established within himself and between himself and his social and physical environment (Sartorius, 2006).

Workload: Refers to the intensity of job assignments (Nwinyokpugi, 2018).

Job decision latitude: The control an employee has over how, when, and where work is performed (Fagerlind, Gustavsson, Johansson, & Ekberg, 2013).

Resource: Any factor that is necessary to accomplish a goal or carry out an activity (McConnell, Brue, & Flynn, 2011).

Social Support: The extent to which supervisors/ coworkers value their employees' or colleagues' contributions and care about their well-being (Gordon, Tang, Day, & Adler, 2019).

Burnout: A state of emotional, physical, and mental exhaustion caused by excessive and prolonged stress (Maslach, 2017).

Emotional exhaustion: A feeling of emotional depletion from one's job (Leiter, & Maslach, 2009).

Depersonalization: Refers to a disinterested attitude toward one's job (Leiter, & Maslach, 2009).

Diminished Personal Accomplishment: A feeling of lack of achievement at work (Maslach, 2017).

Discrimination: An unfair or prejudicial treatment of people and groups based on characteristics such as race, tribe, gender, age or sexual orientation (Krieger, 2014).

Harassment: Any unreasonable recurrent behaviour towards an employee or group of employees, which often serves as a source of health and security risk (Ezer et al., 2012).

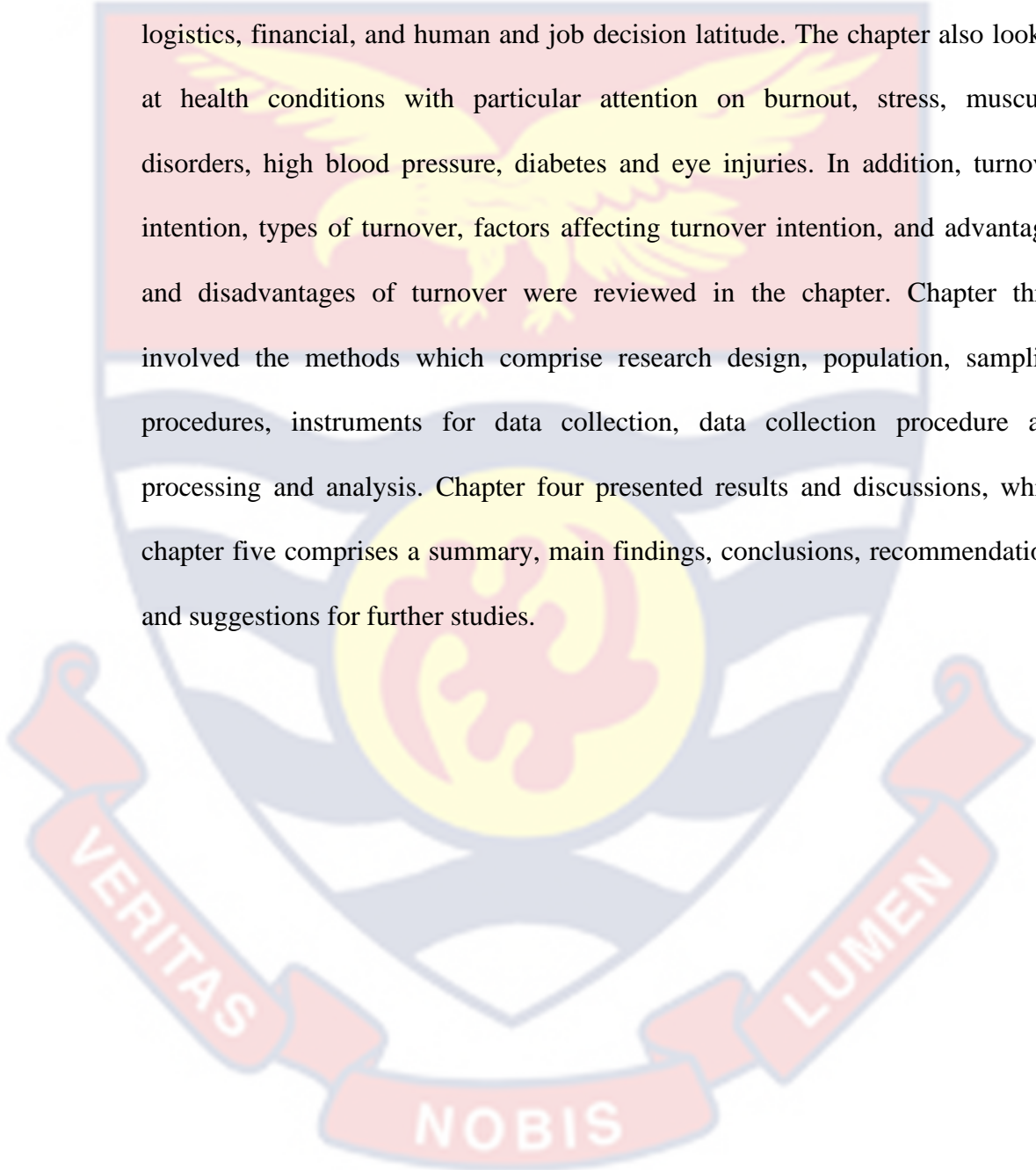
Turnover Intention: The likelihood of an employee leaving the current job he/she is doing (Varshney, 2014).

Employee: An individual who has been hired by an organization to do a specific job (Dau-Schmidt, Finkin, & Covington, 2016).

Organization of the Study

The thesis was organized into five chapters, one, two, three, four and five. Chapter one contained the background to the study, a statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, research questions, significance of the study, delimitation, limitations and definition of terms. Chapter two dealt with the review of literature related to the research topic. It focused on the framework, physical workplace environment, and workload for teaching, travelling,

supervision and extra-curricular activities. The review also focused on discrimination in appointment, promotion, sex, age and tribe, workplace harassment, supervisor and coworker support, and provision of job resources like logistics, financial, and human and job decision latitude. The chapter also looked at health conditions with particular attention on burnout, stress, muscular disorders, high blood pressure, diabetes and eye injuries. In addition, turnover intention, types of turnover, factors affecting turnover intention, and advantages and disadvantages of turnover were reviewed in the chapter. Chapter three involved the methods which comprise research design, population, sampling procedures, instruments for data collection, data collection procedure and processing and analysis. Chapter four presented results and discussions, whilst chapter five comprises a summary, main findings, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further studies.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

The purposes of this study were to: (1) identify the prevalence of chronic health conditions among employees of the University of Education, Winneba, (2) investigate the levels of burnout, discrimination, harassment, turnover intention, job demands, job decision latitude and social support (supervisor and co-worker support) among these employees (3) identify the measures put in place to protect and promote the health and psychosocial safety climate of the workers and the university (4) examine the extent to which psychosocial factors influence burnout on health and wellbeing and (5) explore the extent to which burnout and psychosocial factors predict turnover intention among the workers. This chapter reviews literature related to the research topic. It focused on the theoretical framework, conceptual framework, physical work environment, workload in teaching, supervision and those arising from extra curriculum activities. The review also looked at issues of harassment and discrimination in appointment, promotion, gender, age and tribe, supervisor and coworker support, job decision latitude, provision of job resources and logistics such as those related to human workforce and job-related financial demands. In addition, literature was reviewed on health conditions like stress and burnout, muscular disorders, high blood pressure, diabetes and eye injuries, turnover intention and factors affecting turnover intention, and the advantages and disadvantages of turnover.

Physical Work Environment

A conducive work environment is an essential setting for workers as they spend the majority of their wake hours there. According to Odongo, Wang, Suntu and Bishoge (2019), a productive workplace is one where employees can produce the outcomes that management demands. The interactions between employees and how they perform their assigned duties in an institution are greatly influenced by the existing physical environment. Physical environment as part of the work environment does not only affect employee interaction but also has a direct bearing on the physiological makeup of the employee i.e., how they think, behave and understand issues related to their work. The fact is that the conditions of an office or a conference room within the institution have an effect on the decision-making process concerning job-related matters and job satisfaction levels. Thus, the physical work environment of any institution can determine to a large extent the comfort and happiness of its employees.

Employers can achieve the best output for their employees when the right work environment is assured. An ideal physical work environment is generally observed to have some elements of nature such as trees, birds, air and man-made i.e., buildings, tables, chairs, and light, creating the needed conducive work environment. For example, a study by Hughes, Lee, Tian Newman and Legood (2018), demonstrated that among any group of 10 workers nine (9) responded that the conduciveness in their work environment positively affects their work output. Accordingly, in a noisy, poorly ventilated and inadequate illuminated environment, employees feel unsafe and uncomfortable. This creates an unhealthy

working environment that affects the general well-being of employees and also leads to a reduction in productivity (Alegbeleye, Unegbu, & Gbemi-Ogunleye, 2020). Song et al. (2019) opined that work involves a setting in which the worker performs his work without any difficulty.

The physical working environment could also have an impact on the psychological well-being of employees. For an employee to be psychologically stable, the physical work environment must be ideal. Wells and Klocko (2018) believe the working environment must not only be limited to working conditions created by the interaction of employees with their institutional climate but must include psychological as well as physical working conditions. This has been supported by Landsbergis, Grzywacz and LaMontagne (2014) who thinks working condition refers to all circumstances impacting employees in the workplace, including job hours, physical requirements, legal rights and obligations, organizational climate, and workload.

The working conditions need to be very important to the institution as they contribute largely to the growth and sustainability of the institution, especially in the contemporary corporate atmosphere (Raziq & Maulabakhsh, 2015). Therefore, if the employee negatively perceives their working environment, they are more likely to miss work, suffer from stress-related illnesses, and exhibit lower levels of productivity and dedication. However, institutions that have a sociable, trusting, and safe environment, experience greater productivity, communication, creativity, and financial health (Roh, Son, & Kim, 2018). As stated by Rudolph and Baltes (2017) the health of employees has a direct link to

the physical working environment which in turn determines the rate of absenteeism, retention, and the adoption of new methods and technologies.

The university physical work environment in modern times is continuously changing due to technology. Unlike the olden days when most of the activities were manually done, currently, the physical workspace of the university is dominated by electronic items which aid university employees in their work. The typical traditional work relationship where employees always relied on the university management for almost everything about their physical work environment has gradually changed (Howells, Karataş-Özkan, Yavuz, & Atiq, 2014). Therefore, university employees have now become more proactive in creating a physical work environment which enables them to work wholeheartedly. This according to Smith (2011) has brought about an environment where employees of universities have become major stakeholders in the affairs of the university.

Employee Workload

University employees may need to challenge themselves with different assignments to maintain their interest, and motivation and develop new skills. It is however important that these assignments do not exceed the employee's ability to function. The overall assignments to be completed by an employee in a given time is what Ladyshefsky and Taplin (2018) describe as the workload. Employee workload in a university differs depending on educational qualification, position and section of work (Kenny, 2018). Ryan, Burgess, Connell and Groen (2013) noted academic employees have a core duty to teach, undertake scholarly

activities and also perform administrative and community services. However, taking up additional duties such as preparing students for competitions such as those in student associations, congresses and inter-level competitions, student counselling and fresh students' admission processes may present an overload of work. In addition, nonacademic employees, according to Johnson and Willis (2019) often perform highly demanding tasks based on instructions from their superiors without any control which exposes them to work overload. Johnson et al. (2019) noted that the degree of control that employees have determines whether they experience work overload and how they cope with it. In general, too much workload negatively affects employees in their fulfilment and functioning at work (Khamisa, Peltzer, Ilic, & Oldenburg, 2017). Soomro, Breitenecker and Shah (2018) believe this often makes employees dissatisfied and unhappy.

Work overload is noted to stress employees at various workplaces including universities (Havermans et al., 2018). Evidence indicates that the workloads of academic, general, support, library and technical staff of universities are increasing and that the overall quality of working life for many university workers is declining (Tytherleigh, Webb, Cooper, & Ricketts, 2005). In the same study, many of the workers surveyed felt that their work was almost always stressful and feared that the trend could continue if not made worse some time to come. For example, Archibong, Bassey, and Effiom (2010) who worked on occupational stress sources among university academic staff showed that the relationship between workload pressure and job stress is significant with ($p=0.001$). Archibong et al. further indicate that the direction of the associations is

positive, implying that the more work is given to the academician, the possibility of the worker facing job stress.

Excessive workload could also affect the job satisfaction level of employees. Houston, Meyer and Paewai (2006), Ahsan, Abdullah and Fie (2009) and Manzoor, Usman and Naseem (2011) reported that workload had a significant effect on job satisfaction. Similarly, Melin, Astvik, and Bernhard-Oettel (2014) investigated the relationship among the work conditions in higher education work settings, the academic staff's strategies for handling excessive workload and the impact on well-being and work-life balance. Melin et al. (2014) concluded that there is a risk that staff in academic workplaces would start using compensatory coping strategies to deal with excessive demands and that this might seriously impair their health. However, in assessing the relationship between subjective workload and job satisfaction among faculty and staff members of universities, it was reported that the staff's workload had no significant effects on their job satisfaction (Zamanian et al., 2016).

Employee workload has also been identified as one of the organizational risk factors of burnout. In a study to examine the influence of mental workload on job performance, Omolayo and Omole (2013) reported that there is no significant relationship between mental workload and job performance but a significant association exists between the level of mental workload of academic staff compared to non-academic workers. Also, the findings indicated that male workers do not exhibit a greater mental workload compared to their female counterparts.

Supervisor and Coworker Support

It is generally observed that most workers spend a lot of their wake time at the workplace. It is therefore important they have, at least, a decent relationship with supervisors and coworkers because cordial and friendly workplace relationships can make going to work a pleasure. Support from supervisors and coworkers at any institution is very important in ensuring the physical, social and mental well-being and development of employees. University work environments are designed such that coworkers and supervisors interact and support each other. The assistance each worker receives, such as prodding on matters of health and safety, as well as the quantity and quality of the materials they have access to, are examples of how the support may seem (Lanciano, & Zammuner, 2014). However, this is often overlooked by university employees and supervisors. In the opinion of Charoensukmongkol, Moqbel, Gutierrez-Wirsching and Shankar (2016), the lack of support for growth and advancement by coworkers and supervisors is a major source of work stress in universities.

Supporting employees will boost positive emotions and morale, and improve work satisfaction because the university workplace is evolving quickly. On the other side, a lack of support will lead to uncertainty, tension, and other negative emotions that affect productivity and work efficiency. According to Gordon et al. (2019), supervisor support reflects how much leaders value the contributions of their workers and are concerned about their welfare. Support from the supervisor helps employees feel heard, cared for, and respected (Gordon et al., 2019). Supervisors who are regarded as supportive are good at controlling

the emotions of their employees. A study by Liu et al. (2018) found that treating employees with compassion and care was positively correlated with their affective commitment.

Admittedly, supervisors are directly responsible for leading, assessing, and encouraging their subordinates because they represent the organization. As a result, employees see supervisory assistance as an extension of organizational support (Guchait, Cho, & Meurs, 2015; Rofcanin, Las Heras, & Bakker, 2017). Also, according to organizational support theory, the behaviour of an organization's agents (supervisor) might reveal the intentions of management (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Immediate supervisors are frequently the closest organizational contact to the employees and can express the organization's aims to their subordinates directly. In addition, supervisors also assist employees in projecting the organization to outsiders.

Strong or weak supervisor support has been shown to affect employees in several ways. For example, Goh, Ilies and Wilson (2015) found that strong supervisor support helps in the reduction of burnout and intentions to quit. Similarly, Alkhateri, Abuelhassan, Khalifa, Nusari, and Ameen (2018) found that supervisor support was the best predictor of job satisfaction and intention to quit. However, Gordon et al. (2019) found that low levels of supervisor support were associated with increased turnover.

Support from supervisors is also regarded as a precursor to and a result of perceived organizational support. A study by Jin and McDonald (2017) offers evidence that there is a causal link between supervisory support to perceived

organizational support. Moreover, supervisors help their employees comprehend and appreciate work practices, policies, and guidelines. These duties of the supervisors result in a deeper interaction between them and their subordinates, and they affect how the staff members view the work environment (Kumako, & Asumeng, 2013). Walker's (2007) study with workers from a South African construction firm indicated that a favourable work environment can be shaped by site supervisors, who are the direct leaders. Accordingly, these site supervisors create work settings by which staff may perceive the management team as prioritizing their well-being over other issues or otherwise. In such an environment, psychosocial climate perception would be high (Dollard, 2012), consequently easing the burden of daily work obligations (Nguyen, Teo, Grover, & Nguyen, 2017). A similar study by Kouabenan, Nguetsa and Mbaye (2015) highlighted how supervisors influence how subordinates perceive the work environment. Their findings among shift managers demonstrated that supervisor encouragement had a greater impact on perceptions of the work environment than did the opinions of senior management. According to Dollard et al. (2012b), through the mediating channels of job resources and demands, the psychosocial environment is related to worker health outcomes (psychological distress, emotional exhaustion, and physical health) as well as work outcomes (job satisfaction, absenteeism, and presenteeism).

On the other hand, Qi, Liu, Wei, and Hu (2019) opine that the causation works the other way around, with higher perceptions of organizational support leading to higher perceptions of supervisor support among employees. As a result,

workers frequently assume that the organizational support strength is directly related to the motivational factors the supervisor exhibit. For instance, a poll conducted by the American Psychological Association in 2017 found that employees whose managers do not support and encourage their career advancement have low organizational commitment. Less than half (48%) of working Americans without supervisor support believe they are motivated to give their best effort at work. Additionally, more than half of American workers asserted they do not trust their organisation and want to look for employment elsewhere in the absence of supervisor support. The important organisational outcome is therefore directly linked to carrier development support by supervisors.

The impact coworkers may have on each other is profound. Coworkers' influence may be much stronger than that of supervisors. Coworkers may support or be hostile toward one another, which can have an effect or influence on workers in both positive and bad ways (Kim & Yun, 2015). Zaitouni and Ouakouak (2018) explain that the support (or lack thereof) of coworkers can affect how workers see their roles, their attitudes toward their jobs, and their effectiveness. When employees are unclear about what to do, their coworkers can frequently be a valuable source of knowledge for them. Coworkers may share information to encourage or discourage particular behaviours (Wang, Pbert, & Lemon, 2014). To Wang et al., this can be especially helpful for lowering confusion regarding an employee's anticipated function within the institution. Support from coworkers can also lessen role conflict (directly incompatible

duties) and role overload [excessive demands given the available resources] (Creary & Gordon, 2016). In a friendly workplace where coworkers support one another, psychological distress and emotional and physical working demands are also typically under control (Oxenstierna, Widmark, Finnholm, & Elofsson, 2008).

Coworkers can also influence employees' attitudes and opinions. Support from coworkers is frequently linked to high levels of job satisfaction, interest in work, and a deeper sense of dedication to one's institution. When teammates offer task-based assistance, knowledge, or emotional support, it can improve work attitudes (Ariani, 2015). A study by Lee, Byun and Kim (2021) revealed coworker support can decrease unproductive workplace behaviours and employee withdrawal (such as arriving to work late, working slowly on purpose, verbally abusing coworkers, etc.) and promote organizational citizenship behaviours (i.e., altruistic helping, not taking extra breaks, obeying the rules even when no one is watching, etc.). In the end, Zaitouni and Ouakouak (2018), believe coworker help can boost individual performance by giving "essential information" on the structure and task procedures.

Workplace relationships can have a significant impact on employee and organizational performance, both positively and negatively. For instance, Paulraj (2011) proposes that organizations should concentrate their efforts on learning how to develop these partnerships. This can be achieved by reducing unneeded competition among coworkers, enabling managers to create a welcoming and supportive work environment, and developing strict rules that promote coworker

support, among other things (Paulrai, 2011). The interactions among employees become more crucial as teamwork and flatter organizational structures grow more prevalent.

Job Decision Latitude

Being able to effectively take decisions in the workplace can make an employee a better person in discharging his or her duties. Most university employees make several decisions every day at work to improve overall work productivity and satisfaction. Job decision latitude is the control an employee has over how, when, and where work is performed (Fagerlind, Gustavsson, Johansson, & Ekberg, 2013). It may reduce the stress on an employee by allowing to a large extent workplace freedom and job suitability with challenging demands outside of work.

Unlike job control and demands which have been posited to work together, evidence suggests that the inability of an employee to have control over decisions related to work processes has a dire consequence on the health and general well-being of the employee (Uyanik, Shogren, & Blanck, 2017). As stated by El-Sayed, El-Zeiny and Adeyemo (2014) and Kebelo (2012), low job decision latitude can lead to physical illnesses such as coronary heart disease and somatic symptoms (e.g., headaches, back pain, high blood pressure, fatigue and insomnia). Meanwhile, Glavin and Schieman (2012) opine that worker with higher job decision latitude experience lower stress and work-family conflict.

Furthermore, Elovainio, Kivimaki, Steen and Vahtera (2004) report that a greater worker decision latitude leads to higher organizational fairness and

positively affects the health of the worker over time. Fransson et al. (2012), in assessing research works on job decision latitude from developed countries, reported that job decision latitude was positively linked to physical activity regardless of job demands. Again, when Ertel, Koenen and Berkman (2008) and Brand, Warren, Carayon and Hoonakker (2007) evaluated data from a small sample of employees at four US care facilities and the Wisconsin Longitudinal Survey respectively, they found lower depression scores among workers with higher job decision latitude.

The relationship between low depression scores and higher job decision latitude among university employees is influenced by different factors. First and foremost, higher decision latitude is greatly influenced by the level of education of the worker. Studies have shown that university employees such as teaching staff with a high level of education often have a high job decision latitude (Canivet et al., 2013; Herd et al., 2007). There is therefore a lower incidence of chronic health conditions and illness among teaching staff compared with other cadres of employees who have a low level of education (Pick, Teo, & Yeung, 2012). Pick et al's study on occupational stress among university staff found that academic (teaching) staff of a university reported high levels of autonomy (high job decision latitude) and social support from colleagues. This may be because academic employees most often occupy top positions in the university and so have the opportunity to decide on what to do and how to do it at any point in time.

Undoubtedly, academic employees are better able to make use of the resources available to them due to high decision latitude. It enhances their health,

relationship with other workers and general well-being. This is backed by empirical evidence that employees who are highly educated are more likely to make positive behavioural changes by leveraging health information, self-efficacy, and other resources available to them (Hernandez, Margolis, & Hummer, 2018). However, according to (Hatzinikolakis, & Crossman, 2020; Kinman & Wray, 2020; Kabito, Wami, Chercos, & Mekonnen 2020), non-teaching employees are often stressed out because of less control over their job (low job decision latitude), too much workload, lack of recognition and interpersonal frustration caused by coworkers and supervisors (Pick, Teo, & Yeung, 2012).

Another factor which affects the relationship between depression and job decision latitude among university employees emanates from evolving evidence on the unhealthy outcome of job decision latitude. According to Glavin, Schieman, & Reid (2011), the power to make decisions often goes together with significant though demanding work that distorts the boundaries between home and work. Nevertheless, regardless of the educational level and the nature of work an employee does, job decision latitude may not affect all employees equally. Therefore, the inability of employees to take decisions for the work that they do may influence an employee in the university leading to health-related outcomes such as depression hence, the decision to quit the job (Pudrovska, & Karraker 2014).

Issues such as gender and other human differences within and outside of work could also underpin the relationship between job decision latitude, health and turnover intentions. For instance, women form a critical part of the workforce

of universities but often occupy lower-quality positions with less decision latitude (Kalleberg, 2011). Meanwhile, these working women are confronted with the need to harmonize routine domestic activities with responsibilities at the workplace. Meanwhile, current scholarly works indicate persistent gender disproportions for the level of stress among male and female professionals (Lippert, & Venechuk, 2020). Thus, job decision latitude could be more relevant to professional women's stress levels than that of men hence, the decision to quit their job.

Concerning fostering a supportive environment at work, Taylor (2008) suggests that supportive social contacts at work positively affect job decision latitude and protect workers against job-related emotional distress and health risks. Therefore, Taylor (2008) proposes that interventions targeted at creating and improving opportunities for supportive social contact, and freedom to make job-related decisions must be put in place to minimize the pressure employees go through in performing their duties. As indicated by Brand et al. (2007), in examining the relationship between job decision latitude, worker health and turnover intention, occupational health experts have not adequately looked at all the approaches that guide selection into jobs with high or low decision latitude. Some of the common approaches used to assess such relationships in the longitudinal study include elementary regression techniques and examining baseline work experiences and health conditions relative to imminent health outcomes (Gilbert-Ouimet, Brisson, & Vezina, 2020; Nilson et al., 2014; Pulkki-

Råback et al., 2016). But then again, such approaches risk biased evaluations due to omitted factors.

Provision of Resources

A resource is any element required to complete a task or engage in an activity (McConnell, Brue, & Flynn 2011). Resources are the components that a university needs to effectively deliver on its mandate. Resources of a university often include human, intellectual, physical and financial (Steinþórsdóttir, Heijstra, & Einarsdóttir, 2017). Understanding precisely the resource needs of a university and making them available is very critical in ensuring the effective and efficient running of the university. Kehoe and Wright (2013) believe resources can direct an organization's performance if they are accurately identified and assessed.

Employees are generally considered to be a very important resource of any institution. They are important for the functioning of any institution without which the activities of that institution will come to a standstill (Ren, Zhu, & Warner, 2011). The provision of high-calibre human resources is very essential in universities since a great deal of creativity and knowledge is required in these institutions. When human resources together with technology and physical resources are provided, institutions turn out to be more productive and perform better. Walker and McLean (2013), suggest that the provision of human resources is a process and must be duly followed. According to Walker and McLean, universities must therefore strive to provide the best human resource with the necessary intellectual ability to ensure excellent service delivery. Todericiu and Şerban (2015) believe the intellectual capability of employees is very important to

universities. Meanwhile, Rexhepi, Ibraimi and Veseli (2013) consider intellectual resources as nonphysical and intangible and once they are developed, they can offer unique advantages to the institution. Therefore, institutions must try to do everything possible to get the best of human resources since it is their greatest asset (Bamberger, Biron, & Meshoulam, 2014).

In higher education institutions, it is not only the human intellectual resources that are important, physical ones are equally essential to the existence of a university (Todericiu, & Şerban, 2015). Physical resources are the tangible assets which universities use to create value offerings and value propositions to students and employees. They may include structural facilities, equipment, and logistics that aid employees in their work (Todericiu et al., 2004). A study by Dugguh and Dennis (2014) revealed that though the concept of job satisfaction is complex, providing physical resources can go a long way in enhancing employee performance.

According to Oladokun and Ajayi (2018) universities must have a plan in place for the upgrade and maintenance of physical resources in such a way as to ensure effective utilization and continuous quality output, programmes and services. In such cases, employees of the university must be encouraged to report malfunctioning, damaged or unsafe physical resources for prompt attention. Then, universities need to establish and administer policies and procedures to ensure responsible control of physical resources and facilities per state laws (King, 2013). According to Jardine and Tsang (2013), the preventive maintenance programme must involve scheduled inspections, adjustments, testing, and

component replacement based on manufacturers' recommendations. There must be a well-established system of checks and balances on responsibilities related to physical resources.

Financial resources are a different resource that is crucial to universities. Tosun (2020), found that financial resource allocation practices have a favourable and significant impact on university staff members' performance. To achieve sound governance and faultless steering to increase the effectiveness of university personnel, policymakers and university administrators might therefore view the provision of financial resources as a useful and, in fact, complementary tool. A study by Ezati (2012), revealed that variables including entrepreneurship, collective efficacy, participative management, and an active competitive atmosphere are all considered to be important contributors to excellent employee performance. Therefore, universities must offer the required financial resources for efficient management of the institution.

Discrimination

Workplace discrimination is a factor that disrespects meritocracy and reduces workers' ability to achieve their potential and that contributes to institutional growth, development and sustainability. Universities regardless of size or location are diverse and need to create a working environment which encourages and maintains teamwork and respect for all. Marger (2014) defines diversity as differences among people due to age, class, ethnicity, gender, physical and mental ability, race, sexual orientation, spiritual practice, and other

human differences. In a more general sense, these attributes may differ from one work environment to the other.

Diversity in the work environment promotes acceptance, respect and teamwork. A diverse workforce can bring about new ideas, foster innovation and the ability to compete globally and can result in better problem-solving and decision-making (Cooke et al., 2019). However, some individuals harbour unfair prejudices against people of different races, cultures, ethnicity or religion than their own and others. When prejudice, racism, discrimination and a lack of respect creep into a work environment, conflict among employees becomes inevitable which defeats the idea of diversity in the workplace. If not strategically and professionally dealt with, such animosity in the workplace can turn explosive or violent. Besides, workers with different demographic backgrounds than the majority of the workforce can feel isolated and maybe, or at least appear to be, vulnerable to pressure from others. They may speak a different language, observe different customs, or simply interact in ways different from the majority.

Discrimination can affect the well-being and performance of university employees. Various studies have shown that discriminatory actions concerning gender, ethnic group, religious affiliation and geographical identity are very common in several universities. In an empirical study of gender discrimination and employee performance among academic staff of government universities in Lagos State, Nigeria, Gberevbie, Osibanjo, Adeniji, and Oludayo (2014) found that managerial roles based on gender discrimination against women in government universities in Lagos State have negatively affected employee job

performance. The authors concluded that for as long as gender discrimination rather than merit remains the basis for staff employment into positions of authority in Nigerian Universities, enhanced performance is more likely to elude employees and in the educational sector in general. A similar study by Adu-Oppong and Arthur (2015) to assess gender discrimination and the way it has affected individuals and their careers revealed that some workers i.e., women are indeed underrepresented in the management of higher education institutions in Ghana and that there are several factors at the institutional levels preventing qualified women to fully contribute their quota in the effective management of education at such high levels.

In other areas of discrimination, Peterson, Friedman, Ash, Franco, and Carr (2014) noted that many minority faculty members reported having experienced racial or ethnic bias in the field of academics at least once in their working experience. Accordingly, this level of discrimination has contributed to their reduced career satisfaction as compared to other faculty members. In a similar study to investigate racial and ethnic disparities in faculty promotion in academic medicine, Fang, Moy, Colburn and Hurley (2000) revealed that racial or ethnic disparities in the promotion were evident among tenure and nontenure faculty members who had ever received a research award. From the study, it was realized that minority faculty members remained less likely to be promoted compared with white faculty members (relative risk [RR], 0.68 [99% confidence interval {CI}, 0.59-0.77] for assistant professors and 0.81 [99% CI, 0.65-0.99] for associate professors).

Discrimination does not only affect the organizational and job performance variables; it has the potential to promote the debilitating health of the victims. According to Ikram et al. (2015), there is a relationship between ethnic discrimination and depression. In their study to investigate the contribution of perceived ethnic discrimination to the prevalence of depression, they reported that the contributions of perceived discrimination to depressive symptoms and MDD were around 25% in both the Surinamese groups, and Turks, and ~15% in Ghanaians. A similar study (Roscingno, Mong, Byron, & Tester, 2007), investigated age discrimination, social closure and employment and revealed vulnerability for skilled and semi-skilled workers, particularly those nearing 50 years old and above.

According to Gariba (2009), the perceptions of discrimination are largely driven by 'lived discriminatory' experiences faced by employees against their desire for fairness and equality in society. Thus, the perceptions of discrimination negatively affect the level of trust that university employees have among each other and in their respective institutions which turn to impact their sense of belonging to their communities and the wider society. The significant association between perceptions of discrimination and low levels of trust and sense of belonging has been noted by Straiton, Aambø, and Johansen (2019), where discrimination often results in high levels of dissatisfaction and turnover intentions of employees.

Workplace Harassment

Workplace harassment involves behaviour which is often offensive. It is mostly considered conduct that disgraces, demeans or humiliates an employee (Larbi, 2020). In the opinion of Ezer and Ezer (2012), harassment at the workplace is any unreasonable recurrent behaviour towards an employee or group of employees, which often serves as a source of health and security risk. According to the authors, any act of discrimination or assault that steadily disadvantage employees must be seen as harassment. It involves different forms of discrimination and acts of abuse that could be targeted at a specific group of employees such as women, men, disabled, religious sects and ethnic and racial minorities.

Generally, workplace harassment can be grouped into two, thus, emotional and physical abuse. Shetty and Nithyashree (2017) define physical abuse as sexual assault and violence on employees and emotional abuse as imposing stress and bullying on employees. However, regardless of the type of harassment, there is a need for a holistic understanding and prevention since it negatively impacts employees' job performance and productivity. The idea of workplace harassment is grounded on two premises. First and foremost, Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf and Cooper (2020) opine that irrespective of gender, race, tribe or qualification, all employees ought to have the right to be free from any abusive treatment or any form of discomfort in the workplace. Secondary, the problems caused by workplace harassment affect employees in destructive ways by preventing

employees from successfully progressing in their field of work and limiting their capabilities (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, & Medicine 2018).

Consistently, occupational health experts have established that victims of harassment go through a series of significant negative emotional, health and work-related outcomes (Goodman-Delahunty, Schuller, & Martschuk, 2016). Psychological and physical health effects of workplace harassment include depression, humiliation, irritation, anxiety, anger and post-traumatic stress disorder (Bergman, Langhout, Palmieri, Cortina, & Fitzgerald, 2002; Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007). Again, harassment at the workplace has been associated with negative psychological outcomes which most often is orchestrated by supervisors against subordinates or vice versa (Shetty, & Nithyashree, 2017; Collinsworth, Fitzgerald, & Drasgow, 2009; Woods, Buchanan, & Settles, 2009). For some employees just witnessing or hearing about the harassment of other employees can result in occupational stress (Miner-Rubino, & Cortina, 2007). Other employees may also show alcohol abuse, with many studies reporting a correlation between drinking frequency and quantity (Gervais, DiLillo, & McChargue, 2014; Topper, Castellanos-Ryan, Mackie, & Conrod, 2011). Work-related issues constantly associated with harassment include absenteeism, decreased job fulfilment, commitment and efficiency, and employment withdrawal (Feldblum, & Lipnic, 2016; Ekici, & Beder, 2014; Lee et al., 2013; McDonald, 2012). Chen, Kwan and Yi (2021) suggest there is also a reduction in employees' self-confidence and self-esteem.

Workplace harassment imposes substantial expenses on organisations. Direct organizational expenses include those linked to turnover and leading to new employment, training and development. It also involves the expenses of investigating the issues and the legal expenses resulting from actions brought against the organization. According to data from the US Army, it is projected that turnover accounted for nearly 67% of the accumulated total yearly cost of harassment reported (Deery, Walsh, & Guest, 2011). On the other hand, indirect and often less measurable expenses include decreased confidence or enthusiasm of employees, lateness or absenteeism, damage to external recognition and loss of investor confidence (HREOC, 2004). A meta-analysis of the antecedents and consequences of harassment by Willness et al. (2007), revealed that lost production due to harassment costs around US\$22 500 (GH¢180,000) per person. In 2010, the US Equal Opportunity Commission stated that cases of workplace harassment reported to them were around 12,000 of which they spent over \$48 million (GH¢ 384 million) in monetary benefits over and above litigation (EEOC, 2010). This according to Fredman (1997) far exceeds compensation given to plaintiffs in formal jurisdictions.

In recent times, cases of workplace harassment among university employees have increased. The victims are mostly employees perceived to be of lower social class, such as being untenured or of marginalized groups. Interestingly, most of the cases go unreported and the employee lives with it enduring the physical and emotional effects on them. However, in the opinion of (Bhagani, 2015; Bilby, 2015; Clarke, 2015), harassment in universities has

become so widespread that it is being discussed on social media platforms, newspapers, television and radio talk shows globally. Some of the issues of harassment reported on university campuses include sexual abuse (Spencer et al., 2022; Boateng, 2018; Menon et al., 2014), verbal abuse (Beighton, 2020; Meriläinen, & Kõiv, 2019), and racial and ethnic abuse (Pete, & Bull, 2019).

For most university management, employee harassment is often not given the necessary attention. The attention has rather been on student experiences of harassment in the institutions. Notwithstanding, studies by (Bilby, 2015; Clarke 2015; Keashly, & Jagatic, 2013) suggest that there are enough shreds of evidence of harassment among employees in higher education settings. For instance, Matchen and DeSouza (2000) reported that about half of university faculty experience at least some form of harassment by students alone, a figure that is shown to be higher when looking at harassment experiences that include non-student culprits thus, staff, co-faculty and supervisors (Kirkner et al., 2022). Similarly, in evaluating sexual harassment against female workers in three higher institutions in Anambra State, Nigeria, Anierobi, Etodike, Nwogbo, Okeke and Nwikpo (2021) recorded that the prevalence of sexual harassment is high among female workers at 69.4% ($X = 3.9$) with verbal sexual harassment being the most common type at 73.7% prevalence. In a related study to investigate male university employees' experiences of behaviours related to sexual harassment, Gerrity (2000) observed that more than half of the participants indicated that they had experienced gender harassment-related behaviours.

Meanwhile, studies by (Heffernan, & Bosetti, 2020; Hodgins, & Klein, 2017; LaSala, Wilson, & Sprunk, 2016) allude to the fact that the problem of harassment among university employees comes in many folds. These include assaults on faculty members by their heads of departments and deans; rudeness toward senior university administrators; academic untruthfulness or research falsification and students showing inappropriate lecture room behaviours. As with other forms of workplace harassment, some research attributes harassment to retaliation against supposed injustices. Student harassing lecturers has been linked in some studies to hopes of academic entitlement (Chowning, & Campbell, 2009). Mohammadipour et al. (2018) believe students often disrespect lecturers due to poor lecturing skills, and unfriendly behaviours such as arrogance and dominance. For Small, English, Moran, Grainger and Cashin (2018) inappropriate lecture room manners by both students and lecturers usually result in harassment of either of them.

The extent to which workplace harassment occurs could be influenced by organizational characteristics such as existing psychosocial factors. A meta-analysis by Illies, Hauserman, Schwochau, and Stibal (2003) showed that harassment is more widespread in organizations with greater control disparities between supervisors and coworkers. Other scholarly works have shown that harassment is more commonly experienced by females in male-dominated professions such as the military, fire service and construction than females in stable or female-dominated workplaces (Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007; McCabe, & Hardman, 2005).

There are also differences in the occurrence and levels of harassment even within these male-dominated workplaces. Going by Gruber's idea of double dominance, de Haas and Timmerman (2010) revealed that the nature of male-dominated work settings mediated the association between numerical male dominance and harassment. This together with other research works has proven that harassment is more rampant in a male-dominated work environment, where the nature of the profession is extremely physical and the organizational culture does not pay so much attention to abusive behaviour such as sexual and verbal abuse as in female-dominated jobs where cases of harassments are not condoned (de Haas et al., 2010; Chamberlain, Crowley, Tope, & Hodson, 2008). When Handy (2006) reviewed studies on harassment conducted in some European countries, it was revealed that organizational norms and cultures, such as the level of sensitivity to the problem of harmonizing work and individual responsibilities, and the degree to which the culture is an employee rather than work-oriented, are more central in forecasting the occurrence of cases of harassment than organizational gender relations.

Notwithstanding the increased incidence of harassment in male-dominated work settings, studies submit that harassment is by no means limited to these settings, but happens in almost every work environment (McCabe et al., 2005). There is therefore the need for institutions to implement policies focused on ensuring respectful and hospitable work environments that do not derogate employees based on gender, qualification or sociocultural status.

Health Conditions

Living with a challenging and frustrating health condition especially if the condition is chronic, and acquired in the line of duty can be very disturbing and disheartening. In some institutions, the recommendation is to make clear the risks associated with certain work responsibilities. The understanding of possible health conditions sometimes helps in the management of ill health either through a lifestyle change or simply seeking early medical care from health facilities. This according to Sellers et al. (2015) helps many employees to feel stronger and can better deal with increased work-related tasks. Most health conditions do not only physically affect employees but also emotionally, socially, and occasionally financially.

The way an employee is affected by a health condition depends on the type of condition, its severity and the kinds of treatments that might be involved (Goodman, 2015). Most employees go through stages to cope with a particular health condition. In a study to describe the factors related to the onset of health conditions among employees at work and how employees feel, Corbiere et al. (2016), reported that some workers experience vulnerability, confusion, and worry about their present and future health, while others experience sadness or body dissatisfaction. Also, the workers believe that the situation is unfair, which makes them upset with themselves and the people they care about and motivates them to quit their jobs.

Various illnesses, injuries and impairments affect employees' ability to function or enjoy life (Putri, Triatmanto, & Setiyadi, 2018). Noble, Paul, Turon

and Oldmeadow (2008) opine that many health conditions are related to unhealthy diet and physical inactivity, tobacco and alcohol use, as well as the existing psychosocial climate at the workplace which includes too much workload.

According to Ogden (2012), employees have developed health conditions related to high levels of psychological distress and feelings of job dissatisfaction, vision and non-communicable diseases, like diabetes, cancers, cardiovascular, and respiratory diseases. Employees likely risk using health conditions as a basis to leave their job. A study by Essiam, Mensah, Kudu and Gyamfi (2015) indicated that almost 50% of university employees surveyed were at high to moderate risk for developing ill health. In another study to investigate occupational stress in university staff, Banerjee and Mehta (2016) found that the relatively poor health outcomes of university staff and students are primarily due to the stress and pressures associated with their circumstances and the existing psychosocial climate. Therefore, knowing the health status of employees of institutions and the cause would aid institutions to come up with health-related interventions to address them.

High blood pressure

High blood pressure, often referred to as hypertension, is a disorder that is generally considered to be a silent killer because there are no obvious signs or symptoms. Whelton and Carey (2017) estimate that 15–25% of adults globally have high blood pressure. Healthy blood pressure for the majority of adults is typically less than 120 over 80 millimetres of mercury, or 120/80 mm Hg (systolic pressure reading over diastolic pressure reading). When blood pressure

consistently reads >130 mmHg systolic and >80 mmHg diastolic, high blood pressure is identified (American Heart Association, 2017). Despite being easily detected and commonly managed by a healthy diet, regular exercise, prescription medication, or a combination of these, high blood pressure can be deadly if left untreated (Weber et al., 2014).

The condition is linked to cardiovascular disease, insulin resistance, obesity, glucose tolerance, hyperuricacidemia, and atherosclerosis (Manosroi, Lohcharoenkal, Khonsung, Manosroi, & Manosroi, 2013). McBryde, Malpas, and Paton (2017) and Weber et al. (2010) opined that high blood pressure distresses the small muscle arteries, arterioles, and other blood vessels and can harm numerous organs at a varied rate. The kidney, brain, and eye are some of the organs that could be impacted. High blood pressure is associated with alterations in the blood artery wall that impact the endothelium, media, and adventitia (Harvey, Montezano, & Touyz, 2015).

In particular, for workers with substantial retinopathy, the tendency of high blood pressure to result in premature mortality or render them handicapped through strokes and renal failure is a matter for concern (Chattopadhyay, Mukherjee, Bag, Saha, & Chatterjee, 2012). To manage hypertension, a variety of antihypertensive medications are typically utilized, such as beta-blockers, hypotensive diuretics, calcium antagonists, angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors (ACEI), angiotensin-II receptor antagonists, and alpha-receptor-blocking medicines. Since the efficacy of these medications is only between 40

and 60 percent, two or more antihypertensive medications from various categories are typically combined to produce the best outcomes (Kandzari et al., 2018).

The risk of hypertension may be influenced by psychological, social, and personal variables. The factors that are most important to workers are those that are related to their occupations. An investigation by Abdullahi and Amzat (2011) into the awareness of the risk factors and complications linked to hypertension at the university of Ibadan, Nigeria, revealed that while some staff members showed a relatively high level of knowledge about the complications linked to hypertension, attitudes and knowledge about the risk factors were still low. However, understanding of risks and awareness of the consequences of high blood pressure are substantially influenced by one's degree of education [at 0.05] (Abdullahi, & Amzat, 2011).

Additionally, after adjusting for pertinent confounding factors like dose-response relationships, Fan and Zhou (2009) found a correlation between job demands and the prevalence of hypertension among male workers when examining the relationship between job strain and hypertension among university staff. The prevalence of hypertension was 2 times greater in workers with a middle-demand job and 2.87 times higher in workers with a high-demand job compared to workers with a low-demand job, further demonstrating the link between job strain and hypertension. According to a comparable systematic study of the prevalence, awareness, and management of hypertension among employees in West Africa, 11.1% of university staff reported having diabetes, while altogether, 21.5% reported having hypertension (Bosu, 2015).

Diabetes

There are currently 425 million persons living with diabetes worldwide, and 352 million are at risk of developing the disease (International Diabetes Federation, 2017). According to predictions made by the International Diabetes Federation in 2017, there will be a global health emergency because, by 2045, more than half of the world's population would have diabetes. The vast majority of diabetics either reside in low- or middle-income nations. Ayah et al. (2013), reported that diabetes cases vary by age, with older people having a larger risk than younger people. For instance, estimates of the prevalence of diabetes in persons aged 45 and older in Kenya and South Africa, respectively, range from 7.7 to 20% and 5 to 8.8% (Motala et al., 2008). Diabetes diagnoses are more prevalent in urban than rural regions, as reported by Motala et al. To Mbanya, Esterhuizen, Gouws, and Omar (2010), the risk factors driving the prevalence of diabetes differ between professions and the nature of the job. Hence, understanding and investigating the prevalence of and the peculiar risk factors for diabetes in a particular workplace will allow detailed interventions to be put in place, to reduce or prevent the disease from occurring.

A study by Salau (2015) revealed that the prevalence of diabetes was 9.8% among university personnel, with an incidental finding (unknown) contributing 6.1%, in addition to attitudes toward regular glycemetic/glycosuric examinations. Salau (2015), reported that among senior and junior staff, the male-to-female diabetic ratios were 1.4:1 and 1.3:1, respectively, and only 5.9% of the sample group had a routine glycemetic/glycosuric checkup. Amanyire et al. (2019) found that among lecturers and support staff at Bishop Stuart University in Mbarara,

Uganda, the prevalence of diabetes was 16%, the majority (60.2%) of the respondents were at risk of developing both hypertension and diabetes, and the age at which respondents were diagnosed with diabetes was positively correlated.

Additionally, lecturers 40 years of age and older had a 5.6-fold higher risk of diabetes than lecturers under 40 years of age (OR = 5.6, $X^2 = 16$, $P = 0.0005$).

When Abou-Gamel et al. (2014) looked at the prevalence of diabetes mellitus among employed individuals in the faculty of science at Taibah University, their results supported the earlier findings by Amanyire et al. (2019). Furthermore, type

2 diabetes mellitus prevalence was found to be 34.6% among members of the teaching staff at higher education institutions in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.

Diabetes was also found to be more common among older respondents than in younger age groups [44.6% versus 15.6%] (Mbuya, Fredrick, & Kundi, 2014).

Meanwhile, Mbuya et al. (2014) discovered that although females are more likely than males to contract the condition (34.9% versus 34.2%), the difference was not statistically significant.

Musculoskeletal disorders

Musculoskeletal disorder is one of the most common occupational injuries experienced by most workers at all workplaces. Unlike many work-related disorders, musculoskeletal disorders are often dependent on several factors especially psychosocial, work environment and the genetic makeup of the employee (Erick, & Smith, 2011). This disorder can affect the ability, efficiency and effectiveness, well-being, and productivity, and also lead to the restriction on the normal activities of university employees (Smith, Wei, Zhang, & Wang,

2006). Thus, Leider, Boschman, Frings-Dresen and van der Molen (2015) report that some musculoskeletal conditions may be connected to specific body parts or occupations. For instance, lifting and carrying goods or using vibration are usually associated with lower back issues. Long-term static force exertion may induce disorders of the upper limbs (at the fingers, hands, wrists, arms, and elbows) or may make existing ones worse. These issues might range in severity from occasional slight pain to defined disorders. According to Korkmaz, Cavlak and Telci (2011), the presence of pain can be viewed as the outcome of a reversible acute overloading or as a precursor to the onset of a serious disease.

Disorders of the muscles, bones and joints happen as a result of many varied factors. Bolghanabadi and Pour (2014) reported that in addition to ergonomic exposures, musculoskeletal problems are influenced by demographic characteristics such as age, sex, body mass index (BMI), anthropometry, time, muscle strength, and mental stress. A study by Sirajudeen, Alaidarous, Waly and Alqahtani (2018) revealed computer use and lack of ergonomic training to be largely associated with work-related musculoskeletal disorders (WMSDs) in most body regions. In a similar study to examine WMSDs among administrative employees of Kerman University of Medical Sciences, Madadzadeh, Vali, Khalilabad and Asar (2016) reported that the lower back (41%) and shoulder (28%) had the most abnormalities, whereas the elbow and forearm (5% each) had the fewest. Only age and BMI among the factors had a significant relationship with the frequency of musculoskeletal diseases ($P = 0.05$). People aged 22 to 29

years had a 74% lower likelihood of acquiring musculoskeletal symptoms than those aged 46 years and older [OR=0.26 and P=0.03] (Madadzadeh et al., 2016).

Furthermore, Erick and Smith. (2011) suggest that the psychosocial factors most likely to be associated with MSD include high perceived stress levels, excessive workload/demands, a lack of social support, a lack of job control, a lack of job satisfaction, and monotonous work among university teaching staff. After conducting a study on school teachers in Botswana, Erick and Smith (2014) found that some of the teachers' MSD made it difficult for them to do their daily chores, prompting some of them to change their jobs or responsibilities, limit their time at home, and seek medical help. Some teachers in this study also admitted that MSD left them unable to work for several days. If preventative controls are not implemented to lessen the burden of MSD and the progression of symptoms, institutions would likely have to deal with more widespread disabilities and higher healthcare costs in the future. According to Azari and Davuian-Talab (2012), using a computer increases the risk of developing musculoskeletal disorders, which are mediated by ergonomic factors including using a mouse, spending a lot of time sitting or standing, adopting uncomfortable postures, and psychosocial factors.

Occupational eye injuries

The eye as one of the five sensory organs is the most commonly used one. It is the primary component of the visual system, that converts the images a person sees into an electric signal that is sent to the brain via the optic nerve. (Gregory, 2015). Most activities carried out by university employees depend on

the ability to see well. The capability to read, drive a vehicle, use a piece of particular equipment and safely move from one place to another within the university and beyond all depends on the good vision of the employee.

Meanwhile, these activities also can reduce the efficiency of the vision, especially as the worker ages. Therefore, any form of injury to the eye can adversely affect the performance of employees at the workplace. It is therefore important not only to know the main sources and causes of employee eye injury in a university working environment but also to critically assess one's visual acuity to spot changes in time and, if necessary, seek treatment for them. A major source of occupational eye injury in the university is the continuous use of a personal computer.

A personal computer is a modern work tool generally observed to be a major source of occupational eye injury. Computers are used by both administrative and academic employees of the university (Mashalla, 2014). Over 70% of workers who use computers are likely to have vision-related health problems (Graney, 2011). A study by Akinbinu and Mashalla (2013) revealed that more than 62% of university employees use computers for more than six hours a day, and occupational eye injuries were reported more frequently (48.9%) among workers who spent six to eight hours a day on computers, compared to 23.7 and 0.72% among those who spent three to five hours and one to two hours, respectively. This supported the finding from Smita, Goel, and Sharma (2013) that workers who used computers for more than six hours were more likely to experience visual complaints.

Another risk factor for eye injury has been identified as the distance between the eye and the computer screen (Parihar et al., 2016). The closer the eye is to the computer screens the more difficult the eyes have to work to adjust to it.

This is because close distances necessitate an excessive amount of eye adjustment, which overworks the ciliary muscles of the eye and generates headaches and eye fatigue. The blinking rate slows down while you are up close, exposing the eyes to free dry air that makes them dry, inflamed, and fatigued.

Additionally, certain types of workers, such as sanitary workers, welders, and technical officers of the university, may use specific chemicals (such as acid and alkaline) and tools (such as microscopes, ultraviolet lamps, welding torches, etc.), which over time may have a devastating effect on the eye. Chemical eye injuries can cause significant harm to the anterior segment and ocular surface, impairing vision and disfiguring the eye. Clare, Suleman, Bunce and Dua (2012) reported that chemical eye injuries account for 11.5% to 22.1% of all ocular traumas at the workplace. However, nearly two-thirds of chemical eye injuries, involve young men, hence chemical eye injury is a major occupational health concern (Clare et al., 2012).

The toxicity of the chemical, the length of time it is in contact with the eye, the depth of penetration, and the region of involvement are the four criteria that determine the degree of ocular injury (Kulshrestha, & Mishra, 2021). Also, previous studies found that too much light produced by microscopes and other light-generating equipment affects employees with normal binocular vision and contributes to decreased productivity (Glimne, Brautaset, & Seimyr, 2015),

increased blood flow in the trapezius muscle (Fostervold, 2003), and an increased blink rate (Mork, Falkenberg, Fostervold, & Thorud, 2018).

In the opinion of Bali, Neeraj and Bali (2014), the majority of workers who experience work-related eye injuries exhibit symptoms like eyestrain, burning, blurred vision, gritty sensation, headache, neck pain, and ongoing reduced visual abilities like blurry distance vision even after they leave the office. Also, Ihemedu and Omolase (2010) and Mashige (2014) reported that poor lighting, glare, improper workstation setup, and uncorrected refractive errors may exacerbate symptoms. However, Ihemedu and Omolase (2010) consider that poor publicity and utilization of preventative measures have limited the success of regulations relating to eye safety in most universities.

Awareness of occupational eye injuries has been minimally stressed in most institutions (Mashalla, 2014). Akinbinu and Mashalla (2013) believe the situation can be addressed with continuous health and safety education on work-related eye injuries. For instance, in using a computer, Gowrisankaran and Sheedy (2015) and Rosenfield (2011) recommend a viewing distance of 30–70 cm to lessen visual discomfort. Once more, according to the Occupational Safety and Health Administration [OSHA] (2016), the computer monitor should typically be placed 15 to 20 cm below horizontal eye level, with the entire visual area of the display screen being positioned so that the downward viewing angle is greater than 60 degrees. The usage of eye-protective safety equipment must also be mandated whenever workers would be using tools like microscopes and ultraviolet lamps.

Work-Related Burnout

Burnout is a condition of extreme and protracted stress-related emotional, bodily, and mental depletion (Williams et al., 2020). When a worker feels overburdened, emotionally spent, and unable to manage the ongoing demands of work, burnout occurs. Employees start to become less interested and motivated to take on a specific position at work as the stress increases. Burnout is a symptom of strain, which has been connected to a persistent stressor at work (Finney, Stergiopoulos, Hensel, Bonato, & Dewa, 2013). Tiredness (extreme exhaustion), cynicism (cynicism and detachment), and inefficacy (a perception of ineffectiveness and lack of accomplishment) are the three elements of burnout (Maslach, & Leiter, 2017).

Work-related burnout is more prevalent in many institutions, particularly universities. Due to this, employees are less productive, have lower self-esteem, are less satisfied at work, and are more likely to leave their jobs (Federici, & Skaalvik, 2012). Separate studies by Reddy and Poornima (2012) and Toker (2011) on professional burnout of academicians revealed that the majority of university lecturers experience moderate to high levels of professional burnout. According to Barkhuizen, Rothmann, and Van de Vijver (2014), this can have a variety of detrimental effects on all facets of the employee's life, including their health, engagement at work, and loyalty to the institution. In the quest to understand how social support may have a mediating effect on the experience of burnout, Ho (2016) found a significant inverse relationship between social support and emotional exhaustion and depersonalization scores and a significant positive relationship between personal accomplishment and social support. In

contrast, no significant correlations between social support and any of the three burnout categories were found (Lin, & Huang, 2014; Watts, & Robertson, 2011).

Employee burnout is influenced by several additional work-related issues. For instance, Zábrodská et al. (2018) examined both direct and indirect connections of faculty burnout with psychosocial work settings using the job resources-demands paradigm. Work-family conflict was found to be the most effective predictor of burnout, and it both, directly and indirectly, mediated the beneficial effects of quantitative demands. Additionally, Zábrodská et al. noted that employees' reporting of burnout was influenced by their age. Younger university personnel displayed much more emotional weariness than their older counterparts, which was consistent with the conclusion that age showed a negative influence on emotional exhaustion scores (Byrne, 2013). In a similar vein, Khan, Rasli, Yusoff, and Ahmad (2015) found that there was no significant relationship between the level of burnout and gender or marital status. However, Khan et al. discovered that there was a substantial correlation between age, experience, position and burnout parameters.

Demographic characteristics may play a key role in the connection between burnout and the workplace. As an illustration, the results of a study that looked at gender as a factor in the experience of job burnout among university non-teaching staff showed no difference in the levels of emotional exhaustion and decreased personal accomplishment of both male and female personnel (Adekola, 2010). The depersonalization of male and female workers, however, differed significantly, with male staff reportedly reporting higher degrees of

depersonalization than their female counterparts (Adekola, 2010). According to Purvanova and Muros (2010), female employees were thought to be more susceptible to some factors, such as regularly reporting high emotional tiredness ratings, potentially as a result of the various responsibilities they balance at work and at home that drain their emotional reserves (Watts, & Robertson, 2011).

Effects of Stress on the Health of University Employees

The human body responds positively to stress by staying alert, motivated, and prepared to avert danger without suffering any negative health effects. When a person experiences ongoing difficulties without respite or relaxation in between stressors and eventually develops health issues, stress becomes harmful. For the majority of employees, regardless of their status, the workplace is and would continue to be a stressful environment (Badu et al., 2020). Studies by (Badu et al., 2020; Wettstein, Kühne, Tschacher, & La Marca, 2020; John-Akinola, Ajayi, & Oluwasanu, 2020; Sanusi, Yusuf, Mahrani, & Purwanto, 2020) on work-related stress among a variety of workers, including nurses, doctors, police officers, teachers, managers, and academics have confirmed the stressful nature of the workplace.

Employees at universities work in environments that need both mental and physical fortitude, but they also have less control over their working environments, which frequently leaves them vulnerable to work-related stress (Yeshaw & Mossie, 2017). Hessels, Rietveld, and van der Zwan (2017) as well as Petkovi and Nikoli (2020) reported that whether or not employees experience stress and how they handle it depends on how much control they have over their

work environment. Studies on non-teaching university employees found that interpersonal irritation brought on by coworkers and managers, a lack of control, an excessive workload, and a lack of acknowledgement were common stresses for this group of university employees (Hatzinikolakis, & Crossman, 2020; Kinman, & Wray, 2020; Kabito, Wami, Chercos, & Mekonnen, 2020). In contrast, the academic staff of a university reported high levels of autonomy and social support from peers, according to Pick, Teo, and Yeung's (2012) study on occupational stress in university personnel. However, faculty members involved in teaching and research reported increased strain as a result of university funding reductions, which led to heavier teaching loads, more difficulty obtaining research funding, as well as a drop in facilities and support for both teaching and research (Ismail, & Noor, 2016). Additionally, when Kusi et al. (2014) looked into the causes of work-related stress among the academic staff at the University of Education, Winneba campus, they found that a heavy workload, poor lecture preparation, and challenges supervising student research projects were some of the contributing factors.

University staffs generally experience poor health effects from work-related stress. Walters, Wadsworth, and Bhattacharya (2020) stated that stressed-out workers are dissatisfied and perform poorly due to illness. Kusi et al. (2014) noted that among the negative effects of stress on university personnel were anxiety, an inability to achieve deadlines, and poor health. According to Walters et al. (2020), Cañadas-De la Fuente (2015), Chirico (2016), Pinheiro, Sbicigo, and Remor (2020), the excessive workload could lead to an increase in occupational

stress, which is a predictor of burnout syndrome. In addition, professional stress has been linked to somatic symptoms like headaches, back pain, high blood pressure, exhaustion, and sleeplessness in addition to physical illnesses such as coronary heart disease (El-Sayed, El-Zeiny, & Adeyemo, 2014; Kebelo, 2012). So, Walsh and Oliver (2016) and LaVoy, McFarlin, and Simpson (2011), believe stress has a deleterious impact on the immune system and even raises the risk of catching a common cold. Therefore, stress management at work is crucial since it may result in chronic illness and expensive medical bills (Hoboubi, Choobineh, Ghanavati, Keshavarzi, & Hosseini, 2017; Keus Van De Poll et al., 2020).

Workplace Health Promotion Interventions

Over the years, universities have introduced various health promotion and wellness programmes as part of stress management interventions (Ohadomere, & Ogamba, 2020). Examples of such health promotion interventions programmes are physical activity promotion (Butler, Clark, Burlis, Castillo, & Racette, 2015; Mackey, Arnold, Fratzi, & Thomas, 2011), formative evaluation to improve employee health and wellness participation (Churchill, Suleman, Bunce, & Dua, 2014; Hill-Mey et al, 2013), and summative evaluation of employee effectiveness (Byrne et al., 2011; Nyman, Barleen, & Abraham, 2010). However, the usefulness of such programmes has been questioned as they mainly target individual employees. The intention is to reduce job demands on employees such as role overload and discrimination and personal demands such as family demands and relationship conflicts and their ways of coping with stressful conditions.

The causes of stress that are inherent to the workplace or the kind of work assigned to the workers have not been effectively dealt with by most health promotion intervention programmes enrolled by universities (Kröll, Doeblner, & Nüesch, 2017). Polly (2014) describes the intervention which only focuses on individual employees as a “red cape intervention,” meaning an intervention designed to halt negative practices. Polly asserted that workplace health promotion intervention must be a “green cape intervention”, thus, the interventions must be designed to nurture positive experiences such as enhancing and promoting health in general.

Meanwhile, Madsen (2003), in reviewing workplace health promotion intervention programmes against stress, opined that the intervention programme must not only be designed to enhance employees' emotional, intellectual, physical, social, and spiritual wellness (i.e., functioning at the highest possible level of one's self). But to her, the health promotion intervention programmes should concentrate on communication and awareness, such as assertiveness training, development of communication skills, and individual coaching. Again, the intervention programme should also be focused on screening and assessment, such as blood pressure checks, fitness assessments, health risk assessments, and vision screening. Madsen further explains that there is a need for some of the interventions to look at education and lifestyle programmes, such as financial planning, on-site fitness programmes, relaxation techniques, nutrition classes, and time management classes.

It is also important for health promotion intervention programmes to emphasize behaviour change and support and include programmes such as anger management, improved lighting and air quality, stress management training, and work-family support programmes (Madsen, 2003). As is ostensible from the various types of workplace health promotion intervention programmes, some are more clearly focused on ill health and risk factors, and others are more tuned towards improving the good health and general well-being of employees. Whether a health promotion intervention programme against workplace stress is deemed a red cape intervention or a green cap intervention will depend on how the programme is executed and assessed.

Turnover Intention

Many factors account for an employee's decision to leave his job. The probability of an employee deciding to leave the current job is what is referred to as turnover intention (Son, 2012). All institutions are confronted with certain opportunities and threats. One of the greatest threats is the turnover intentions of its employees. Xiong and Wen (2020) see employee turnover as a major issue for most institutions especially when employees have become major stakeholders in modern work. According to Aydogdu and Asikgil (2011) turnover intention becomes more problematic when employees are experienced, young and high performers. Thus, institutions become mostly worried about turnover intentions because of the numerous challenges associated with it.

Every institution in one way or another is confronted with challenges of psychosocial climate, employee well-being, attitude towards work, finances and

health conditions. However, how employers manage these issues as and when they come up goes a long way in determining the likelihood of employees staying or leaving their current job. If these issues are managed well by employers, employees become happy, stay at the post and give off their best. On the other hand, improper management of workplace-related issues will result in employees not being satisfied hence their decision to leave the job. Law, Dollard, Tuckey and Dormann (2011) posited that a lot of issues related to the psychosocial climate of most institutions never get resolved properly. Accordingly, often it results in mistrust which affects the relationship between employers and employees.

Therefore, given the high costs associated with managerial failure to retain a team of well-educated, effective employees as a result of management's inability to resolve certain work-related issues, the wish to understand turnover is extremely difficult (Wambui, Wangombe, Muthura, Kamau, & Jackson, 2013). To Wambui et al. institutions desire to maintain their skilled and experienced employees to remain competitive. Institutions therefore must make certain difficult sacrifices (financial, material or psychological) to fulfil the desire to prevent productive, talented and hardworking employees from leaving the organization.

Turnover is a pricey issue for most institutions since most of them at times find it very difficult to cope when very productive employees leave (Alam, 2015). According to an Australian exit survey, institutions with a staff strength of 100 employees would have to pay around \$1 million (GHC12 million) per annum, assuming an employee turnover rate of 18%, and an average salary of \$75,000

[GH¢900,000] (Insync Surveys, 2012). In the year 2000, the Society for Human Resource Management reported that the voluntary turnover rate in most institutions was estimated at around 17% (Insync Surveys, 2012) and that this rate may be increasing in various institutions and agencies (Jiang et al., 2012). Surprisingly, according to Erasmus, Grobler and Van Niekerk (2015), most of the institutions that reported increased turnover among employees either did little or nothing about the situation.

Research on turnover intentions has mostly centred on institutions involved in the delivery of services i.e., hospitals, the military and IT companies (Imran, Allil, & Mahmoud, 2017) and a few available studies on employees of educational institutions. For example, Afebia (2006) examined the turnover intentions and employee commitment among teachers employed by the Ghana Education Service (GES) in the Bolgatanga Municipality and discovered that teachers showed attachment to the GES out of duty and loyalty and expressed reluctance to leave for practical reasons. The reason includes; the absence of alternative employment opportunities, the availability of study leave, and the retirement benefits associated with GES employment. From the findings, teachers would need to receive more income, as well as lodging and medical benefits to lessen their intent to quit their jobs. Moreover, Thompson (2018) revealed that unjust compensation and promotion systems are significant contributors to teacher turnover at educational institutions. Since it alienates them from their occupations, this usually causes teachers to quit their jobs. Inevitably, this could negatively

affect students' academic achievement due to teacher turnover intentions (Thompson, 2018).

Institutions must contribute to reducing the tendency for a turnover if they want to retain their staff. According to a study by Amran, Allil, and Mahmoud (2017), academicians were less satisfied and committed when they did not receive institutional support and acknowledgement. When Amran et al (2017) conducted an online survey study of five public higher education institutions in Malaysia, it revealed the impact of academic development and organizational climate on stronger organizational commitment and, as a result, reduced turnover intention. However, academic growth, academic assignments, and organizational happiness encouraged greater organizational commitment, which in turn improved job performance. To Musah and Nkuah (2013), it might be challenging to forecast a university employee's likelihood of quitting their position, particularly in a developing nation like Ghana where there are few job prospects. Due to its complexity, the subject of employee turnover intentions is still far from being fully understood.

Types of Turnovers

Turnover can be classified as voluntary and involuntary (Rubenstein Kammeyer-Mueller, Wang, & Thundiyil, 2019). Belete (2018) argued that as work satisfaction and turnover are frequently linked, it is critical to distinguish between voluntary and involuntary exits to accurately estimate the relationship between the two. Voluntary turnover is the term for when a worker leaves the job on their own free decision (Rubenstein et al., 2019). According to Rubenstein et

al., voluntary turnovers incur a considerable cost in terms of both direct expenditures, such as replacement, and indirect costs, such as pressure on the remaining staff or the loss of social capital. Voluntary turnovers were further classified into functional and dysfunctional turnovers by Vardaman, Taylor, Allen, Gondo, and Amis (2015). Accordingly, functional turnovers pertain to the departure of poor performers, whereas dysfunctional turnovers concern the departure of strong performers. Dysfunctional turnover is further broken down into preventable (caused by reduced pay, terrible working conditions, etc.) and unavoidable (like family moves, significant sickness, death, etc.), over which the organization has little to no control. Involuntary turnover occurs when management decides to compel an employee to leave the company (Vardaman et al., 2015).

Factors Affecting Turnover Intention

Different factors account for why employees may decide to leave their work. Every institution and the factors that influence the turnover intentions of their employees. Belete (2018) posits that many factors come together to inform an employee's turnover intentions and therefore proposes that an all-inclusive approach be followed in studying factors which can affect the turnover intention of employees.

Leadership style is a significant component that influences an institution's goals regarding turnover. When directing, motivating, guiding, and managing groups of workers, a leader's qualities and behaviours are very essential (Makhathini & Van Dyk, 2018). Leadership, according to Acton, Foti, Lord, and

Gladfelter (2019), can be both a process and a property. The property is the collection of traits assigned to someone who is thought to employ influence successfully, whereas the process involves the application of non-coercive persuasion. As a result, institutional leaders use these distinct leadership philosophies to guide their workforce. In various professions and institutions, studies have shown a negative correlation between leadership style and employees' inclination to leave their jobs (Puni, 2016; Siaw, 2017). The results of earlier research were contradicted by a study on the teaching staff at a community college in Malaysia (Long, 2012). This study found that although employee turnover intention is negatively correlated with both transformational and transactional leadership styles, this correlation is not statistically significant.

To influence employee turnover intentions and retain staff members at the position until retirement, an effective leadership style is crucial. According to Siew (2017), there is a significant correlation between leadership style and turnover intentions. Employees under authoritarian leaders are more likely to have intentions to leave their jobs (Puni, Agyemang, and Asamoah, 2016). This is primarily due to the leader's overemphasis on results rather than the well-being of workers. Workers under democratic leaders, however, are less likely to be involved in plans for turnover since the leader favours collaborative decision-making (Puni et al. 2016). To reduce employee decisions to quit, institutional leaders must be trained in team building and participatory decision-making.

In many cases, demographic characteristics like age, gender, education level, income level, marital status, occupation, religion, birth rate, mortality rate,

the average size of a family, and the average age at marriage influence the inclination of employees to leave their jobs (Belete, 2018). Although Peltokorpi, Allen, and Froese (2015) reported that female voluntary turnover rates may be lower, in a sample of US financial services managers, women turnover was somewhat higher (Belete, 2018). Also, a meta-analysis of non-professional workers revealed that women had greater turnover rates than men (Nyberg, Peristera, Bernhard-Oettel, & Leineweber, 2018). However, Hundera (2014) concluded that the intention of employees to quit was not significantly influenced by gender.

Evidence shows that married employees are more committed to their jobs and are less likely to leave than single employees (Choong, Keh, Tan, & Tan, 2013). Similarly, Choong et al. noted that older personnel are more likely to stay at their respective institutions than younger ones since the younger employees appear to be less dedicated to organisations. Therefore, a significant determinant in predicting whether or not employees would leave a position is their commitment to the organization.

In the workplace, institutional commitment refers to the connection employees have with their organization (Lambert et al., 2020). Lambert et al. asserted that staff members who are dedicated to their organization typically feel a connection to it, a sense of belonging, and a comprehension of its objectives. These workers bring value because they frequently exhibit higher levels of productivity, are more aggressive in providing help and are less likely to quit their jobs. They also tend to be more focused on their work. Institutional commitment,

according to Lambert et al., is a psychological bond between a worker and an organization. Employee turnover intention and institutional commitment have a negative relationship (Lin et al., 2014; Wu, 2012). How dedicated an employee is to the organization could be a vital factor in determining if they intend to leave (Agarwal, & Sajid, 2017).

Another crucial element that frequently affects employees' decisions about their intentions to leave an organisation is institutional justice (Brockner, 2010). Every employee wants to be treated fairly in an organization, yet in many institutions, this is not the case. Brockner defines institutional justice as how people perceive fairness in the workplace. Employees frequently experience psychological and physical effects. Distributive, procedural, informational, and interactional justice are the general categories used to describe institutional justice (Usmani, & Jamal, 2013). While procedural justice reflects judgments of the procedures that produce outcomes, distributive justice reflects perceptions of the fairness of results. The reports given for justice-related occurrences are related to the third sort of justice, known as informational justice. Interpersonal justice, on the other hand, shows opinions on how people are treated and interacted with.

Studies show that all types of justice are each predictive of outcomes connected to the workplace and workers, despite being interrelated. Usmani et al. (2013) asserted that distributive justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice have varying degrees of correlations with various stages of turnover intention and are all strongly connected with overall turnover intention. Distributive justice, procedural justice, and employee turnover intention were

found to be negatively and statistically significantly correlated by Iyigun and Tamer (2012) and Phayoonpu and Mat (2014). According to studies by Aghaei, Moshiri, and Shahrbanian (2012) and Sokhanvar, Kakemam, Chegini, and Sarbakhsh (2018), there is a substantial correlation between institutional justice and an employee's propensity to quit his work. Fatt, Khin, and Heng (2010) reported that higher levels of employee perception of procedural justice (fairness of the means used to determine outcomes) and distributive justice (fairness of the results employees receive) tended to increase the level of employees' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to leave their jobs.

Research on institutional justice is becoming more multilayered and looks at how common conceptions of justice develop inside organizations and work groups (justice environment), as well as how perceptions and responses to justice vary among cultural groups (e.g., organizational and national cultures). Randhawa and Kaur (2014) posited that there is a significant correlation between the institutional atmosphere and employees' intentions to leave their jobs. The motivation and behaviour of employees are influenced by a set of quantifiable characteristics that are either directly or indirectly formed by those who live and work in an institution (Alkahtani, 2015).

The collective evaluation of an institution's climate considers a variety of factors, including the environment's psychological effects. For instance, members of the institution can agree that job-specific characteristics like role clarity, workload, and other features particular to a person's profession affect a person's psychology. Other aspects of shared experience that affect the institutional

environment include leadership and organizational support, workgroup or team effectiveness, and organizational cooperation. When Afolabi (2005) looked at how perceived institutional climate and locus of control influenced job satisfaction and turnover intentions of commercial bank employees in Benin, Edo State, Nigeria, he discovered that employees' job satisfaction increased when they believed their institutional climate was favourable. Liou et al. (2010) contend that fostering a positive institutional atmosphere may boost nurses' institutional commitment and, as a result, reduce their intention to leave, particularly provided the organization does not pose any obstacles to their personal development.

The prospect of a job promotion can motivate an employee by ensuring career progression, which most employees consider to be a major career and personal priority. Mahapatro (2010) described the promotion as an advancement of an employee to a higher post with greater responsibilities and a higher salary, better service conditions and thus higher status. Promotions motivate employees by providing an opportunity for increased compensation i.e., increased remunerations, job security and stability creating an enabling environment for employees to improve their on-the-job experience. Nyamubarwa (2013) opined that promotional opportunity was one of the factors shaping turnover intention along with salaries and conditions of service, job performance, career growth, work environment, job satisfaction, supervisory style, and employee commitment. Therefore, employees work earnestly to produce consistent, high-quality work and receive recognition or acquire a reputation among peers.

Employee motivation comes from promotions that play to their feeling of ambition. This has an impact on employees whose career pillars include the need for independence, authority, and managerial skill. Employees who believe that these objectives are reachable through promotions will endeavour to show off their managerial and leadership abilities. Additionally, they will develop virtues reflective of positions of power, such as accountability and a desire to work well with others.

Consequently, organizations need to develop a plan for handling job advancement and promotions. This can be bringing up career prospects during performance reviews for staff members or allowing all staff members with a certain degree of experience to apply for openings in executive positions. This is because employees' intentions to quit an organization rise if they believe there are greater job chances outside the company and that there aren't any internal opportunities for career progression (Long, 2012). Therefore, if a promotion opportunity is handled poorly, it causes employee dissatisfaction, frustration, scepticism, and quarrelling, which results in a high percentage of employee turnover (Shah, 2017). According to Kumar (2011), poor pay is a major contributing factor to employee turnover. The likelihood of turnover was negatively and significantly correlated with pay level and rewards (Armstrong, 2012).

The values that direct employee behaviour is part of an institution's culture, which is manifested in member self-image, internal processes, relationships with the outside world, and aspirations for the future. Kasemsap

(2015) defines culture as a set of accepted common attitudes, beliefs, rituals, and written and unwritten laws that have grown over time. Webb (2018), opine that an institution's culture may also contain its mission, values, norms, systems, symbols, language, presumptions, beliefs, and routines. The way things are done within an institution is referred to by Webb as its institutional culture. Other interpretations place more emphasis on how employees behave and how institutional culture affects their judgments. In the opinion of Malik, Danish, and Munir (2011), institutional culture is a crucial factor that greatly affects employee engagement, job satisfaction and retention, and has a considerable impact on turnover intention. Haggalla and Jayatilake (2017) noted that there is a positive correlation between turnover intention and market culture, hierarchical culture, and adhocracy culture, but a negative correlation between these three variables. Additionally, there is a large and negative correlation between consensual culture and employee turnover rate (Mrope & Bangi, 2014), but there is a favourable association between authoritarian organizational culture and turnover intention (Muhammad, 2016).

The degree of enjoyment employees experience in their jobs beyond their regular responsibilities is known as job satisfaction (Bhatti, Bhatti, Akram, Bilal, & Akram., 2016). This includes the relationship with coworkers and bosses, opinion of the institution's regulations, and how work affects personal lives. Employees' levels of job satisfaction differ from one another. The elements that make one employee feel good about their job might not apply to another employee in the same position under the same circumstances. Because of this, it is

crucial to approach employee happiness from multiple angles. According to Ali (2017) and Wu (2017), work satisfaction was discovered to have a substantial inverse relationship with the intention to leave. Alkahtani (2015) reported a connection between job satisfaction and employees' intent to quit their jobs. Meanwhile, Perez (2018) posited that job satisfaction was the most powerful and significant predictor of future quitting.

Advantages of Turnover

Although most institutions view turnover intentions as a bad condition, there are certain advantages (Nadiri, & Tanova, 2010). An employee may decide to leave their employment for a variety of reasons. These factors, as noted by Iqbal (2010), can be viewed as either positive or negative, depending on whether the observer is an employer or an employee. In the opinion of Balouch and Hassan (2014), any case of turnover paves the way for bringing new talent into an organization. Not all departing employees, whether freely or involuntarily, are top performers. Self and Self (2014) discovered that underperforming employees waste an institution's resources and money in their study of careless retention of counterproductive personnel. Grissom, Viano, and Selin (2016) reported that issues of turnover present opportunities for an institution to hire new staff members with creative ideas and skills. The incorporation of both traditional and technologically advanced new ideas improves organizational procedures and output (Brynjolfsson, & McAfee, 2011). Thus, freshly hired employees bring new perspectives and methods of working to the workplace that is more effective, timely, and profitable.

Employee turnover due to misconduct sends a strong message to other employees that they could be reprimanded (Goedurov, 2020). This shows that the institution's disciplinary procedure is effective and that, if other employees' performance does not improve, their employment may be terminated owing to subpar performance, improper behaviour, or misconduct. Although the termination of an appointment is a challenging approach, Goedurov (2020) asserted that it frequently benefits the organization and makes employees more cautious and disciplined. Green, Finkel, Fitzsimons, and Gino (2017), believe the presence of dissatisfied employees at work demoralizes diligent workers by draining the workplace of excitement, energy, and productivity. When unproductive workers leave an institution, it motivates the remaining staff and creates a work climate where everyone is engaged, motivated, and eager to perform a good job (Havens, 2015). Also, if unproductive employees leave an institution, the burden of managing them is removed since their continued presence negatively affects the overall staff job performance.

Furthermore, turnover might enable institutions to cut back on their financial expenses. For instance, the organization is no longer in debt for the substantial salaries tenured staff earn when they leave. For newly hired workers with less experience, employers might renegotiate their compensation policies and set new starting salaries. Again, institutions that increase employee contributions to retirement savings over time start again with lower employer contribution rates (Carson, Ellis, Hoyt, & Ostaszewski, 2020). Driver and Henshon (2020) opine that because of age-related illnesses and problems associated with older workers,

the cost of insuring an older employee is high and so their departure helps organisations in cutting down the cost of health insurance premiums (Daniel, & Heywood's, 2007).

Disadvantages of Turnover

Every institution values its employees highly, and so when an employee decides to leave, there are many difficulties for most organizations. Employee turnover is detrimental and has an impact on effectiveness, productivity, profitability, and innovativeness (Reyes, Aquino, & Bueno, 2019). It frequently affects how other employees perform, especially when the worker in question is extremely productive and well-liked by their coworkers (Balouch et al., 2014). Argote and Miron-Spektor (2011) reported that because there isn't enough time to train replacement workers, the institution suffers.

Turnover can occasionally result in a severe change in the work schedule and delivery, which has an impact on productivity (Argote et al., 2011). Pang and Chan (2015) found that staff turnover may cause an unexpected change in attitude and doubt in the minds of other employees when they evaluated teacher turnover and shortages. Also, institutions struggle to perform everyday activities when employees quit their jobs since new workers need time to adjust to the position (Osborne, & Hammoud, 2017). Furthermore, according to Osborne et al., institutions typically anticipate such times to ensure a smooth transition, but when staff depart unexpectedly, it creates chaotic daily schedules.

The departure of employees results in increased costs for institutions. According to Jain (2013), the cost consists of firing and compensating the former

employee, recruiting a replacement, and paying for the replacement employee's training. In the opinion of Mohammed, Lai, Daskalaki, and Saridakis (2016), it costs almost half of the lost employee's yearly compensation to hire and train a replacement employee. According to Mohammed et al, these expenses far outweigh the losses resulting from managing and missing out on work. In addition, Bobinski (2009) stated in a study on leadership development that replacing an employee earning the American median wage costs \$17,000 (GHC 99,000). According to Bobinski, replacement expenses for an employee earning \$60,000 (GHC 348,000) a year might reach \$38,000 (GHC 220,400). These expenses might include hiring recruiters, advertising open positions, and suffering productivity losses when an employee quits the organization. To Bobinski, a high turnover rate at an institution could cause a serious financial problem.

When employees leave an institution, they go with them the knowledge they have accumulated through time from the institution (Zhang, 2016). Employees at such institutions with significant turnover typically have very few years of experience on average. This circumstance frequently results in poor performance, a lack of devotion, and ignorance of the struggles an institution has faced, which may limit their capacity to be devoted employees (Hancock, Allen, Bosco, McDaniel, & Pierce, 2013). This is because staff with many years of experience are very familiar with the institution's regulations, culture, and administration and can handle serious situations easily while it will be challenging for new employees. Additionally, these seasoned workers create a void that will take a while to fill when they leave the organization (Lu, & Gursoy, 2016). Also,

a high staff turnover rate hurts the institution's reputation, which makes it challenging for recruiters to connect highly qualified individuals with such institutions because new candidates might not be interested in working for establishments with high turnover rates (Tanwar, & Prasad, 2016).

Employee development plans are common at many institutions, but they need a lot of time and money to implement. A larger turnover rate, however, results in missing out on such plans (Zhang, 2016). Also, disruptions brought on by employee turnover within an institution have an impact on other workers' development. In this way, employees must step up to fill the void left by the lost employee. This could negatively impact those other employees' career plans and advancement (Waldman, Kelly, Arora, & Smith, 2010). These plans are strategic and take time and attention to complete; changing them midway would usually be detrimental to the employee.

Theoretical Framework

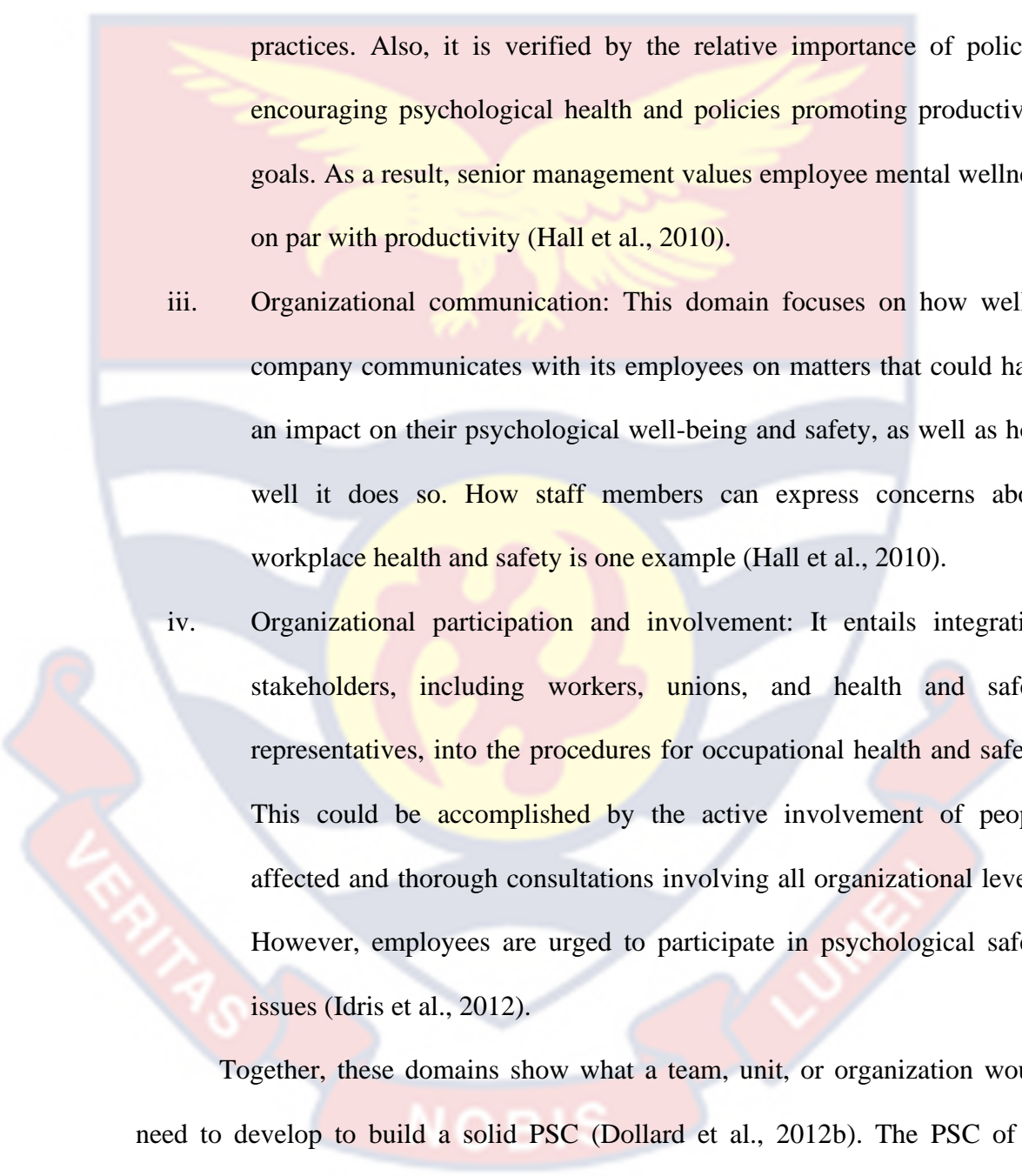
Theories are developed to explain, forecast, and comprehend phenomena as well as, frequently, to challenge and advance current knowledge while staying within the bounds of crucial limiting assumptions. The theory that explains why the research problem under study occurs is introduced and explained in the theoretical framework. The fields of occupational and workplace health and safety have given rise to numerous theories. As a result, the study examines two of the theories to further explore and comprehend the purpose of the study. The theories are: Psychosocial Safety Climate (PSC) theory (Dollard, & McTernan, 2011), and Job Demands-Control (JD-C) model (Karasek, 1979).

Psychosocial safety climate (PSC) theory

Organizational climate has a unique component known as the psychosocial safety climate. It is referred to as having standards, guidelines, and practices for personnel safety and psychological wellness (Dollard et al., 2011). The PSC theory discusses the part managerial and organizational elements play in the creation of working environments that influence an employee's psychological well-being. As the "source of the causes" of workplace stress, PSC offers a multilevel systems paradigm to handle workplace health concerns (Dollard et al., 2011).

According to the PSC theory, management practices, priorities, and values, as well as supervisory and production techniques, are the root causes of stress at the organizational level (Dollard, 2012a; Law, Dollard, Tuckey, & Dormann, 2011). Since PSC is viewed as a forerunner to workplace stressors, this proposition casts doubt on the idea that an individual is in charge of keeping track of and regulating their psychological health. The theory instead contends that a more comprehensive systems-level approach would encourage more successful long-term change (Law et al., 2011). The safety climate research and the literature on job stress are combined in the PSC theory. Four major theoretical domains are used to group the research fields (Hall, Dollard, & Coward, 2010).

- i. Management commitment and support: Senior management demonstrates interest and commitment to psychological health. They work swiftly and decisively to address any concerns or problems that have an impact on the mental health of employees (Idris, Dollard, Coward, & Dormann, 2012).

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- The logo of the University of Cape Coast is a large, semi-transparent watermark in the background. It features a shield with a yellow eagle with spread wings at the top. Below the eagle is a banner with the Latin motto 'VERITAS LIBERABIT VOS'. At the bottom of the shield is a yellow sun with rays. The shield is flanked by two red banners with white text: 'LUMEN' on the left and 'LUMEN' on the right. The entire logo is set against a light blue background.
- ii. Management priority: This is the weight management gives to safety and psychological well-being in comparison to production objectives. It is proven by the organization's adopted policies, procedures, and practices. Also, it is verified by the relative importance of policies encouraging psychological health and policies promoting productivity goals. As a result, senior management values employee mental wellness on par with productivity (Hall et al., 2010).
 - iii. Organizational communication: This domain focuses on how well a company communicates with its employees on matters that could have an impact on their psychological well-being and safety, as well as how well it does so. How staff members can express concerns about workplace health and safety is one example (Hall et al., 2010).
 - iv. Organizational participation and involvement: It entails integrating stakeholders, including workers, unions, and health and safety representatives, into the procedures for occupational health and safety. This could be accomplished by the active involvement of people affected and thorough consultations involving all organizational levels. However, employees are urged to participate in psychological safety issues (Idris et al., 2012).

Together, these domains show what a team, unit, or organization would need to develop to build a solid PSC (Dollard et al., 2012b). The PSC of an organization is acknowledged as a significant influencer of employees' safety, well-being, and psychological and physical health (Dollard et al., 2012a). Also,

job resources and job needs are influenced by organizational PSC. PSC emphasizes management support and priorities, engagement and communication of health and safety issues. The European Agency for Safety and Health at Work (2010) indicated that the direct involvement of top management in matters of health and safety significantly affects the work output of employees. Dollard and Bakker (2010) opined that PSC signals and affects social support from coworkers and supervisors, emotional demands, physical demands, freedom in making decisions about one's workplace, and harassment and discrimination. Moreover, Dollard and Bakker noted that PSC influences turnover intentions both directly and indirectly through job demand, job decision-making authority, and job resources. It also affects job satisfaction, presenteeism and absenteeism (work outcomes), psychological distress, emotional exhaustion, and the physical health of the employee (Lindeberg et al., 2010; Seidler et al., 2014).

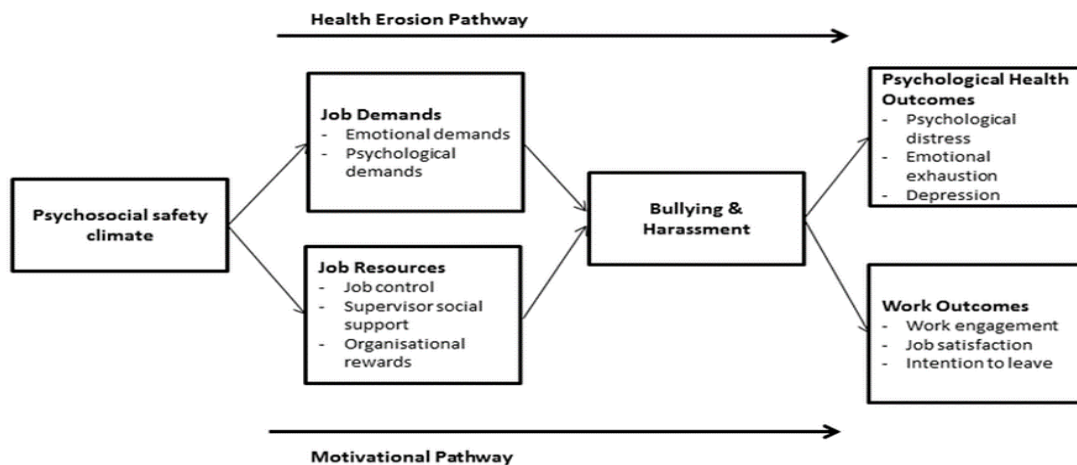


Figure 1: Psychosocial Safety Climate (PSC) theory (Dollard et al., 2010)

When the PSC of an organization or workgroup is understood, worker health, and intention to leave can all be predicted (Dollard et al., 2012c).

As a contemporary theory, PSC aims to investigate the organizational management characteristics that affect all aspects of work processes (job resources, job decision latitude, and job expectations), which in turn influences variables that affect work results and employee overall health (Waldenström et al., 2003). For instance, in UEW, PSC may be mirrored in the management of health and safety practices. This could be done through routine health education or training before or while working, the provision of PPE and safety facilities, and the creation and implementation of safety regulations (Ansah & Mintah, 2012; Arcury et al., 2013). Importantly, the PSC at UEW may differ from that of other institutions when the leadership of the university consistently prioritizes the general well-being, health, and safety of the employees. It would largely depend on how senior management of UEW such as the vice-chancellor, pro-vice-chancellor, registrar, deans and heads of departments demonstrates their commitment to a safe work environment (Dankyi, & Nyieku, 2021). In this case, there is a greater likelihood of a reduced accident, stress, discrimination and harassment, and the intention to leave the UEW. When the vice-chancellor and other senior management members demonstrate commitment and actively participate in health and safety issues, the psychosocial climate improves (Dollard et al., 2012b). Employees of UEW then would have a positive and strong view of the work environment (Idris et al., 2012; Hall et al., 2013).

The administration of health and safety procedures at UEW requires resolute and active leadership at the highest level of management. Barling and Frone (2017), argued that passive leadership is closely tied to a toxic work environment. This explains the detrimental relationship of passive leadership to employee well-being. Additionally, passive leadership in health and safety processes has a direct or indirect connection to the psychological job exhaustion levels, lower mental health, and general work attitude of employees. To Barling and Frone (2017), ineffective leaders fail to set clear performance goals and standards, ensure suitable reward and punishment systems and provide direction and support.

On the contrary, active leaders foster a climate at work that could make it easy for workers to satisfy performance standards. Such leadership shows up in the form of management support and active engagement. Also, active leaders create an efficient management structure and 'downward' communication channels for the employees' health, safety, and well-being (Ansah, & Mintah, 2012; Lehmann, Haight, & Michael, 2009). Therefore, at UEW, it is anticipated that organizational health and safety-focused efforts that support worker health promotion would come before a high demand for productivity. This means that the vice-chancellor, pro-vice-chancellor, registrar, deans and heads of departments are more likely to give resources to safeguard and enhance the psychological climate of the staff. As a result, there would be high job satisfaction and productivity, reduced job demands, absenteeism and presenteeism, and low turnover intention of the workers. Moreover, physical health concerns including

headaches, hypertension, and musculoskeletal illnesses would minimize (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli., 2009; Gilbreath, & Karimi, 2012).

Furthermore, the PSC environment precedes organizational job resources like support from coworkers and supervisors (Dollard et al., 2012a). Workers, however, are alleged to endure high job demands, emotional demands, physical demands, discrimination, bullying, and harassment, as well as turnover intention, at low organizational PSC (Dollard, & Bakker, 2010). The PSC theory also demonstrates a reciprocal relationship between job demands and resources. For instance, a worker who perceives high levels of positive support from their coworkers, dean, or head of the department is likely to have minimal emotional and physical demands on the job. Such a worker is also more likely to encounter less bullying, harassment, and discrimination at work (Bond, Tuckey, & Dollard, 2010).

Correspondingly, if UEW employees feel that their directors, deans and heads of departments and colleagues are not supportive of them at work, they are more likely to experience the high emotional and physical demands that are placed on them by management. Similarly, the way that work is organized at UEW can put pressure on the workers, which ultimately can lead to their forced departure from the institution (Azma, Omar, Muda, & Endut, 2013). It is conceivable for staff members of UEW to endure significant levels of workplace discrimination, bullying, and harassment if they receive little to no support (Okoye, & Aderibigbe, 2014). As discovered among public employees in Vietnam (Nguyen et al., 2017), bullying at work decreases when PSC is reported

as being favourable. As a result, a high PSC at UEW would reduce risks and dangers and offer every employee a comfortable working environment (Zinsser, & Zinsser, 2016).

According to Dollard et al. (2012a), PSC is related to worker health outcomes (psychological distress, emotional tiredness, and physical health) as well as work outcomes (job satisfaction, absenteeism, presenteeism, and intention to leave) through the mediating channels of job resources and demands. The provision of job resources like infrastructure, finances, tools and equipment by the management of UEW would directly improve job happiness, lower absenteeism and presenteeism, and lessen the impacts on the worker's mental discomfort, emotional tiredness, and physical health (Seidler et al., 2014). Additionally, there is an inverse relationship between job demands, work outcomes, and employee health. As a result, UEW staffs who have excessive workloads are likely to struggle with job dissatisfaction, absenteeism, presenteeism, and intention to quit, as well as psychological discomfort and physical health status impairment (Gyekye, & Salminen, 2007). Furthermore, PSC offers an interactive or reciprocal relationship between worker health variables and job outcome components (Dollard, & Bakker, 2010; Dollard et al., 2012a). Employees of UEW with high job decision freedom, low job demand, and high social support are more likely to experience lower levels of job-related psychological discomfort and emotional tiredness, as well as better physical health and lower turnover intentions (Lindeberg et al., 2010).

Job demands–control (JDC) model

The independence or autonomy of employees at the workplace is considered an expert way of the more general concept of control. Theorell and Karasek (1990) defined autonomy in the workplace as the freedom an employee has in doing what he does without any external influence, and how he does it. The JDC model clarifies how the characteristics of a job affect the psychological well-being of employees. The model explains how job demands cause stress for employees. It takes a look at how increased workload and role ambiguity results in work-related strain. Meanwhile, the model postulates that employees can handle stressors by making use of skills that allow them to have control and autonomy over their work (Theorell & Karasek, 1990). Friedmann et al. (2006), think that the quality of work is dependent on the kind of skills an employee possesses and, on their ability to control decision-making processes at the workplace. According to Friedmann et al. one intervention which has proven to help nullify the effects of occupational burnout (i.e. exhaustion and cynicism) at the workplace is by increasing the control that employees have over their job.

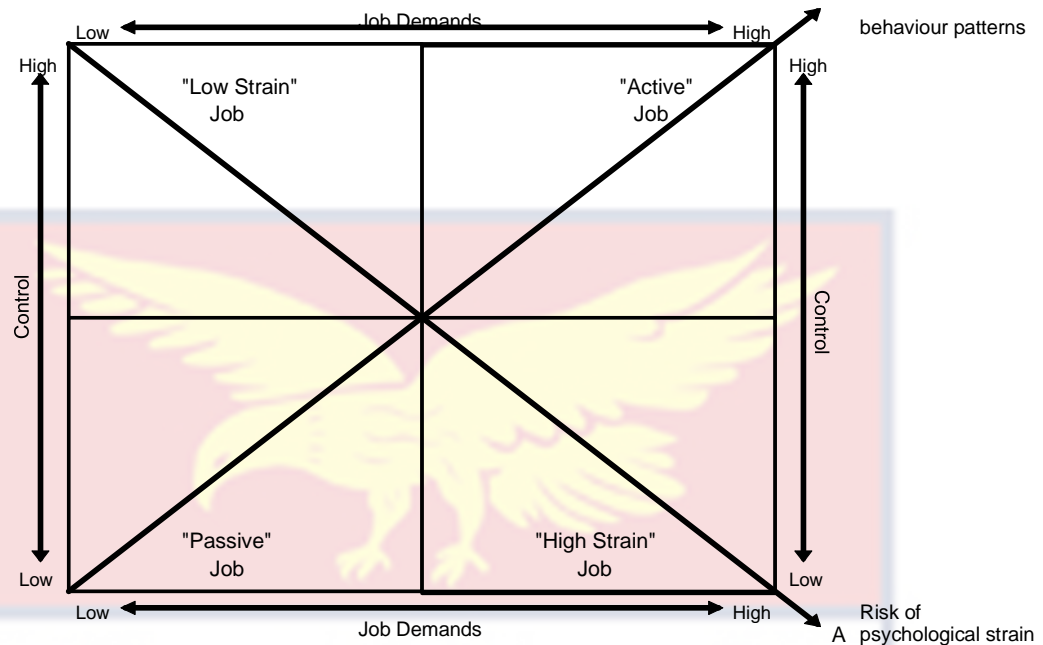


Figure 2: The Demand–Control model (Karasek, 1979)

The JDC model maintains that any workplace environment such as the UEW can be categorized into two dimensions. Thus, psychological work demands and the level of control employees have in meeting these demands (Theorell, & Karasek, 1990). In short, the JDC model predicts that increased work demands in the UEW such as teaching for long hours, these supervision, and marking volumes of examination scripts often result in high levels of employee stress. Yet, when a professor, lecturer, assistant lecturer or administrator has increased control over his job it enables him to deal effectively with the stress triggered by high work demands and in effect reduce the stress employees go through whilst on the job. Taris (2006) opined that the prediction only occurs when the interaction between work demand and control is significant and results in work-related stress outcomes like emotional exhaustion, chronic health conditions and intention to quit. Previous epidemiological studies by (Ganster et al., 2001; Wegman et al.,

2004) at various levels of work have given ample evidence in support of the JDC model. However, according to Taris (2006), these studies only agree with the main effects of the JDC and not how job demand and control interact to produce a stressful outcome as it may exist in UEW. This may be a result of the presence of mediators like the demographic characteristics of the employee (Meier, Van De Geer, & Bühlmann, 2008) and other factors which may be occasional (Van der Doef & Maes, 1999). Interestingly, when Karasek (1979), came out with the concept of job demands, he looked specifically at the psychological work demands or mental workload of the job. This included the demand of time, problem-solving, and monitoring. Nevertheless, Beehr, Glaser, Canali and Wallwey (2001) emphasized that almost all the research works testing Karasek's demand-control model did not stick to his original idea of job demands as a mental workload, but more as physical demands and workplace challenges.

In the UEW the model could make a lot of impacts because of the unique and practical nature of the job (i.e., teaching, researching, monitoring, administration, driving, weeding) employees do (Jones, Bright, & Clow, 2001). According to the model, occupational stress results from the demands of an employee's job and the amount of control he has. The control may be the authority, discretion or decision-making processes an employee may have over his job. To Karasek (1990), there are four different types of jobs: passive, active, low strain and high strain. Job demands involve stress which is psychologically motivated in the workplace. Examples include the proportion of work performed under pressure, interruption rate, amount of work, degree of concentration

required, time pressures, conflicting demands, the reaction time required, the pace of work, and the delays in work caused by the need to wait for others. Also, decision authority or decision-making processes involve the control an employee has over their responsibilities and how these responsibilities are carried out. It is made up of skill discretion and decision authority. Meanwhile, skill discretion has to do with the varied responsibilities of a specific type of job, low degree of repetitiveness, occasions for creativity and prospects to acquire new knowledge and mature on the job. Decision authority or decision-making processes describes the capabilities of an employee to make decisions about their job, and their capacity to impact other employees and the institution as a whole.

Putting the various aspects of strain and latitude together will produce four stress categories for jobs at any workplace. These are:

P – High Strain Jobs (Low Latitude, High Strain): employees are probably expected to augment their strain levels by taking on other duties such as teaching and serving as a dean or head of department at the same time without seeking additional latitude, basically because of their understanding of issues and their desire to gain experience on the job. In addition, employees also take an approach which enables them to take on additional responsibilities which makes them forego opportunities such as further studies which may come their way to ask for more latitude. Workers in this category can cope with some levels of strain that others with other styles would find excessive. They are very likely to survive in highly strained jobs.

A – Passive Jobs (Low Latitude, Low Strain): So far as the passivity of a job emanates from effectively handling distractions, then it is likely to be sufficient to be a managerial or supervisory role. The passivity that comes from a job which is either extraneous or trivial will not be satisfying. The supervisory type of job ensures that distractions are handled by putting in place measures to curtail exigencies and help maintain the culture of the institution, averting any disruption. When latitude is minimized via due processes, and when these processes make things better with fewer strain levels, a supervisor will consider that as success which will enable him to achieve the set target.

E – Active Jobs (High Latitude, High Strain): In Karasek's opinion, active jobs are not considered stressful, because employees have several preventive measures outlined for them to minimize strain. Among the categories of stress, it is this category that most obviously thrives in active conditions. It is driven by great ambition and virtually no fear of interruptions of the routine work schedule. Therefore, employees experience strain occasionally when they have worked over long periods. It relies on high flexibility and latitude to identify problems and address them. The active mode situates into how *Active Jobs (High Latitude, High Strain)* originally works.

I – Low Strain Jobs (High Latitude, Low Strain): The blend of increased levels of latitude with minimized levels of strain shows that communal processes are very necessary for jobs which require low strain. Employees exhibit a lot of authority to their levels of strain, hence contributing more to the classification and

supervision of responsibilities than in another environment where there is so much stress.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of this study has been exemplified to show the relationship that exists between variables (normally, a dependent and independent variable). Stemming from the literature reviewed, the conceptual framework has been designed to depict the influence that psychosocial factors and climate have on the health of employees of UEW and the decision to leave the institution as the case study. According to Rocco and Plakhotnik (2009), a conceptual framework provides the basis of the study. The conceptual framework truly reveals the effect of psychosocial factors on the health of employees. Here, the psychosocial climate is the independent variable while the health and turnover intention of employees is treated as the dependent variable.

Based on the literature reviewed, it can be observed that psychosocial climate influences the health of individuals working in an institution and by extension the decision of these individuals to quit the institution. From figure 3, there are five factors which constitute the psychosocial climate, namely; Social Support (SS), Job Demands (JD), Job Decision Latitude (DL), Discrimination (D) and Harassment (H). However, each of these factors impacts Burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, diminished accomplishment) and Turnover Intention (TI) of employees. Again, these factors interact to influence the dimensions of burnout. Moreover, the conceptual framework reveals a direct relationship between the dimension of burnout (i.e., emotional exhaustion,

depersonalization, diminished accomplishment) and turnover intentions. Thus, an employee's emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and diminished accomplishment have a direct relationship with their turnover intention. The links among these hypothesised relationships are diagrammatically shown in Figure 3 below.

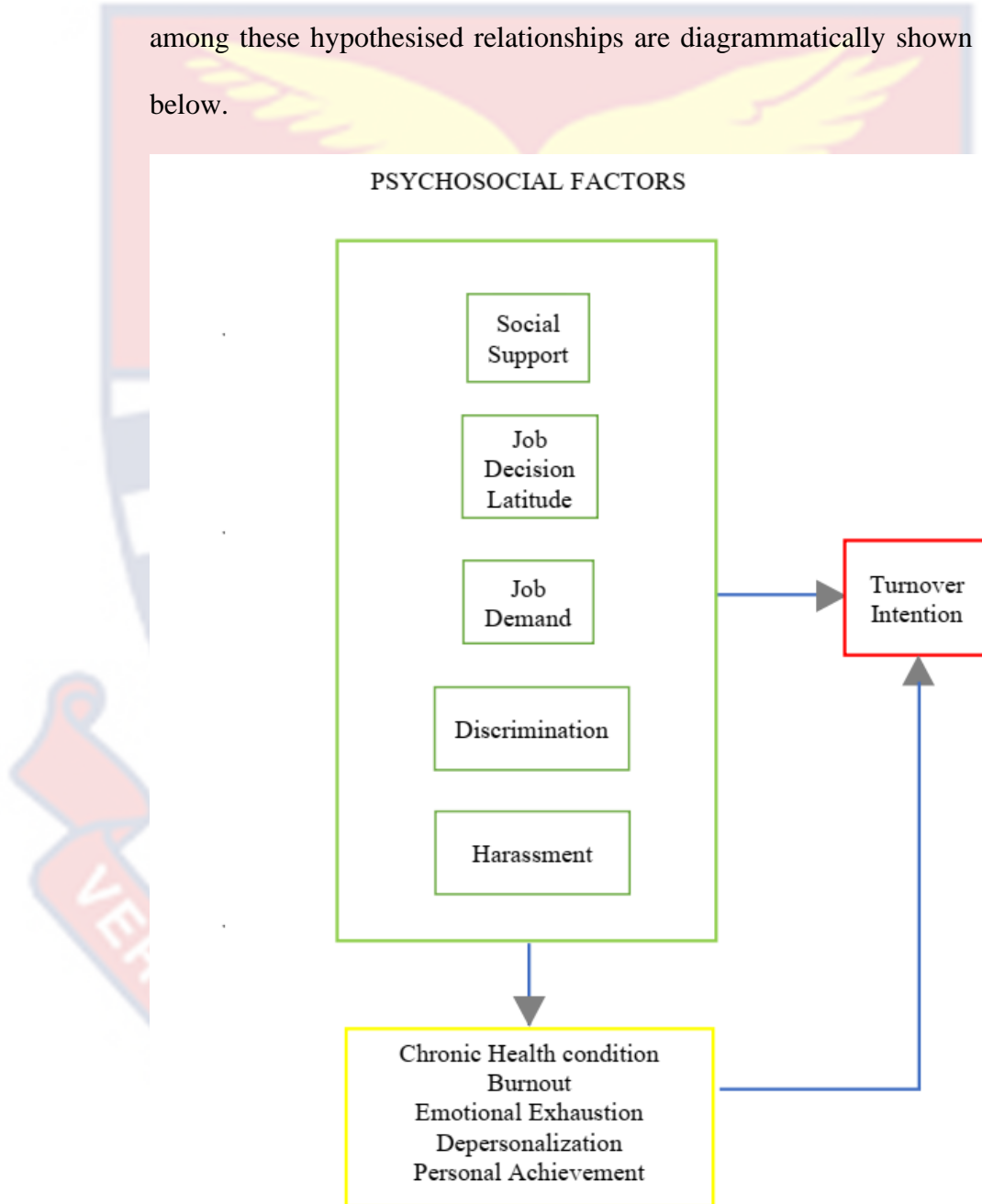
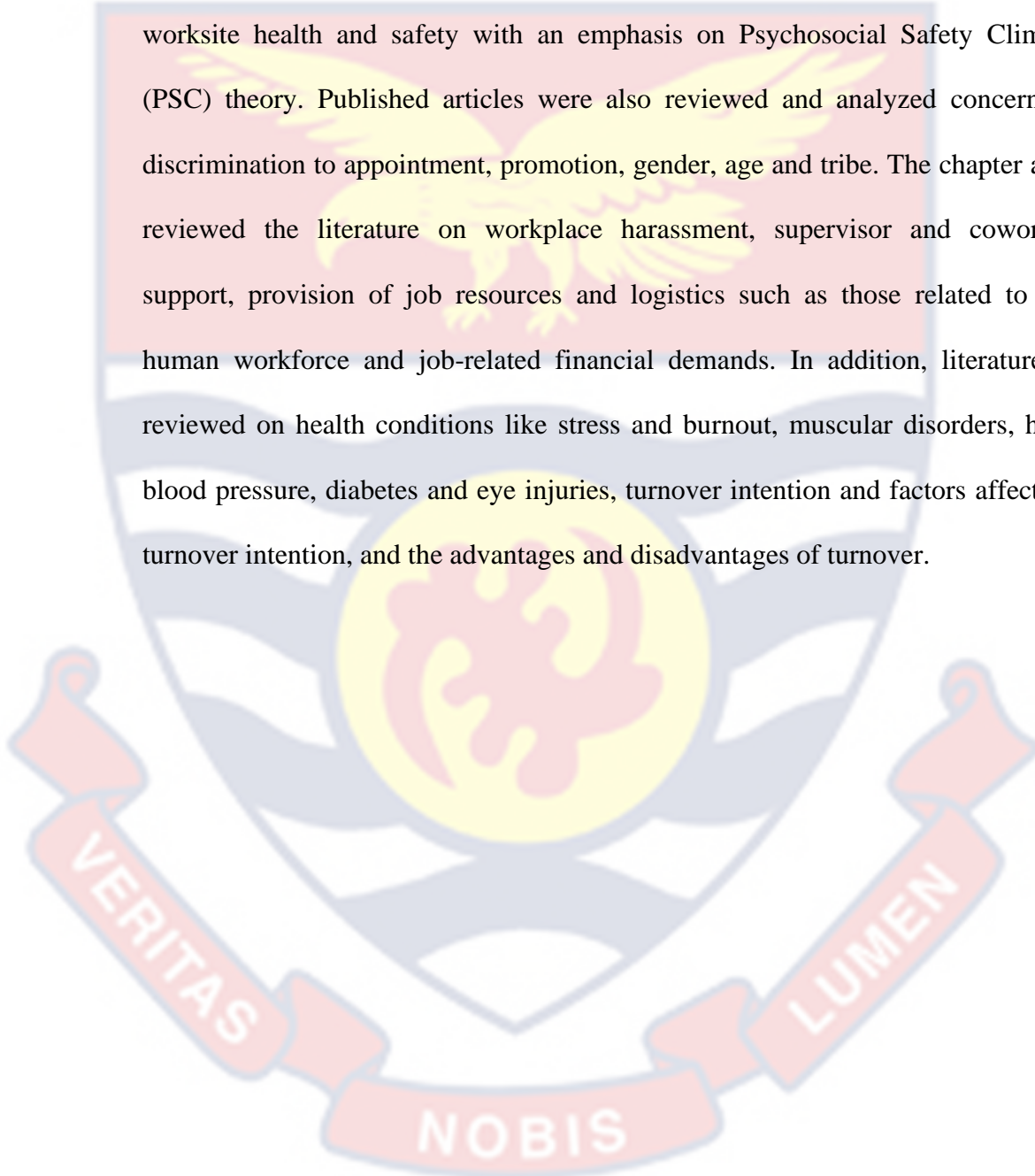


Figure 3: Interplay of psychosocial factors, job-related health conditions, burnout and turnover intentions (Yulita, Idris, & Dollard., 2016)

Summary

The chapter reviewed literature related to the research topic. It focused on two theories which have been propounded in the field of occupational health or worksite health and safety with an emphasis on Psychosocial Safety Climate (PSC) theory. Published articles were also reviewed and analyzed concerning discrimination to appointment, promotion, gender, age and tribe. The chapter also reviewed the literature on workplace harassment, supervisor and coworker support, provision of job resources and logistics such as those related to the human workforce and job-related financial demands. In addition, literature is reviewed on health conditions like stress and burnout, muscular disorders, high blood pressure, diabetes and eye injuries, turnover intention and factors affecting turnover intention, and the advantages and disadvantages of turnover.



CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

The purposes of this study were to: (1) identify the prevalence of chronic health conditions among employees of the University of Education, Winneba, (2) investigate the levels of burnout, discrimination, harassment, turnover intention, job demands, job decision latitude and social support (supervisor and co-worker support) among these employees (3) identify the measures put in place to protect and promote the health and psychosocial safety climate of the workers and the university (4) examine the extent to which psychosocial factors influence burnout on health and wellbeing and (5) explore the extent to which burnout and psychosocial factors predict turnover intention among the workers. It is further hypothesised that where the psychosocial climate of the university is low, the health status of the employees would be compromised and turnover intention would be high. This chapter focused on the methods which comprise the research design, study area, population, sampling procedures, and instruments for data collection. In addition, it contains data collection procedures and data processing and analysis.

Research Design

The study adopted a descriptive cross-sectional survey design to explore the existing psychosocial climate in UEW and how it impacts the health of employees and the turnover intention of the workers. One of the surest ways of determining the prevalence and the distribution of job demand, job decision latitude, social support, harassment and discrimination as they exist in a target

population is the use of cross-sectional studies which is suitable for finding relationships that can then be more thoroughly studied, using studies such as randomized controlled or cohort.

It is necessary to note that a significant number of studies in occupational health and safety employed cross-sectional surveys (Lexén, Kåhlin, Erlandsson, & Håkansson, 2020; Firouzbakht et al., 2018; Sleman, & Vuleta, 2015; Geldart, Smith, Shannon, & Lohfeld, 2010). Descriptive cross-sectional surveys have also been used in some other studies from specific industries or organisations such as health and community service workers (Dollard, & McTernan, 2011; Idris et al., 2012), aged care industry (Winwood et al., 2013), automobile manufacturers (Azma et al., 2013), construction workers (Okoye, & Aderibigbe, 2014), drivers (Wills, Watson, & Biggs, 2009) and teachers (Garrick et al., 2014) across different cultures and segments of the population.

An advantage of a cross-sectional survey is its quick and inexpensive nature (Sedgwick, 2014). According to Blaike (2000) and Sarantakos (2006), a descriptive survey is relatively simple to carry out because data are fairly collected and interpreted by the use of descriptive statistics. In cross-sectional surveys, there is no need for follow-up, and not many resources are needed to undertake the study (Sedgwick, 2014). However, descriptive cross-sectional survey results can vary significantly because of the precise construction of questions. Again, descriptive surveys can only describe a set of observations or the data collected but without the ability to manipulate them as being studied. In addition, Babbie (2007) argued that descriptive surveys cannot be used for

exploratory research where there is a need to explore the meanings and feelings of people. Surveys are also limited to narratives and historical analysis of events and weak in determining causal relationship between variables (Choy, 2014). To avert the challenges, I selected and applied robust statistical tools.

Despite the limitations of a descriptive cross-sectional survey, the aims and objectives of the current study made a descriptive cross-sectional survey the best-suited research design for the study. The rationale is that a descriptive survey does not fit neatly into the definition of either quantitative or qualitative research methodologies although it can utilize elements of both. It produced the depth of information needed for exploring psychosocial climate, employee health and turnover intention and their latent variables. These constructs (job demand, job decision latitude, social support, harassment and discrimination) and their outcome measures are already established and have been tested in the health and community service sector (Dollard & McTernan, 2011).

Ontological and epistemological positivist perspectives served as the direction for this investigation. The tenet of positivism is that only information derived from observation and the senses including measurement is "factual" and reliable (Collins, 2018). The sole responsibility of the researcher in positivist studies is to gather data and analyze it objectively. The researcher conducts the study with objectivity and dissociates himself from personal ideals. These studies typically yield tangible and quantitative study findings. The foundation of positivism is quantitative observation that results in statistical analysis. For many years, positivism has dominated research in the fields of business and

management. Positivism as a philosophy is in accordance with the empiricist view that knowledge stems from human experience. According to this atomistic, ontological perspective, the world is made up of distinct, observable elements and events that interact in a predictable, observable way on a regular basis.

Furthermore, there are no accommodations for human interests in positivist investigations, and the researcher operates independently of the investigation. According to Crowther and Lancaster (2008), positivist studies typically take a deductive method, whereas an inductive research approach is typically connected to a phenomenological philosophy. Also, positivism is associated with the idea that researchers must focus on facts. The assumption that you are independent of your research and that it can be completely objective is a sign that you are using a positivist approach to your study (Wilson, 2014). Research grounded on the positivist paradigm views the world as external and objective, and is strictly fact-based.

From my ontological viewpoint, the psychosocial environment, health, and intentions to leave among UEW employees, as well as the traits of the employees, exist independently of the employee's category, field, and level of education. And that the employee's perceptions were only crucial for measuring these elements. In addition, I believed that these elements already exist and would do so indefinitely, regardless of whether a worker chooses to remain or quit the institution. Additionally, psychosocial climate and the conceptions that makeup it is institutional factors (Dollard et al., 2012a; 2019; Dollard, & Bakker, 2010) that are measured as they are and are perceived by the workers, rather than through

social construction and employee interpretation (Oliver, 2010). Therefore, my ontological perspective was to determine the extent of these latent factors' existence within the institution and how they affect employee health and turnover intentions and not to construct or reconstruct them. My interest was to examine the extent to which job demand, job decision latitude, social support, harassment and discrimination could forecast the well-being and turnover intention of UEW employees.

In my epistemological view, rather than how workers build and interpret the existence of these factors, the psychosocial climate, health, and turnover intentions of UEW employees can be observed and quantified directly or indirectly from their views (Jackson, 2013). The core of the institution is the employees, who regularly engage with one another. These staff members are the most qualified to offer the most pertinent information about their organization. As a result, I used a structured, reliable, and accurate questionnaire. In actuality, survey-based quantitative methodology emerged as the best suitable approach for carrying out this research.

Study Area

This study was carried out at the University of Education, Winneba (UEW), established in September 1992 as a University College under PNDC Law 322. The University College of Education of Winneba brought together seven diploma-awarding colleges located in different towns under one umbrella institution. These colleges were the Advanced Teacher Training College, the Specialist Training College and the National Academy of Music, all at Winneba,

the School of Ghana Languages, Ajumako, the College of Special Education, Akwampim-Mampong, the Advanced Technical Training College, Kumasi; and the St. Andrews Agricultural Training College, Asante-Mampong. On 14th May 2004 the University of Education Act, Act 672 was enacted to upgrade the status of the University College of Education of Winneba to the status of a full University. The Winneba campus is the seat of the Vice-Chancellor with a satellite campus at Ajumako. By enactment of the Akenten Appiah-Menka University of Skills Training and Entrepreneurial Development Act (2020) Act 1026, the Kumasi and Asante-Mampong Campuses have ceased to be satellite campuses of UEW. Currently, UEW has two campuses; Winneba and Ajumako. However, the university has over forty distance education study centres across the country (UEW, 2022).

The Winneba Campus of UEW is the main campus of the university and is spread over three sites (North, Central and South) within the Effutu Municipality. The central administration of the university is located at the North Campus. The university is run under two broad divisions, that is the academic and non-academic divisions. The academic division of UEW comprises Faculties, Schools, Institutes, Centers and Offices. Currently, UEW has 2 Colleges, 5 Faculties, 4 Schools, 2 Institutes, 3 Centers and 2 Offices (UEW, 2022). The non-academic division of UEW is the Central Administration, Municipal Services and Staff and Students' Services. Meanwhile, the Municipal and Staff Students' services include the following; Works and Maintenance (Construction & Woodworking), Electricity and Water, Transport, Grounds and Gardens, Security, Health Services

(Clinic & Sanitation), Printing Press, Campus Radio and Halls of Residence (UEW, 2022).

The UEW is tasked with training qualified teachers to lead a new national vision for education to refocus Ghana's efforts in the direction of quick economic and social growth. As a strategic goal, the university is to provide a favourable work environment which promotes equal opportunities for faculties, staff and students. Faculty members of the university are responsible for teaching and supervision whereas non-academic employees undertake administrative, health care delivery and municipal services (UEW, 2022).

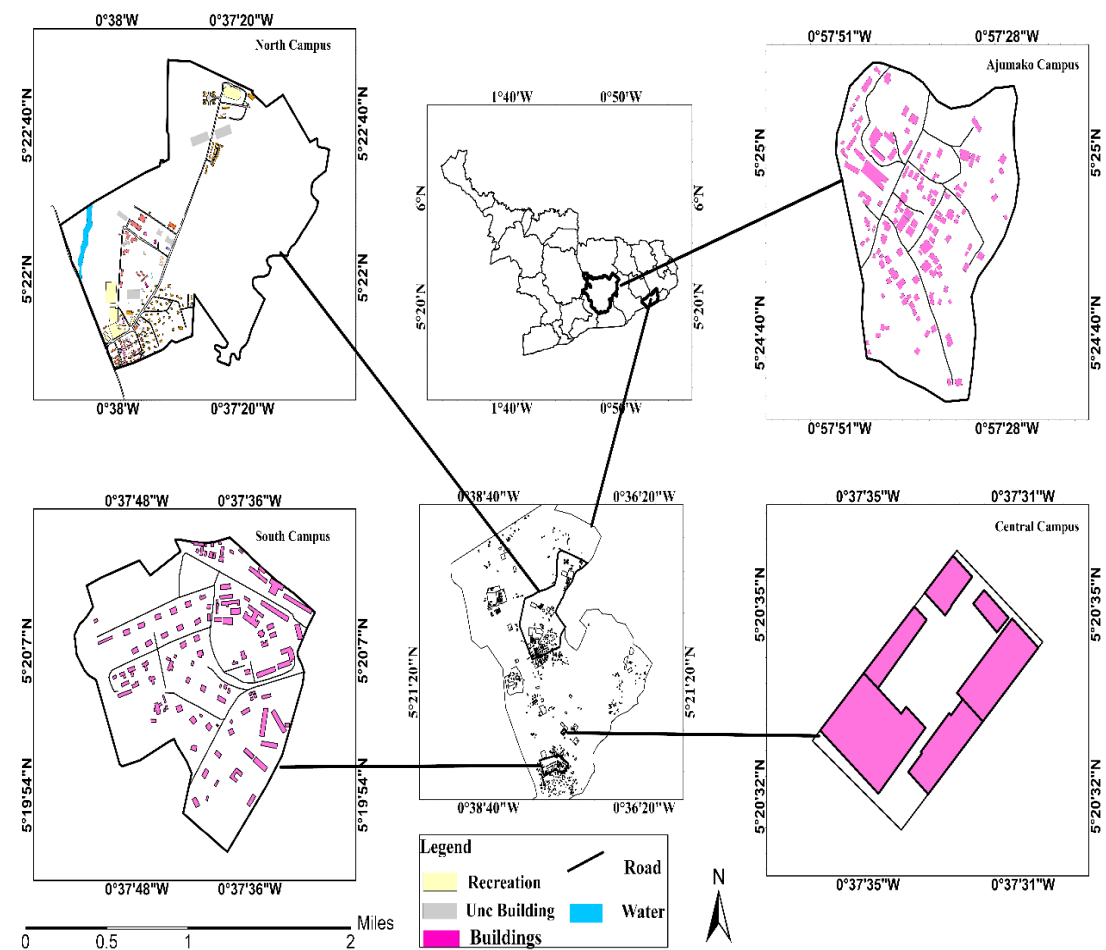


Figure 4: Map of UEW linking Ajumako, Central, North and South Campuses (Author's construct)

Population

The study was conducted at the University of Education, Winneba to recruit all employees working at the university. The population for this study included all permanent staff of the university. However, records from the division of human resources of UEW showed that the total population of employees is 1,784 with 70% (n=1249) being males and 30% (n=535) being females (UEW, 2022). Out of the total population, there are 32% (n=571) academic staff and 68% (n=1,213) non-academic employees. Among the non-academic employees, 14.6% (n=177) work under the office of the Vice Chancellor, 29.8% (n=362) under the Registry, 16.2% (n=197) under Finance, 23.8% (n=289) under Works and Physical Development and 15.5% (n=188) under Health and Sanitation. The employees of UEW are generally categorized into four; Senior Members (Academics), Senior Members (Non-Academics), Senior Staff and Junior Staff. Senior Members (Academics) and Senior Members (Non-academics) are academic and professional or administrative employees who, by their appointment, become members of Convocation. Senior Staff are persons in the employ of the university below the rank of a Junior Assistant Registrar or its equivalent but not lower than that of an Administrative Assistant or its equivalent whereas Junior Staff is all employees of the University below the rank of Administrative Assistants and analogous grades. Out of the total study population, 32% (n=575) are Senior Members (Academic), 9% (n=168) are Senior Members (Non-Academic), 29% (n=526) are Senior Staff and 29% (n=515) are Junior Staff (UEW, 2022).

The study included all consenting full-time employees of UEW. Specifically, the consenting employee who have been confirmed, as permanent workers of the university before data collection. Those excluded were employees who voluntarily decided not to take part in the study. Again, employees who were either on annual leave or study leave were not included in the study. In addition, terminally ill employees who could not talk or give consent during the data collection period were also excluded from the study.

Sampling Procedure

The population included 1,784 employees of the UEW. Nevertheless, 1,222 employees of UEW willingly took part in the study and returned the completed questionnaire which represents a response rate of approximately 68%. The respondents included 33.5% ($n = 409$) from the Faculty, 8.3% ($n = 101$) from the Institute, 5.0% ($n = 61$) from the Office of VC, 15.7% ($n = 192$) from the Registry, 9.2% ($n = 112$) from Finance, 15.3% ($n = 187$) from Works and Physical Development and 13.1% ($n = 160$) from Health and Sanitation. In addition, this sample comprised 62.9% ($n = 769$) male and 37.1% ($n = 453$) female employees of UEW. Again, 90.3% ($n = 1104$) of the employees were Christians, 6.9% ($n = 84$) Muslims and 2.8% ($n = 34$) Traditionalists. The age of the participants ranged from 18 to above 60 years ($M = 30$, $SD = 4.6$). They included 40.7% ($n = 497$) singles, 48.7% ($n = 595$) married and living with the spouse, 7.4% ($n = 90$) married but not living with the spouse, 1.5% ($n = 18$) divorced/separated, and 1.8% ($n = 22$) widow/widower.

In addition, they included 28.1% ($n = 343$) of UEW employees who were certificate holders, 3.7% ($n = 45$) had diploma level education, 26.8% ($n = 327$) bachelor's degree, 31.5% ($n = 385$) master's degree, and 10.0% ($n = 122$) Ph.D. level of education. Meanwhile, 28.5% ($n = 349$) of employees were senior members (academic), 9.1% ($n = 111$) senior members (non-academic), 26.5% ($n = 324$) senior staff and 35.8% ($n = 438$) junior staff. The years of work at UEW ranged from one year to above 21 years ($M = 5$, $SD = 3.1$). The employees also travel for university work at different times including 9.3% ($n = 114$) who travel frequently, 2.5% ($n = 31$) who sometimes travel, 27.3% ($n = 334$) rarely travel and 60.8% ($n = 743$) who never travel. Furthermore, reported sleep hours less than 7 hours was 53.2% ($n = 650$), between 7 to 9 hours of sleep, 46.6% ($n = 570$) and greater than 9 hours of sleep, 0.2% ($n = 2$). Meanwhile, 44.9% ($n = 549$) of UEW employees had problem sleeping and 55.1% ($n = 673$) did not have a sleep problem. From the results, 16.2% ($n = 198$) reported excellent health condition, 43.6% ($n = 533$) very good health condition, 31.8% ($n = 389$) good health condition, 7.4% ($n = 90$) fair health condition and 1% ($n = 12$) reported poor health condition.

The employees of UEW had developed various health problems from the work that they do. Of the 1,222 respondents, 19.0% ($n = 232$) reported having hypertension whereas 81.0% ($n = 990$) reported none of such. In addition, 14.3% ($n = 175$) reported having developed diabetes while 85.7% ($n = 1047$) reported none of such. Also, 54.0% ($n = 660$) reported developing work-related stress while 46% ($n = 562$) did not. Furthermore, 35.9% ($n = 439$) reported having

backaches whereas 64.1% ($n = 783$) reported none of such conditions. Additionally, 12.3% ($n = 150$) reported that they had eye problems while 87.7% ($n = 1072$) had not experienced such a problem. Regarding chest pains, 1.6% ($n = 20$) indicated developing such health condition at work whereas 98.4% ($n = 1202$) developed no such condition. Respondents also included 2.5% ($n = 30$) of employees who reported having developed repetitive strain injuries.

Meanwhile, the outcome of the sample was inferred to reflect the health status and turnover intention of all employees in the UEW. The unit of analysis was the individual employee. By using census, potential sampling errors are dealt with since there is no need to worry whether the samples fairly represent the population from which the group was taken. This helps in the generalization of results since every member of the population was involved. Again, because the census approach produces precise findings, it is suitable for planning and allocating funds, resources, and programmes that promote development and policy changes. Additionally, it offers a precise estimate of the population (that is no sampling error). Future research could benefit from benchmark data, and it's more probable that specific details about certain population subgroups would be available. If a census rather than a sample is used to gather information about a population, there is no need for a statistical theory (Mugo, 2002). When it is difficult to count every unit of the population at a given time and the costs involved in both time and money are unaffordable, the census method may not always be practicable and is rarely economical (Ogah, 2013; Daniel, 2012). Ogah (2013) asserts that gathering, processing, and disseminating census data take

longer. As a result, any alternative sampling methods, including the simple random method, systematic sampling, stratified sampling, quota sampling, cluster sampling, convenience sampling, and others, may be used (Statistical Language – Australia Bureau of Statistics, 2013).

Data Collection Instruments

A questionnaire was employed for the collection of data. The current questionnaire was developed from the Swedish Demand-Control-Support Questionnaire [DCSQ] (Aguilar, Fonseca, & Valente, 2010), Maslach Burnout Inventory - Educators Survey [MBI-ES] (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996), Chronic Work Discrimination and Harassment [CWDH] (Bobo, & Suh, 2000; McNeilly et al., 1995), and Turnover Intention Scale [TIS-6] (Roodt, 2004).

The questionnaire has 65 items organised under 6 sub-sections [A, B, C, D, E & F] (see Appendix A). Section A of the instrument contains 13 items on the demographic variables of participants such as age, gender, marital status, religious affiliation, staff category, faculty/directorate/division, level of education and number of years of employment in the university. The section also measures personal health conditions participants have developed in the course of duty of which they are aware. The health condition includes hypertension, diabetes, work-related stress, backaches, eye injury and chest pains. They also answer questions on their hours of sleep time, how often they travel for university work and their current state of general health which was measured using a general health status item from the Short Form Health Survey [SFHS] (Ware et al., 2001). The general health status item asks participants to rate their general health status as excellent

(6), very good (5), good (4), fair (3), poor (2), and very poor (1). Participants responded to this 13-item section by ticking the most appropriate option or writing answers in provided spaces.

Section B of the instrument measured the psychosocial climate, using items adapted from the Swedish “Demand-Control-Support Questionnaire”, a short version of the Job Content Questionnaire (DCSQ), used to evaluate psychosocial aspects of work (Aguiar et al., 2010). The instrument was introduced by Theorell, in 1988 and adapted to Portuguese in epidemiological studies in Brazil. It has 17 items, five of which evaluate psychosocial demand, six decision latitudes and six social supports at the workplace. On the psychological demand, four items measure quantitative aspects of work, such as time, requirement and speed to perform tasks, and one item refers to conflict among different demands. The items related to decision latitude, four refer to the use and development of abilities and two on autonomy to make decisions about the work process. Six items measure “social support in the workplace”, four on relationships among co-workers and two between co-workers and supervisors. During the adaption of (DCSQ), the word ‘job’ in items 23 and 25 was replaced with ‘institution’ to reflect the university. Unlike tools in occupational health that measure psychosocial climate (Tabanelli et al., 2008), DCSQ which aims to assess work-related stress, was selected because it is relatively short and simple, enabling its inclusion into a multidimensional questionnaire. Furthermore, the DCSQ has been used in a cohort study of civil servants of a university in the state of Rio de Janeiro (Alves, Chor, Faerstein, Werneck, & Lopes, 2004).

Consequently, items on DCSQ were scored using five-point Likert-Scale level frequency ratings, thus strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), undecided (3), agree (4) and strongly agree (5). The higher the score, the higher the demands, control and social support (Sleman & Vuleta, 2015). Sample items include: “*I have to perform my work tasks quickly*”, “*I can learn new things through my work*”, “*there is a calm and pleasant environment where I work*”, and “*at work, I have a good relationship with my superiors?*” For internal consistency evaluation, Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the dimensions is 0.75, 0.72 and 0.82, respectively (Aguar et al., 2010).

Section C of the instrument looked at burnout among the employees of the UEW, with items adapted from the Maslach Burnout Inventory - Educators Survey (MBI-ES). The MBI-ES is a psychometric instrument originally developed by Maslach et al. (1996), explicitly designed to quantitatively assess the burnout level among teachers, administrators, other staff members, and volunteers working in any educational setting (Aboagye et al., 2018). The MBI-ES was employed because various investigators have used it to examine the phenomenon of burnout in different educational institutions such as basic, intermediate, high and tertiary in countries like the United States (Boles, Dean, Ricks, Short, & Wang, 2000), Greece (Antoniou, Polychroni, & Vlachakis, 2006), Cyprus (Kokkinos, 2006), and Sweden (Arvidsson, Håkansson, Karlson, Björk, & Persson, 2016).

The MBI-ES consists of 22 items and has three component scales: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal achievement (Maslach et

al., 2017), measuring its unique dimension of burnout. The Emotional Exhaustion (EE) scale measures feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by one's work, using 9 items. Meanwhile, the depersonalization (DP) scale which consists of 5 items measures an unfeeling and impersonal response toward recipients of one's service, care, treatment, or instruction. A higher score indicates higher degrees of experienced burnout. The personal accomplishment (PA) scale measures feelings of competence and achievement in one's work. There are 8 items on this scale and lower scores correspond to greater experienced burnout. However, the response to the items for all three-component scales was the same. Higher scores correspond to greater experienced burnout. All MBI-ES items were scored using 5-level frequency ratings thus, strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), undecided (3), agree (4) and strongly agree (5). Sample items include: *‘I feel emotionally drained from my work’*, *‘I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally’* and *‘in my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly’*. MBI-ES scale has a Cronbach’s Alpha reliability coefficient of 0.78 (Chen et al., 2014). The score categorization ranged from low, moderate to high levels with segment-specific scores from 1-5.

Furthermore, section D of the instrument examined discrimination and harassment as experienced by the workers at UEW. The Abbreviated version of the Chronic Work Discrimination and Harassment tool designed by Sternthal et al (2011) for the Chicago Community Adult Health Survey (CCAHS) was used to measure discrimination and harassment. The original scale was adapted from 2 sources: the perceived racism scale (McNeilly et al., 1996) and Disease and

Surveying Racial Discrimination scale (Bobo et al., 2000). Meanwhile, the original version of the instrument has 12 items but the abbreviated version has 6 items. In the interim, the abbreviated version was adapted so as not to overburden respondents in responding to the items, and at the same time be able to measure and capture the construct adequately. The harassment discrimination aspects of the instrument contained 3 items each with a Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.84 and 0.73 respectively (Williams, 1997). Participants responded to these items on a 5-level frequency rating thus, strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), undecided (3), agree (4) and strongly agree (5). Sample questions include: *"I am often watched more closely than others"* and *"My supervisor or coworkers often make slurs or jokes about my ethnic group"*. The answer to all items was summed into one score, with higher scores corresponding to a higher frequency of unfair experiences.

Additionally, section E of the instrument looked at the turnover intentions of the workers with items adapted from the Turnover Intention Scale [TIS-6] (Roodt, 2004). TIS-6 is a 6-item instrument developed to measure employees' intentions to either leave or stay in their current organisation. This was originally a 15-item scale but was shortened to the current version to reduce the potential response burden. TIS-6 was adapted because it offers a variety of questions, which is not an option with some of the other instruments used in measuring turnover intention (Aladwan et al., 2013). The items were scored using five-level frequency ratings, thus strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), undecided (3), agree (4) and strongly agree (5). A higher score such as 5 or such aggregation indicates

an intention to leave the institution. Sample questions include: “*My current job is satisfying my personal needs*”, and “*I am often frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve my personal work-related goals*” (Roodt, 2004).

TIS-6 has Cronbach’s Alpha values ranging from 0.80 (Bothma, & Roodt, 2013) to 0.88 (Oosthuizen, Coetzee, & Munro, 2016). According to Stevens (2015), this scale had a significant factor loading of $.59 < r < .83$ and an eigenvalue of 3.352, which explained 55.86% of the variance. The TIS-6 is graded by summing the results of the six items. Lower and higher TIS-6 scores, as reported by Roodt (2004), indicate, respectively, the less and more likely desire of a person to leave his or her current employment.

Finally, section F of the instrument required respondents to indicate measures the university has put in place to ensure the protection of their health and general well-being and the promotion of a good psychosocial climate within the university. It had only one test item. Respondents had a list of options to select from based on their complete knowledge, feeling, experience and understanding of the health and safety measures. Nevertheless, respondents answered the question by ticking their answers among the list of options provided. The question is “*what measures have the organization put in place to ensure protection and promote the health and psychosocial safety climate of the workers and the University of Education, Winneba?*”.

Pre-testing of the instrument

Pre-testing is an important step in getting a good research instrument. It offers the opportunity to increase the validity and reliability of the instrument

(Willis, 2016). Furthermore, pretesting help in determining if participants understand the questions as well as if they perform the tasks or have the information that the item requires. Again, pre-tests provide the most direct evidence for the validity of the questionnaire data for most items.

A total of 50 employees of UEW from the Ajumako and Winneba campuses participated in the pre-test. Radhakrishna (2007) opines that a pre-test sample size of 20 to 30 participants can ensure an instrument's dependability. A maximum of 3 working days were given to participants to complete and submit the questionnaire. The staff members were urged to read everything carefully and offer corrections where they thought it was necessary. There was also an extra sheet of paper attached to the questionnaire for respondents to comment on any inaccuracies and deficiencies they may have found. The questionnaire was revised based on comments and recommendations from the workforce. The pre-testing exercise took place from January 12 until January 28, 2022.

Eventually, the questionnaire was collected, checked, and coded before statistical data analysis was carried out (Huck, 2008). Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23.0 for Windows was used to conduct statistical analysis for correlations, validity testing, and reliability testing (IBM Corporation, 2010). Analyses of the quantitative instrument's validity and reliability were looked at.

Validity of instrument

Because the items were chosen from a variety of already-existing instruments and some were changed to fit the needs of the current study, ensuring

the validity of the instrument was essential. Phases of the questionnaire's validity testing were conducted. First, a senior occupational health and safety specialist and two health promotion experts from the Universities of Cape Coast and UEW were respectfully presented with a 71-item questionnaire to determine its face and content validity. They made comments about the terminology transition from "job" to "institution." In addition, they offered corrections for grammatical errors and item ambiguity. The questionnaire was also analysed for the same reason by an industrial psychologist from the University of Ghana who specializes in occupational health and safety (OHS). Finally, three unclear items (4, 10, and 24) were eliminated as a result of their remarks. The 68-item questionnaire was then reduced to 65 items, which my two thesis advisors standardized in terms of phrasing and domain. The supervisors achieved this by eliminating three unnecessary questions (7, 12, and 18) that had no bearing on the study's goal. The face and content validity of the construct was thus established.

Establishing the construct validity of the current questionnaire became necessary since the questionnaire items were selected and pulled together from different survey instruments. Though standardized, these instruments have been developed and tested with very different workers, organisations and contexts (Hall et al., 2010; Ware, et al., 2001). Therefore, construct validity helped to assess the factor structure of the current instrument (Sounan et al., 2012) and “tap” the various constructs being measured (Field, 2000). The current questionnaire measures job demand, job decision latitude, social support, burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment), harassment,

discrimination and turnover intention at an interval scale. Thus, the data collected was taken through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using principal component factor analysis with Varimax orthogonal rotation (Field, 2000).

The factor analysis using the principal component analysis with orthogonal rotation (Varimax) yielded nine factors; job demand, job decision latitude, social support, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment, harassment, discrimination and turnover intention. These constructs together accounted for 79.7% of the variance extracted by the instrument (Field, 2000). The 1st factor, job demand composed of 5 items and accounted for 17.6% of the variance. The 2nd factor, job decision latitude had six items and an extracted variance of 11.1%. The 3rd factor, social support had six items and had a 10.1% variance extracted. The 4th, 5th and 6th factors, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment had five, four and eight items respectively with a corresponding 9.6%, 8.5%, and 4.3% variances extracted. In addition, the variances extracted for the 7th, 8th and 9th factors, thus harassment with three items, discrimination with three items and turnover intention with six items were 7.4%, 6.5% and 4.9% respectively.

The initial loadings in the rotated component matrix indicated that four items EE6, EE7, EE8 and EE9 under emotional exhaustion and, DP5 under depersonalization did not meet the cut-off point of 0.5. These items were removed from further analysis.

Furthermore, the factor loadings (k), average variance extracted (AVE), and composite reliability (CR) were tested to measure the convergent validity.

Unlike Cronbach's alpha which may over- or underestimate scale reliability, CR gives exact scale reliability (Garson, 2016). The recommended AVE values for each model construct should exceed 0.50 while the CR values greater than 0.70 for convergent validity are accepted (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). Moreover, all the constructs were above 0.50 which suggests a significant level of approval (Chen, & Phou 2013). The constructs values of AVE and CR in the research model satisfy the acceptance level as presented in Tables 1 and 2.

The discriminant validity is said to be attained if the square root of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for the individual construct is higher than the inter-factor correlation between the construct in the model (Kurfalı, Arifoglu, Tokdemir, & Pacin, 2017; Chin 1998; Hair et al. 2010) as boldly shown in the diagonal cells in Table 3. All the results in Table 3, were within the endorsed values, The general results satisfy the discriminant validity recommendation of the model construct.

Table 1: Item Listings, Factor Loadings, Cronbach's Alpha, Cumulative Variance Explained, Average Variance Extracted and Composite Reliabilities for Job Demands, Decision Latitude, Social Support, Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization

Construct	Measurement	Factor loading
Job Demand	(AVE=0.818; CR=0.957; CVE=17.564; $\alpha = 0.948$)	
	JD1	0.909
	JD2	0.906
	JD3	0.911
	JD4	0.890
	JD5	0.905
Job Decision Latitude	(AVE=0.784; CR=0.956; CVE=28.650; $\alpha = 0.949$)	
	DL1	0.884
	DL2	0.873
	DL3	0.900
	DL4	0.881
	DL5	0.874
	DL6	0.899
Social Support	(AVE=0.835; CR=0.968; CVE=38.762; $\alpha = 0.964$)	
	SS1	0.894
	SS2	0.921
	SS3	0.926
	SS4	0.894
	SS5	0.921
	SS6	0.927
Emotional Exhaustion	(AVE=0.785; CR=0.948; CVE=48.297; $\alpha = 0.943$)	
	EE1	0.872
	EE2	0.877
	EE3	0.900
	EE4	0.884
	EE5	0.897
Depersonalization	(AVE=0.798; CR=0.940; CVE=56.834; $\alpha = 0.924$)	
	DP1	0.897
	DP2	0.887
	DP3	0.913
	DP4	0.875

Key: JD= Job Demand, DL= Decision Latitude, SS= Social Support, EE= Emotional Exhaustion, DP=Depersonalization, α = Cronbach Alpha, CVE= Cumulative Variance Explained, AVE= Average Variance Extracted, and CR= Composite Reliability

Source: Field Survey (2022)

Table 2: Item Listings, Factor Loadings, Cronbach's Alpha, Cumulative Variance Explained, Average Variance Extracted and Composite Reliabilities for Personal Accomplishment, Harassment, Discrimination and Turnover Intention

Construct	Measurement	Factor loading
Personal Accomplishment	(AVE=0.762; CR=0.962; CVE=64.209; $\alpha = 0.958$)	
	PA1	0.841
	PA2	0.892
	PA3	0.892
	PA4	0.862
	PA5	0.841
	PA6	0.891
	PA7	0.898
	PA8	0.863
Harassment	(AVE=0.794; CR=0.920; CVE=70.741; $\alpha = 0.904$)	
	H1	0.878
	H2	0.896
	H3	0.899
Discrimination	(AVE=0.804; CR=0.925; CVE=75.594; $\alpha = 0.898$)	
	D1	0.897
	D2	0.904
	D3	0.888
Turnover Intention	(AVE=0.791; CR=0.958; CVE=79.891; $\alpha = 0.948$)	
	TI1	0.920
	TI2	0.886
	TI3	0.937
	TI4	0.909
	TI5	0.917
	TI6	0.753

Key: PA= Personal Accomplishment, H = Harassment, D= Discrimination, TI = Turnover Intention, α = Cronbach Alpha, CVE= Cumulative Variance Explained, AVE= Average Variance Extracted, and CR= Composite Reliability

Source: Field Survey (2022)

Table 3: Discriminant Validity Based on Fornel and Larcker (1981)**Criterion**

Construct	JD	DL	SS	EE	DP	PA	H	D	TI
JD	0.904								
DL	0.054	0.885							
SS	0.069	0.110	0.914						
EE	1.27	0.199	0.115	0.886					
DP	0.080	0.111	0.092	0.122	0.893				
PA	0.121	0.121	0.117	0.121	0.165	0.873			
H	0.067	0.179	0.127	0.303	0.094	0.056	0.891		
D	0.082	0.116	0.133	0.106	0.133	0.107	0.110	0.897	
TI	0.077	0.047	0.074	0.029	0.074	0.062	0.66	0.108	0.889

Diagonal elements (**in bold**) are square roots of AVE

Source: Field Survey (2022)

Reliability of instrument

Instrument reliability is concerned with the consistency of measurements: from time to time, from form to form, from item to item, or from one rater to another (Mueller, & Knapp, 2018). Though the instruments used in the study are already existing ones that are reported to be reliable, further reliability assessment was needed. The internal consistency reliability of the items was tested and reported using the pre-test data (Levinson, Speed, Infantolino, & Hajcak, 2017; Morera, & Stokes, 2016). Cronbach's alpha (α) was employed to test the internal consistency of the multi-item construct. The SPSS software (IBM Cooperation, 2010) was used to determine the overall and specific Cronbach's alpha reliability of the instrument. The generally accepted internal consistency or reliability of each construct should be equal to or exceed 0.70 (Wu, & Chen, 2017; Hair et al., 2010). All the model constructs presented high-reliability values or high internal consistency with Cronbach's alpha (α) values ranging from 0.898 to 0.964 as

indicated in Table 1a&b. Furthermore, results indicated that for the first to last components extracted, eigenvalues ranged from 8.255 to 2.020 and the percentage of total variance explained ranged from 17.564 to 79.891%.

Moreover, the indices for skewness and kurtosis were analyzed to find out the normality of the data. Lei and Lomax (2005) recommended that both skewness and kurtosis indices should not be more than $|2.3|$ to ensure the normality of the data. The skewness index and kurtosis index for all the items fall within the acceptable range. Therefore, the data in this study was regarded as appropriate for the factor analysis to proceed. In addition, the sampling adequacy was measured using Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett’s test of sphericity. The results indicated significant statistics of $\chi^2(276) = 8,9359.74$ ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$) and the KMO measure = $0.793 > 0.500$. Hence, the data obtained is appropriate for further analysis.

Data Collection Procedures

The framework for this study was a quantitative research design where census was employed to collect relevant data. Respondents answered a structured questionnaire made up of 65 items. Data collection ensued immediately after approval was sought from my two research supervisors; and ethical clearance (Appendix B; ID: UCCIRB/EXT/2021/19) from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the University of Cape Coast (UCC). Also, permission was sought from and granted by the Registrar of UEW (Appendix C; Permission to administer research instrument letter) to enable me to administer the research instrument to employees of the university. The documents obtained (ethical clearance and

permission letter) offered me the opportunity to introduce myself to the deans, heads of departments and administrators of faculties, departments and sections of the university. It also helped me in reaching out to employees of the university and to establish a good rapport with the respondents. The objectives of the study were also explained to the participants.

Four Research Assistants (RAs) were recruited and trained to help with the data collection. These RAs included first-degree Biology Education graduates doing their National Service at the Department of Biology Education. These RAs were selected because of their familiarity with the university, experience, and ability to ensure ethical issues at the university. The purpose of the study was explained to the RAs which made them abreast of the work. The training was based on how to seek the necessary permission and gain access to the various offices to distribute the questionnaire to the participants and retrieve same, assisting employees who cannot read and write, and translating the contents of the instruments into the languages spoken by the respondents. To achieve these, the RAs were selected based on their language competencies in English, Twi and Fante which were the dominant languages spoken by the employees. The RAs were further trained on how to handle ethical issues at the university and how to observe the COVID-19 safety protocols since the distribution of the questionnaire was done face-to-face. The four RAs were made to engage in mock data collection practices especially, during the pre-testing of the research instrument. The training of the field assistants lasted for two days (from 4th to 5th January

2022). I together with the four RAs distributed the questionnaire to the employees face-to-face when they were at post working.

The respondents were given three days to return the filled questionnaire to their various workplaces for collection by the research team members. This was to enable participants to have enough time to complete the questionnaire without being pressured and to avoid interrupting their work schedule. Participants who were unable to complete the questionnaire within three days were given additional three days to complete the questionnaire. At some offices and departments where the employees were not readily available due to official assignments elsewhere, the administrators and heads of departments assisted in the distribution and collection of the completed questionnaire. In situations where an employee could not read and write or was too busy to fill the instrument, members of the research team assisted. Data collection took place from the second week of February 2022 through to the first week of April 2022.

The first place the researchers visited during data collection was the Ajumako campus of UEW. Upon arrival, we sought permission from the campus registrar to conduct the study. Employees were contacted from Monday to Friday between the hours of 8 am to 5 pm. In addition, an informed consent form was made available to the participants. The employees were informed of the voluntary nature of the study and that no monetary gain was attached. They were further assured of anonymity and confidentiality of the study and on no occasion should they write their names. Participants were also informed that this study was purely for academic exercise. Furthermore, participants were assured there was going to

be pool data analysis where no individual participant could be singled out. Employees willing to take part in the study duly signed the informed consent form before attempting the questionnaire. In all, the research team spent one week at Ajumako before proceeding to Winneba to continue with data collection. In Winneba, the research team administered the questionnaire at the North, Central and South campuses. We spent one week on each of the campuses. Meanwhile, an additional week was set aside by the research team to go back to all the campuses to contact and collect the questionnaire from respondents who could not submit the questionnaire within three days. Data collection showed approximately a 68% response rate.

Data Processing and Analysis

Following data collection, the data were first crosschecked and edited to ensure completeness for analysis. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Windows version 23.0 and LISREL 9.30 version software were used for the processing. Data were screened for missing values for continuous and string variables, and univariate and multivariate outliers were checked using frequency distributions and percentages. This was done by generating frequencies and percentages for each variable to identify obvious errors in data entries. Data which were wrongfully entered were corrected by referring to the original questionnaire.

In addition, missing values for quantitative data were replaced using the serial means while the median of nearby points procedure was used to replace the missing qualitative data. According to Huck (2008), the most appropriate statistics

for replacing missing values in the interval and/or ratio data such as job demands, social support, job decision latitude, harassment, discrimination, emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment, depersonalization and turnover intention, is serial means (the average). Besides, Babbie (2007) contends that it is best to replace missing values in categorical data like the category of staff, faculty or section, educational level and sex with the median of nearby points. Histograms with normal curves were employed to test normality and revealed that the data collected met this assumption. The SPSS was used mainly for data entry and normality checks because the enumerators were all more conversant with SPSS than LISREL. LISREL, however, was used throughout the analysis after exporting the data from SPSS to LISREL.

Using LISREL, a set of competitive full Structural Equation Models (SEM) were tested to study the role of each variable i.e., Job Demand (JD), Social Support (SS), Decision Latitude (DL), Harassment (H) and Discrimination (D), Emotional Exhaustion (EE), Personal Accomplishment (PA), Depersonalization (DP) on Turnover Intention (TI). Also, SEM was used to examine the influence of Job Demand (JD), Social Support (SS), Decision Latitude (DL), Harassment (H) and Discrimination (D) on Emotional Exhaustion (EE), Personal Accomplishment (PA), Depersonalization (DP). Several fit indexes were obtained: chi-square statistic (χ^2), Degrees of Freedom (df), p-value (P), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Standardized Root Mean Squared Residual (SRMR), Root Mean Square Residual (RMR), Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI), Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI), Normed Fit Index (NFI)

and Incremental Fit Index (IFI). All models were estimated with Maximum Likelihood Robust (MLR). A model is considered to display a good fit when CFI is above 0.90 and RMSEA is below 0.08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

The structural equation model allows studying how the scores in one measure influence the scores of other measurements. It also enables the study of underlying patterns of trajectory, i.e., by accounting for factor means, variances and measurement error terms, both inter and intra-individual variability are captured (Moreira et al., 2016). In other words, any model that assumes continuous but bounded outcomes such as proportions, rates, and fractional data performs better using the structural equation model.

First, I carried out descriptive data analyses with means, standard deviations, variances, covariances and intercepts by turnover intention to investigate disparities in all the variables chosen. I then tested the chosen predictors for association or intercorrelation between the outcome variable and the predictors and ran simple regression to identify the predictor's significance on turnover intention.

To identify the strongest predictors and intercorrelation, I tested each of the predictors (JD, SS, DL, H, D, EE, PA, DP) against turnover intention (TI). Tabachnik and Fidel (2019) proposed that all the intercorrelations must be lower than 0.70. The authors posit that in multivariate regression independent/predictor variables with a correlation ($r > 0.70$) should be dropped in the final model due to multicollinearity. However, not everyone agrees, and other researchers use

different values as cut-off points whereas other may not apply any cut-off point at all depending on the situation.

Given the number of variables, I began developing the model taking into account how the variables can interact (i.e., $EE \sim JD * SS * DL * H * D *$, $PA \sim JD * SS * DL * H * D$, $DP \sim JD * SS * DL * H * D * EE * PA * DP$ and $TI \sim JD * SS * DL * H * D * EE * PA * DP$),

Research question 1: What are some of the prevalent chronic health conditions among employees of the University of Education, Winneba?

This research question sought to identify some of the prevalent health conditions among the employees of UEW. It was expected that the employees would report having been diagnosed with hypertension, diabetes, work-related stress, backaches, eye injury, chest pains, repetitive strain injury and others. I used frequencies and percentages to determine the prevalent health conditions of the employees. Frequency distribution indicates the proportion of observations in terms of percentage that exists for each data point.

Research question 2: What are the levels of burnout, discrimination, harassment, turnover intention, job demands, job decision latitude, and social support (supervisor and co-worker support) among employees of the University of Education, Winneba?

In this research question, I sought to measure the levels of burnout, discrimination, harassment, turnover intention, job demands, job decision latitude and social support (supervisor and co-worker support) among employees of UEW. Burnout, Discrimination, Harassment, Turnover Intention, Job Demands,

Job Decision Latitude and Social Support (supervisor and co-worker support) were aggregated as a single score from 21, 6, 6 and 19 measuring items respectively. The question was answered based on the MBI-ES, CWDH, TIS-6 and DCSQ standard measuring instruments. These standards use the mean scores of MBI-ES, CWDH, TIS-6 and DCSQ as proposed by Maslach et al. (1996), Bobo et al. (2000), Roodt (2004) and Aguiar et al. (2010).

Thus, all employees' Burnout, Discrimination, Harassment, Turnover Intention, Job Demands, Job Decision Latitude and Social Support (supervisor and co-worker support) mean scores were calculated and reported as being low, moderate or high. Furthermore, to indicate the overall Burnout, Discrimination, Harassment, Turnover Intention, Job Demands, Job Decision Latitude and Social Support (supervisor and co-worker support) levels of the UEW employees, the mean of means score was reported based on the benchmark.

Research question 3: What organizational measures are there to protect and promote the health and psychosocial safety climate of the workers and the University of Education, Winneba?

In research question three, I sought to explore some organizational measures the University of Education, Winneba has put in place in protecting and promoting the health and psychosocial safety climate of the workers and the university. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages were used to determine the organizational measures put in place by the University of Education, Winneba.

Research question 4: What is the extent to which psychosocial factors influence the burnout of employees of the University of Education, Winneba?

Research question four examined the influence of psychosocial factors on burnout of the employees of UEW. The IVs were psychosocial factors (job demands, social support, job decision latitude, harassment and discrimination) with burnout (emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment and depersonalization) as the DV. In other words, job demands, social support, job decision latitude, harassment and discrimination were expected to account for the emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment and depersonalization of employees of UEW.

The relation of job demands, social support, job decision latitude, harassment and discrimination on each of the dimensions of burnout, i.e. emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment and depersonalization was evaluated using the SEM model (Figure 5). The effect of the job demands, social support, job decision latitude, harassment and discrimination was assessed by evaluating the path coefficients (β), t-value (t) and p-value (p), direct paths and their effects in the model. According to Garson (2016), all causal relationships between variables must go in one direction only (you cannot have a pair of variables that cause each other). Additionally, the variables must have a clear time ordering since one variable cannot be said to cause another unless it precedes it in time. It involved the evaluation of the direct path which was job demands → emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment and depersonalization, social support → emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment and

depersonalization, job decision latitude → emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment and depersonalization, harassment → emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment and depersonalization and discrimination → emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment and depersonalization. A coefficient of 1 or closer to 1 represents perfect or strong positive relationships between the psychosocial factors (job demands, social support, job decision latitude, harassment and discrimination) and burnout (emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment and depersonalization) of employees of UEW. Therefore, the strength of the path coefficient depends on the magnitude of these values. Moreover, the path coefficient is significant if that value is higher than 1.96 (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham., 2006).

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) is a unique second-generational statistical analytic tool (Hair et al., 2014b). SEM has been used in many social science disciplines including organizational health research (Bakker, & Wang, 2020), marketing, international marketing and strategic management (Hair et al., 2014; 2012; Sarstedt, Ringle, Henseler, & Hair, 2014). It has been used in accounting (Lorraine, Stacie, Dutch, & Shani, 2011), aviation (Ringle, Sarstedt, & Zimmermann, 2011), and tourism industries (Assaker, & Oom do Valle, 2015). It is more of theory building than testing (Hair et al., 2011). In addition, it works with large data points or observations such as 200 or more (Hair et al., 2011). This current research made use of SEM because it accepts both formative and reflective models (Hair et al., 2014ab; 2012; Henseler, 2018). Moreover, since the core aim of the research question was to predict burnout (emotional exhaustion,

depersonalization, personal accomplishment) from the other constructs (job demand, job decision latitude, social support, harassment, discrimination), SEM became the most appropriate tool.

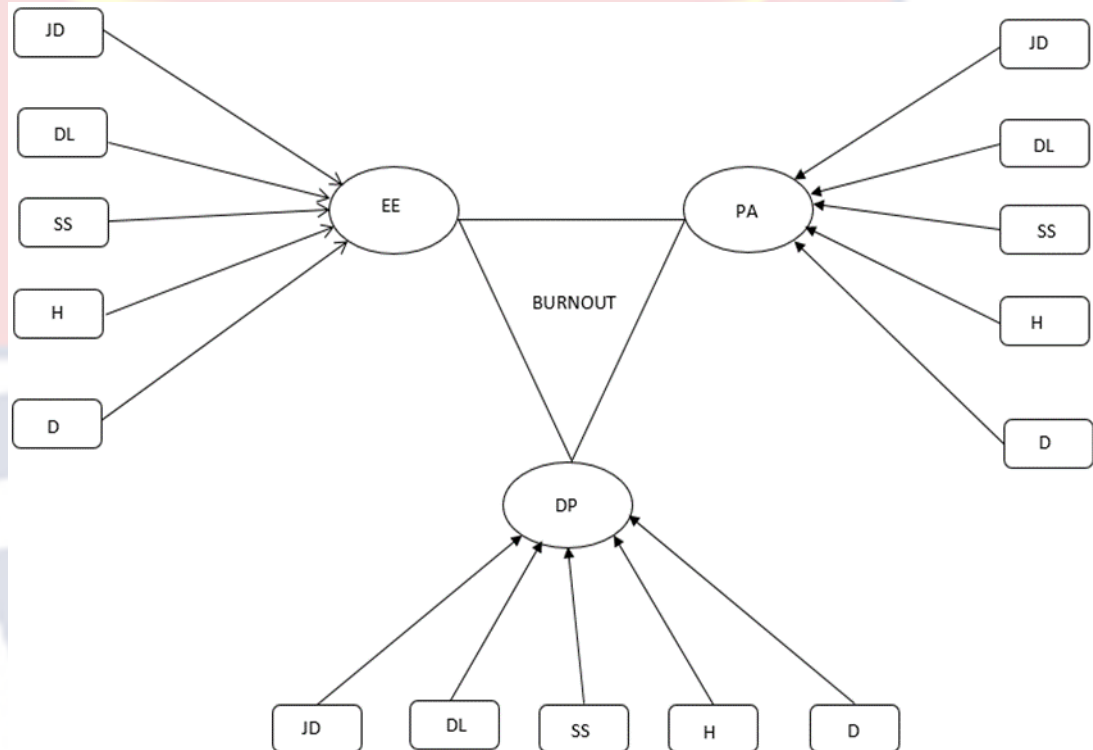


Figure 5: SEM model structure for estimation and analysis of burnout

Key: JD= Job Demand, DL= Decision Latitude, SS= Social Support, EE= Emotional Exhaustion, DP=Depersonalization, PA= Personal Accomplishment, H= Harassment, and D= Discrimination

Furthermore, SEM uses a causal modelling approach analysis which aims at maximizing the explained variance in the DV (burnout) in the model. Similarly, SEM does not also necessarily require normally distributed data (Ringle, Sarstedt, & Schlittgen, 2014). And since I cannot ascertain the quality of the data before its collection, SEM becomes the most preferred choice among other data analysis tools (Hair et al., 2011). One other strength of SEM is its ability to accept and

analyse complex models such as those in the current research (Hair et al., 2011). Accordingly, SEM accepts complex measurements and structural models (Rigdon, 2014). For example, both measurement indicators and their latent constructs can be modelled and analysed simultaneously (Hair et al., 2014). This is more likely to lead to precise measurement and results upon which a valid conclusion can be drawn (Ringle et al., 2014).

Research question 5: What is the extent to which burnout and psychosocial factors predict the turnover intention of employees of the University of Education, Winneba?

Research question five explored the extent to which burnout and psychosocial factors predict the turnover intentions of employees of UEW (see Figure 6). In this model, the IVs included job demands, social support, job decision latitude, harassment, discrimination, emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment and depersonalization while turnover intention served as the DV. The IVs are quantitative latent variables measured with 17, 22, and 6 quantitative measurement indicators, respectively.

Moreover, all these latent variables were reflectively modelled; all arrows pointing away from variables to their respective indicators (See Figure 6). The evaluation or assessment of models in SEM was done and reported. The structural model tested the relationship between the latent constructs; job demand, job decision latitude, social support, harassment, discrimination, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment and turnover intention of the employees of UEW. The evaluation of the reflective model involves the

assessment of path coefficients (β), t-value and p-value. That is, in this analysis, the structural model evaluation was based on the ability of the job decision latitude, social support, harassment, discrimination, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment to accurately predict the turnover intentions of the employees of UEW (Hair et al., 2014a; 2013)

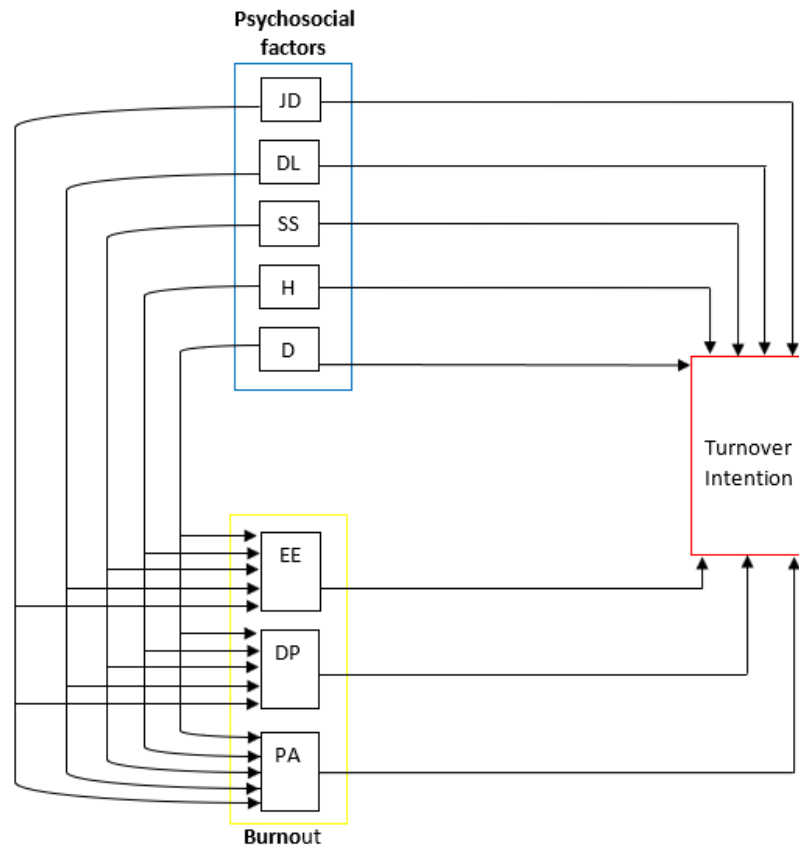


Figure 6: SEM model structure for estimation and analysis of turnover intention

Key: JD= Job Demand, DL= Decision Latitude, SS= Social Support, EE= Emotional Exhaustion, DP=Depersonalization, PA= Personal Accomplishment, H= Harassment, and D= Discrimination and TI= Turnover Intention

Path coefficients (β) represent the hypothesized relationships linking the constructs of job demand, job decision latitude, social support, harassment, discrimination, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal

accomplishment and turnover intention in the SEM. The path coefficients were estimated based on values 0 to 1, after running the SEM algorithm. For example, a coefficient value closer to 1 represents strong positive relationships. Hence, the predictiveness and the relevance of the factors depend on the path coefficient values between the job demand, job decision latitude, social support, harassment, discrimination, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment and the turnover intention of employees of UEW (Sarstedt, Hair, Ringle, Thiele, & Gudergan, 2016).

Also, p-values and t-values were reported. P-value is the practical significant contribution each of the latent variables, makes to turnover intention (Huck, 2008). These paths included the hypothesized likings between each job demand, job decision latitude, social support, harassment, discrimination, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment and turnover intention. A p-value of less or equal to 0.05 indicates a significant relation (Huck, 2008). The t-value was used in estimating the precision of the model estimates. Meanwhile, the path coefficient will be significant if the t-value is larger than 1.96 (Chin, 1998). Therefore, the relationship between job demand, job decision latitude, social support, harassment, discrimination, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment was established based on the recorded path coefficient (β) values, p-values and t-values.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purposes of this study were to: (1) identify the prevalence of chronic health conditions among employees of the University of Education, Winneba, (2) investigate the levels of burnout, discrimination, harassment, turnover intention, job demands, job decision latitude and social support (supervisor and co-worker support), (3) identify the measures put in place to protect and promote the health and psychosocial safety climate of the workers and the university (4) examine the extent to which psychosocial factors influence burnout on health and wellbeing and (5) explore the extent to which burnout and psychosocial factors predict turnover intention among the workers. This chapter focused on the results and discussion of the findings.

Research Question 1: What are Some of the Prevalent Chronic Health Conditions among Employees of the University of Education, Winneba?

This analysis aims to find out the prevalent chronic health conditions among employees of the University of Education, Winneba. The research question was answered using frequencies and percentage counts. Respondents were provided with a list of chronic health conditions to select the ones affecting them. Herein, a chronic health condition is a condition or disease that is persistent or otherwise long-lasting in its effects or a disease that comes with time that affects the workers (Bernell, & Howard, 2016).

Results showed that 19.0% of the employees had been diagnosed with hypertension while 14.3% reported diabetes, 54.0% were diagnosed with work-

related stress and more than a quarter (39.5%) reported backache. Meanwhile, 12.3% of the employees were diagnosed with an eye injury, and only a few, 1.6% and 2.5% reported non-cardiac chest pains and repetitive strain respectively (See Table 4).

Table 4: Health Conditions among Employees of the University of Education, Winneba

Health condition	Yes	No	Total
	Freq. (%)	Freq. (%)	Freq. (%)
Hypertension	232 (19.0)	990 (81.0)	1222 (100)
Diabetes	175 (14.3)	1047 (85.7)	1222 (100)
Work-related stress	660 (54.0)	562 (46.0)	1222 (100)
Backaches	439 (35.9)	783 (64.1)	1222 (100)
Eye Injury	150 (12.3)	1072 (87.7)	1222 (100)
Non-cardiac Chest Pains	20 (1.6)	1202 (98.4)	1222 (100)
Repetitive strain injury	30 (2.5)	1192 (97.5)	1222 (100)
Others	0 (0.0)	1222 (100)	1222 (100)

Key: Freq.=Frequency

Source: Field survey (2022)

The finding indicates that workers at UEW suffer chronic health conditions like hypertension, diabetes, work-related stress, backache, eye injury, chest pains and repetitive rate. This may be a result of chronic stress which is associated with the academic work environment. These workers include seasoned lecturers, administrators and other cadres of staff. Such a high prevalence of chronic health conditions like hypertension is reported in a sample of workers

ranging between 13.5% and 23.7% (Kurtul et al., 2020). Relatively, the prevalence of hypertension among UEW employees is less than that reported (58.9%) by Sanuade et al. (2020) in Ghana among people aged 50 years and beyond. Equally, studies conducted in countries like Nigeria and Ethiopia recorded a little higher prevalence of 31.6% and 28.3% respectively (Asekun-Olarinmoye et al., 2013; Oladapo Salako, Sadiq, Soyinka, & Falase, 2013; Adebayo et al., 2013). Even though these studies were conducted in a larger population, while the current study was limited to only employees of UEW, this may not be the only reason why there is such a wide difference. It could also be because a greater percentage of the employees of UEW is below the age of 50 years. A lot of studies have confirmed a high prevalence of hypertension among old people (Mittal et al., 2013; Kulandaivelan et al., 2015). Again, the lower prevalence of hypertension recorded in this study may be a result of the fact that employees of UEW are among the very educated part of society and are exposed to more health information than the general population. Thus, it is probable they are very much careful about their health by opting for a healthier lifestyle regardless of the pertaining psychosocial and organizational climate.

Contrary to the finding of Kulandaivelan (2015), who reported a high prevalence rate of 37% among university employees in India, the differences in socio-cultural environment and lifestyles could explain the difference. Even though the prevalence of hypertension among employees of UEW is low, it is possible with time it might increase especially since some young administrators and lecturers are observed to be sitting for long hours with less physical activity.

It is therefore, important that the university encourages its staff to be exercising on regular basis to prevent hypertension.

Concerning diabetes, a study by Amanyire et al. (2019) on the staff of Bishop Stuart University in Mbarara, Uganda reported a 16% prevalence rate, supporting the current finding. Similarly, Paudel (2017) also revealed a 15% prevalence in Nepal among people aged 20 years and above. In contrast, however, cross-sectional studies in the Kasese district, Uganda among adults indicated a lower prevalence rate of 9% (Mondo, Otim, Akol, Musoke, & Orem, 2013). Because the current study centred on a highly educated group whereas the previous studies focused on the overall community, the discrepancy may be due to the variability of the various population group.

Not surprisingly, the results of the current study revealed that over half of the respondents had been diagnosed with work-related stress. The finding agrees with that of Kusi et al. (2014) and Kabito et al. (2020) who assessed the prevalence of work-related stress among university employees. For the non-teaching staff of the university, it has been established by (Hatzinikolakis et al., 2020; Kinman, et al., 2020; Kabito et al., 2020) that the lack of control, too much workload, lack of recognition and interpersonal frustration caused by coworkers and supervisors always put pressure on them. Meanwhile, Ismail et al. (2016) studied occupational stress among university teaching staff and reported increased pressure arising from research funding cuts, heavier teaching loads and greater difficulty in securing research funds and a decline in facilities and support for both teaching and research as some of the major stressors on academic staff.

Moreover, Kusi et al. (2014) investigated work-related stress among academic staff of the University of Education, Winneba campus, and revealed that excessive workload, insufficient preparation for lectures and difficulties in supervising students' research projects were some of the sources of work-related stress. It is highly possible the stressors as outlined by Kusi et al. coupled with the unexpected dismissal, suspensions, demotions and transfer of workers may be the cause of the high prevalence of work-related stress among the employees of UEW.

The current finding also indicated a 35.9% prevalence of backache among UEW employees. The result falls in the range of 15-45% prevalence recorded by Sathavane, Tiwari, Pandya, Khobragade and Tomar (2020) in their epidemiological study on backache among faculty teaching staff. However, it is slightly lower than the 41% prevalence reported by Madadzadeh et al. (2016) when they examined Work-related musculoskeletal disorders (WMSDs) among administrative employees of Kerman University of Medical Sciences. Employees of UEW are involved in different activities such as teaching, offering administrative services, driving, or weeding. In carrying out these responsibilities, they may have to sit, stand, walk, squat or lift heavy loads for several hours. Perhaps, these postures put a lot of pressure or strain on the lumbar spine resulting in unbearable pain in the back causing disc degeneration, low back pain and sciatica (Trikamaji, 2009). The ostensible trend of an increasing prevalence of backache might be a caution of adverse health effects among the staff of UEW as a result of prolonged exposure to workplace hazards. To reduce or prevent

chronic backache among employees, Chaiklieng, Suggaravetsiri, and Stewart (2021) proposed that there must be ergonomics education, improved workplace design, better lighting, and more emphasis on the individual employee's preventive behaviour concentrating on their physical fitness.

It was also established in this current study that the prevalence of eye injury among employees was 12.3%. However, an earlier study by Jovanovic et al., (2016) in Bosnia and Herzegovina, revealed a prevalence of 27.5% among the general population. Other studies have reported that the occurrence and seriousness of eye injuries are higher in institutions in developing countries compared to institutions in developed countries (Chen et al., 2009; Yu et al., 2004). Nevertheless, the incidence of chronic eye injuries goes beyond economic powers but could also be influenced by the biological features of the worker, the nature of work and prevailing safety regulations and policies in the institution (Cai, & Zhang, 2015). One of the possible reasons for the prevalence of eye injury among UEW employees could be the prolonged use of computers, especially by administrative and academic staff. A study by Akinbinu et al. (2013) revealed that over 62% of university employees use computers for more than six hours daily and occupational eye injuries were reported more among the employees who spent six to eight hours on the computer daily (48.9%) as compared to 23.7 and 0.72% among those who spend three to five hours and one to two hours, respectively. Other employees such as technicians and mechanics may also develop eye injuries due to the continued use of equipment such as microscopes and grinding machine and certain types of chemicals (Bloom, & Bloom, 2020).

Furthermore, a probable reason for the relatively low prevalence of eye injuries among the employees may be because a greater percentage of the respondents in the current study were below the age of fifty years. According to Kanoff, Turalba, Andreoli and Andreoli (2010), older employees are at a greater risk of developing eye injury compared to their younger compatriots because of the ageing process. It is therefore very necessary for UEW to focus on developing and implementing integrated eye health and safety policies, plans, and programmes to help employees overcome any eye-related injury at the workplace.

Concerning the prevalence of non-cardiac chest pains, the recorded prevalence among the employees of UEW was 1.6%. There have been limited studies on the prevalence of non-cardiac chest pain especially among university staff and even in the general population. In addition, most of the studies on the prevalence of non-cardiac chest pain have been hospital-based studies and have focused on chest pain with ischaemic heart disease (Hsia, Hale, & Tabas, 2016; Bösner et al., 2009). Nevertheless, a population-based study on the prevalence of non-cardiac chest pain by Eslick et al. (2003), revealed that about 39% of people experience chest pain annually. Meanwhile, men and women saw similar gender-specific prevalence rates, with a high prevalence among those between the ages of 45 and 55 years (Eslick et al., 2003). The result from the current study contrasts the finding of Eslick et al. which recorded a relatively high prevalence of 39% among residents of Penrith. This is likely to be due to the characteristics of the study population and the nature of the work they do.

Non-cardiac chest pain is probably a complicated medical condition. It may result from a variety of work-related variables, including stress, anxiety, depression, and musculoskeletal injuries (Sun et al., 2021). Fass et al. (2011) opined that psychological factors may contribute to up to 70% of cases of acute non-cardiac chest pain, making it challenging to diagnose. Employees only report the symptoms of heart trouble, not the actual pain, which makes diagnosis difficult in developing countries where medical practice is limited (Al-Nooh et al., 2014).

People who have non-cardiac chest discomfort may have a lower quality of life. The quality of life may deteriorate as the condition become severe. Eslick et al. reported that the mean quality of life scores varied significantly depending on whether a person had no discomfort, mild non-cardiac chest pain, or severe non-cardiac chest pain, with severe non-cardiac chest pain having the worst quality of life. Employees must be urged to report any instances of heart pain they may be feeling to receive quick diagnosis and care. The result from this study also revealed a 2.5% frequency of repetitive strain injuries. The prevalence as demonstrated in the current study was significantly lower than studies conducted in other less developed countries like Sri Lanka and Iran, which found prevalence rates of 56.9% and 60%, respectively (Ranasinghe et al., 2011; Ehsani et al., 2016).

The reporting and management practices for occupational illnesses and injuries may vary among nations, which may be the likely cause of the observed disparity. In the opinion of Botchwey, Kesseh, Baidoo, Boateng and Boakyee

(2022), workplace health and safety procedures in UEW are ineffective or nascent. As a result, diseases like repetitive strain injury may go unreported by workers, resulting in an underdiagnosis by medical specialists (Dagne, Abebe, & Getachew, 2020). However, there may be superior work-related disorder reporting and management practices in comparative countries. Perhaps, workers' perceptions of pain differ, as well as their levels of alertness and receptivity to inquiries which may account for the differences in prevalence rates reported by studies.

Characteristically, male employees form the majority of the staff population of most universities in modern times (Caplow, McGee, & Barzun, 2017). Tesfaye, Mekonnen, Alemayehu and Abere (2022) found that the prevalence of repetitive strain injury was higher among male employees than among female employees (45.14% vs 14%), even though there is no relationship between gender and the condition. This might be because male employees are more likely than female employees to work in administrative roles, take on part-time jobs and volunteer in the community in addition to their regular teaching duties for extra income (Caplow et al., 2017). Working males may therefore be exposed to several occupational risk factors as a result of their extracurricular activities. The fact that there were significantly more men (70%) than women (30%) participants in this study may perhaps suggest a higher prevalence of repetitive strain injury in male employees.

Employees at UEW may be required to work long hours a day, take brief breaks, and stand and sit all day, all of which may increase the risk of repetitive

strain injury. The long-term risk of repetitive strain injury can be decreased by practicing safe posture while working and learning how to prevent it. Because weak muscles and stiff backs are significantly associated with the development of repetitive strain injury, it is advised that employers and employees take steps to promote their health through regular exercise and medical checkups.

Personnel with chronic health conditions may perform worse at work as a result of their medical condition. They might not be able to handle the stress of working long hours, meeting deadlines, marking exam papers, performing community service, and writing articles for professional advancement. The worker would have to regularly take time off work to visit the hospital for routine medical care and treatment, disrupting their work schedule. Also, the employee may frequently struggle to finish routine job tasks, which might negatively impact productivity. Management of UEW may be required to pay astronomical medical fees since the employees' condition was discovered while they were performing their duties.

Students suffer severe consequences especially when the staff with a chronic health condition is an academic staff. The lecturer may not be punctual to the class which could lead to an incomplete course outline, and the supervision of the student's thesis work may also be delayed due to the supervisor's poor health. The students may be forced to use alternative methods to obtain the knowledge that the lecturer ordinarily ought to have impacted them. Additionally, employees who are already under stress from an excessive workload would have to take on extra responsibilities for the sick personnel, which could result in burnout.

Possibly, UEW employees with documented health issues are likely to miss work-related opportunities such as further studies abroad due to chronic health conditions.

Furthermore, employees with chronic illnesses would negatively impact the lives of other family members. The quality of life of family relatives and the worker can be tremendously reduced in terms of physical effects, psychological distress, social life, financial aspects, time commitments, personal relationships, and family activities such as family get-togethers and holidays (Golic, Basra, Salek & Finlay, 2013). Parents, children and siblings of employees may go through emotions such as fear, trauma and tension. Swanberg (2006) reported that family members of workers with a chronic health condition can be more emotionally affected by illness than workers themselves. Therefore, the quality of life of relatives of employees of UEW must be understood so that suitable measures can be put in place to meet their needs. These family members are often critical to the successful care of the worker, and it is thus imperative that they are provided with appropriate support services.

Research Question 2: What are the Levels of Burnout, Discrimination, Harassment, Turnover Intention, Job Demands, Job Decision Latitude and Social Support (Supervisor and Co-worker Support) among Employees of the University of Education, Winneba?

The levels of burnout, discrimination, harassment, turnover intention, job demands, job decision latitude and social support (supervisor and co-worker support) among employees of the University of Education, Winneba were determined by dividing the range (4) by the number of categories (5) in DCSQ, MBI-ES, CWDH, TIS-6, giving 0.80. The mean of means and standard deviations

for all the items were also calculated. These mean of means scores were converted to percentages by dividing the score by the number of categories (5) and multiplying by 100 percent, then used to establish the levels of burnout, discrimination, harassment, turnover intention, job demands, job decision latitude and social support (supervisor and co-worker support) in the UEW. Thus, the criteria were: 1.00-1.79=Strongly Disagree; 1.80- 2.60= Disagree, 2.61-3.41=Undecided, 3.42- 4.22=Agree and 4.23-5.00=Strongly Agree. A level of 10% – 45% = low; 46% - 74% = moderate and 75% - 100% = high.

Concerning the level of burnout, responses within each subscale of the MBI-ES were aggregated. The mean of means scores for emotional exhaustion was (M= 3.93, SD = 1.08), depersonalization (M= 4.06, SD = 0.99) and personal accomplishment was (M= 4.10, SD = 0.97). Thus, employees of UEW had high mean of means scores on the emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment sub-scale. Meanwhile, the overall mean of means score for burnout was (M= 4.03, SD= 1.01) with a level of 80.6%, indicating a high level of burnout. Again, the results showed a discrimination mean of means score (M= 4.15, SD= 0.97) and harassment mean of means score (M = 3.97, SD = 1.04) with a corresponding level of 83.0% and 79.4% respectively. This shows high levels of discrimination and harassment among employees of UEW. The results further revealed turnover intention mean of means score (M= 3.66, SD= 1.27) with a level of 73.2%. This points to a moderate level of turnover intentions. Furthermore, the results showed a job demand mean of means score (M = 3.86, SD = 1.20), job decision latitude mean of means score (M = 3.87, SD = 1.07) and

social support mean of means score ($M = 3.94$, $SD = 1.06$). The result indicates a 77.2% level of job demand, 77.8% level of job decision latitude and 78.8% level of social support among respondents. Hence, the findings suggest high levels of job demand, job decision latitude and social support (supervisor and co-worker support) at the UEW (See Table 5).

Table 5: Levels of Burnout, Discrimination, Harassment, Turnover Intention, Job Demands, Job Decision Latitude and Social Support (Supervisor and Co-Worker Support) among Employees of the University of Education, Winneba

Factor	Mean of means	Std. deviation	Level (%)	Risk
JD	3.86	1.20	77.2	High
DL	3.89	1.07	77.8	High
SS	3.94	1.06	78.8	High
EE	3.93	1.08	78.6	High
DP	4.06	0.99	81.2	High
PA	4.10	0.97	82.0	High
B	4.03	1.01	80.6	High
H	3.97	1.04	79.4	High
D	4.15	0.97	83.0	High
TI	3.66	1.27	73.2	Moderate

Key: JD=Job Demand, DL=Job Decision Latitude, SS= Social Support, B= Burnout, H= Harassment, D= Discrimination, TI= Turnover Intension

Source: Field survey (2022)

The results of this study showed high levels of burnout, discrimination, harassment, job demand, job decision latitude and social support. The level of turnover intention was however moderate. This suggests that the turnover intentions of employees of UEW would be low if the necessary measures are put in place for employees to overcome burnout, discrimination, harassment and high

job demand (Albaqami, 2016). For the level of burnout among employees, the finding of this study is in harmony with that of Reddy et al. (2012) and Toker (2011) who reported that the majority (86%) of university employees are experiencing moderate to high professional burnout in South India and Turkey respectively.

Work-related burnout is a significant topic and has seldom been explored among employees of universities. The high level of burnout experienced by employees have quite a lot of implications for the UEW. Wood et al. (2004), suggested that it is far better to do away with the syndrome of burnout before it develops. To eliminate burnout Wood et al. propose that institutions: discuss with employees issues directly affecting their working environment; offer satisfactory resources to support employees; give comprehensive job descriptions to prevent role uncertainty; establish and keep clear lines of communication between employees by providing performance feedback; encourage professional development programmes, and minimize the workload on employees.

Again, the results of this study showed that employees of UEW had a high score on the emotional exhaustion subscale, a high degree of depersonalization, and a low degree of personal accomplishment. As indicated by Budinick (2005), higher scores on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization subscales indicate higher levels of burnout. The personal accomplishment subscale is scored in the opposite direction; where lower scores on personal accomplishment indicate higher burnout. Overall, the results indicate that employees of UEW are experiencing high levels of burnout.

Also, vis-à-vis the level of discrimination, the result of this study corroborates that of Gberevbie et al. (2014) and Adu-Oppong et al. (2015) who found that there was a high level of discrimination among employees of higher education institutions in Ghana. Workplace discrimination ensues when sections of employees are unfairly treated because they belong, or are perceived to belong to a certain group or category of people. Probably, employees of UEW perceive to be discriminated against because of their age, disability, tribe, political affiliation, religion or gender. Normally, this occurs because of the preconceptions employees hold against other employees. For some employees, the gender, tribe and religion of others are inferior and so they are consistently the target of jokes and discrimination. This, often time makes employees powerless, deters them from actively participating in the affairs of the university and limits them from developing their skills (Straiton et al., 2019). Aside from the direct consequences of discrimination on employees, it also has an indirect and serious effect on the institution as a whole. When employees feel like they are not being treated fairly, they may start to feel resentful toward management and other employees who benefit from the issue of discrimination. This negative attitude can affect how well the workers perform, which can then affect the overall performance of the institution. An institution within which discrimination is permitted or tolerated is an institution where people are prevented from willingly exercising their full potential for themselves and the institution in general.

In addition, the high level of discrimination among employees of UEW could be due to the very way in which the UEW is structured and organized. The

organizational structures of UEW may disadvantage certain categories of employees especially those with less educational qualification. This normally occurs through promotions, scholarships, incentives, patterns of attitudes and behaviour which the university considers right. It usually manifests itself as institutional bias, where employees with higher educational qualifications such as senior members are constantly favoured over others like a senior and junior staff. This often prevents other employees from giving off their best. Therefore, there is a need for UEW to be dynamic and inventive in promoting diversity, fairness, non-discrimination and human rights.

With the level of harassment, the finding of this study is consistent with that of Bhagani (2015) and Clarke (2015) who reported that workplace harassment was on the increase. Harassment is undoubtedly a major issue in higher education settings. This finding is perhaps surprising given the measures management of UEW have put in place in recent times to curb all forms of harassment at the workplace. The high level of harassment in UEW may be linked to power inequality. For instance, female and less educated employees of the university often occupy lower positions with less power, they are therefore easily bullied or at the receiving end of uncivil behaviour by other workers, usually, male workers who are in high positions. Uncivil behaviour most commonly meted out to these employees includes rudeness, insulting, demeaning remarks or gestures and interrupting colleagues often in front of others (Clark, 2013).

Another possible reason for the high level of harassment in UEW could be the pertaining organizational climate. The climate may be such that it permits or

encourages harassment behaviour. Employees affiliated with top management members such as the Vice-Chancellor, Pro-vice Chancellor or the registrar may feel untouchable and go about maltreating and mishandling other workers who may not be in the good books of management without being called to order. The employees who are harassed may therefore have to live with it since even when they report the university authority may do nothing about it. Subsequently, if employees perceive they are not supported by the organizational culture, they could feel lonely and disempowered by human resources systems and made to feel unsafe about seeking support whilst being harassed. Van den Brande et al. (2016), suggest that the key variables predicting workplace harassment are probably related to role conflict and uncertainty, high workload, job insecurity and cognitive demands. So, there is a need for the management of UEW, to as a matter of urgency to come out with policies to improve the organizational culture to avert future acts of harassment of employees.

The results also revealed a high level of job demand among employees of UEW as evident in similar research works (Johnson et al. 2019; Khamisa et al., 2017). Many employees especially, academic staff have an increased workload because they are expected to attract external funds which may require them to spend a sleepless night writing grant-winning proposal. They do this in addition to their core duties of teaching, publishing scholarly articles and community service. These duties of the employees put undue pressure on them increasing their work demand. An equally significant reason to explain the high level of job demand among the employees is the increased students' enrolment for regular and

distance programmes. This has been done to cater for the high number of qualified applicants from the Senior High Schools. The effect of this is increased hours of teaching, marking and supervision of research works (Archibong et al., 2010). Non-academic employees also have to work assiduously to maintain academic user facilities to make students and employees comfortable. Additionally, UEW has undergone significant institutional changes in the pursuit of becoming a world-class institution; as a result, more duties have been assigned to workers to realize this goal. This has greatly raised the job demand among personnel of the university.

Importantly, the finding showed that employees of UEW have a high level of job decision latitude. The reason for the high level may be that employees are allowed to work the way that is most conducive to their strengths. Again, UEW may have put in place measures to empower employees to be self-initiators, giving them stewardship over their work and their environment, and providing support instead of putting pressure on them. As stated by Canivet et al. (2013), a high-decision work environment is cemented on respect, confidence, honesty, and a tradition of accountability. Employees of UEW may not be experiencing arbitrary work plans and instructions which may threaten their general well-being. Perhaps, the university give employees their tasks and due date, and allow them to complete them, however, is best for them within that timeline so they can give off their best in return.

Furthermore, it was revealed that employees of UEW experience a high level of social support from supervisors and coworkers. Thus, the employees are

cared for and valued by their immediate supervisors and coworkers such as deans, heads of departments and coordinators such that in case of difficulty they can fall on them. The high level of social support among employees of UEW as found in the current study is incongruent with the works of Cosio (2011), Mudrak et al. (2018) and Charoensukmongkol, Moqbel, Gutierrez-Wirsching and Shankar (2022). The result may be because the university has instituted measures which encourage and allow employees to freely communicate and interact with each other without any fear of victimization. Most importantly, employees are not scared of asking for help either from a supervisor or a colleague worker if need be. Significantly, the university runs seminars, workshops and conferences for employees on regular basis to foster teamwork and cooperation. During such programmes, employees come close to top management and socialize with them, which in a way makes them feel appreciated and loved.

It is also likely the views of employees are actively taken into consideration by coworkers and supervisors in any decision-making process. Once more, the university may be promoting good working relationships, and respect for one another irrespective of age, gender, personality traits, or educational level of employees, hence the high level of social support in UEW.

Interestingly, the results of the study showed a moderate to a high level of turnover intention among the employees of UEW. The findings suggest that employees have the intention to leave the university, even though, they may be experiencing high levels of job decision latitude and social support from supervisors and coworkers as noted by Mudrak et al. (2018) and

Charoensukmongkol et al. (2022). Nevertheless, this may not be enough reason to motivate the employees not to decide to leave the institution. Meanwhile, the same employees who appreciate high decision latitude and social support are experiencing high levels of burnout, discrimination, harassment and job demand as reported in the current study.

Discrimination can affect the well-being and performance of university employees. For instance, Gberevbie et al. (2014) found that managerial roles based on gender discrimination against women in government universities in Lagos State have negatively affected women's job performance. The authors concluded that for as long as gender discrimination, rather than merit, remains the basis for staff employment into positions of authority in Nigerian Universities, enhanced performance is more likely to elude employees hence, the decision to quit the job. In addition, according to the National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine (2018), the problems caused by workplace harassment affect employees and prevent their successful progress because such unfortunate psychosocial condition limits worker capability. On the other hand, burnout has resulted in a decrease in job performance, diminishing self-esteem, a decline in job satisfaction and the general tendency of employees to opt for turnover (Federici, & Skaalvik, 2012).

Regardless of the effects of high levels of burnout, discrimination, harassment and job demand on employees, they may still want to continue working for UEW because there are no readily available jobs in Ghana and leaving their current job might make them unemployed. Again, the employees are

probably still at the post because of opportunities for further education, respect from society because they work in a university, access to post-retirement contracts and having time for their families (Komba, & Amani, 2016).

For university employees to be engaged, motivated, and to learn new abilities, they may need to challenge themselves with a variety of tasks. However, these assignments must not put the employee's capacity at risk. The increased job demand observed suggests that UEW staff may be under stress. This could have an impact on how well-adjusted, functional, and productive the worker is at work, which would lower productivity at UEW. Furthermore, the worker can face serious health problems as a result of this. Additionally, the level of job-related burnout is higher in UEW. This might lead to decreased job performance, lowered self-esteem, decreased job satisfaction, and an increased propensity for employee turnover (Federici & Skaalvik, 2012).

The cordial and friendly workplace relationships recorded at UEW can make going to work a pleasure. Support from supervisors and coworkers at UEW is very important in ensuring the physical, social and mental well-being and development of employees. Possibly, the workers have become more committed to UEW because of the support they enjoy from coworkers and supervisors. Evidence indicates that employees' health and general wellness are severely impacted when they lack control over decisions relating to their job procedures (Uyanik, Shogren, & Blanck, 2017). However, the increased job autonomy that UEW employees have indicated that they influence the how, when, and where of employment. This has likely assisted the staff in avoiding certain illnesses like

headaches, back discomfort, high blood pressure, exhaustion, and sleeplessness. The high level of autonomy may make the employees feel like members of the university community and motivate them to put forth great effort to promote UEW.

Workplace diversity fosters acceptance, respect, and teamwork. The extent of discrimination at UEW could harm the school's reputation and worsen the victims' already precarious health. Therefore, the perceptions of prejudice may have a detrimental impact on the degree of trust the workers of UEW have in the management of the institution and among each other, which in turn may have an impact on their sense of belonging to the institution and the larger community. Similarly, UEW's high rate of reported harassment may result in absenteeism, a decline in job satisfaction, dedication, and effectiveness, and employment withdrawal (Feldblum, & Lipnic, 2016). The investigation of harassment complaints and related legal costs resulting from employee lawsuits against the institution could cost UEW significantly.

The cost of turnover is a problem for most organizations because they sometimes struggle to deal with the loss of highly productive staff (Alam, 2015). The moderate degree of employee turnover intent could have a detrimental impact on UEW's productivity, profitability, and innovativeness. Furthermore, UEW's personnel turnover rate may negatively affect the institution's reputation, which may make it difficult for highly qualified academics and administrators to pass down the opportunity to work with the UEW.

Research Question 3: What Organizational Measures are there to Protect and Promote the Health and Psychosocial Safety Climate of the Workers and the University of Education, Winneba?

The analysis sought to identify the organizational measures management of UEW has put in place to protect and promote the health and psychosocial climate of the workers and the institution using frequencies and percentage counts. The measures identified as presented in table 6 were, ensuring the security of staff, 6.2% (76), building a university clinic to provide health services, 17% (208) and payment of medical bills, 10.4% (127). It also included the establishment of counselling and gender unit to help victims of harassment and discrimination, 6.4% (78), laws and policies, 5.5% (67), socialization and retreat 5.6% (69), and routine training, development and workshop for staff, 6.7% (82). Also, the university has instituted a staff welfare scheme to take care of the needs of employees, 13.9% (170), provision of personal protective equipment and working tools, 18.5% (226) and the setting up of problem resolution committees to settle disputes, 1.4% (17). Meanwhile, 32.2% (394) of the participants didn't know of any measure the institution has put in place to protect and promote the health and psychosocial safety climate of the workers and the University of Education, Winneba.

Effective organizational health promotion and safety measures and practices increase employee health, safety, and well-being. It has a positive impact on institutional outcomes like higher employee morale, decreased absenteeism and attrition, possibly lower healthcare costs, and higher service quality (Kim, Kim, Newman, Ferris, & Perrewé, 2019). According to the results

of this current study, some of the measures UEW has put in place to support and protect the workers' health and psychosocial safety climate as a whole include; ensuring staff security, establishing a university clinic, funding medical bills, counselling and gender unit for victims of harassment and discrimination, laws and policies, socialization and retreats, training, development workshops for employees, staff welfare scheme, provision of PPE and working tools and committees to resolve and settle disputes.

Table 6: Organizational Measures put in Place to Protect and Promote the Health and Psychosocial Safety Climate of the Workers and the University of Education, Winneba

Organisational Measure	Yes	No	Total
	Freq. (%)	Freq. (%)	Freq. (%)
Security of staff	76 (6.2)	1146 (93.8)	1222 (100)
University Clinic to provide health services	208 (17.0)	1014 (83.0)	1222 (100)
Payment of Medical Bills	127 (10.4)	1095 (89.6)	1222 (100)
Counselling and gender unit	78 (6.4)	1144 (93.6)	1222 (100)
Laws and Policies	67 (5.5)	1155 (94.5)	1222 (100)
Socialization and Retreat	69 (5.6)	1153 (94.4)	1222 (100)
Training, Development and Workshop	82 (6.7)	1140 (93.3)	1222 (100)
Staff Welfare Scheme	170 (13.9)	1052 (86.1)	1222 (100)
No Idea	394 (32.2)	828 (67.8)	1222 (100)
PPE and Working Tools	226 (18.5)	996 (81.5)	1222 (100)
Problem Resolution Committees	17 (1.4)	1205 (98.6)	1222 (100)

Key: Freq.=Frequency

Source: Field survey (2022)

Concerning security, employees on campus are protected round-the-clock by UEW security. Security guards are stationed at strategic locations to monitor visitors going in and out of the university. As a result, the institution can stop all forms of violence on campus. Additionally, there are security officers on patrol who are equipped to react to any awkward behaviour as it develops. According to Wilson and Kelling (2017) having security guards throughout campus creates a safe environment and employees feel comfortable and safe to go about their normal duties without any fear.

Furthermore, the university has established a clinic to provide treatment for employees, their families, and the neighbourhood. The institution is aware that employees could get sick, hurt, or need mental health help while carrying out their duties. The clinic provides a broad range of medical services for both acute ailments like the common cold and flu and chronic illnesses including allergies, hypertension, and diabetes. Additionally, it offers public health services. Staff members at the clinic also provide health and wellness education to employees who visit for medical care.

Importantly, the clinic collaborates closely with other medical facilities across the country so that cases that it cannot manage are referred to them for further treatment. Paying for employees' and dependents' medical expenses is one of the university's simplest yet most effective initiatives to promote employees' health (Arsenijevic et al., 2016). The institution maintains a health fund that covers all employee medical expenses. The university pays the employees' medical expenditures when they seek medical attention or are referred to other

healthcare facilities by the university clinic. Regarding their behaviour in seeking out health care, UEW employees have been significantly impacted by this. It has likely improved team spirit and output. Evidence shows that most employees find it difficult to pay for health care (Loganathan, Rui, Ng, & Pocock, 2019). Therefore, if an institution decides to cover the costs employees incur for medical reasons, then it is a step in the right direction in improving the health and general well-being of the employee.

Furthermore, the university has set up a counselling and gender unit to take care of staff psychological needs. The unit's task is to help staff members achieve their professional and personal objectives by offering private counselling and support for any problems employees of the institution may face. Similarly, the unit provides counselling on gender-related difficulties to all employees, both male and female. It also enlightens members of staff on gender policies and programmes, establishing and assisting female employee groups, planning training on assertiveness, gender awareness, and other pertinent topics. The unit also works to empower female workers so they can succeed at their jobs. To this purpose, it arranges various workshops and pieces of training on life skills as well as programmes on gender awareness to make campus life easier for workers.

Also, from the findings, it was revealed that some laws and policies enhance worker health, safety, and well-being while also improving working conditions. These regulations, plans, and procedures are very important to the university. They guide and direct the working environment in ensuring that the right things are done at any point in time taking into consideration psychosocial

variables such as job duties, job demands, and provision of resources (De Cieri, & Lazarova, 2021). The institution has adopted a hierarchy of control structures that are used to communicate preventive concepts with an emphasis on working conditions. Meanwhile, the laws and policies are there to help eliminate or reduce recognized risks, whether they are present in the organizational environment or the physical work environment. Equally, as detailed by De Cieri and Lazarova the policies support and ensure safe and healthy practices and in assisting employees in finding a work-life balance. Thus, the laws and policies detail supportive workplace practices such as how an employee can return to the workplace after an illness or injury, and take breaks as they are entitled to, such as meal breaks and sick and vacation time.

Moreover, the university has introduced measures to ensure that employees socialize on regular basis. A study by Wang, Qu, Yang and Yang (2020) found that the only activity that can make employees feel as joyful as when they are not working is interacting with coworkers. Garg, Dar and Mishra (2018) also revealed that having friends at work boosts employees' motivation and overall job satisfaction. It has been reported that promoting social connection in the workplace, even when it is not for the goal of teamwork, has a good impact on employee morale and team spirit. In UEW, there are social times for employees to go to the clubhouse "Semsa" to have fun and interact with others. It normally takes place after a day's work. This fosters reciprocity, trust, and the chance to get to know one another as a person rather than just adversaries or coworkers. The workers in effect are relieved of stress and are energized for the next day's work.

According to Miller (2020), if employees get along and enjoy each other's company, the institution will have higher employee retention and overall, more fun and excitement at work and also helps in developing a close bond among employees in achieving ambitious corporate goals.

The employees of UEC face varying levels of risk of becoming injured or falling ill. These injuries and illnesses may result from contact with chemical, medical, physical, electrical, mechanical, psychosocial or other workplace hazards (Asumeng, Afful, & Agyemang, 2015). The university is therefore conscious about providing a workplace free from recognized hazards that are causing or are likely to cause death or serious physical harm to the employees. In achieving this, the university has put in place measures to constantly and consistently supply employees such as sanitary workers, technicians, electricians and mechanics with PPE for eyes, face, head, and body. It also provides employees with working tools to facilitate the work they do. Some of the PPE the university provides include masks and face shields, gloves, fall protection and harnesses, full-body suits, helmets, goggles and work boots. Also, the university gives workers access to working tools that make their jobs easier. Employees are thus better protected against health and safety risks and are more prepared for accidents and the elements due to the provision of PPE and working gear. However, the provision of PPE does not guarantee its usage, so there is a need for the university to have regular training for employees on the use of PPE and its importance to the health and safety of the worker.

Again, the possibility of conflict exists at the University of Education, Winneba especially when the disturbances the university experienced have not been resolved, which might deplete resources, demoralize staff, and prevent the university from fulfilling its objectives. As a result, the institution has established a problem-resolution committee made up of reputable employees with the sole purpose of resolving any disagreements at work. The Committee is tasked with creating and putting into place a suitable framework, set of guidelines, policies, and practices for offering arbitration and mediation services to the institution. When necessary, the committee provides binding arbitration panels with the power to reach factual conclusions, judgments, and interpretations of the university's policies. Employees who believe they have received unfair treatment from either the institution or other employees are urged to bring up their concerns with the committee in hopes of reaching a mutually agreeable resolution. This has been done to avoid legal action being taken against the institution, which would ultimately damage the university's reputation.

Surprisingly, the results revealed that there are still several employees who are not aware of the numerous measures the university has put in place in promoting the health and psychosocial safety climate of the workers and the University of Education, Winneba. This probably could be because the management of the institution has not done enough in helping the employees understand and appreciate these measures. Without the workers' understanding, just planning and implementing health promotion and safety measures might not produce the desired results. To address the issue, the university can think about

holding an annual event where staff members are informed about the different initiatives the university has implemented to support staff members' health and the overall psychosocial climate. The measures might once more be detailed and explained to newly hired personnel during orientation.

Research Question 4: What is the Extent to which Psychosocial Factors Influence the Burnout of Employees of the University of Education, Winneba?

The purpose of this analysis is to examine the influence of psychosocial factors (job demand, job decision latitude, social support, harassment and discrimination) on work-related burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment) of employees of UEW. This is done using SEM in LISREL 9.30 version software, to determine the pathways through which psychosocial factors (JD, DL, SS, H, D) influence work-related burnout (EE, DP, PA). Also, the overall model fit is assessed and reported in Table 7. However, testing for only the Chi-square (χ^2) to determine the model fit is not consistent with to sample size, but the Chi-square over the degree of freedom ratio (χ^2/df) is a more acceptable metric when it is less than or equal to 3.00 (Chin 1998). Meanwhile, the χ^2/df , p-value, Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI), Non-Normed Fit Index (NFI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Root Mean-Square Residual (RMR), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), SRMR and Incremental Fit Index (IFI) are consistent with previous studies (Kurfali et al., 2017; Wu & Chen 2017). I, therefore concluded that the values are within the recommended range, suggesting that the research model has an acceptable fit.

Figure 7 presents the SEM model built with the five latent variables and their respective observed variables. This is a 'true' reflective model, in that all the arrows point from the latent variables towards their indicators (Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2016; Sarstedt et al., 2016). In addition, Table 8 presents the underlying structural regression output that indicates the level of significance (hypothesis tests). From the results, there was no statistically significant influence between Discrimination (D) and Emotional Exhaustion (EE) ($\beta=0.0544$, $p=0.084$, $t= 1.727$), Job Demand (JD) and Depersonalization (DP) ($\beta = 0.054$, $p = 0.084$, $t = 1.727$), Social Support (SS) and Depersonalization (DP) ($\beta=0.0409$, $p=1.123$, $t=1.542$), Harassment (H) and Depersonalization (DP) ($\beta =0.0506$, $p=0.062$, $t=1.868$), Harassment (H) and Diminished Personal Accomplishment (PA) ($\beta =0.0385$, $p=0.216$, $t= 1.237$). Meanwhile, Job Demand (JD) ($\beta=0.0856$, $p=0.000$, $t=3.526$), Job Decision Latitude (DL) ($\beta=0.136$, $p=0.000$, $t= 4.944$), Social Support (SS) ($\beta=0.546$, $p=0.049$, $t=1.972$), Harassment (S) ($\beta=0.270$, $p=0.000$, $t=9.488$) have a significant effect on Emotional Exhaustion (EE). Again, Job Decision Latitude (DL) ($b=0.0614$, $p=0.019$, $t=2.337$), Discrimination (D) ($\beta =0.0925$, $p=0.001$, $t=3.177$) affect Depersonalization (DP). In addition, Job Demand (JD) ($\beta=0.372$, $p=0.015$, $t= 2.439$), Job Decision Latitude (DL) ($\beta=0.0920$, $p=0.003$, $t= 2.977$), Social Support (SS) ($\beta=0.108$, $p=0.001$, $t=3.425$), Discrimination (D) ($\beta=0.114$, $p=0.001$, $t= 3.295$) affect Personal Accomplishment (PA). Therefore, job demand, job decision latitude, social support, harassment and discrimination are found to be important in influencing work-related burnout like emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment among employees of UEW.

Among the psychosocial factors, job demand has the largest impact ($\beta = 0.372$) on employee work-related emotional exhaustion of the workers. This suggested that job demand is the most significant psychosocial factor to influence employee work-related burnout.

Table 7: Model Fit Summary and Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Job Demand, Decision Latitude, Social Support, Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, Personal Accomplishment, Harassment, and Discrimination

Fit index	Recommended value	Research model
Chi-square/degree of freedom (χ^2/df)	<3.00	2.629
p-value	<0.05	0.01136
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	>0.80	0.997
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)	>0.80	0.979
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	>0.90	0.961
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	<0.08	0.036
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	<0.90	0.0201
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	>0.90	0.974
Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR)	<0.05	0.0175
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	>0.90	0.975

Source: Field Survey (2022)

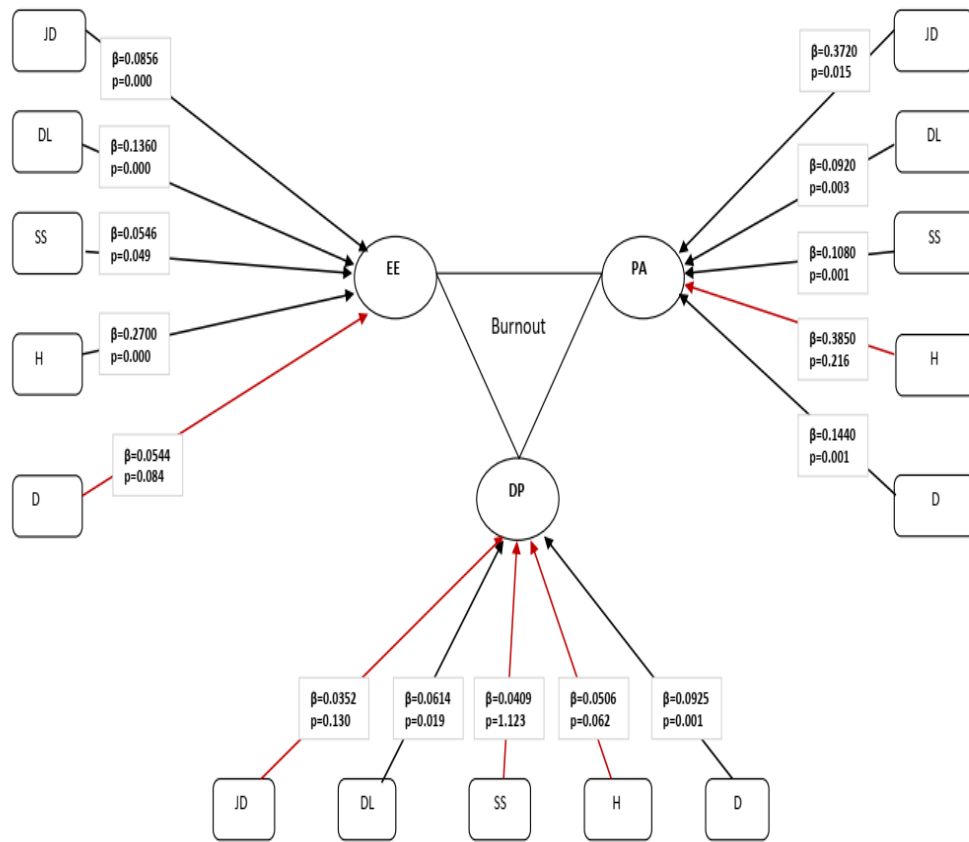


Figure 7: Structural equation model of the significance of psychosocial factors (JD, DL, SS, H, D) on burnout (EE, DP, PA)

Key: JD= Job Demand, DL= Decision Latitude, SS= Social Support, EE= Emotional Exhaustion, DP=Depersonalization, PA= Diminished Personal Accomplishment, H= Harassment, and D= Discrimination

Source: Field Survey (2022)

Table 8: Multi-group Analysis of Psychosocial Factors and Work-related Burnout

Hypothesis	Path coefficient(β)	T-value	P-value	Decision
H1: JD-EE	0.0856	3.526	0.000**	Accepted
H2: DL-EE	0.136	4.944	0.000**	Accepted
H3: SS-EE	0.0546	1.972	0.049**	Accepted
H4: H-EE	0.270	9.488	0.000**	Accepted
H5: D-EE	0.0544	1.727	0.084	Rejected
H6: JD-DP	0.0352	1.513	0.130	Rejected
H7: DL-DP	0.0614	2.337	0.019**	Accepted
H8: SS-DP	0.0409	1.542	1.123	Rejected
H9: H-DP	0.0506	1.868	0.062	Rejected
H10: D-DP	0.0925	3.177	0.001**	Accepted
H11: JD-PA	0.372	2.439	0.015**	Accepted
H12: DL-PA	0.0920	2.977	0.003**	Accepted
H13: SS-PA	0.108	3.425	0.001**	Accepted
H14: H-PA	0.0385	1.237	0.216	Rejected
H15: D-PA	0.114	3.295	0.001**	Accepted

Accepted at ** $p < 0.05$

Source: Field Survey (2022)

The findings indicate that job demand has a marked influence on the emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment of the workers. Also, job decision latitude could influence emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment of the workers. Again, social support received by the workers influences their emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment. Furthermore, those workers reporting harassment are likely to report increased emotional exhaustion, while others who feel discriminated against could also feel depersonalized and have diminished personal accomplishment. These results confirm that work-related burnout is likely to be influenced by all the psychosocial factors examined in the current study. Meanwhile, the findings are incongruent with some preceding studies on the assessment of the relationship

between psychosocial factors and work-related burnout (Choobineh et al., 2013; Escribà-Agüir et al., 2006; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007).

In the current dispensation of increased workload due to high student enrollment and changes in the dynamics of higher education, employees of UEW are likely to be subjected to new work assignments. They, therefore, have to cope with all the inconveniences associated with teaching, supporting and offering administrative services, which leads to emotional exhaustion (Pantenburg et al., 2016). The increase in workload is happening at a time when university employees especially assistant lecturers, lecturers and senior lecturers are under pressure to publish articles in reputable academic journals and are also required to be engaged in community services before they could be promoted (Bampoh-Addo et al., 2014). On the other hand, administrative assistants and senior administrative assistants are also expected to immediately respond to the needs of students and college employees by rendering a high standard of quality services (Johnson et al., 2019). Probably, these situations are enough for the employees to experience psychological strain, particularly emotional exhaustion.

In the current study, job decision latitude has a significant influence on all the dimensions of burnout i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment (Dall'Ora et al., 2020). Employees of UEW may probably have the freedom to decide how to carry out their responsibilities, which keeps them less stressed and more focused on accomplishing their objectives and desires. However, contrary to the current findings, Jaworek et al. (2015) identified low decision latitude as one of the predictor factors of emotional exhaustion and

depersonalization. At low decision latitude, employees with vast experiences may have no or limited authority over a job and may have to take uncomfortable instructions from supervisors who may not be skilled which sometimes may lead to depleting emotions and disinterest in the job. Possibly, in UEW, employees such as junior and senior staff with vast experience may have authority or control over a job and may not have to wait for instructions from a senior member before a particular task could be performed. According to Glavin and Schieman (2012), employees with more freedom in their work decisions are less stressed and have fewer work-family conflicts. Moreover, Elovainio et al. (2004) show that increased worker decision-making freedom improves organizational fairness and has a long-term favourable impact on employee health. Furthermore, there are scholarly works about the usefulness of job decision latitude and social support in reducing the negative impacts of work demands on burnout (Saijo et al., 2016; Nie et al., 2015).

Additionally, the results of the current study accentuate the importance of social support on the emotional exhaustion of the workers. Thus, support from supervisors and coworkers helps to reduce emotional exhaustion triggered by excessive job demands. A study by Nooteboom (2022) revealed that support in the form of physical and emotions reduces the undesirable effect of the work environment on employees. Physical and emotional support from departmental/sectional heads and coworkers offset the damaging effect of physical and mental stress employees experience in the course of duty. Undeniably, a bad relationship between coworkers or between supervisors and

subordinates and incessant disagreement among them can result in feelings of stress and emotional exhaustion. Again, social support influences emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment, which is likely to reduce employees' burnout. Thus, the stress triggered by increased job demand may be averted in part by coworker and supervisor support. Social support in the workplace could aid in reducing the impact of increased job demands on emotional exhaustion. Indeed, the results indicate that the level of influence of job demand on emotional exhaustion is just about two times as excessive as that of social support at work on emotional exhaustion.

The results further showed that social support at work also influences personal accomplishment, as found by Nooteboom (2022). Thus, employees who operate in environments with strong institutional support express better workplace happiness and increased personal accomplishment. Also, the current study demonstrates that support from heads of department, deans and directors and other management members and coworkers at the university could reduce the stress levels among the workers in the university, regardless of the level of job demand and job decision latitude. Additionally, it was revealed that social relation at work significantly influences emotional exhaustion and probably lead to increased personal accomplishment. As a result, social support at work could regulate burnout since it lessens emotional tiredness and focuses on personal accomplishment (Ballet et al., 2008). Social support at work continues to be a critical stress and burnout mitigation factor, even though it may not be the only

way in dealing with increased job demands and psychological health problems at work.

The finding again revealed that UEW workers who feel harassed could also feel a high level of emotional exhaustion and reduced depersonalization and diminished personal accomplishment. These findings suggest that harassment causes a great deal of harm to the psychological well-being of employees of UEW compared to the other psychosocial factors examined in this study (Jung et al., 2019). Grandey et al. (2007) opines that abuse from coworkers or bosses is particularly unpleasant since the victims grow more and more worn out from having to deal with their negative feelings. Likely, harassed employees try as much as possible to hide their feelings and put-up pleasant behaviour in performing their responsibilities despite any private associated misgiving. According to Jung et al. (2019), when victims of harassment hide or conceal their feeling it results in high levels of emotional distress. Grandey et al. (2007) suggests that managing emotions with respected employees within the institution in situations of abuse or harassment may help avert the possibility of retaliation or reprisal behaviour from such victims of harassment.

It is interesting to speculate why emotional exhaustion is the only dimension of burnout significantly influenced by harassment in this study. Perhaps, the employees of UEW perceive harassing conditions to be stressful only to their feelings rather than to their general well-being and performance. Such an explanation is consistent with the significant levels of harassment recorded among the workers in the current study. It is possible existing organizational culture and

conditions and the type of leadership style being practised exacerbate the level of harassment in the institution. Probably, it is compounded by the high job demand though employees may enjoy high social support and job decision latitude. Furthermore, UEW workers experiencing discrimination in the university may equally have high depersonalization and diminished personal accomplishment (Kamal et al., 2012). The participants of this research study experienced a high rate of depersonalization and diminished personal achievement possibly because of discriminatory acts from other workers. This shows that when workers are treated unfairly, they continuously and frequently believe that the things around them are not important and real, and as a result, they lack the motivation to work toward improving both their circumstances and the institution as a whole.

Many employees of UEW are likely experiencing depersonalization as a result of discrimination at the university due to their educational qualification, age, disability, tribe or ethnicity, political affiliation, religion or gender. However, when these feelings keep occurring or never completely go away and interfere with the worker's ability to function, it may result in serious health challenges such as depression and hypertension (Ikram et al., 2015). Also, depersonalization could be so severe that it can affect the work-family relationships of these workers. Therefore, the management of the university must engage the entire workforce to discuss ways and means in curbing the issue of discrimination. Again, the institution could put in place policies to help victims of discrimination and also drastically deal with employees who may put up any act of discrimination against other employees.

Research Question 5: What is the Extent to which Burnout and Psychosocial Factors Predict the Turnover Intention of Employees of the University of Education, Winneba?

The analysis aimed to establish the extent to which burnout (emotional exhaustion, diminished personal accomplishment, depersonalization) and psychosocial factors (job demand, social support, job decision latitude, harassment, discrimination) influenced the likelihood of employees of UEW leaving the institution. Structural equation modelling was used to determine the influence.

As indicated by statistics reported in Table 9, all of the confirmatory factor models were satisfied because they had an adequate fit with the data. Therefore, the assessment of the complete structural equation model represented in Figure 8 was performed. LISREL 9.30 version software was used to assess the multiple indices of overall model fit and path coefficient estimates of the theoretical model. To complete Figure 8, although the χ^2 statistic was significant [χ^2 (11.31 df) = 45.24 $p < .05$], this statistic is sensitive to sample size and model complexity. As such, χ^2/df was 2.8275, and the fit indices were quite good (RMSEA = .039; SRMR = .0154; CFI= .983; NFI= .975; IFI= .0.0984; GFI= .998, AGFI= .977, RFI= 0.779) and indicated an acceptable fitting model. All of the path estimates (JD, DL, SS, H, D, EE, DP, PA) were significant and went in the expected direction (TI). Table 10 displays the outcome of the hypothesis testing.

Concerning the psychosocial factors, the results revealed that job demand ($\beta = 0.0774$, $p = 0.001$, $t = 3.189$), job decision latitude ($\beta = 0.126$, $p = 0.00$, $t = 4.586$),

and harassment ($\beta = 0.266$, $p = 0.000$, $t = 9.358$) significantly influences turnover intentions of the employees. However, the findings showed no statistically significant relationship between social support ($\beta = 0.0462$, $p = 0.096$, $t = 1.664$), discrimination ($\beta = 0.0418$, $p = 0.171$, $t = 1.369$) and turnover intentions.

Furthermore, concerning the influence of burnout on turnover intention, the results indicated that two of the dimensions, thus, depersonalization ($\beta = 0.0640$, $p = 0.033$, $t = 2.135$) and diminished personal accomplishment ($\beta = 0.0712$, $p = 0.020$, $t = 2.333$) significantly influenced turnover intention. But, emotional exhaustion ($\beta = 0.0139$, $p = 0.543$, $t = 0.608$) did not have any effect on turnover intention.

Table 9: Model fit Summary and Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, Personal Accomplishment, Job Demand, Decision Latitude, Social Support, Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, Harassment, Discrimination and Turnover Intention

Fit index	Recommended value	Research model
Chi-square/degree of freedom (χ^2/df)	<3.00	2.8275
p-value	<0.05	0.02332
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	>0.80	0.998
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)	>0.80	0.977
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	>0.90	0.975
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	<0.08	0.039
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	<0.90	0.0202
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	>0.90	0.983
Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR)	<0.05	0.0154
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	>0.90	0.9984

Source: Field Survey (2022)

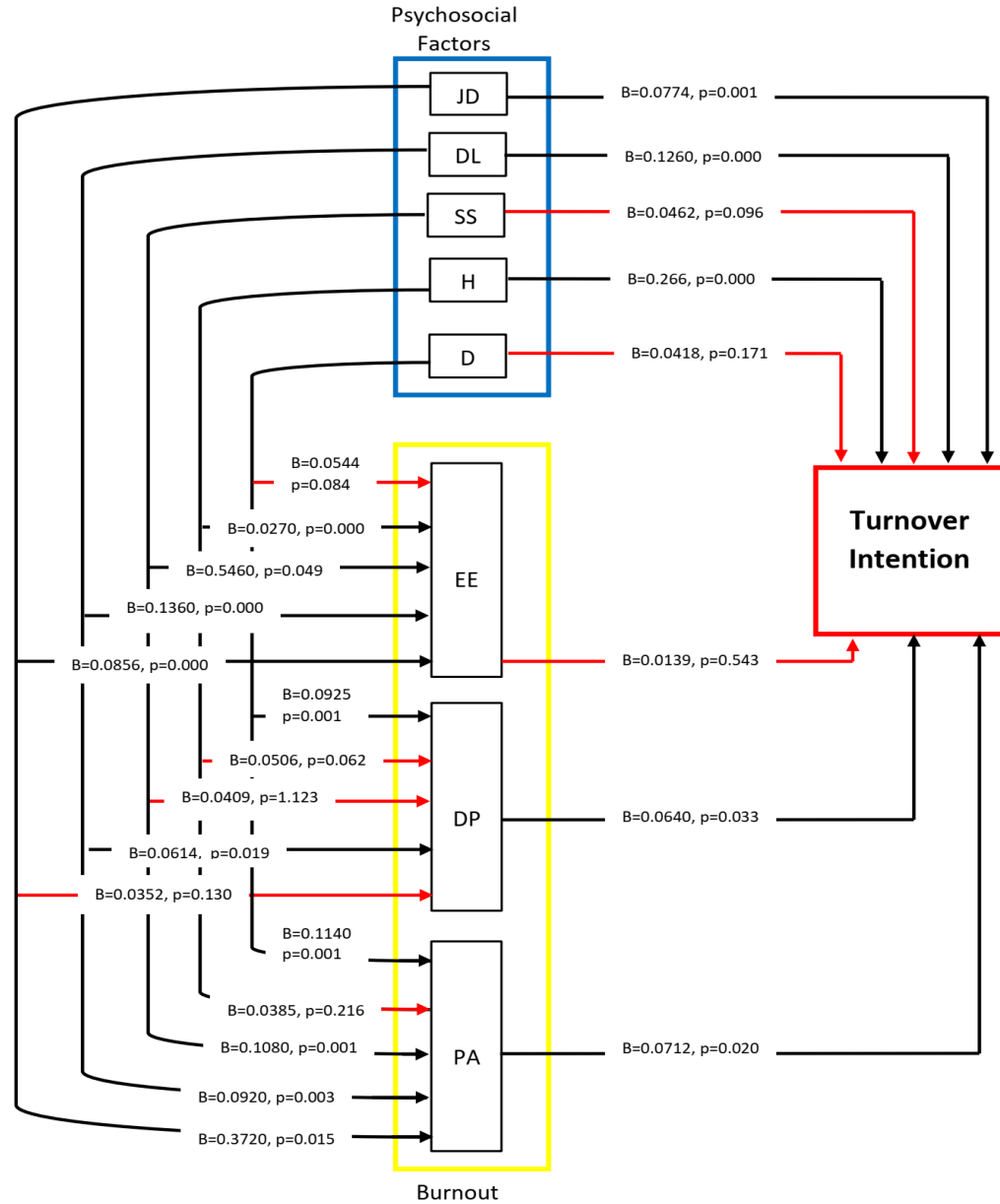


Figure 8: Structural equation model of the significance of burnout (EE, DP, PA) and psychosocial factors (JD, DL, SS, H, D), on turnover intentions (TI)

Key: JD= Job Demand, DL= Decision Latitude, SS= Social Support, EE= Emotional Exhaustion, DP=Depersonalization, PA= Diminished Personal Accomplishment, H= Harassment, D= Discrimination and TI= Turnover Intention

Source: Field Survey (2022)

Table 10: Multi-group analysis of Psychosocial Factors, Work-related Burnout and Turnover Intentions

Hypothesis	Path coefficient(B)	T-value	P-value	Decision
H1: JD-TI	0.0774	3.189	0.001**	Accepted
H2: DL-TI	0.1260	4.586	0.000**	Accepted
H3: SS-TI	0.0462	1.664	0.096**	Rejected
H4: H-TI	0.266	9.358	0.000**	Accepted
H5: D-TI	0.0418	1.369	0.171	Rejected
H6: EE-TI	0.0139	0.608	0.543	Rejected
H7: DP-TI	0.0640	2.135	0.033**	Accepted
H8: PA-TI	0.0712	2.333	0.020**	Accepted

Accepted at ** $p < 0.05$

Source: Field Survey (2022)

The current study investigated the part that each dimension of burnout and the psychosocial factors indicated in the current study play in an employee's decision to leave UEW, taking into account the notion that workplace psychosocial factors and burnout are more influential on turnover intention (Dollard et al., 2019). On the effect of job demand, job decision latitude, and harassment on turnover intentions, my hypothesized associations were confirmed. Meaning, the participants' desire to leave UEW was significantly impacted by too much job, job autonomy, and harassment. The study results on the main effects are consistent with the work of Demerouti et al (2001). These findings are significant because they show how psychosocial issues affect any workplace. Surprisingly, among the psychosocial variables, the harassment had the most effect ($\beta = 0.266$) on the intention to leave. This shows that poor workplace management such as deans, directors and heads of department dislike for a certain group of workers by exhibiting unreasonable recurrent behaviour towards these employees could have a serious negative impact on both employees' and organizations' performance. Arguably retention of labour and skills is likely

to suffer where excessive tasks and harassment are the results of a terrible work environment.

Also, the significant effect of job demand on turnover intention presents stern problems. Employees of UEW may be so overburdened with teaching, community service and administrative activities so much so that they have no time for anything such that they have become physically and emotionally drained. Again, it is likely that the workers of the institution feel unmotivated to work because of job mismatch and so consider additional job responsibilities as job overload leading to perceived stress. When a worker has no interest in what he does, he easily becomes exhausted and depressed (Petković et al., 2020). This is maybe happening because of the way employees have been transferred, demoted and assigned certain responsibilities in UEW in recent times. Some of the workers may have experienced this because of the bad relationship they may have with top management especially the vice-chancellor, registrar or any of their associates. Possibly, they have been assigned roles they do not have expertise in and so cannot perform effectively due to job mismatch and considers the job a burden. Likely, the employees do not appreciate the work they do and so have plans of leaving the institution. As reported by Khamisa et al. (2017), job mismatch often affects employees in their fulfilment and functioning at work.

Job autonomy has been linked in prior research to a lower likelihood of turnover (Wang, Jiang, & Mao, 2020), making it a crucial component in retention strategies (Worth et al., 2020). The current study, however, challenges these conclusions and advances knowledge of the important link

between job decision latitude and intention to leave. The results of this study demonstrated that high job decision latitude greatly affects turnover intentions, making a significant addition to the field of occupational health. This result suggests that, despite the possibility of fostering a sense of identity and attachment to one's place of employment, the freedom and responsibility to create one's work activities is insufficient to prevent UEW employees from feeling the urge to leave their current position. It is likely that some workers of UEW stay up all night thinking and planning how to complete a task because of fear of victimization, transfer or demotion. In such a situation, Clausen et al. (2022) believe job autonomy becomes a disadvantage to the worker as it can hurt the worker's health, physical and psychological well-being and family-work relationship. This may cause the worker to consider quitting his job.

Perhaps, employees of UEW no longer evaluate a high degree of job autonomy in isolation, but rather consider it in conjunction with other factors such as time, task and state of health when deciding whether to stay on the job or leave. Meanwhile, despite the level of autonomy reported in this study regarding employees' work activities, the high level of harassment found in the current study likely has a momentous impact on workers' decisions to quit. Employees who are naturally motivated to complete their work tasks develop a feeling of identity and loyalty to their employer, but harassment and discrimination may influence their freedom, hence, the decision to leave their current job. For instance, when a senior lecturer or administrator with many years of experience due to political and tribal reasons is demoted or assigned to a position his /her services would not be needed and will certainly have the

intention to quit irrespective of the level of autonomy he/she may have. This result contradicts the findings of Thatcher, Liu, Stepina, Goodman and Treadway (2006). Although it is impossible to draw causal inferences about the relationship between psychosocial factors, this research emphasizes the significance of harassment on job autonomy as a factor able to influence an employee of UEW to decide to quit the institution.

Furthermore, neither discrimination nor support from coworkers and supervisors had a substantial effect on turnover intentions. The result for social support was as expected given the level of support employees reported receiving from colleagues and supervisors in this study. The findings corroborate the work of Gordon et al. (2019). Employee retention decisions are likely influenced by how real and sincere they believe assistance from colleagues and supervisors is. However, the findings of the impact of discrimination on turnover intention were rather unanticipated, given the level of discrimination recorded in the current study. Discrimination has probably become so normalized among workers of UEW that it is nearly engrained in who they are. Maybe because employees of UEW now perceive unfairness, as usual, they would not be motivated to quit the institution because of inequity, defeating the findings of Qablan and Farmanesh (2019) and Mullins, Charbonneau and Riccucci (2021).

Also, the results of this study revealed that two of the dimensions of burnout meaningfully influence the turnover intentions of the employees of UEW. This confirms the results observed in previous studies by Dall'Ora et al. (2015) and Wong and Laschinger (2015). The results provide support for some of the hypothesized models connecting emotional exhaustion,

depersonalization, personal accomplishment and turnover intention. The findings afford an increased understanding of how a worker's intention to quit UEW could emanate from their state of physical or emotional health, loss of personal identity, reduced achievements and instability of the institution. Such knowledge may provide suggestions for suitable areas for the development of interventions to reduce the risk of UEW employees leaving their positions.

Although employees' emotional exhaustion was high, it did not implicitly influence turnover intentions. This is surprising considering the high level of emotional exhaustion reported in the current study and the negative physical and emotional effects it possesses on the health of the employee. Leiter et al. (2009) opine that emotional depletion can result in increased sick time, accidents, back injuries, and hypertension. It was therefore expected to influence the decision of employees of UEW to quit their job as reported in similar studies (Van Bogaert et al., 2014; Wong et al., 2015). Nevertheless, this was not the case, probably, the employees of UEW have adopted coping strategies to overcome the negative effects of emotional distress.

The high social assistance employees of UEW may enjoy from coworkers and supervisors as reported in this study may be a coping mechanism for the workers to overcome emotional depletion. The employees may confide and take words of encouragement from colleagues, heads of departments or deans on job-related matters such as ill-treatment, intimidation, abuse and excessive responsibilities rather than deciding to leave the institution. To deal with emotional stress employees may visit the university clubhouse "Semsa" to socialize and make new friends. Again, since there aren't many job opportunities in the country, employees of UEW may prefer

staying at the job despite experiencing a feeling of emotional depletion from their job in order not to be unemployed and lose their monthly remuneration. Notwithstanding the findings, however, the management of UEW must make a frantic effort to minimize the degree of emotional exhaustion among the employees.

Meanwhile, a robust considerable relationship was identified between the loss of an employee's identity and the employee's intention to leave. The results corroborate the findings of Wong and Laschinger (2015) and Dall'Ora et al. (2015). The observation that diminished self-esteem influences turnover intention is a cause for concern as employees experiencing high identity crises is at risk of poor psychological problems. The influence of loss of personal identity on intention to quit was momentous ($p= 0.033$). According to Leiter et al. (2009), a major issue for turnover intention is the extent to which employees are involved in their work concerning their emotions and social relationships. The high level of depersonalization recorded in this study may be an indication that the employees are going through an identity crisis and are disinterested in their job probably due to unmanageable job responsibilities, job mismatch, harassment, demotions, suspensions and unexpected transfers. What may be keeping them in UEW may be the remuneration they hope to receive at the end of the month. This may be a possible reason for the employees of UEW to seriously consider leaving their roles. Perhaps, the management of the institution may have to review the work schedule for employees to reduce the too much workload on the workers. Possibly, employees may have to be assigned to jobs that they are most qualified for and have the expertise and experience to do rather than jobs they are not familiar

with. Also, prior notice may be given for any impending transfer and job reallocation in order not to disorganize the worker.

Furthermore, the study finding revealed that personal accomplishment significantly impacted turnover intentions. Unpredictably, among the dimension of burnout, personal accomplishment had the most effect on employees' decision to quit UEW ($\beta = 0.0712$, $p = 0.020$). The finding accentuates the importance of feelings of lack of achievement at work by UEW employees and the ultimate connection to intent to quit the current job. Meanwhile, diminished personal accomplishment is considered to be a negative self-assessment and a sense of failed performance at work (Maslach, 2017). Studies conducted by Lindwall, Gerber, Jonsdottir, Börjesson and Ahlborg (2014) and Estiri, Nargesian, Dastpish, and Sharifi (2016) reported that underachievement affects physical and mental health and has a negative influence on employee performance, job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

A probable reason why employees of UEW may have reported reduced achievements may be as a result of too many job tasks, favouritism, transfer and demotion. Possibly, the employees are always engaged with work so much so that they do not have time to upgrade themselves. Again, the few opportunities (i.e., study leave, conferences, exchange programmes) available for employees to upgrade themselves may be offered to workers affiliated with top management members like the vice-chancellor, registrar or dean or head of a department. Such employees may be favoured over highly qualified, long-serving and experienced workers even when they do not qualify. Often, it demotivates other workers from applying for such opportunities especially when they know they would not be considered.

Additionally, the employees may decide to leave the institution because there are no policies and programmes in place to ensure that they grow and become experts in what they do such that when the more experienced employees like associate professors, professors and senior administrative assistants retire or leave, the young ones can take up the mantle. Also, it is possible management of the institution recruits fresh personnel to top positions to the detriment of long-serving employees who may be better suited for the job. These experiences may serve as a disincentive to other employees to aspire to work hard to accomplish greater feats on the job or to decide to leave the institution.

Therefore, the management of UEW must find innovative ways in addressing the issue of reduced accomplishment among the employees since it is every worker's dream to achieve meaningful things in life. One way of doing this could be ensuring that workers are not overburdened with too much work so that they can enrol on a weekend, part-time and sandwich programme run by UEW or other institutions to update their knowledge on current work-related issues. Also, management must ensure a level playing ground for all employees who qualify to apply for opportunities they may advertise. Additionally, employees could be supported with the requisite resources and opportunities to achieve meaningful things on the job. It is also possible for the institution to put in place a succession plan such that long-tenured staff members with the required qualifications can take up top positions in the institution when need be.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purposes of this study were to: (1) identify the prevalence of chronic health conditions among employees of the University of Education, Winneba, (2) investigate the levels of burnout, discrimination, harassment, turnover intention, job demands, job decision latitude and social support (supervisor and co-worker support), (3) identify the measures put in place to protect and promote the health and psychosocial safety climate of the workers and the university (4) examine the extent to which psychosocial factors influence burnout on health and wellbeing and (5) explore the extent to which burnout and psychosocial factors predict turnover intention among the workers. This chapter focuses on the summary, main findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

Summary

Psychosocial work climate often includes aspects of the job and work environments such as organizational climate, work roles, interpersonal relationships at work, and the design and content of tasks (e.g., variety, meaning, scope, repetitiveness). In addition, it extends to the extra-organizational environment (e.g., domestic demands) and aspects of the individual (e.g., personality and attitudes) which may influence the job and health of an employee in the workplace. The psychosocial climate of a workplace presents new and subtle threats to the health of an employee with a possible risk of somatic disorders such as cardiovascular disease, stress and turnover intentions. These factors have been necessitated by increasing workload, unavailability of job resources, strained relationships among co-

workers, discrimination and psychological demands of the workplace as may be the case among university senior faculty members.

The work demand at universities in Ghana has increased significantly in recent times because of the increase in enrollment at the pre-tertiary level.

The university enrollment (% gross) in Ghana has increased to 15.69 % in 2018 compared with 6% in 2008. This would also increase enrollment in the universities as many qualified Senior High School (SHS) graduates continue to apply for admission. The increase in numbers from the pre-tertiary level is because of the government's policy on Free Senior High School (FSHS) Education. Therefore, it is expected that such development will bring about increased employment opportunities in the tertiary education sector, including recruitment of more lecturers, senior lecturers, associate professors and professors, administrators, technicians, artisans, drivers and orderlies to meet the demands being created as a result of increased intake of students. This is however not the case as staff strength appears to remain constant with a rather increasing workload at their various offices.

Despite the positive advances that Ghana's tertiary educational system is undergoing, there are many drawbacks that the personnel who work in the institutions must endure. For example, the psychosocial factors including the way work are carried out such as meeting deadlines, workload, work method and the context in which work is performed, relationships and interactions with managers, supervisors, coworkers and students are increasing and becoming more complex. For instance, academic employees such as lecturers, senior lecturers, associate professors and professors have to teach for long hours, undertake scholarly activities and also perform administrative and

community services. Additionally, they are responsible for preparing students for competitions such as those in student associations, congresses and inter-level competitions, student counselling and fresh student's admission processes may present an overload of work. Nonacademic employees, often perform highly demanding tasks based on instructions from their superiors without any control which exposes them to work overload. Some of the tasks they perform include registration of students, report writing and preparation of annual meeting schedules and academic calendars. Again, they are expected to keep all staff and students' records and information, process advertisements for admissions and issue admission letters to potential students. Admittedly, these can affect the health, safety and well-being of employees of the universities.

The University of Education, Winneba (UEW) is one of the government-owned universities in Ghana. The university has always had a conducive work atmosphere for academic and non-academic activities. Recently, the UEW has been in some amount of crisis. The institution has been plagued with a myriad of controversies and disturbances taking the center stage in both traditional news media and most importantly, online news portals in Ghana. Key among the issues has been the suspension, demotion, dismissal and quit recently the reinstatement of some senior members including the former Vice-Chancellor and the finance officer. A violent demonstration by some students rocked the university because of the suspension, demotion and dismissal at the Winneba and Ajumako campuses. These violent protests ultimately led to the temporary closure of the aforementioned campuses by the Central Regional Security Council on March

14, 2019, and students were asked to vacate the respective campuses. It is believed that this will affect the psychosocial climate of the university. Moreover, evidence suggested that in such an unstable workplace, there is a likelihood of alienation, discrimination, harassment, bullying, and intimidation which create fear, anxiety and other serious psycho-emotional and physical health consequences for the employees. For instance, preliminary information from the University's clinic indicates that work-related illness in the university is causing a loss of hundreds of working days in a year. Also, the clinic recorded eye injuries, muscular disorders, including back pain and repetitive strain injury and acute respiratory infections such as chest pains, and high blood pressure as some of the most commonly complained illnesses. Despite these figures from the clinic, there is no known literature to first support the opinion and second to determine the likelihood of employees of the university leaving their job due to the prevailing psychosocial climate within the university.

The current study utilized a 65-item questionnaire. The questionnaire measured the psychosocial aspects of work. It further measured burnout among the employees. Moreover, the instrument measured discrimination and harassment as experienced by the workers and the turnover intentions of the workers. Furthermore, the questionnaire looked at measures the university has put in place to ensure the protection of workers' health and general well-being and the promotion of a good psychosocial climate within the university. The instrument also measured socio-demographic factors such as age, gender, marital status, religious affiliation, staff category, faculty/directorate/division, level of education and number of years in employment at the university. The

questionnaire was pre-tested at Ajumako and Winneba campuses and yielded a Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient ranging from 0.898 to 0.964. Besides, it produced composite reliabilities ranging from 0.920 to 0.968.

Data was collected from 1222 employees of UEW at Ajumako and all the campuses in Winneba. Five research questions guided the study. Research questions one and three were analysed using frequencies and percentage counts. In addition, research question two was analysed with mean of means and standard deviation. Also, research questions four and five were analysed using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM).

Main Findings

The following findings were drawn based on the results:

1. Workers at UEW mostly suffer chronic health conditions like hypertension, diabetes, work-related stress, backache, eye injury, Non-cardiac Chest Pains and repetitive rate.
2. There are generally high levels of burnout, discrimination, harassment, job demand, job decision latitude and social support. However, the level of turnover intention among the workers is moderate.
3. The University of Education, Winneba has put in place measures to support and protect workers' health and psychosocial safety climate as a whole. It includes; ensuring staff security, establishing a university clinic, funding medical bills, counselling and gender unit for victims of harassment and discrimination, laws and policies, socialization and retreats, training, development workshops for employees, staff welfare scheme, provision of personal protective equipment (PPE) and working tools and committees to resolve and settle disputes.

4. Some dimensions of work-related burnout are meaningfully influenced by psychosocial factors. Job demands showed a positive correlation with the dimensions of emotional exhaustion and diminished personal accomplishment. Also, job decision latitude had a positive correlation with the dimensions of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and diminished personal accomplishment. Again, there was a positive correlation between coworker and supervisor support and emotional distress and underachievement. Furthermore, the harassment had a significant impact on emotional exhaustion whereas there was a positive correlation between discrimination and depersonalization and diminished personal accomplishment.

5. There exist a substantial association between psychosocial factors such as job demand, job decision latitude, harassment and workers' intention to quit UEW. Also, there was no significant relationship between social support, discrimination and turnover intentions. Significantly, depersonalization and diminished accomplishment affect the turnover intention of UEW workers. Meanwhile, emotional exhaustion does not in any way impact decision of an employee of UEW to leave the institution.

Conclusions

The following conclusions are drawn based on the findings:

1. The chronic health conditions workers at UEW suffer may be a result of high levels of burnout, discrimination, harassment and job demand which is associated with the academic work environment.

2. The turnover intentions of employees of UEW would be low if the necessary measures are put in place for employees to overcome burnout (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, diminished accomplishment), discrimination, harassment and high job demand.
3. Effective organizational health promotion and safety measures and practices increase employee health, safety, and well-being. It has a positive impact on institutional outcomes like higher employee morale, decreased absenteeism and attrition, possibly lower healthcare costs, and higher service quality.
4. Psychosocial factors such as Job demands, job decision latitude, social support, harassment and discrimination significantly influence the dimensions of burnout.
5. The decisions of employees of UEW to quit the institution are strongly impacted by psychosocial factors such as job demand, job decision latitude and harassment. The turnover intention of the workers of UEW is significantly predicted by burnout (i.e., depersonalization and diminished personal accomplishment).

Recommendations

These recommendations are outlined based on the findings:

1. The management of the University of Education, Winneba has to assess its aims and objectives in order to determine whether the current administrative and scholarly activities are sustainable. The institution needs to have conversations about how an excessive amount of work, such as teaching, marking, supervision, and publishing, is impairing staff members' general health and

wellbeing. Employees would come out and share their stories if free conversation about these matters was permitted. Employees with incapacitating chronic illnesses would perform better as a result of this, helping to solve the chronic health issues plaguing the workforce to some extent.

2. To keep employees on the job, the management of UEW may organize regular seminars, and workshops, and continues professional development programmes on stress management, anger management, work-family support, dealing with burnout, and psychosocial factors for staff members. This is indicated by the reported levels of burnout, psychosocial factors, and turnover intention. The levels of psychosocial factors and burnout symptoms would be controlled as a result, and employee work satisfaction would increase, lowering their intention to quit their positions.
3. The university can organize an annual event where staff members can learn about the various initiatives the institution has put in place to improve staff members' health and the overall psychosocial climate to address the issue of ignorance about health promotion measures. During orientation, the measures might once more be described in detail and made clear to newly hired staff by the human resource division of the university.
4. By implementing practical interventional programmes like regular training on reducing job demands, either physical or psychological, as well as by enhancing social support, diversity and job control, the management of UEW may be able to minimize burnout among

the employees. Making employees aware of the rules governing the workplace, creating a balance between their physical capabilities and responsibilities, and their ambition to do great things on the job are all possible ways to reduce depersonalization by the management of UEW.

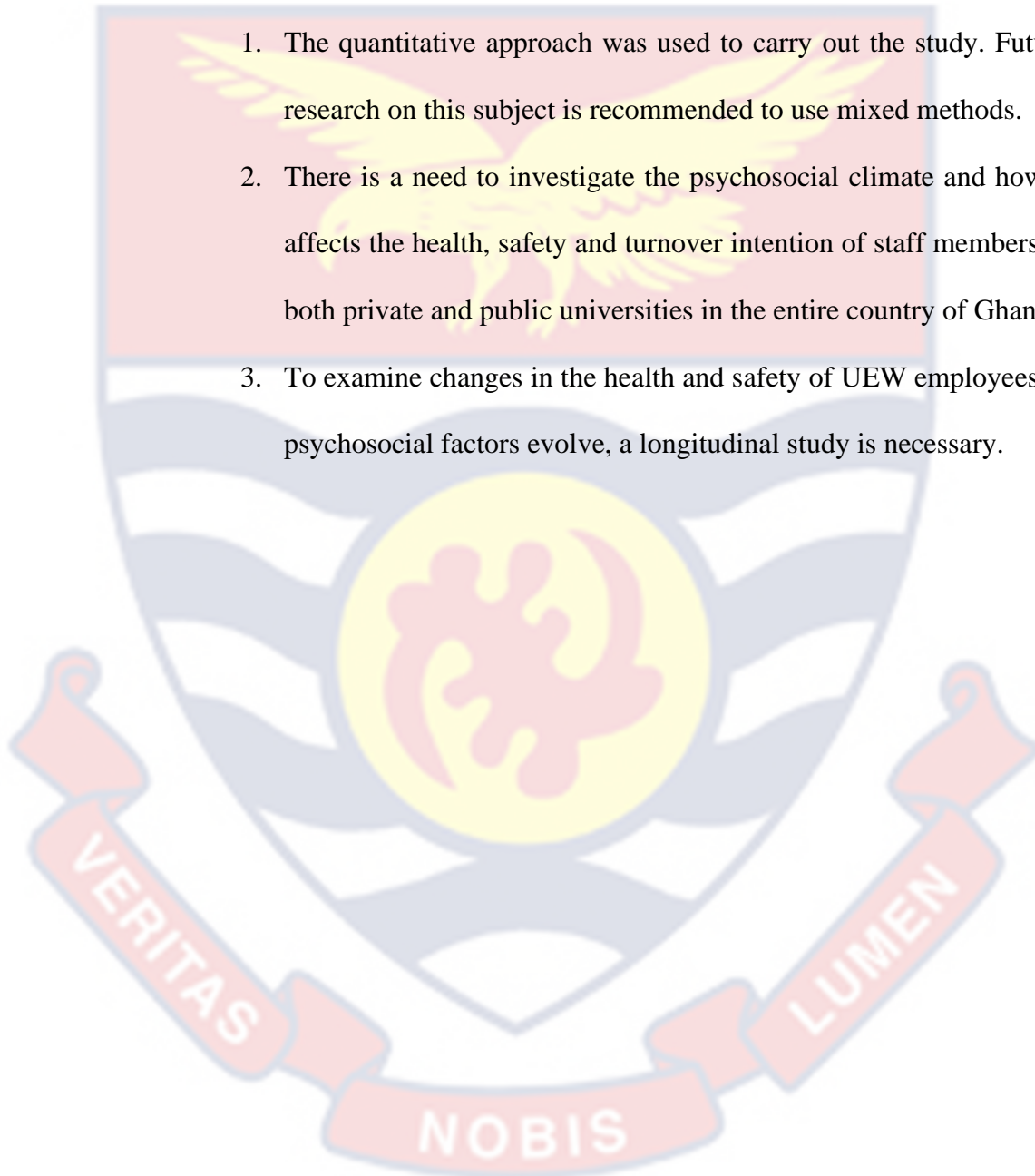
5. At the management, faculty, and departmental levels, systems for aiding staff such as yearly mandatory medical checkup, socialization and compulsory annual leave should be encouraged. Most crucial, employees must actively develop coping skills to reduce stress during working hours with the support of teammates and managers to prevent them from opting to quit the organization. One approach that offers promise for reducing stress is mindfulness. Training programmes in mindfulness-based stress reduction that have been specifically designed by management of UEW for employees have the potential to lessen psychological symptoms and burnout. Management at UEW may contact occupational health specialists to develop and implement coping mechanisms that staff members can utilize to enhance their health to reduce the stress and intention to leave that are brought on by psychological issues.
6. Policies and a culture that support balancing personal and professional duties like study leave with pay, accelerated promotions, exchange programmes with universities in and outside Ghana can be instituted by the management of UEW. This may be

advantageous for UEW employees and the growth and development of the institution as a whole.

Suggestions for Further Studies

These further study areas are also proposed:

1. The quantitative approach was used to carry out the study. Future research on this subject is recommended to use mixed methods.
2. There is a need to investigate the psychosocial climate and how it affects the health, safety and turnover intention of staff members of both private and public universities in the entire country of Ghana.
3. To examine changes in the health and safety of UEW employees as psychosocial factors evolve, a longitudinal study is necessary.



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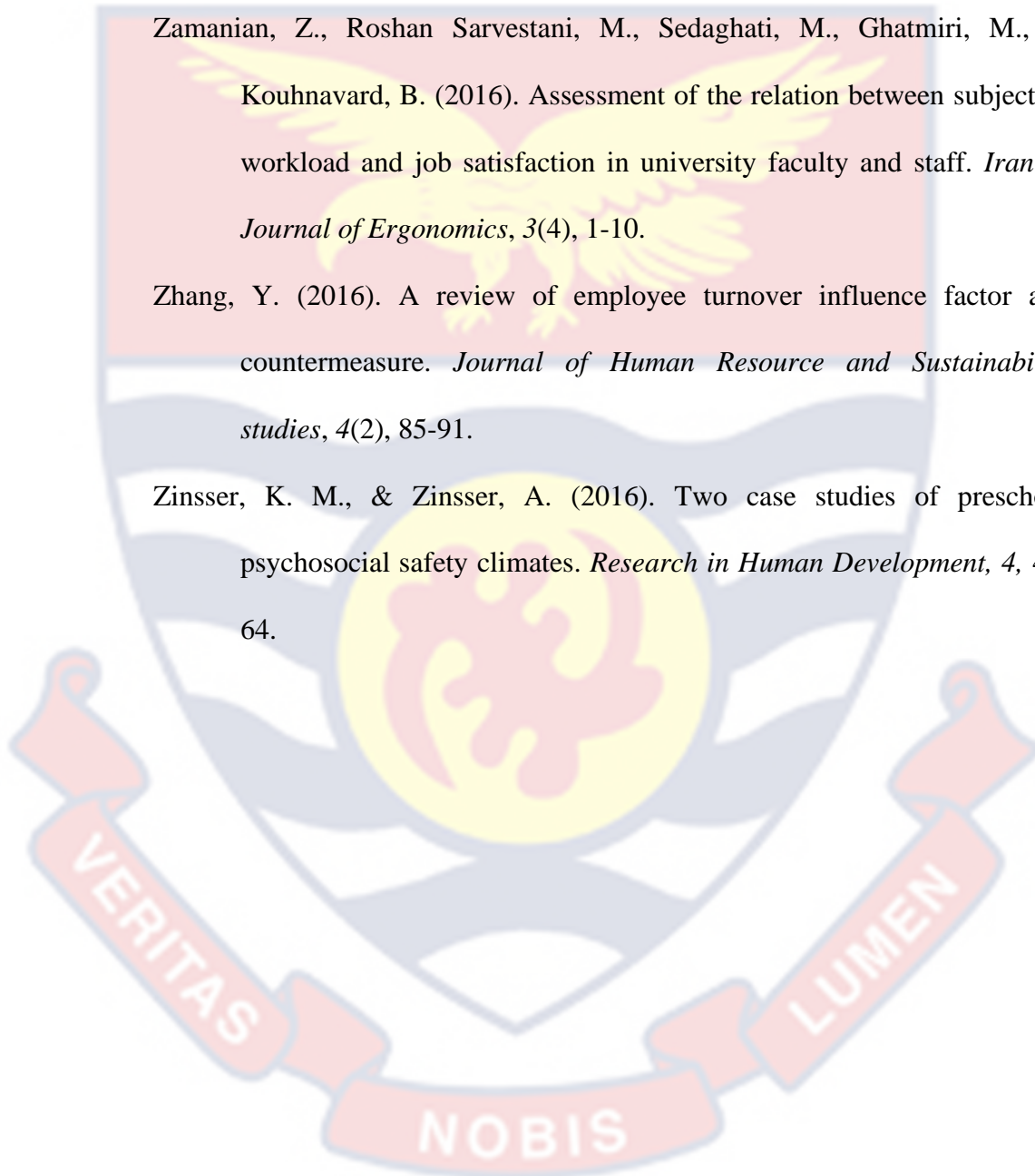
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APPENDICES



APPENDIX A

University of Cape Coast

Psychosocial Climate, Health and Turnover Intention of Employees

Questionnaire for Employees of University of Education, Winneba

Dear Respondent,

I am a student from the University of Cape Coast (UCC) conducting a study on the “Psychosocial Climate, Health and Turnover Intention of Employees of University of Education, Winneba.” This academic study aims to examine the interaction among psychosocial climate, health status and turnover intentions of employees at the University of Education, Winneba (UEW). Your name or any form of direct/indirect identifier will not be required in this research. Further, I assure you of the anonymity and confidentiality of your information. You have been included in this study because you are a worker at UEW and fall within my inclusion criteria. Apart from your time, this study poses no threat to you, rather you are helping me to understand the psychosocial climate of UEW and how it affects the health of employees and whether they have intentions of leaving the institution. It will take you about 15 minutes to complete this questionnaire. Besides, I give no reward as you take part in this research. For further inquiry, contact.

Dr. Samuel Essien-Baidoo, Tel:0554163930; Email:sessionbaidoo@ucc.edu.gh

Dr. Edward Wilson Ansah, Tel: 0247703379; Email:edwardansah@ucc.edu.gh

Please tick (√) or click Yes to sign your consent below if you understand the aim of this study and agree to participate. Yes []

Section A: Kindly mark the option that corresponds to your choice or write your answer in the space provided.

1. Indicate your age (in years)
2. Gender:
 - a) Male [] b) Female [] c) Others [] d) I don't want to answer []
3. Marital Status
 - a. Single []
 - b. Married and Living with the Partner []

- c. Married but not living with the Partner []
- d. Divorce/Separated []
- e. Widow/Widower []

4. Religious affiliation

- a. Christian []
- b. Islam []
- c. Traditional []
- d. Others []

5. Staff Category

- a. Senior Member (Academic) []
- b. Senior Member (Administration) []
- c. Senior Staff []
- d. Junior Staff []

6. Indicate your

Faculty/Directorate/Division:

7. Highest Level of Education

- a. Ph.D. []
- b. Masters []
- c. Bachelors []
- d. Diploma []
- e. Certificate []

8. How many years have you worked in UEW?

- a) 1-5yrs[] b) 6-10yrs[] c) 11-15yrs []
- d) 16-20yrs[] e) Above 21yrs []

9. What certified health problems have you developed as a result of your work? Please tick what is applicable.

- a) Hypertension []
- b) Diabetes []
- c) Work related Stress []
- d) Backaches []
- e) Eye injury []
- f) Non cardiac chest pains []
- g) Repetitive strain injury []
- h) Others (please specify)

10. Do you have a problem with getting enough sleep time? Yes [], No []

11. On the average, how many hours of sleep time do you have per day?

- a) Less than 7hrs[] b) Between 7 to 9hrs[] c) Greater than 9hrs[]

12. On the average, how often do you travel for university work in a month?

- a) Never [] b) Rarely [] c) Sometimes [] d) Frequently []

13. Which of these describes your current state of health?

- a. Excellent []. b. Very Good []. c. Good []. d. Fair []. e. Poor []. f. Very Poor

Instruction: Please answer the items or questions with respect to how you feel about the existing Psychosocial Climate at your workplace. Choose your responses using the scale below by marking (√) the appropriate column. There is no wrong or correct answer, it is your opinion that matters.

SECTION B	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
Psychosocial factor	1	2	3	4	5
14. My work obligations must be completed fast.					
15. To generate a lot in a short amount of time, I must work really hard.					
16. I put too much effort into my work.					
17. I don't have enough time to complete all of my job duties.					
18. My job frequently entails requirements that are in conflict with one another.					

19. I have the opportunity to pick up new skills through my employment.					
20. Much skill or specific knowledge is needed for my job.					
21. I must take initiative in order to do my job.					
22. I frequently have to perform the same responsibilities in my institution					
23. I have a choice in how I carry out my duties.					
24. I have a say in what happens at my institution.					
25. Where I work, there is a relaxed and friendly atmosphere.					
26. I get along well with the people I work with.					
27. I can count on my coworkers' support.					
28. My coworkers are sympathetic when I am not feeling well.					
29. My relationships with my bosses at work are good.					
30. I enjoy working alongside my coworkers.					

Instruction: These statements are about the level of burnout. Please answer the items with respect to how you feel burnout as a result of work. Choose your responses using the scale below by marking (✓) the appropriate column.

SECTION C	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
Burnout	1	2	3	4	5
31. I feel emotionally drained from my work.					
32. I feel used up at the end of each workday.					
33. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.					
34. I can easily understand how my students/clients feel about things.					
35. I feel I treat some students/clients as if they were impersonal objects.					
36. Working with people all day is really a strain on me.					
37. I deal very effectively with the problems of my students/clients.					
38. I feel burned out from my work.					
39. I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work.					
40. I've become more callous/uncaring toward people since I took this job.					
41. I worry that this job					

is hardening me emotionally.					
42. I feel very energetic towards my work.					
43. I feel frustrated by my job.					
44. I feel I'm working too hard on my job.					
45. I don't really care what happens to some students/clients.					
46. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.					
47. I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my students/clients.					
48. I feel overjoyed after working closely with my students/clients.					
49. I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.					
50. I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.					
51. In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly.					
52. I feel students/clients blame me for some of their problems.					

Instruction: Please tell me how often you have experienced any of these situations in your institution during the LAST 12 MONTHS. Please read each question and indicate your response using the scale provided for each question. Choose your responses using the scale below by marking (√) the appropriate column.

SECTION D	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
Discrimination	1	2	3	4	5
53. I frequently feel like I have to put in an additional effort to receive the same attention as others.					
54. I am constantly under more scrutiny than the other employees.					
55. I frequently endure unwarranted public humiliation at work.					
56. My boss or colleagues frequently use racial remarks or insults about my ethnicity.					
57. My boss or coworkers frequently make sexist comments or quips about my gender.					
58. My manager or colleagues often make offensive jokes or comments about my faith.					

Section E: The items here aims to ascertain the extent to which you intend to leave your institution in the next few months. Please read each question and mark the option that corresponds to your choice.

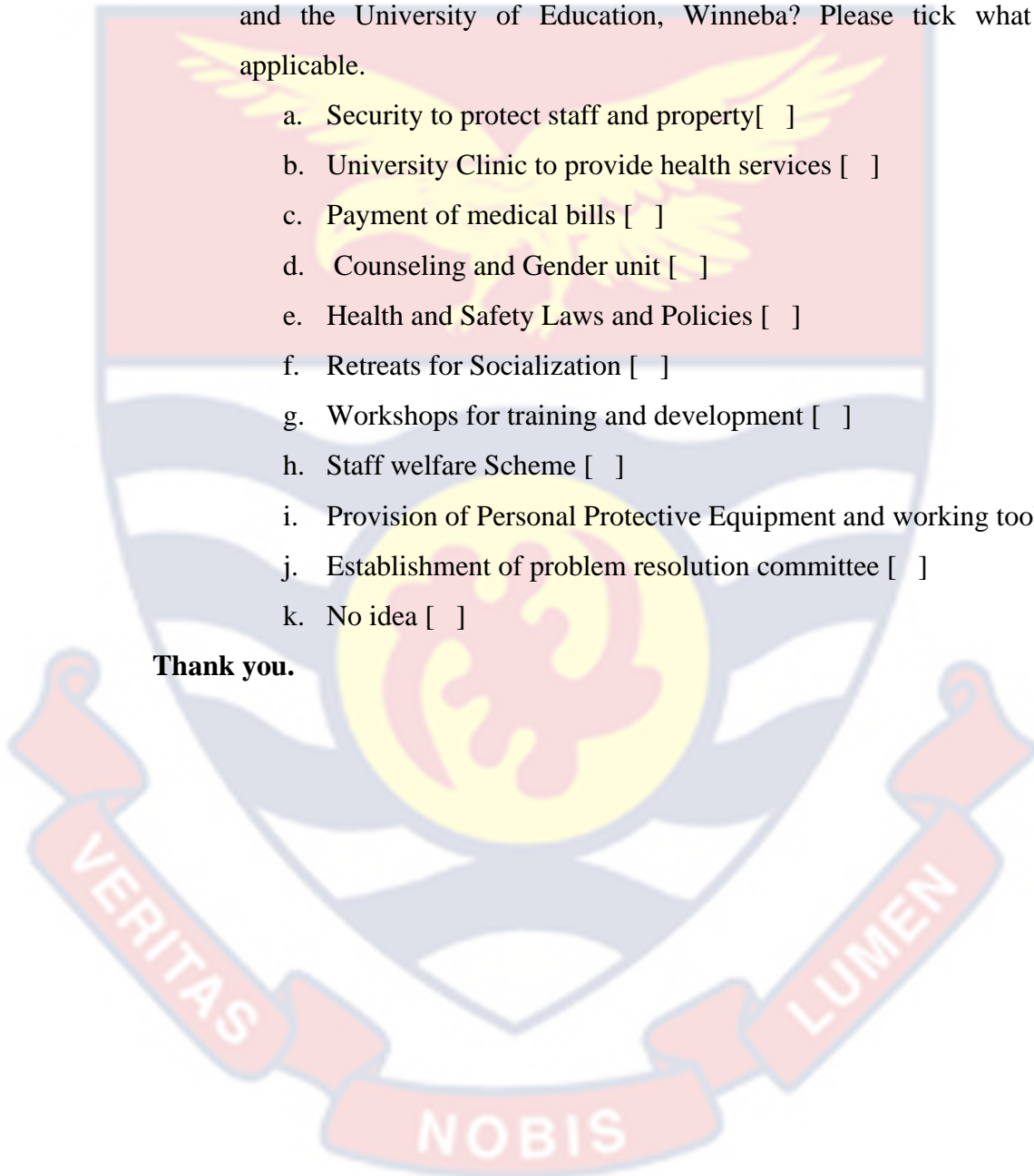
SECTION E	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
Turnover Intention	1	2	3	4	5
59. I think about quitting my job a lot.					
60. My personal needs are not being met by my present employment.					
61. I frequently become upset when I'm not given the chance to accomplish my own professional goals at work.					
62. I constantly daydream about switching to a career that would better fit my needs.					
63. I'd probably accept another job if it offered the same compensation as this one.					
64. I dread going to work every day.					

SECTION F: Kindly indicate measures that the organization has put in place to ensure protection and promote the health and psychosocial climate of the workers and the University of Education, Winneba. Tick what is applicable among the lists provided.

65. What measures has the organization put in place to ensure protection and promote the health and psychosocial safety climate of the workers and the University of Education, Winneba? Please tick what is applicable.

- a. Security to protect staff and property []
- b. University Clinic to provide health services []
- c. Payment of medical bills []
- d. Counseling and Gender unit []
- e. Health and Safety Laws and Policies []
- f. Retreats for Socialization []
- g. Workshops for training and development []
- h. Staff welfare Scheme []
- i. Provision of Personal Protective Equipment and working tools []
- j. Establishment of problem resolution committee []
- k. No idea []

Thank you.




APPENDIX B

Ethical Clearance Approval Letter

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD SECRETARIAT

TEL: 055093143 / 0500078309
E-MAIL: irb@ucc.edu.gh
OUR REF: UCC/IRB/A/2016/1222
YOUR REF:
OMB NO: 0990-0279
IORG #: IORG0009096



24TH JANUARY, 2022

Mr. Michael Afari Baidoo
Department of Health Administration and Education
University of Education, Winneba

Dear Mr. Baidoo,

ETHICAL CLEARANCE - ID (UCCIRB/EXT/2021/19)


The University of Cape Coast Institutional Review Board (UCCIRB) has granted Provisional Approval for the implementation of your research titled **Psychosocial Climate, Health and Turnover Intention of Employees of University of Education, Winneba**. This approval is valid from 24th January, 2022 to 23rd January, 2023. You may apply for a renewal subject to submission of all the required documents that will be prescribed by the UCCIRB.

Please note that any modification to the project must be submitted to the UCCIRB for review and approval before its implementation. You are required to submit periodic review of the protocol to the Board and a final full review to the UCCIRB on completion of the research. The UCCIRB may observe or cause to be observed procedures and records of the research during and after implementation.

You are also required to report all serious adverse events related to this study to the UCCIRB within seven days verbally and fourteen days in writing.

Always quote the protocol identification number in all future correspondence with us in relation to this protocol.

Yours faithfully,



Samuel Asiedu Owusu, PhD
UCCIRB Administrator

ADMINISTRATOR
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

APPENDIX C

Instrument Administration Approval Letter

