Impact of Mindfulness-Based HR Interventions on Educator Well-Being, Job Satisfaction, and Retention in Indian Higher Education

KALE NEHA B., DR. SUPRIYA PATHAK

Abstract: *Purpose: Faculty turnover is a costly human resource problem for Indian higher education institutions. Heavy workloads, role pressure and limited support lower educators' well-being and push many of them to leave. This study tested whether a mindfulness-based HR intervention improved educators' emotional well-being, self-efficacy, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and whether these gains were linked to their intention and actual decision to stay.*

Design/methodology/approach: A quasi-experimental pre-test/post-test design with a comparison group was used. The sample had 100 educators (50 intervention, 50 comparison) from autonomous, government and private higher education institutions in India. Paired and independent t-tests, ANCOVA, Pearson correlation, hierarchical multiple regression, binary logistic regression and bootstrapped mediation analysis were applied.

Findings: The intervention group showed large and significant gains on all four outcomes (Cohen's d from 1.45 to 1.78), while the comparison group stayed almost unchanged. After controlling for pre-test scores, the group effect was significant for well-being ($F = 82.33$, partial $\eta^2 = .46$), self-efficacy ($F = 27.40$, partial $\eta^2 = .22$), job satisfaction ($F = 44.72$, partial $\eta^2 = .32$) and organizational commitment ($F = 83.41$, partial $\eta^2 = .46$), all at $p < .001$. Intervention participants reported higher retention intention ($M = 32.54$ vs 27.38, $t = 3.74$, $p < .001$). The four outcomes together explained 79% of the variance in retention intention beyond demographic controls (total $R^2 = .83$). Well-being and self-efficacy significantly predicted actual retention after six months (OR = 1.10 and 1.11). Job satisfaction and well-being gains carried the effect of the intervention to retention intention. Six-month retention was higher in the intervention group (52% vs 38%), but the difference was not statistically significant.

Research limitations/implications: The quasi-experimental design, a sample of 100 educators and a six-month follow-up limit generalization. Larger randomized studies with longer follow-up are recommended.

Practical implications: HR managers can use mindfulness training as a practical retention lever. The programme works mainly by raising job satisfaction and well-being, so HR should track these two indicators as early signals of faculty exit.

Kale Neha B., Research Scholar, Department of Management, Oriental University, Indore
Dr. Supriya Pathak, Research Guide, Department of Management, Oriental University, Indore

Originality/value: The study is among the few that connect a workplace mindfulness programme with both psychological and organizational outcomes, and with recorded retention behaviour, in the Indian higher education setting. It positions mindfulness as a strategic HRM practice for talent retention, not only as a wellness activity.

Keywords: Mindfulness, Human Resource Interventions, Educator Well-Being, Self-Efficacy, Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, Retention, Indian Higher Education

Introduction

Indian higher education has grown fast over the last two decades. New universities, private colleges and autonomous institutions have opened across the country, and enrolment has risen sharply. The people who carry this growth are the educators. Their daily work now includes teaching, research targets, accreditation paperwork, administrative duties and student mentoring. Many of them work on short contracts, with uneven pay and few chances for growth. These pressures wear down emotional health, and a tired, unhappy teacher is more likely to look for another job.

From a management point of view, faculty are the core talent of a higher education institution, and losing them is costly. Peddi and Pandey (2026) Each exit brings direct costs of recruitment, selection and induction, and hidden costs such as lost subject knowledge, broken student relationships and weaker accreditation and ranking scores. Most HR responses in Indian institutions have relied on hard levers: pay, promotion rules and contract terms. Far less attention has gone to soft levers that build the inner resources of the educator, such as how they manage stress, how confident they feel in their teaching, and how emotionally connected they are to their institution. For HR managers, the key question is whether such soft levers deliver measurable returns in the form of better attitudes and lower turnover.

Mindfulness offers one way to build these resources. Kabat-Zinn (2003) described mindfulness as paying attention on purpose, in the present moment, without judgement. Workplace studies show that mindfulness training lowers emotional exhaustion and raises job satisfaction (Hülsheger et al., 2013; Good et al., 2016). Studies with school teachers report less stress and burnout and better classroom functioning after mindfulness programmes (Roeser et al., 2013; Flook et al., 2013; Jennings et al., 2017). When such training is offered by the organization as part of its HR system, it may also send a message of care that builds loyalty.

1.1 Research gap

Three gaps shaped this study. First, most mindfulness research with educators comes from Western school settings, and very little comes from Indian colleges and universities. Second, earlier studies usually measured psychological outcomes such as stress or well-being and stopped there. They seldom followed the chain from psychological change to organizational

attitudes and then to retention. Third, retention is mostly measured as an intention. Few studies recorded whether the educator actually stayed.

1.2 Objectives of the study

1. To assess the effectiveness of mindfulness-based HR interventions in improving emotional wellbeing, self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment among educators in Indian higher education institutions.
2. To analyze the relationship between psychological outcomes (well-being, self-efficacy) and organizational outcomes (job satisfaction, commitment) on retention intentions and behaviors of educators in Indian higher education institutions.

1.3 Structure of the paper

Section 2 reviews the literature and presents the conceptual framework and hypotheses. Section 3 explains the method. Section 4 reports the results. Section 5 discusses the findings, and Section 6 covers implications, limitations, future research and the conclusion.

Review of Literature and Hypotheses

2.1 Mindfulness as an HR intervention

Mindfulness-based programmes grew out of Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction, a structured course of guided meditation, breathing practice, body awareness and reflective discussion (Kabat-Zinn, 2003). Shapiro et al. (2006) explained that mindfulness works through three linked processes: intention, attention and a non-judging attitude. Together these help a person step back from stressful thoughts instead of reacting to them.

In organizations, mindfulness training has moved from a personal hobby to a planned HR activity. Good et al. (2016) reviewed workplace research and found links with better attention, emotion control, performance and relationships. Hülsheger et al. (2013) showed in a field experiment that a short self-training in mindfulness reduced emotional exhaustion and raised job satisfaction. When the employer pays for, schedules and supports such training, it becomes an HR intervention, not just a private habit.

This shift reflects a wider change in human resource management. Guest (2017) argued that HRM should move from a narrow focus on performance to a well-being-oriented approach, in which investment in employee health is treated as a source of positive attitudes, commitment and lower turnover. Saxena and Mehndiratta (2026) Under this view, a mindfulness programme is not a welfare cost but a strategic HR practice, and it can be judged by the same yardsticks as any other HR investment: its effect on job attitudes and on retention.

2.2 Mindfulness and psychological outcomes of educators

Teaching is emotionally demanding work. Roeser et al. (2013) ran a randomized trial with teachers and found that mindfulness training lowered stress and burnout, and the gains held at follow-up. Flook et al. (2013) found less psychological distress and better self-compassion among teachers who joined a modified MBSR course. The CARE programme, tested by Jennings et al. (2017), improved emotional regulation and reduced time urgency. Meta-analyses

by Klingbeil and Renshaw (2018) and Zarate et al. (2019) confirmed moderate positive effects of mindfulness programmes on teacher well-being and distress.

Self-efficacy is a person's belief that they can perform a task well (Bandura, 1977). For teachers, it covers confidence in teaching, managing classes and engaging students. Mindful attention reduces worry and self-doubt, which frees mental space for problem solving. A calmer mind also makes past successes easier to notice, and Bandura named mastery experience as the strongest source of self-efficacy.

2.3 Mindfulness and organizational outcomes

Job satisfaction is the positive feeling a person holds about their job. Organizational commitment is the emotional bond with, and loyalty toward, the employer (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Under Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964), when employees see that the organization invests in their welfare, they return the favour with positive attitudes and loyalty. Sasidhar and Iyer (2025) The Job Demands-Resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) adds that personal resources, such as mindfulness and self-efficacy, buffer the strain of heavy demands and drive engagement. Fredrickson's (2001) broaden-and-build theory suggests that positive emotions widen a person's outlook and build lasting resources, which then show up as a better view of the job.

2.4 Retention intention and retention behaviour

Intention to stay or leave is the closest predictor of actual turnover (Mobley, 1977; Griffeth et al., 2000). The Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) also places intention just before action. Meta-analyses show that job satisfaction and organizational commitment are among the strongest predictors of turnover (Tett & Meyer, 1993; Griffeth et al., 2000). Among teachers, emotional exhaustion and low satisfaction predict the motivation to leave (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011), while self-efficacy is linked with stronger commitment to the profession (Klassen & Chiu, 2011). Conservation of Resources Theory (Hobfoll, 1989) explains why: people who keep losing emotional resources try to protect what remains, often by leaving.

2.5 Conceptual framework and hypotheses

Figure 1 brings these strands together. The intervention first builds personal resources (well-being and self-efficacy). These resources shape how educators feel about their job and institution (satisfaction and commitment). Both layers then feed retention intention, which leads to actual retention.

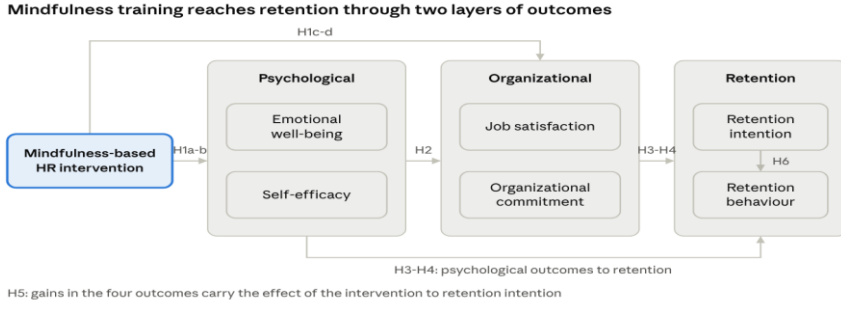


Figure 1. Conceptual framework and hypotheses of the study

The arrows show the expected direction of influence; the H labels mark where each hypothesis was tested.

- **H1:** Educators in the intervention group show significantly greater improvement than the comparison group in (a) emotional well-being, (b) self-efficacy, (c) job satisfaction and (d) organizational commitment.
- **H2:** Psychological outcomes (well-being, self-efficacy) are positively related to organizational outcomes (job satisfaction, commitment).
- **H3:** Psychological and organizational outcomes significantly predict retention intention.
- **H4:** Psychological and organizational outcomes significantly predict actual retention behaviour after six months.
- **H5:** Improvement in the four outcomes mediates the effect of the intervention on retention intention.
- **H6:** Retention intention significantly predicts retention behaviour.

Research Methodology

3.1 Research design

The study followed a quasi-experimental pre-test/post-test design with a non-equivalent comparison group. Random assignment of individual teachers was not practical inside working institutions, so intact groups were used. Baseline equivalence between the groups was then checked statistically (Section 4.1). Figure 2 shows the stages of the study.

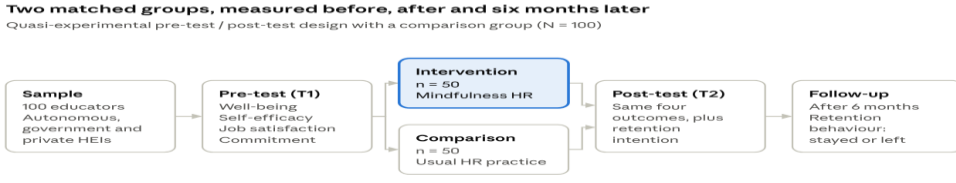


Figure 2. Research design and data collection stages

Outcome data were collected at three points: before the programme (T1), after it ended (T2), and six months after T2, when each educator's employment status was recorded.

3.2 Population and sample

The population was teaching staff in Indian higher education institutions. A total of 100 educators took part, 50 in the intervention group and 50 in the comparison group. There were no missing values in the final data set.

Table 1. Profile of respondents (N = 100)

Characteristic	Category	Intervention (n = 50)	Comparison (n = 50)	Total (%)
Gender	Female	27	24	51 (51%)

Characteristic	Category	Intervention (n = 50)	Comparison (n = 50)	Total (%)
	Male	23	26	49 (49%)
Institution type	Private	25	17	42 (42%)
	Government	12	18	30 (30%)
	Autonomous	13	15	28 (28%)
Teaching experience	1–5 years	8	12	20 (20%)
	6–10 years	13	11	24 (24%)
	11–15 years	11	11	22 (22%)
	16–20 years	9	9	18 (18%)
	21–25 years	9	7	16 (16%)
Experience, mean (SD)	Years	12.80 (6.50)	11.96 (6.79)	12.38 (6.63)

The groups had a similar spread of gender ($\chi^2 = 0.16$, $p = .689$), institution type ($\chi^2 = 2.87$, $p = .239$) and experience ($t = 0.63$, $p = .529$).

3.3 The intervention

The intervention group took part in a structured mindfulness-based programme run through the HR function of the institutions. It combined guided meditation, breathing practice, body-scan exercises, mindful listening and short group reflection on stress at work. Sessions were held within working hours, so that staff saw the programme as an organizational commitment and not as an extra burden. The comparison group continued with usual HR practices and received no mindfulness training during the study period.

3.4 Variables and measurement

All psychological and organizational variables were measured with multi-item self-report scales. Item responses were summed into a total score, where a higher score shows a higher level of the construct. Change scores were calculated as T2 minus T1.

Table 2. Study variables

Variable	Role in the model	Measured at	Observed range
Group (intervention / comparison)	Independent variable	—	0–1

Variable	Role in the model	Measured at	Observed range
Emotional well-being	Psychological outcome	T1, T2	16–47
Self-efficacy	Psychological outcome	T1, T2	18–50
Job satisfaction	Organizational outcome	T1, T2	10–50
Organizational commitment	Organizational outcome	T1, T2	10–47
Retention intention	Dependent variable	T2	15–47
Retention behaviour (1 = stayed, 0 = left)	Dependent variable	6 months after T2	0–1
Gender, institution type, experience	Control variables	T1	—

3.5 Tools of analysis

Data were analysed in Python (SciPy and statsmodels). The significance level was set at .05.

Table 3. Statistical techniques used for each hypothesis

Hypothesis	Purpose	Technique
—	Baseline equivalence of groups	Independent T-test, chi-square test
H1a–d	Change within each group	Paired t-test, Cohen's d
H1a–d	Difference between groups after the programme	Independent t-test on change scores; ANCOVA with pre-test as covariate
H2	Links among outcomes	Pearson correlation
H3	Predictors of retention intention	Hierarchical multiple regression
H4, H6	Predictors of retention behaviour	Binary logistic regression, chi-square test
H5	Indirect effect of the intervention	Bootstrapped mediation (2,000 resamples, 95% CI)

Data Analysis and Results

4.1 Data screening and baseline equivalence

All 100 records were complete. Skewness of the post-test scores ranged from −0.21 to 0.34 and kurtosis from −0.51 to −0.19, well within the ±2 limit, so the data were treated as normally distributed. Before the programme, the two groups did not differ on any outcome (Table 4). Any later difference can therefore be linked to the programme rather than to a starting gap.

Table 4. Baseline (T1) comparison of the two groups

Variable	Intervention M (SD)	Comparison M (SD)	t (98)	p
Emotional well-being	28.62 (5.52)	28.96 (5.50)	−0.31	.758
Self-efficacy	30.10 (5.78)	29.92 (5.37)	0.16	.872
Job satisfaction	29.76 (5.87)	29.94 (7.44)	−0.13	.893
Organizational commitment	28.98 (7.42)	29.46 (5.54)	−0.37	.715
Teaching experience (years)	12.80 (6.50)	11.96 (6.79)	0.63	.529

4.2 Effect of the intervention on the four outcomes (Objective 1, H1)

Figure 3 shows the clearest result of the study. Every outcome rose by about four points in the intervention group, while the comparison group stayed close to where it began.

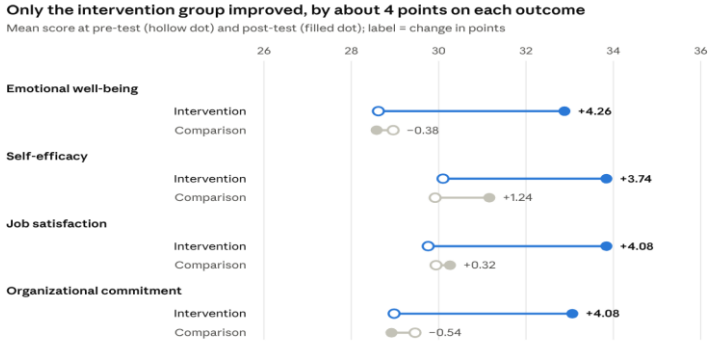


Figure 3. Pre-test and post-test means of the four outcomes by group (n = 50 per group). Source: study data.

Paired t-tests confirmed this pattern (Table 5). All four gains in the intervention group were significant with very large effect sizes (d = 1.45 to 1.78). In the comparison group, only self-efficacy rose significantly, and that effect was small (d = 0.47). Well-being and commitment in the comparison group fell slightly, though not significantly.

Table 5. Within-group change from T1 to T2 (paired t-test, df = 49)

Outcome	Intervention t	Intervention p	Intervention d	Comparison t	Comparison p	Comparison d
Emotional well-being	11.34	< .001	1.60	−1.09	.280	−0.15
Self-efficacy	12.61	< .001	1.78	3.34	.002	0.47

Outcome	Intervention t	Intervention p	Intervention d	Comparison t	Comparison p	Comparison d
Job satisfaction	10.26	< .001	1.45	0.80	.427	0.11
Organizational commitment	10.86	< .001	1.54	−1.60	.116	−0.23

Table 6 compares the two groups directly. The independent t-test on change scores and the ANCOVA, which adjusts post-test scores for pre-test scores, gave the same answer. The intervention group gained significantly more on all four outcomes. The programme explained 46% of the adjusted variance in well-being and in commitment, 32% in job satisfaction and 22% in self-efficacy. Following Cohen (1988), all of these are large effects. H1a, H1b, H1c and H1d were supported.

Table 6. Between-group comparison of gains

Outcome	Mean change, intervention (SD)	Mean change, comparison (SD)	t (98)	Cohen's d	ANCOVA adjusted difference	F (1, 97)	Partial η^2
Emotional well-being	4.26 (2.66)	−0.38 (2.46)	9.07***	1.81	4.65	82.33***	.46
Self-efficacy	3.74 (2.10)	1.24 (2.62)	5.26***	1.05	2.50	27.40***	.22
Job satisfaction	4.08 (2.81)	0.32 (2.82)	6.67***	1.33	3.77	44.72***	.32
Organizational commitment	4.08 (2.66)	−0.54 (2.38)	9.15***	1.83	4.60	83.41***	.46

Note. *** p < .001.

A two-way ANOVA with group and institution type found no significant interaction for well-being change (F = 1.80, p = .171) or job satisfaction change (F = 1.24, p = .293). The programme worked in a similar way in autonomous, government and private institutions.

4.3 Retention by group

Educators in the intervention group reported higher retention intention (M = 32.54, SD = 7.63) than those in the comparison group (M = 27.38, SD = 6.09), $t(98) = 3.74$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.75$. Six months later, 26 of 50 intervention participants (52%) were still in service, against 19 of 50 in the comparison group (38%). This 14-point gap was in the expected direction but did not reach significance, $\chi^2(1) = 1.45$, $p = .228$.

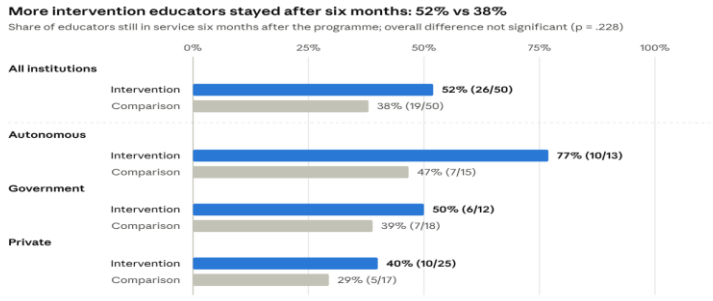


Figure 4. Retention behaviour six months after the programme, by group and institution type. Source: study data.

The gap was widest in autonomous institutions (from 47% to 77%). In government (39% to 50%) and private institutions (29% to 40%), the difference was about 11 points.

4.4 Relationships among the variables (Objective 2, H2)

All post-test variables were positively and significantly correlated (Figure 5). Well-being was linked with job satisfaction ($r = .41$, $p < .001$) and commitment ($r = .22$, $p = .028$). Self-efficacy was linked with job satisfaction ($r = .27$, $p = .006$) and commitment ($r = .26$, $p = .009$). H2 was supported. Job satisfaction had the strongest link with retention intention ($r = .74$), and well-being had the strongest link with actual retention ($r = .40$).

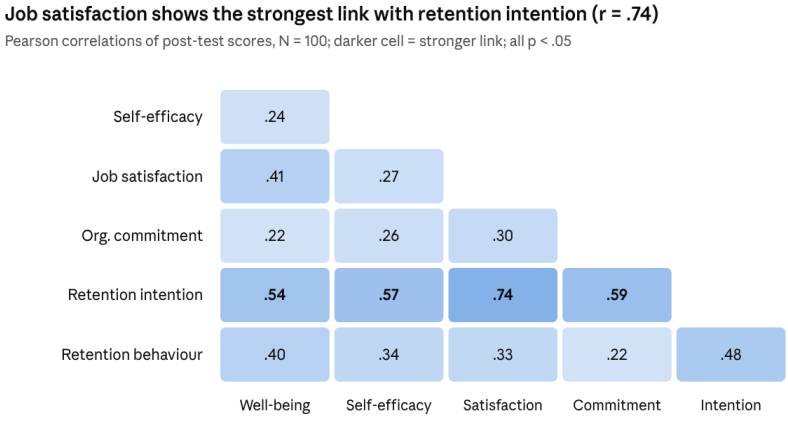


Figure 5. Correlation matrix of post-test variables (N = 100). Source: study data.

4.5 Predictors of retention intention (H3)

Hierarchical regression was run in three steps (Table 7). Demographic controls entered first and explained almost nothing ($R^2 = .04$, $p = .475$). Adding the two psychological outcomes raised R^2 to .54. Adding the two organizational outcomes raised it again to .83. Each step added significant explained variance.

Table 7. Hierarchical regression: model summary (DV = retention intention)

Step	Predictors added	R^2	Adjusted R^2	ΔR^2	F change	p
1	Experience, gender, institution type	.036	−.005	.036	0.89	.475
2	Well-being, self-efficacy	.536	.506	.500	50.02	< .001
3	Job satisfaction, commitment	.828	.813	.292	77.21	< .001

In the final model (Table 8), all four outcomes were significant positive predictors. Job satisfaction carried the most weight ($\beta = .46$), followed by commitment ($\beta = .33$), self-efficacy ($\beta = .30$) and well-being ($\beta = .22$). None of the controls was significant. Variance inflation factors were between 1.08 and 1.41, the Durbin-Watson value was 2.12, and the residuals were close to normal (Shapiro-Wilk $W = 0.98$, $p = .082$). H3 was supported.

Table 8. Final regression model (Step 3)

Predictor	B	SE	β	t	p
Constant	−14.07	2.34	—	−6.01	< .001
Teaching experience	0.02	0.05	.02	0.34	.736
Gender (female)	0.64	0.67	.09	0.97	.337
Government (vs autonomous)	0.24	0.86	.03	0.28	.778
Private (vs autonomous)	−0.95	0.80	−.13	−1.18	.239
Emotional well-being	0.24	0.06	.22	4.25	< .001
Self-efficacy	0.36	0.06	.30	6.30	< .001
Job satisfaction	0.44	0.05	.46	8.89	< .001
Organizational commitment	0.35	0.05	.33	6.83	< .001

Note. $F(8, 91) = 54.68$, $p < .001$.

4.6 Predictors of retention behaviour (H4, H6)

Binary logistic regression tested which factors predicted whether an educator stayed after six months (Table 9). The model was significant, LR $\chi^2(8) = 37.67$, $p < .001$, Nagelkerke $R^2 = .42$,

and it classified 73% of cases correctly. Well-being (OR = 1.10, p = .033) and self-efficacy (OR = 1.11, p = .025) were significant. Each extra point of well-being raised the odds of staying by 10%. Job satisfaction and commitment were positive but not significant once the psychological outcomes were in the model. Educators in private institutions were less likely to stay than those in autonomous ones (OR = 0.15, p = .006). H4 was partly supported.

Table 9. Logistic regression: predictors of staying after six months

Predictor	B	SE	Odds ratio	95% CI for OR	p
Teaching experience	0.01	0.04	1.01	0.93–1.10	.785
Gender (female)	−0.95	0.53	0.39	0.14–1.09	.073
Government (vs autonomous)	−1.11	0.69	0.33	0.09–1.28	.108
Private (vs autonomous)	−1.87	0.68	0.15	0.04–0.58	.006
Emotional well-being	0.10	0.05	1.10	1.01–1.20	.033
Self-efficacy	0.10	0.05	1.11	1.01–1.22	.025
Job satisfaction	0.05	0.04	1.05	0.97–1.13	.218
Organizational commitment	0.06	0.04	1.06	0.98–1.15	.123

Retention intention on its own was a strong predictor of actual retention (B = 0.16, SE = 0.04, OR = 1.18, 95% CI 1.09–1.27, p < .001; Nagelkerke R^2 = .30; 73% correct). Each extra point on the intention scale raised the odds of staying by 18%. H6 was supported.

Figure 6 puts the two retention models side by side, as a driver analysis that HR managers can read at a glance. Job satisfaction was the top driver of what educators planned to do, while well-being and self-efficacy were the only significant drivers of what they actually did.

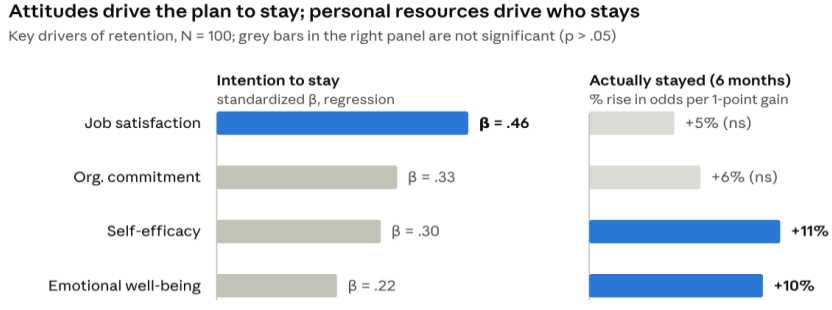


Figure 6. Key drivers of retention intention and of actual retention after six months. Source: study data.

4.7 Mediation analysis (H5)

The intervention raised retention intention by 5.16 points in total. Bootstrapped mediation (2,000 resamples) tested whether this effect passed through gains in each outcome (Table 10). Gains in job satisfaction and well-being were significant mediators, as their confidence intervals did not include zero. When either was in the model, the direct effect of the intervention was no longer significant, which points to full mediation. Gains in self-efficacy and commitment were not significant mediators. H5 was partly supported.

Table 10. Indirect effect of the intervention on retention intention

Mediator (change score)	Indirect effect	95% bootstrap CI	Direct effect (p)	Type of mediation
Job satisfaction gain	3.00	1.16 to 5.17	2.16 (.175)	Full
Well-being gain	2.57	0.05 to 4.70	2.59 (.163)	Full
Self-efficacy gain	1.17	−0.21 to 2.76	3.99 (.012)	None
Commitment gain	0.44	−1.89 to 2.98	4.72 (.014)	None

4.8 Summary of results

Figure 7 brings the tested paths together on one model.

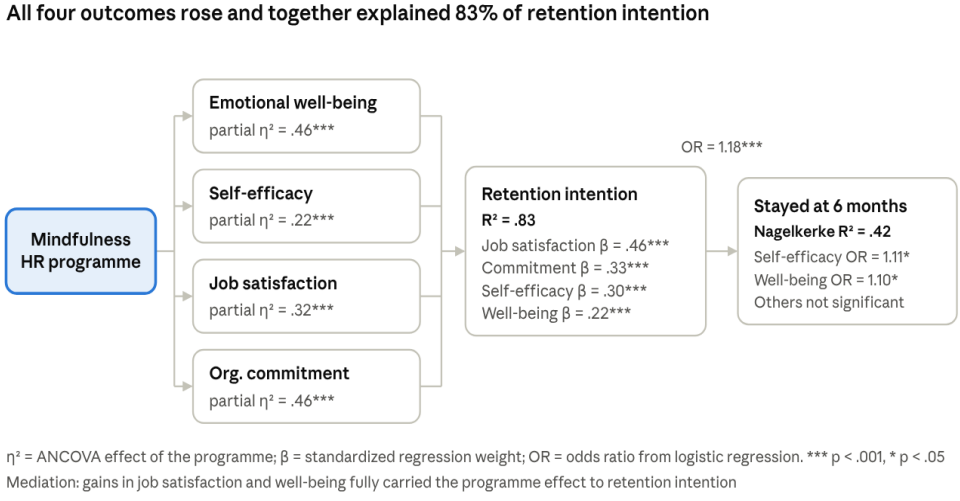


Figure 7. Empirical model with tested effects. Source: study data.

Table 11. Summary of hypothesis testing

Hypothesis	Statement (short form)	Result
H1a	Intervention improves well-being	Supported
H1b	Intervention improves self-efficacy	Supported
H1c	Intervention improves job satisfaction	Supported
H1d	Intervention improves commitment	Supported
H2	Psychological outcomes relate to organizational outcomes	Supported
H3	All four outcomes predict retention intention	Supported
H4	All four outcomes predict retention behaviour	Partly supported (well-being, self-efficacy)
H5	Outcome gains mediate the effect on retention intention	Partly supported (job satisfaction, well-being)
H6	Retention intention predicts retention behaviour	Supported

Discussion

5.1 Effectiveness of the intervention (Objective 1)

The first objective was met clearly. Educators who took part in the mindfulness-based HR programme improved on every outcome, while those in the comparison group did not. Both groups started at the same level, so the gap that opened afterwards can reasonably be credited to the programme.

The largest effects appeared for emotional well-being and organizational commitment (partial $\eta^2 = .46$ each). The well-being result agrees with Roeser et al. (2013) and Flook et al. (2013), who also found less stress and distress among teachers after mindfulness training. A simple way to picture this is a pressure cooker. Workload keeps adding heat, and mindfulness works like the release valve: the heat is still there, but pressure does not build to the point of damage. The strong rise in commitment is worth noting. Mindfulness itself does not teach loyalty. A likely reason is the social exchange process. When educators saw their institution spend time and money on their mental health, they read it as a sign of care, and they returned that care with stronger attachment. This matches the view of Meyer and Allen (1991) that affective commitment grows from positive work experiences.

Self-efficacy showed the smallest between-group effect (partial $\eta^2 = .22$). This was partly because the comparison group also gained in self-efficacy ($d = 0.47$). Teachers may build confidence over a term through normal experience in the classroom. Even so, the intervention

group gained three times as much, which supports the idea that a calmer mind helps teachers notice and use their own successes (Bandura, 1977).

The gains did not differ across autonomous, government and private institutions. This suggests that the programme does not depend on a particular type of institution and can travel across the varied Indian higher education system.

5.2 Links between psychological, organizational and retention outcomes (Objective 2)

The second objective looked at how the outcomes connect with retention. The results support a layered chain. Psychological resources (well-being and self-efficacy) were linked with organizational attitudes (satisfaction and commitment), and all four together explained 83% of the variance in retention intention. This fits the Job Demands-Resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), in which personal resources feed positive job attitudes, and Conservation of Resources Theory (Hobfoll, 1989), in which people with full resource reserves have less reason to leave.

Job satisfaction was the strongest single predictor of intention to stay ($\beta = .46$), in line with turnover meta-analyses (Tett & Meyer, 1993; Griffeth et al., 2000) and with teacher studies by Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2011). The mediation results add a practical point. The programme raised retention intention mainly by making educators more satisfied with their job and better in their emotional health. The programme on its own did not add much once these gains were counted.

A different pattern appeared for actual retention. When all four outcomes were tested together, only well-being and self-efficacy predicted who stayed after six months. Satisfaction and commitment shape what people say they plan to do, but the decision to actually leave seems to depend more on whether a person still has the emotional energy and confidence to cope. Put simply, attitudes shape the plan, but personal resources decide whether the person can hold on. This is consistent with Klassen and Chiu (2011), who linked teacher self-efficacy with commitment to stay in the profession.

Retention intention was a strong predictor of actual retention (OR = 1.18), which supports the intention–behaviour link of Ajzen (1991) and Mobley (1977). Still, the six-month retention gap between the groups (52% vs 38%) was not statistically significant. Actual exits also depend on factors outside a wellness programme, such as contract renewal, salary offers, family moves and promotion rules. With 50 people per group, a 14-point difference was also too small to reach significance. Larger samples and longer follow-up would give a firmer test.

The low retention in private institutions (OR = 0.15 against autonomous ones) reflects a known problem in Indian private higher education, where job security and pay structures are often weaker. Mindfulness helped here too, but it cannot replace fair employment terms.

5.3 The business case for HR

For management, the findings turn a wellness activity into a measurable HR investment. The programme moved the two indicators that mattered most for retention: job satisfaction, which

shaped the plan to stay, and well-being, which shaped the actual decision. Every faculty member who stays saves the institution the cost of a new search, induction and lost teaching continuity. HR departments can therefore assess mindfulness programmes the way they assess training or compensation changes, by tracking satisfaction, well-being and exit rates before and after, and by comparing these gains with programme cost.

Implications, Limitations and Conclusion

6.1 Theoretical implications

The study adds to the literature in three ways. First, it extends mindfulness research from Western school teachers to educators in Indian colleges and universities. Second, it shows a layered path from an HR intervention, through psychological resources and job attitudes, to retention. This joins the Job Demands-Resources model, Conservation of Resources Theory and Social Exchange Theory in one tested model. Third, it separates intention from behaviour. Job attitudes drove the intention to stay, while personal resources drove the actual decision. Turnover models that use only intention may therefore miss part of the story.

6.2 Managerial implications

For HR managers and institutional leaders, the findings point to clear actions, grouped in Figure 8.

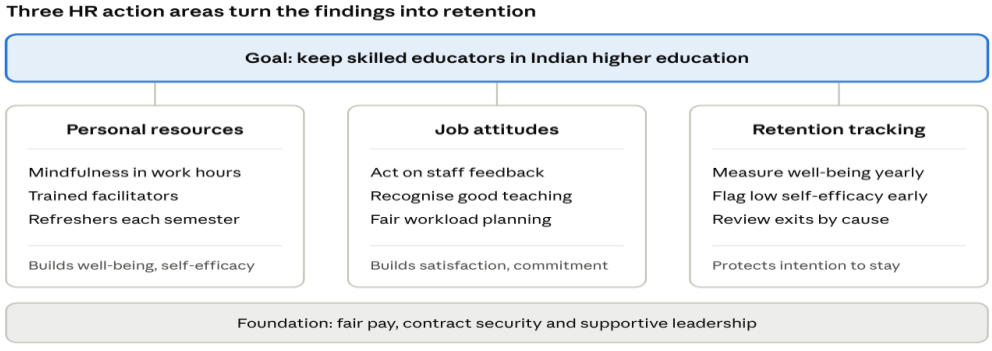


Figure 8. Proposed HR action framework derived from the findings

1. Treat mindfulness training as a retention strategy, not a one-day wellness event. It should run inside working hours so that staff see it as institutional support.
2. Focus on job satisfaction. It was the strongest driver of intention to stay and the main route through which the programme worked.
3. Track well-being and self-efficacy each year. These two predicted who actually stayed, so a drop in them is an early warning sign.
4. Give extra attention to private institutions, where retention was lowest. A mindfulness programme there should go hand in hand with better contract terms.
5. Regulators such as the UGC and accreditation bodies like NAAC may consider faculty well-being programmes as a quality indicator under human resource management.

6.3 Limitations

The study had some limits. Groups were not randomly assigned, although baseline tests showed they were equal. The sample of 100 educators was modest, which reduced the power to detect group differences in actual retention. The psychological and organizational measures were self-reported and may carry social desirability bias. The six-month follow-up was short, and the long-term durability of the gains was not tested. Finally, the comparison group received no alternative activity, so part of the effect may come from the attention the intervention group received.

6.4 Directions for future research

Future studies can use randomized designs with larger, multi-state samples. Follow-up of 12 to 24 months would show whether the gains last and whether the retention gap grows. An active control group, such as a general wellness talk series, would help separate the effect of mindfulness from the effect of attention. Researchers can also add objective measures such as absenteeism records or cortisol levels, and test moderators such as age, discipline and contract type. Comparing online and in-person delivery would also be useful for large university systems.

6.5 Conclusion

This study tested a mindfulness-based HR intervention with 100 educators in Indian higher education institutions. The programme produced large gains in emotional well-being, self-efficacy, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and these gains were absent in the comparison group. Together, these four outcomes explained 83% of the variance in educators' intention to stay. Job satisfaction and well-being carried the programme's effect to retention intention, and well-being and self-efficacy predicted who actually stayed six months later. The intervention group also showed higher actual retention, though this difference was not statistically significant. The findings show that caring for the inner life of educators is not a soft extra. It is a practical HR tool that supports a stable, committed and effective teaching workforce in Indian higher education.

References

Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 50(2), 179–211. https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(91)90020-T

Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The Job Demands-Resources model: State of the art. Journal of Managerial Psychology, 22(3), 309–328. https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940710733115

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. Psychological Review, 84(2), 191–215. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.84.2.191

Blau, P. M. (1964). Exchange and power in social life. Wiley.

Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences (2nd ed.). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Flook, L., Goldberg, S. B., Pinger, L., Bonus, K., & Davidson, R. J. (2013). Mindfulness for teachers: A pilot study to assess effects on stress, burnout, and teaching efficacy. Mind, Brain, and Education, 7(3), 182–195. https://doi.org/10.1111/mbe.12026

Fredrickson, B. L. (2001). The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. American Psychologist, 56(3), 218–226. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.56.3.218

Good, D. J., Lyddy, C. J., Glomb, T. M., Bono, J. E., Brown, K. W., Duffy, M. K., Baer, R. A., Brewer, J. A., & Lazar, S. W. (2016). Contemplating mindfulness at work: An integrative review. Journal of Management, 42(1), 114–142. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206315617003

Griffeth, R. W., Hom, P. W., & Gaertner, S. (2000). A meta-analysis of antecedents and correlates of employee turnover: Update, moderator tests, and research implications for the next millennium. Journal of Management, 26(3), 463–488. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920630002600305

Guest, D. E. (2017). Human resource management and employee well-being: Towards a new analytic framework. Human Resource Management Journal, 27(1), 22–38. https://doi.org/10.1111/1748-8583.12139

Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. American Psychologist, 44(3), 513–524. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.44.3.513

Hülsheger, U. R., Alberts, H. J. E. M., Feinholdt, A., & Lang, J. W. B. (2013). Benefits of mindfulness at work: The role of mindfulness in emotion regulation, emotional exhaustion, and job satisfaction. Journal of Applied Psychology, 98(2), 310–325. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0031313

Jennings, P. A., Brown, J. L., Frank, J. L., Doyle, S., Oh, Y., Davis, R., Rasheed, D., DeWeese, A., DeMauro, A. A., Cham, H., & Greenberg, M. T. (2017). Impacts of the CARE for Teachers program on teachers' social and emotional competence and classroom interactions. Journal of Educational Psychology, 109(7), 1010–1028. https://doi.org/10.1037/edu0000187

Kabat-Zinn, J. (2003). Mindfulness-based interventions in context: Past, present, and future. Clinical Psychology: Science and Practice, 10(2), 144–156. https://doi.org/10.1093/clipsy.bpg016

Klassen, R. M., & Chiu, M. M. (2011). The occupational commitment and intention to quit of practicing and pre-service teachers: Influence of self-efficacy, job stress, and teaching context. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 36(2), 114–129. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2011.01.002

Klingbeil, D. A., & Renshaw, T. L. (2018). Mindfulness-based interventions for teachers: A meta-analysis of the emerging evidence base. School Psychology Quarterly, 33(4), 501–511. https://doi.org/10.1037/spq0000291

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. Human Resource Management Review, 1(1), 61–89. https://doi.org/10.1016/1053-4822(91)90011-Z

Mobley, W. H. (1977). Intermediate linkages in the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover. Journal of Applied Psychology, 62(2), 237–240. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.62.2.237

Peddi, S., & Pandey, N. (2026). Meditation as a personal resource in academia: A JD-R theory–based review of burnout, work engagement, and faculty effectiveness. International Journal of Research - GRANTHAALAYAH, 14(1), 187–192. https://doi.org/10.29121/granthaalayah.v14.i1.2026.6855

Roeser, R. W., Schonert-Reichl, K. A., Jha, A., Cullen, M., Wallace, L., Wilensky, R., Oberle, E., Thomson, K., Taylor, C., & Harrison, J. (2013). Mindfulness training and reductions in teacher stress and burnout: Results from two randomized, waitlist-control field trials. Journal of Educational Psychology, 105(3), 787–804. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0032093

Sasidhar, B., & Iyer, S. S. (2025). Impact of organizational climate on job satisfaction in Hyderabad's technical educational institutions. International Journal of Research - GRANTHAALAYAH, 13(3), 372–377. https://doi.org/10.29121/granthaalayah.v13.i3.2025.6061

Shapiro, S. L., Carlson, L. E., Astin, J. A., & Freedman, B. (2006). Mechanisms of mindfulness. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 62(3), 373–386. https://doi.org/10.1002/jclp.20237

Saxena, M., & Mehndiratta, C. (2026). Effects of a structured 12-week yoga intervention on mental health, job satisfaction, and quality of life among government school teachers: A quasi-experimental controlled study. International Journal of Research - GRANTHAALAYAH, 14(5), 164–173. https://doi.org/10.29121/granthaalayah.v14.i5.2026.6951

Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. (2011). Teacher job satisfaction and motivation to leave the teaching profession: Relations with school context, feeling of belonging, and emotional exhaustion. Teaching and Teacher Education, 27(6), 1029–1038. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2011.04.001

Tett, R. P., & Meyer, J. P. (1993). Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and turnover: Path analyses based on meta-analytic findings. Personnel Psychology, 46(2), 259–293. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1993.tb00874.x

Zarate, K., Maggin, D. M., & Passmore, A. (2019). Meta-analysis of mindfulness training on teacher well-being. Psychology in the Schools, 56(10), 1700–1715. https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.22308