



Source details

Journal of Educational and Social Research

Scopus coverage years: from 2018 to Present

Publisher: Richtmann Publishing Ltd

ISSN: 2239-978X E-ISSN: 2240-0524

Subject area: Social Sciences: Social Sciences (miscellaneous) Social Sciences: Education

Source type: Journal

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0.5 ⓘ

SJR 2020
0.162 ⓘ

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PUBLICATION TYPE	ISSN	COVERAGE
Journals	2239978X, 22400524	2018-2021

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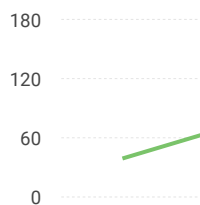
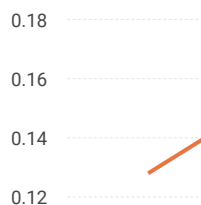
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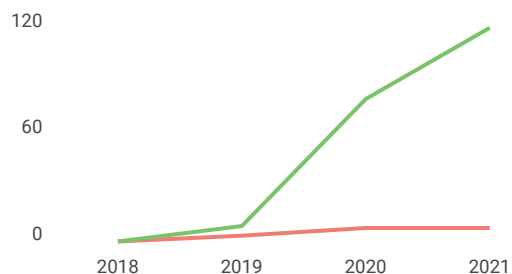
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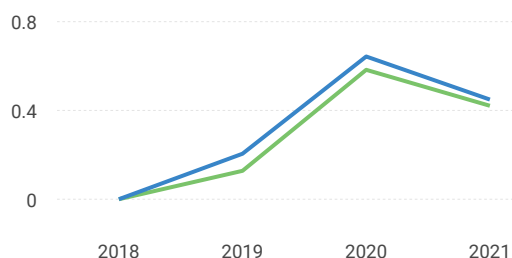
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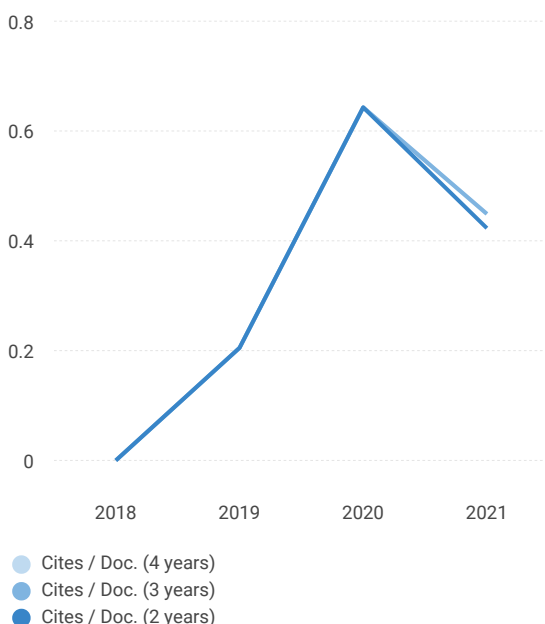
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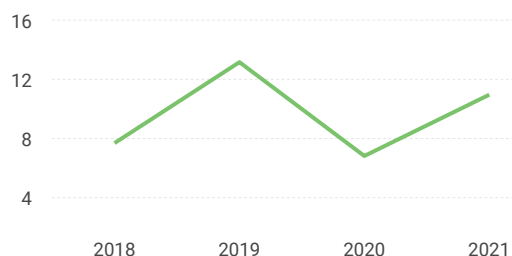
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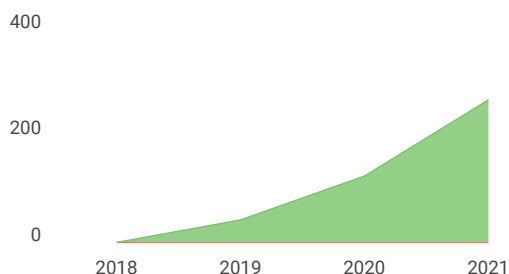
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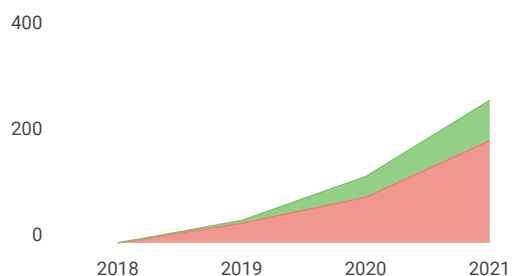
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Received: 11 November 2021 / Accepted: 28 February 2022 / Published: 5 May 2022

Investigating Young Indonesian Lecturers: The Role of Money, Social Maturity and Stress in Reflecting Teaching Performance

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DOI: <https://doi.org/10.36941/jesr-2022-0071>

Abstract

This study aims to define the role of money, social maturity, and stress among young lecturers in Indonesia and their effect on teaching performance as educators. The population of this research was the young Indonesian lecturers actively teaching in university who were considered to have distinguished characters apart from their seniors. A questionnaire was spread to 13 public universities. The findings show that low social maturity escalates teaching performance. Meanwhile, lecturers' orientation on money does not affect teaching performance. Furthermore, stress has a positive effect on teaching performance. The unique fact is that the stress of the lecturers can be alleviated precisely by interacting with students in the class during the teaching and learning activities.

Keywords: altruism, Indonesia, lecturers, money, social maturity, teaching performance

1. Introduction

University is a massive organization, and lecturers are the most important element of human resources there. In terms of duties, lecturers in Indonesia have three roles: teacher, researcher, and mobilizer in the community. However, in reality, they possess more roles as the world of work is more challenging and sometimes life-less (Brook, 2009; Gibbs, 2006). They are demanded not only as teachers who transfer knowledge in the classroom but also as educators who transmit values and

norms to shape the positive character of students to be accepted in society. Students are also supposed to have soft skills to compete in the industry. The transition from practitioner to educator necessitates learning an entirely different body of knowledge (Kelly, 2002). Ayers (2001) found that educators must have a sincere relationship with students due to authentic friendship with deep caring, compassion, and attention.

In fact, balancing the work of lecturers as teachers, researchers, and service activities performers is quite difficult (Blackmore & Sachs, 2007). Though this balance is very important in the early career as a lecturer who usually faces a heavy teaching burden (Lucas & Turner, 2007), undergoes strict supervision by senior colleagues (Baron, 2000), has high expectations of themselves and others. For example is to their students (Bellas & Toutkoushian, 1999). "Beginner" lecturers may also have limited access to resources (Bazeley, 2003). These pressures make the balance between teaching, researching, and serving a very confusing task and leave only very little time for academics to make decisions regarding their professional development.

Lecturers in higher education perform various roles (Schulz, 2013). Most of the public considers that academics only spend their time teaching and making contact with students. In fact, some lecturers state that their main interest is research. Some also can occupy structural positions at universities, such as chairs of study programs or heads of charities (Blaxter, Hughes, & Tight, 1998). In Indonesia, lecturers can occupy positions as department heads, deans, or heads of research institutions. One of the requirements to become a Chancellor at a university is a lecturer who is actively conducting teaching activities on campus.

Lately, the problem at universities in Indonesia is a shift in the focus of lecturers, which becomes unbalanced between conducting teaching, research, and service activities. In recent years, lecturers in Indonesia have been demanded to increase the number of publications in reputable international journals. This is due to the low number of lecturer publications over several decades compared to other Asian countries. In 2013, there were only 5,299 publications, and Indonesia ranked 4th below Thailand. However, after the government spurred lecturer publications with various regulations and awards, the publication percentage rose dramatically. In 2018, the international scientific publications of Indonesian lecturers ranked first in ASEAN with a total of 8,269 journals or managed to surpass Singapore with a total of 6,825 journals (Ristek Dikti, 2019).

The achievements of Indonesian lecturers in terms of scientific publications have significant side effects. In fact, this new regulation disrupts the portion of other duties unrelated to the preparation of publication articles, namely teaching. Lecturers today tend to focus more on conducting research and service activities because the outcomes of both movements are clear, namely scientific publications that naturally impact the amount of reward received. This phenomenon is consistent with The Dearing Report (NCIHE, 1997), exemplifying that teaching practices have not made significant changes. Some lecturers were also reportedly reluctant to devise their teaching process due to less incentive for teaching development, both on knowledge and skills improvements.

Teaching activities gradually begin to decrease in portions. This is supported by creating digital learning content, which makes lecturers change face-to-face classes into the online system. However, according to several studies, this online learning is claimed to be more effective than face-to-face learning in the classroom with several conditions. Lin, Chen, & Liu (2017) stated that the key to the success of online learning lies within the teacher. This is caused by the many obstacles in adjusting from the traditional way to online learning. In this case, teachers are required to share teaching methods with colleagues—both directly frequently and through online communities (Holmes, 2013) to improve classroom management in line with their professionalism and self-development. Meanwhile, the results of other studies suggest online learning will succeed if students have self-discipline (Beaudoin, Kutz, & Eden, 2009; Boyd, 2004; Vu, Cao, Vu, & Cepero, 2014). Therefore, active roles from both teachers and students are needed for the success of online learning.

This study proposes to highlight the shifting meaning of teaching in the classroom among lecturers amid the lure of publication rewards and job allowances whose amounts are far greater than

the compensation received by lecturers from teaching activities in class. The research object was focused on lecturers at teacher training institutions in Indonesia who have transformed into universities by assuming that universities with these characters still have the enthusiasm and idealism as teacher producers in Indonesia. Therefore, they are examined to be still very concerned about teaching and learning strategies in class or not.

2. Literature Review and Hypotheses

Based on the integrative model of Colquitt, Lepine, Wesson, & Gellatly (2015), performance is affected by group mechanism, organizational mechanism, and individual mechanism. Group mechanisms can be seen from the characteristics of the team, team processes, leadership (power and influence), and management (style and behavior). In Indonesian lecturers, some have ambitions to become lecturers professionally and to occupy structural positions. This situation is explained by Middlehurst (2004) that academics tend to specialize in choosing career paths. Thus, there are terms such as research professors, company professors, and lecturers. In terms of having a structural career, they may have specialized professors/manager lecturers.

Academic leaders are expected to demonstrate competence in scientific fields and intellectual skills associated with active research and international profiles, reflecting high theoretical appreciation and reputation (Boyer, 1990; Middlehurst, 2004). Politically, lecturers who have structural positions have higher opportunities and wider connections to obtain research funding sources. Therefore, more research can be done under his supervision. In other words, they tend to have more publication material compared to lecturers who do not have structural positions. In this case, social maturity is the main requirement for a lecturer to hold a structural post.

Social maturity is shown with high political skills. Someone equipped with great political skill can combine sageness in social life with adaptation competence to adjust to any situation found in the community (Ferris et al., 2005). If one is more politically skillful, one tends to have better networking abilities (Wei, Liu, Chen, & Wu, 2010). The better the social skills of a lecturer will lead him to more positions of power. But on the other hand, this will harm teaching performance. Time taken up in managing organizations such as meetings and lobbies will reduce the opportunities for lecturers to teach in class. Therefore, the first hypothesis proposed in this study is as follows.

H1: Social maturity of lecturers has a negative effect on teaching performance

Furthermore, high publication rewards are believed to escalate the motivation of lecturers to write scientific articles. In this case, policymakers believe that money can be used to motivate someone. Compensation has a significant impact on work behavior (Prihantari & Astika, 2019). A fair and structured settlement can motivate employees to work performance following company expectations (Hasibuan, 2010). However, money is not everything, and the meaning of money is very dependent on the perception of its owner (McClelland, 1967).

Tang (1992) developed the Money Ethic Scale (MES) to measure a person's attitude towards money. There are six meanings of money based on this scale, namely the idea that having money is a good thing, having money is dangerous, having money is an achievement, having money can increase self-esteem, having money means being able to manage a budget, and having money means having freedom. Suppose lecturers focus on efforts to increase income. In that case, they will tend to pursue publishing articles as much as possible (to get publication rewards) and be interested in structural positions (because of the added incentives) and override learning activities in class. Thus, the second hypothesis in this study is as follows.

H2: Motivation to have money has a negative effect on teaching performance

In the integrative theory of Colquitt et al. (2015), the individual mechanism also includes stress management. Teacher stress is an unpleasant feeling experienced by teachers due to their work (Colangelo, 2004). Several studies have consistently reported the different types of stressors among lecturers, such as role overload, high job demands, noise, lack of sleep and Time pressure, etc. (Blix, Cruise, Mitchell, & Blix, 1994; Khan, Aqeel, & Riaz, 2014; Salami, 2006, 2011) Students misbehavior and

high job demands are perceived as most stressful (Clunies-Ross, Little, & Kienhuis, 2008).

Negative emotions are negatively related to teaching behavior (Harmsen, Helms-Lorenz, Maulana, & van Veen, 2018). In this study, stress is suspected to be part of negative emotions that can disrupt lecturers' teaching performance. Teaching stress leads to job avoidance, whereas work overload stress and poor interpersonal relationships lead to job dissatisfaction (Banerjee & Mehta, 2016). Based on the rationality and results of previous studies, the third research hypothesis is as follows.

H3: Stress has a negative effect on teaching performance

In the university realm, Ogbonna & Harris (2004) stated that emotions when working are largely a result of academic work, which is exacerbated by conflicting demands from various stakeholders. This is in line with the opinion of Brewer & McMahan (2003), explaining that stress is a result of a mismatch between the reality and expectations of individuals in the work environment and the mismatch between demands and the ability to meet them.

Lecturers with good social maturity have political skills that can lead them to occupy strategic positions or gain the trust to be leaders for large projects. That is, more work must be done at one time. Not to mention that lecturers have to face several conflicts of interest because of the different roles at one time. This is predicted to increase the level of stress of the lecturer.

H4: Social maturity has a positive effect on stress

Incentives are included to compensate employees for the time, effort, and skills they have provided to institutions and display while working (Olafsen, Halvari, Forest, & Deci, 2015). Kuvaas (2006) found that a higher base salary is related to better work performance and affective commitment, which is partly mediated by higher salary, can increase employee intrinsic motivation. Conversely, good work performance will also ultimately jack the incentives received up. Williams, McDaniel, & Nguyen (2006) said that salary amounts reflect employee efforts for the organization and are a major component in research on employee compensation.

Lecturers' interest in high incentives will motivate them to look for more "additional" work both inside and outside the organization at the same time. This is because relying on teaching incentives is not beneficial enough. The more work to be done will still increase stress, even though the money earned is also more.

H5: Motivation to have money has a positive effect on stress

Based on the theoretical framework, the model built in this study is as follows.

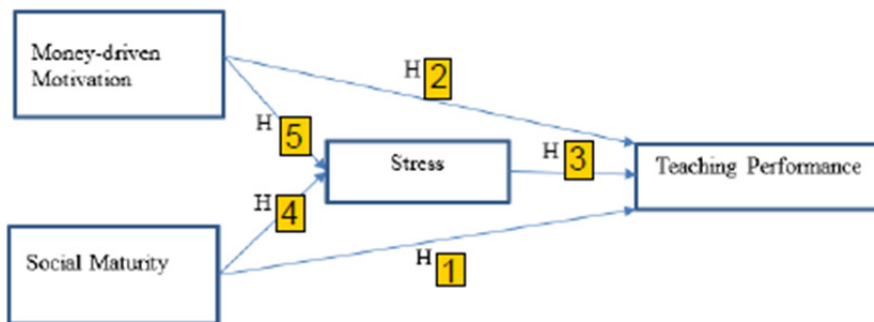


Figure 1: Theoretical Model

3. Research Method

This study used a quantitative approach with descriptive analysis to determine the profile of each variable and inferential analysis to assign the effect of the independent variables on the dependent

variable—whether partially or jointly. The population was active lecturers from 13 universities that have transformed from teacher training institutes to public universities in Indonesia. The total was 11,256 lecturers. The sampling system utilized a stratified proportionate random sampling technique. The first stratum was to determine the number of universities for which data was taken. Determination of respondent universities applied cluster sampling techniques, where the research area was divided into three clusters, namely Java and Bali, Sumatra Island, and Sulawesi Island. The second stratum was to determine the number of lecturers who became respondents in each university.

The sample size in the second stratum was determined according to the Slovin formula calculation with an error rate of 10%. Thus, a sample of 105 respondents was randomly selected from three clusters of the study area. Respondents consisted of 51 women and 54 men with an average age of 35.6 years. 67.42% of lecturers had less than ten years of teaching experience, so it could be concluded that the majority of respondents were young lecturers who had just started their academic careers.

Data collection techniques in this study utilized a Likert scale questionnaire using five answer options with the criteria of strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, and strongly disagree. Statements were prepared based on indicators for each of the variables that had been determined previously. The research questionnaire was tested for validity and reliability first through a pilot test before being distributed to respondents. Questionnaires were distributed via e-mail, and the questionnaire could be accessed online.

After the data was collected, a descriptive analysis was performed to describe the conditions of teaching performance, social maturity, motivation, and stress. It was then executed utilizing inferential analysis with PLS-SEM through five essential steps, namely 1) model conceptualization, 2) establishment of analytical algorithm model, 3) sampling method determination, 4) path diagram elucidation or drawing, and 5) model evaluation (Ghazali & Latan, 2015).

3.1 *Dependent Variables*

The dependent variable in this study was the teaching performance of lecturers both in the classroom and online teaching. A Learning Experience Questionnaire designed based on the tenets of learner-centered instruction proposed by Weimer (2002) was used by lecturers to evaluate their experiences in the classroom. Statements representing the dependent variable in the questionnaire totaled 16 statements. Indicators of teaching performance of lecturers include (1) submission of assignment assessment criteria; (2) giving feedback on assignments; (3) evaluation of the suitability of student assignments with learning objectives; (4) discussion with students about individual assignments; (5) discussion with students about group assignments; (6) delivering the benefits for students to understand feedback; (7) evaluating student understanding of lecture material; (8) revising tasks; (9) providing written comments; (10) giving an example of the ideal assignment results; (11) giving appreciation for the activeness of students in learning; (12) evaluating all basic competencies; (13) the proportion of teaching with student-centered learning; (14) explaining expectations to students; (15) providing opportunities for students to have an opinion and (16) asking students to do a self-assessment.

3.2 *Independent Variables*

The independent variables proposed were money-driven motivation, social maturity, and stress. Stress specifically also functioned as a variable that mediated the effect of money-driven motivation and social maturity on teaching performance. The money-driven motivation indicator refers to the Love of Money Scale (LOMS) used in many countries and translated into several languages such as Chinese, French, Italian, Spanish, Romanian, Russian, etc. (L. P. T. Tang, Tang, & Luna-Arocas, 2005). Of the 6 LOMS factors (good, evil, achievement, respect, budget, and power), this study only used three indicators: money as achievement, respect, and power. These three factors were considered best

to represent civil servants' conditions so that they had rights and obligations regulated by the law so that indicators of good, evil, and budget were considered less relevant. 12 statements represented the three indicators in this variable.

The social maturity variable was measured by using 2 indicators of political skills from the research of Ferris et al. (2005), namely networking ability and social astuteness. A total of 10 statements with each indicator of five statements were described in the questionnaire. Furthermore, stress variables had indicators adopted from Colquitt et al. (2015), which divided the causes of stress into 4, namely: work obstacles, work challenges, non-work obstacles, and non-work challenges. A total of 13 statements represented stress variables.

4. Empirical Results and Discussion

4.1 Descriptive Analysis

A descriptive explanation of the teaching performance variable was done by the index number method. The highest index number was the highest score multiplied by the number of respondents divided by five ($(5 * 105): 5 = 105$). Meanwhile, the lowest score was calculated by the formula of the lowest score multiplied by the number of respondents divided by five ($(1 * 105): 5 = 21$) with the following details: the data range $105 - 21 = 84$ was divided into three categories with a score breakdown of 21- 49 (low); 49,1-77 (medium); 77,1-105 (high). The categories of each indicator are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Index Number of Teaching Performance

No.	Indicator	Index number	Category
1	Submission of assignment assessment criteria	91.8	High
2	Giving feedback on student assignments	88.4	High
3	Evaluating the suitability of student assignments with learning objectives	85	High
4	Discussion with students about individual assignments	85	High
5	Discussion with students about group assignments	85.8	High
6	Delivering benefits for students to understand feedback	80.2	High
7	Evaluating students' understanding of lecture material	84.6	High
8	Revising the task	72.6	Medium
9	Providing written comments	78.2	High
10	Giving examples of ideal assignment results	83	High
11	Giving appreciation for the activeness of students in learning	90.2	High
12	Evaluating all basic competencies	81.2	High
13	the proportion of teaching with student-centered learning	72	Medium
14	Explaining expectations to students	87	High
15	Providing opportunities for students to have an opinion	84.8	High
16	Asking students to do a self-assessment.	64.2	Medium

The data in Table 1 point out that there are three indicators in the medium category, namely revising student assignments, the proportion of teaching with student-centered, and the use of self-assessment. Thus, it can be concluded that lecturers from universities that were previously teaching training institutions in Indonesia have evaluated student assignments. However, the willingness to improve student learning processes by revising assignments is not yet high enough. Second, there are still many lecturers teaching with the teacher-centered method so that students do not have enough proxy to discover the essence of the material being discussed. Furthermore, the self-assessment method is not too popular among lecturers.

Descriptive analysis of stress variables was also performed using the index number method with the same range and category, but because one indicator consisted of several questions, the average index number per indicator was calculated. Details of the data can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2: Index number of Lecturers' Stress

No.	Indicator	Index number	Category
1	Work obstacles	50,15	Medium
2	Work challenges	52,24	Medium
3	Non-work obstacles	63,26	Medium
4	Non-work challenge	60,76	Medium

The highest cause of stress for lecturers of universities ex-teaching training institutes in Indonesia lay not in the obstacles or challenges of work, but rather on non-work obstacles and challenges (Table 2). Colquitt et al. (2015) described non-work obstacles including role conflicts related to careers and family, negative life events, and financial uncertainty, while non-work challenges included family time demands, the desire to do personal development related to hobbies and hobbies, and positive life events (married, having children, graduating school, etc.). This description is under the demographic character of the respondents. Most of them are young lecturers who have just begun their careers and started to settle down. Therefore, their time is distorted to take care of things outside of work. They get small incentives and busyness in new households that take up a lot of time and thought.

In the money-driven motivation variable, descriptive analysis was based on the opinion of Colquitt et al. (2015), stating the categorization of scores as follows: (1) money as achievement is high if the score is equal to or more than 13 and low if it is equal to or less than 12 ; (2) money as respect is high if the score is equal to or more than 15 and low if it is equal to or less than 14; and (3) money as freedom is high if the score is equal to or more than 20 and low if it is equal to or less than 19. Variable data distribution of money-driven motivation that was obtained is as follows.

Table 3: Descriptive Data Variable of Money-Driven Motivation

Category	Money as Achievement		Money as Respect		Money as Freedom	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
High	98	93.33%	68	64.76%	13	12.38%
Low	7	6.67%	37	35.24%	92	87.62%
Total	105	100%	105	100%	105	100%

Almost all respondents consider money an achievement, whereas more than half think that money could make them respected (Table 3). On the other hand, the meaning of money as a source to obtain various freedoms is only agreed to by a handful of respondents. This answer is still related to the demographic characteristics of the respondents. Most of them are young lecturers who have just started their careers. Thus, the level of financial uncertainty is still high. The score of money as achievement is then very high. Some studies state that younger employees have more openness to gain new experiences (Costa et al., 1986; McCrae et al., 1999); have a higher achievement motivation (Warr, 2001); and have more intention to create progress and recognition (Lord & Farrington, 2006). That is, they focus on producing works as a form of existence of a scientist. Hence, they do not expect to be treated with respect and given a privilege that frees them from certain tasks.

The determination of categories in the social maturity variable was also based on the judgment of Colquitt et al. (2015), stating that in networking abilities, a score of equal or greater than 18 is above the average. Meanwhile, a score of 17 or smaller is said to be below the average. Social astuteness score equal to or greater than 19 is above the average, and a score of 18 or smaller is below the average.

Table 4: Descriptive Data of Social Maturity

Category	Networking Ability		Social Astuteness	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
High	4	3.81%	4	3.81%
Low	101	96.19%	101	96.19%
Total	105	100%	105	100%

The results of a descriptive analysis of social maturity found that networking ability and social astuteness among young lecturers are still very low with the same percentage. Each only reaches 3.81%. Lecturers are said to have a reluctance to first start communication with superiors. Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin (2003) stated that raising issues with the boss can have negative consequences. For this reason, lecturers tend to stay away from bureaucrats so that they do not have the opportunity to get additional assignments to be involved in university management as holders of power.

4.2 Inferential Analysis

4.2.1 Measurement Model Analysis

The results of statistical tests on the evaluation of the measurement model were executed to test the reliability and validity of the construct. At this stage, each instrument item was assessed to determine its role—whether used or not—in measuring the construct of the variable indicator on latent variables (teaching performance (TEACH), social maturity (SOC), money-driven motivation (MONEY), and stress (STRESS)). The test of construct validity can be observed in Table 5.

The loading factor value on each indicator could be stated to have met the criteria for convergent validity as its value is greater than 0.7. Meanwhile, it is also strengthened at the value of AVE (Average Variance Extracted) with a value of more than 0.5, indicating that all of these indicators could explain the construct variable greater than 50%. Therefore, both in terms of loading factors per indicator or AVE value suggest that the validity convergence of each variable has been fulfilled. All indicators in this study have also met the requirements of the discriminant validity criteria. This could be demonstrated through cross-validation between the magnitudes of loading factor indicator against the variable compared to the magnitude of the indicator against the other variables. Its loading factor is greater than the others. The results of the construct reliability test also exemplify that the composite reliability value of each variable shows a value greater than the cut value of 0.7. Based on these results, it could be concluded that all variables have met the construct reliability criteria.

Table 5: Loadings, AVE, Cross-Loading and Composite Reliability (CR) for the Measurement (Outer Model)

INDICATOR	TEACH	MOT	SOC	STRESS	AVE	CR
TS2	0.977	-0.17	0.179	0.136	0.521	0.886
TS3	0.98	-0.048	0.107	-0.008		
TS4	0.973	-0.013	0.176	-0.279		
TS5	0.952	0.124	-0.049	-0.034		
TS9	0.943	0.116	-0.105	-0.044		
TS10	0.956	-0.089	-0.117	0.126	0.526	0.814
MN1	-0.13	0.888	-0.06	0.069		
MN2	-0.084	0.987	-0.203	-0.238		
MN3	-0.169	0.912	-0.144	-0.412		
MN4	-0.166	0.947	-0.135	-0.392		
MN6	0.014	0.977	-0.066	-0.3		
MN7	0.203	0.846	0.292	-0.485		
MN8	0.165	0.947	0.122	-0.327		
MN9	-0.1	0.967	-0.152	-0.142		
MN10	0.042	0.944	0.104	-0.378		
MN12	-0.12	0.957	-0.204	-0.395	0.650	0.928
PS4	0.083	0.176	0.915	-0.174		
PS5	0.022	0.21	0.905	-0.216		
PS6	-0.063	0.102	0.914	-0.147		
PS7	-0.1	0.096	0.893	-0.051		
PS8	-0.155	0.077	0.872	0.12		
PS9	0.157	-0.224	0.93	0.112		
PS10	0.089	-0.317	0.917	0.246		

INDICATOR	TEACH	MOT	SOC	STRESS	AVE	CR
ST4	0.047	-0.307	0.438	0.831	0.524	0.815
ST5	0.092	0.182	-0.224	0.913		
ST6	-0.056	0.259	-0.255	0.88		
ST7	-0.069	-0.087	-0.026	0.92		

4.2.2 Global Fit and Hypothesis Test

After the outer model test was fulfilled, the global fit test was performed—consisting of the model fit and quality indices test. This test was conducted to determine the suitability of the inner model in empirical situations so that the results of hypothesis testing were feasible to be interpreted. There were ten indices tested in the model fit and quality indices test, and their values must be above the cut value.

Table 6: Model Fit and Quality Indices

Index	Cut Value	Score	Remark
Average path coefficient (APC);	$P < 0.05$	0.218, $P = 0.001$	Good
Average R-squared (ARS);	$P < 0.05$	0.142, $P < 0.015$	Good
Average adjusted R-squared (AARS);	$P < 0.05$	0.120, $P < 0.028$	Good
Average block VIF (AVIF);	acceptable if ≤ 5 , ideally ≤ 3.3	1.086	Ideal
Average full collinearity VIF (AFVIF);	acceptable if ≤ 5 , ideally ≤ 3.3	1.190	Ideal
Tenenhaus GoF (GoF);	small ≥ 0.1 , medium ≥ 0.25 , large ≥ 0.36	0.267	Good
Sympson's paradox ratio (SPR);	acceptable if ≥ 0.7 , ideally = 1	1.000	Ideal
R-squared contribution ratio (RSCR);	acceptable if ≥ 0.9 , ideally = 1	1.000	Ideal
Statistical suppression ratio (SSR);	acceptable if ≥ 0.7 , ideally = 1	0.800	Good
Nonlinear bivariate causality direction ratio (NLBCDR)	acceptable if ≥ 0.7	0.900	Good

Overall, both the measurement model and structural model are declared fit (Table 6). Thus, they could be used to test the hypotheses in this study. Hypothesis test results and path coefficients can be observed in Figure 2.

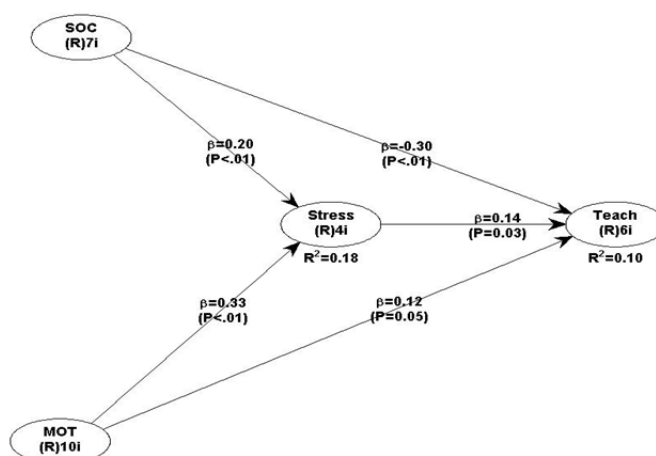


Figure 2: Hypothesis Test Results

4.2.3 Analysis of the Effect of Social Maturity on Teaching Performance with Stress as a Mediation variable

Kenny (2018) analyzed mediation variables by comparing the direct effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable with the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable controlled by the mediating variable. The direct effect of social maturity on teaching performance can be seen in the following figure.

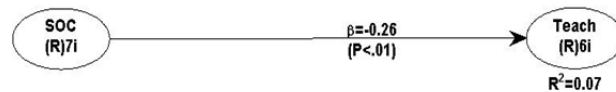


Figure 3: The direct effect of Social Maturity on Teaching Performance

The results of data analysis demonstrate the negative effect of social maturity on teaching performance with a coefficient of 0.260 and a P-value < 0.01. When compared with the effect of social maturity on teaching performance after being controlled by stress variables, the coefficient becomes 0.30 with a p-value < 0.01. Based on Kenny's opinion (2018), if the social maturity value of teaching performance after being controlled by the stress variable is zero, then stress is a complete mediator. That is, non-zero coefficients in this research model indicate that stress is a partial mediator on the effect of social maturity on teaching performance.

Based on the results of descriptive analysis, lecturers at ex-teaching training institutes (now universities) with age around 35 years can establish networks and social astuteness, which is relatively low. This phenomenon is consistent with the theory of social domination, saying that society is divided into groups consisting of dominant or superior groups on the top and subordinate groups on the bottom of the social class. Accordingly, the social hierarchy is based on the volume of power and resources (Yang, Lai, & Li, 2016).

As lecturers who just started careers or are in the mid-career period, most lecturers are in the middle to lower social class group. Meanwhile, the senior lecturers are in the higher ones. Those with strong personalities and positive attitudes respond to this position more adaptively (W. Lin, Wang, & Chen, 2013), implying a higher ability to work well under pressure. The results of various preceding studies support the findings in this study. Young lecturers tended to focus on teaching activities and other academic activities such as conducting research and community service due to their "dissatisfaction" with social life in the work environment.

When viewed in terms of achievement, especially teaching ability, only three—out of 16 indicators—of teaching performance are in the medium category. The rest are in the high category. So, it could be concluded that the average young lecturers have excellent teaching performance. However, lecturers lack social intelligence and tend to be reluctant to establish good relations outside of professional work to maintain social ties. The inability of lecturers to work together with colleagues and leaders has been proven to affect stress levels on lecturers positively. High social awkwardness has an impact on increasing stress. This confirms the results of the study that illustrated the negative effect of social intelligence on teaching performance. The lower the social intelligence of lecturers is, the higher the teaching performance is.

Viewed from its position as a mediating variable in this study, social maturity positively affects stress with a coefficient of 0.20 (p-value < 0.01). Then, stress positively affects teaching performance with a coefficient of 0.14 (p-value < 0.03). Stress proves to have a detrimental effect on physical and mental health. Some studies report pro-social effects, others state increased anti-social behavior, and the rest report no effects (Von Dawans, Trueg, Kirschbaum, Fischbacher, & Heinrichs, 2018). The finding in this study is that higher lecturer stress is not caused by obstacles and work challenges but rather is due to non-work obstacles and challenges. Two of which are social awkwardness and a less harmonious relationship between lecturers and people in their work environment.

However, apart from what is partially explained before, a unique fact is also found in the results of this study. A high level of lecturer frustration with his social relations makes the lecturer focus on his professional activities—in this case, teaching. This can be seen from the results of this study stating that the higher the stress level of lecturers is, the better the teaching performance is. There is an impression that lecturers tend to make teaching activities an escape from the frustration of disharmony social relations in the campus environment.

4.2.4 Analysis of the Effect of Money-Driven Motivation on Teaching Performance with Stress as a Mediation variable

The direct effect of Money-Driven Motivation on Teaching Performance can be seen in the following figure.

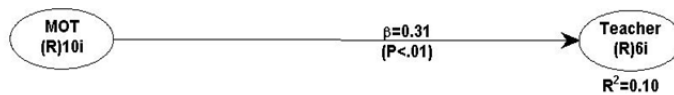


Figure 4: The direct effect of Money-Driven Motivation on Teaching Performance

The results of data analysis showed the positive effect of money-driven motivation on teaching performance with a coefficient of 0.31 and P-value < 0.01. When compared to the effect of money-driven motivation on teaching performance controlled by stress variables, the coefficient becomes 0.12 with a p-value of 0.05. This means that the effect of money-driven motivation on teaching performance is insignificant. Based on the opinion of Hair et al. (2010), if the value of money-driven motivation on teaching performance after being controlled by stress variables is not significant, while the effect of money-driven motivation on significant stress (p-value < 0.01) and the effect of stress on teaching performance is significant (p-value 0.03), then stress is a complete mediator variable.

Motivation to get more money proved not to have a significant effect on the teaching performance of lecturers. Friedman (2016) stated that students are self-objects of lecturers where lecturers in multiple classes are able to inscribe students in multiple ways to achieve their love, interest, and certain relation which those things were not obtained by the respondent lecturers in this study when they were dealing with people in their social environment. The classroom was also a medium for expressing the strength, control, and superiority of knowledge, values, and moral beliefs of a lecturer, in which the possibility was also very limited for them to get a positive response about these things outside the classroom.

In addition, from a financial perspective, the additional incentives obtained from teaching were indeed not comparable to the incentives obtained from research and scientific publications. Defazio, Lockett, & Wright (2009) found the impact of funding on productivity was generally positive. In line with these findings, Indonesia is currently intensifying rewards in the form of incentives for lecturers who have successfully published their research results in reputable international journals. This provides an opportunity for lecturers who are motivated to get more money to be more productive in conducting research publications and hoping to get additional incentives from teaching activities.

Although lecturers do not have more orientation towards increasing incentives from teaching activities, most young lecturers still position money as an achievement. The more income, the higher his achievement as a professional is. This is what motivates them to compete in improving performance in areas that produce more incentives. Unfortunately, teaching is not included. Furthermore, more than half of the young lecturers consider money as a source of respect. That is, the more income, the more other people will be reluctant towards someone. However, only a few lecturers thought that having a lot of money would guarantee their freedom. The analysis that can be given is, mindset among young lecturers that if they want to have more money, they also have to work harder, so their freedom will become more limited. This possibility will be different from the mindset of senior lecturers, where having money means having freedom. This is because senior

lecturers have been able to distribute tasks to their juniors to reduce the workload.

The results of data analysis in this study confirm that motivation to have more money is proved to increase stress on lecturers (coefficient 0.33; p-value < 0.01). As explained earlier, the position as a young lecturer forces respondents to take on more work to affect the stress level they face positively. However, stress has a positive effect on lecturer teaching performance (coefficient 0.14; p-value 0.03). Zeigler-Hill, Myers, & Clark (2010) stated that teachers might experience stress and fatigue when they experience situations where reality does not satisfy their desires and even presents a real threat. Friedman & Lotan (1985) found that fatigue in teachers can cause students to be hostile or depersonalize students. However, this does not happen to the respondents in this study. Instead, teaching becomes an effective "diversion" of stress, according to them.

Diversion of stress by teaching can occur because teaching and learning activities often tucked humor. Humor can help individuals cope with stress (Banas, Dunbar, Rodriguez, & Liu, 2011). The elements of emotional response theory (Mottet, Frymier, & Bebee, 2006) and the instructional humor processing theory (IHPT) in Wanzer, Frymier, & Irwin (2010) predicts that the right humor can increase positive effect so that the learning environment becomes more pleasant. The positive effect generated through humor can eliminate student tension and anxiety (Teslow, 1995) and reduce anxiety (Kher, Molstad, & Donahue, 1999). In this study, it is proven that students are helped by fun learning activities in the classroom and the lecturer as a facilitator in the classroom.

5. Conclusion

The study results, stating that stress has a positive effect on teaching performance, do not directly confirm the question in the title of this article, namely "Are young lecturers altruistic?". The study demonstrates that teaching activities become an "escape" from lecturers from frustration with social relations in the campus environment and fatigue with additional jobs that must be taken to increase income. However, it should be appreciated that these young lecturers can prioritize teaching activities above all challenges and obstacles that must be faced early in their careers. They still prioritize teaching activities in class rather than looking for reasons not to enter the class. So, do young lecturers in Indonesia have enough altruistic qualities? By considering the various problems and obstacles they have set aside when stepping into the classroom, at least the seeds of altruism have grown in young lecturers here.

6. Acknowledgments

The authors would like to thank Universitas Negeri Semarang for supporting the funding of this research.

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