IMPACT OF JOB STRESS ON SCHOOL EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS' WELLBEING: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF SELF-EFFICACY

Thesis Submitted to Jadavpur University for the Award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Arts (Education)

By

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Dedicated to my Beloved Parents

LATE MD YASIN ALI

&

BEGOM SAMIRON NAHAR

CERTIFICATE

Certified that the thesis entitled, **"Impact of Job Stress on School Education Administrators' Wellbeing: The Mediating Role of Self-Efficacy",** submitted by me for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Arts (Education) at Jadavpur University is based upon my work carried out under the supervision of Dr. Lalit Lalitav Mohakud, Assistant Professor, Department of Education, Jadavpur University, and that neither this thesis nor any part of it has been submitted before for any degree or diploma anywhere/elsewhere.

Countersigned by the
Supervisor:
Date: 11.01.2023

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Abbreviations Used

A.D.I/S	: Additional District Inspector of Schools
A.I/S	: Assistant Inspector of Schools
ANOVA	: Analysis of Variance
AS	: Anxiety Stress
AW	: Administrators Wellbeing
B. Ed.	: Bachelor of Education
BIT	: Brief Inventory of Thriving
CABE	: The Central Advisory Board of Education
CBSE	: Central Board of Secondary Education
CLRC	: Circle Level Resource Centre
CWS	: Co-worker Support
CPC	: Circle Project Co-ordinator
DDSE	: Deputy Director of School Education
D.I/S	: District Inspector of Schools
DPSC	: District Primary School Council
DSE	: Directorate of School Education
DV	: Dependent Variable
EE	: Efficacy Expectation
EW	: Employee Wellbeing
EPQR-S	: Questionnaire revised short-version
H.M	: Headmasters
ICT	: Information and Communication Technology
i.e	: That is
IV	: Independent Variable
JS	: Job Stress
Ku	: Kurtosis
NCERT	: National Council of Educational Research and Training
NFTW	: National Foundation for Teachers' Welfare
NIOS	: National Institute of Open Schooling
NPE	: National Policy on Education
OBSE	: Organisation-Based Self-Esteem
OCB	: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

PREFACE

This thesis is submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at Jadavpur University. I feel delighted to present this research work. In this study, I have tried to give all the essential and appropriate things about the study.

I have endeavored to make this project attractive and easy to understand. This cross-sectional survey aimed to explore the mediating role of self-efficacy in the relationship between job stress and employee wellbeing among school education administrators in West Bengal considering various socio-demographic variables. The entire thesis has six chapters (Chapter-I to VI). Chapter-I entitled 'Introduction' presents the theoretical and conceptual background of the study. Chapter-II entitled 'Review of Related Literature' analysed a wide range of relevant literature exploring the research trends. Chapter-III entitled 'Context of the Study' includes the rationale behind the study, knowledge gaps, problem statement, operational definition of the major terms used, research questions, objectives, hypotheses, delimitations and conceptual framework of the study. Chapter-IV entitled 'Methodology of the Study' includes the research design, variables, population, sample, sampling techniques, data collection and analysis procedures, tools and techniques etc. adopted for the study. Chapter-V entitled 'Analysis and Interpretation of Data' presents the results, and their interpretations. Finally, Chapter-VI entitled 'Findings and Conclusions' presents the major findings and its discussion, educational implications, limitations, and suggestions for further studies. I have tried to explain each topic in details and included the relevant figures and diagrams for proper data visualization and illustration of theories and concepts.

This study was conducted under the supervision of Dr. Lalit Lalitav Mohakud, Assistant Professor, Department of Education, Jadavpur University, who gave me moral support and guided me to complete this study on time. While doing this study, I learned many new and exciting things from him.

It is sincerely hoped that this study will be immensely helpful to me. I have given all the information in this research work by consulting books and valuable resources.

Md Sahanaj Alam

(Research Scholar)

CHAPTER- I

INTRODUCTION

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1.1.0 Introduction

Education is an excellent tool in building a nation where school education plays a significant role. Any education system is run successfully by proper education administration and good education administrators. School education is not an exception. The effectiveness of school education also largely depends on its administrators. School Education Administrators (SEAs) work with teachers, students, support staff, parents, and local politicians to keep the school functioning. These professionals define and articulate the school's mission and goals, implement programmes and allocate resources to ensure the proper functioning and management of the educational institution. They are also involved in formulating educational policies, programs, and procedures. In addition, SEAs oversees the functioning of academic and extra-curricular departments, setting goals and objectives, hiring and evaluating teachers, communicating with parents, students, and community members, and managing the campus. So, the smooth flow of school education in a state depends on the effective management and administration abilities of school administrators. They play a significant role in school management (planning, budgeting, organizing, staffing, controlling, problem-solving (Srinivasan, 2015; Ali & Abdalla, 2017)), administration, and leadership. But they can perform these roles successfully only when they are in good health, i.e., physical, mental, socio-emotional, etc. That means their wellbeing is favourable. Wellbeing is the all-embracing quality of an employee's experience and functions in physical and psychological dimensions (Warr, 1994). Unfortunately, numerous aspects, including the work environment, management, workload (Ganster & Loghan, 2005), workplace discrimination, and lack of job stability (Singh et al., 2019), became horrible causes of the stress of the SEAs, which negatively affects their wellbeing. It is well-recognised that experiencing job stress can lead to health issues (DeLongis et al., 1988 in Raghuram & Wiesenfeld, 2004). Job stress is a circumstance that compels individuals to deviate from normal functioning because of a change in their psychological and/or physiological condition (Ahmed & Ramzan, 2013).

Interestingly self-efficacy plays a vital role in managing work-related stress and maintaining wellbeing (Llorens et al., 2007; Pati & Kumar, 2010; Chaudhary et al., 2013; and Chuang et al., 2013). It helps to motivate employees, understands performance levels, and apply them consistently (Hechavarria et al., 2012). Literature reveals that administrators can manage and solve various physical and psycho-social problems, conflicts, stress, etc., and maintain personal and organisational wellbeing with excellent self-efficacy. SEAs are no exception to it. Hence, studying the issues of stress, self-efficacy, and wellbeing among SEAs is of immense value and significance in the present day.

This chapter explains the significance, concepts, dimensions, and theories of educational administration, management, leadership, stress, self-efficacy, and wellbeing of SEAs and their relationship. It explains the study's theoretical background, highlighting the educational administration structure, personnel involved, role, functions, and problems of school-education administration and administrators in West Bengal.

1.1.1 School Education Administration, Management, and Leadership

The administration is about the practical ways of turning leadership and management into reality (Green, 2000). It functions to implement policy within a framework of established systems, rules, and procedures (Campbell, 2004). ‘Administration’ is a more general term and does not emphasise only leadership or management but also the overall functioning of all aspects of an organisation. The term ‘Educational Administration’ reflects the scope of the duties and responsibilities of the administrator in an educational organisation. Educational administration, school administrator, or Department of Educational Administration, etc., are used widely to accurately reflect the nature of those roles and activities (Willower & Culbertson,1964; and English,1994). The administrator must ensure sound communication systems, transparent and practical expectations, unambiguous and purpose-oriented procedures, and clear and appropriate policies, which must also be monitored and reviewed for an effective organisation (Dembowski, 2006).

Effective school administrators need leadership and managerial skills, abilities, and roles. Certain aspects of leadership can delegate management tasks to other staff members, but both ultimately remain the administrator’s responsibility. Leadership is doing the right thing, and management is doing things right. Effective organisational growth requires both (Adair, 1997). Leadership risk-taking creates opportunities, while management

structure and discipline turn opportunities into tangible results. Management is the process by which a cooperative group directs the actions of others toward common goals (Massie & Douglas,1985) and achieve organisational objectives using limited resources efficiently in the changing environment (Kreitner, 2004). It establishes an effective environment for the people in an organisation where managers translate the strategy to achieve the goals (Koontz & O'Donnell, 1978). It manages and implements policies and plans methodologically. Educational management, i.e., the application of management principles in education, is required in the education sector to achieve national developmental goals. Educational management is the process of planning, directing, organising, and controlling an institution's activities by appropriately using human and material resources so that teaching and research activities are carried out effectively and efficiently (Srinivasan, 2015), which can be possible only with proper leadership.

Leadership is a set of specialised processes that create or adapt organisations to changing circumstances. Leadership is the observed effect of one individual's ability to change other people's behaviours by altering their motivations (Bass, 1985). It focuses on an organisation's effectiveness innovatively. It is vital during rapid change (Kanter, 1983; Peters & Austin, 1985; Kotter, 1990) and looks forward and asks how we might change to reflect today's and tomorrow's needs (Zeeck, 1999). Leaders specify the organisation's direction (Zeeck, 1999) and create the vision, overriding strategic goals and objectives, without which organisations cannot prosper. Educational leadership is a broad concept that 'builds the capacity of teachers and others in schools to build learning communities to deliver high-quality learning programs to that community (Johnston & Caldwell, 2001). Educational leadership is sound organisational decision-making with a pragmatic and holistic approach to knowledge growth through enhanced problem-solving (Duignan et al., 1992). The leaders maintain high morale among the group members under their leadership to perform better (Farahbakhsh, 2006) and influence others to work enthusiastically to achieve the objectives (Manz & Sims, 2001). Along with morale-boosting, motivating members, satisfying the needs of members, support function, creating confidence, accomplishing common goals, representing members, implementing change, and resolving conflicts are standard functions of educational leadership (Moshal, 1998).

From the above discussion on administration, management, and leadership, it is clear that administration works with and through others to accomplish organisational goals efficiently. Subsequently, administration is the art and science of efficiently getting

things done. Educational administration is allocating and acquiring resources to achieve predetermined educational goals. Thus, educational administrators from all levels, from superintendents to chairpersons, take their roles seriously to build quality education (Ali & Abdalla, 2017).

1.1.2 School Education Administration in West Bengal: Genesis, Structure, and Mechanism

India has a specific structure of education administration, which significantly determines its quality of education like other countries. In India, education is under the Concurrent list of the Indian Constitution and primarily conducted by public schools (central, state, and local: all three levels are controlled and funded by the Government) and private schools. The Wood's Despatch 1854 began the first inspection system in India and its state, West Bengal. It also recommended an adequate inspection system appointing a sufficient number of qualified inspectors of different classes who possess different degrees required by the character to assist these institutions, managers, and teachers or conduct the examination of scholars in managing colleges and schools with their advice (Majumder, 2018). In addition, the Inspectorate had to evaluate the progress of the government schools and the use of public money in a productive manner. After that, the hunter commission recommended a code of conduct for the guidance of the inspectors. The Public Service Commission made further changes in the school inspectorate system in 1886. On the eve of India's independence, Sir John Sargent emphasised strengthening inspecting staff (Majumder, 2018). After independence, this tradition was going on similarly. The NPE -1986 and POA-1992 refer to establishing an Indian Educational service yet to be implemented. Right To Education act -2009 provides an inclusive inspection system that will ensure free education for all children within the age group of fourteen years.

In West Bengal, the Minister-in-Charge of School Education, the Secretary, and the Secretariate are responsible for planning and policy-making in all matters related to School Education. In addition, it has a directorate in the form of the Directorate of School Education (DSE) for implementing the government's policies and the monitoring, inspection, and supervision of the schools at the district, sub-division, and circle levels through the Inspectorate located in various tire-like districts, sub-divisions, and circles. Furthermore, it is responsible for bringing about qualitative and quantitative

improvement in school education through decentralised administrative functions. The Directorate has two Inspectorates at the district level – District Inspectorate Primary Education and District Inspectorate Secondary Education. It functions through secretaries, officers on special duty, District Inspectors of Schools (D.I/S), Additional District Inspectors of Schools (A.D.I/S), Assistant Inspectors of Schools (A.I/S.), and the Sub-Inspectors of Schools (S.I/S). There is almost no visit of schools from the D.I/S and A.D.I/S end. Sometimes the S.I/S visits the schools only for administrative purposes (Majumder, 2018). Apart from inspection and supervision, the Inspector now serves as a facilitator, extending their support from school infrastructure to the children's learning process. The Inspectorate is also accountable for recording the school's best practices and failures and accordingly making an assessment and putting forward suggestions.

The Directorate has to form groups under the leadership of 'Area Officers' along with the ADSEs, officers of Audit and Accounts, A.I./S, and S.I/S. Similarly, groups are formed at the district level and Circle level. The State level groups visit districts, inspect schools, and discuss reports on audit and budget, the progress of the ongoing schemes, problems related to administration and management, and the progress of the Sarva Siksha Mission (SSM). Similarly, the groups at the district level visit schools and circle offices regularly, and groups at the sub-division level also function similarly. The Circles are formed at the Panchayat level or the Ward level. The District Primary Council decides the jurisdiction of the Circle. The Circles depend on the number of students or the geographical distribution of the area. To minimise the problems and for smooth implementation of various Central and State level schemes in different districts, Joint Directors and Deputy Directors are assigned as 'Area Officers' of each district. They coordinate with the District Magistrate, Chairman of DPSC, and D.I/S.

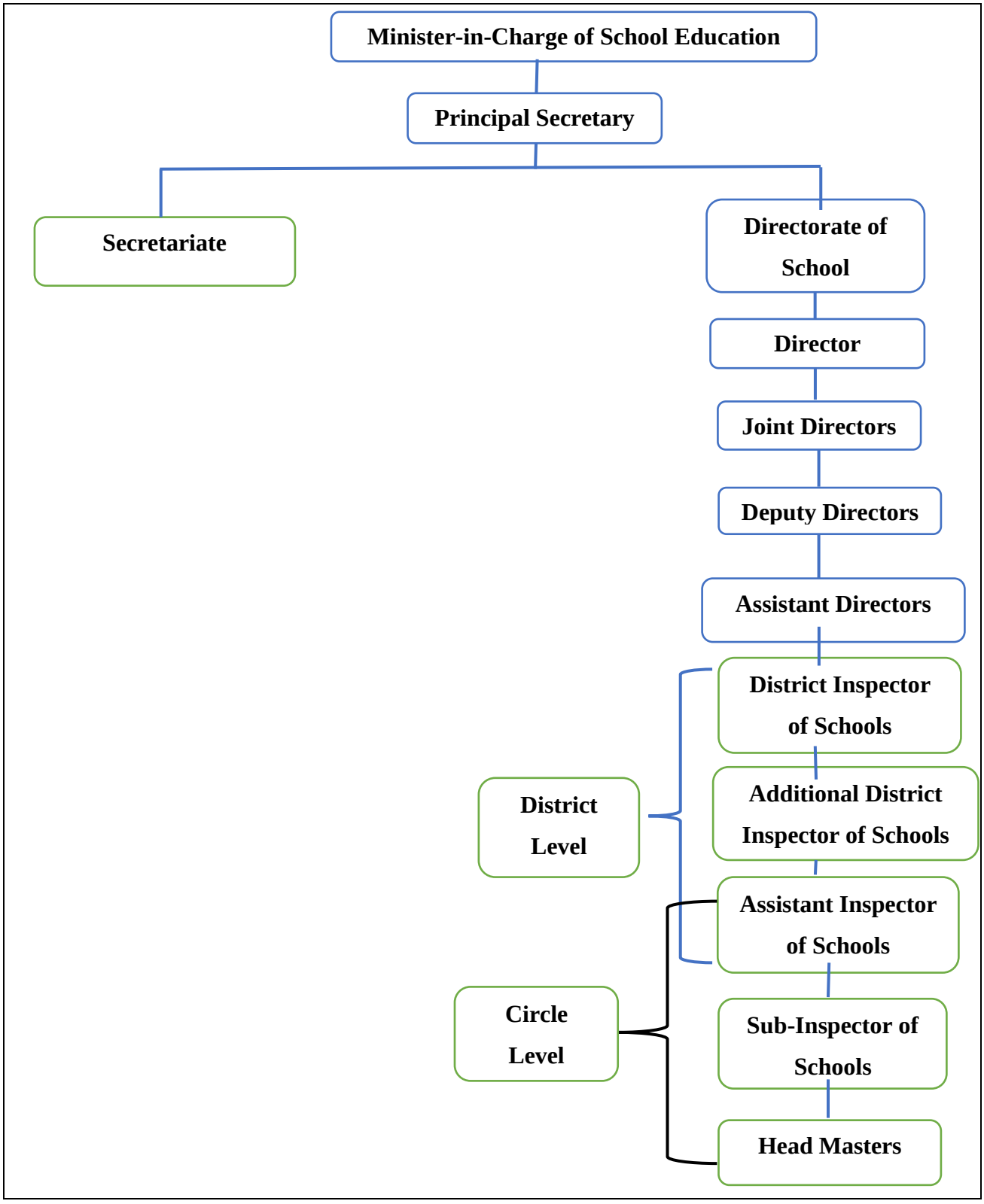


Fig. 1.1: Structure of School Education Administration of West Bengal

1.1.3 Functions of School Education Administrators (SEAs)

Functions of the Department of School Education

In West Bengal, the school education system is run and monitored by the Department of School Education with two major sections, i.e., Secretariate of School Education and Directorate of School Education. The Secretariat of School Education assists Govt. to formulate policies concerning school education, and the Directorate of School Education implements these policies enacted by the Government. The chief administrator of the Directorate of School Education is the Commissioner. In addition, there are some Joint Directors, Deputy Directors, Asst. Directors, A.I/S and S.I/S, and other staff to assist him/her. Their main functions include inspecting, supervising, and ultimately smoothing school education administration. In addition, the Directorate of School Education deals with educational issues from Pre-Primary to Class XII, including Primary Teacher Training Institutes (*Banglar Shiksha.Gov.In*, 2022).

Functions of Education Administration at the District-Level

Office of the D.I/S (Primary Education): District-level office for primary education is generally known as the office of the District Inspector (Primary Education). Headed by the D.I/S and assisted by the A.D.I/S, A.I/S, S.I/S, and other staff. The main functions of the D.I/S (Primary Education) are various issues related to the pension of primary teachers, an inspection of primary schools, and proper implementation of various schemes at the primary school level. In addition, it also performs various matters related to the service of S.I/S, Gr-C, and Gr-D employees of concerned Circles, District Offices, and District Primary Teacher Training Institutes (*Banglar Shiksha.Gov.In*, 2022).

Office of the DI/S (Secondary Education): In secondary-level education, the district-level office is commonly known as the District Inspectors' Office (Secondary Education), where the D.I/S works as the Head, assisted by A.D.I/S, A.I/S, S.I/S, and some other staff. It deals with salaries, pensions, an inspection of secondary schools, implementation of secondary-level schemes, etc., generally for secondary teachers. In addition, they also arrange for school inspection and in-service training of teachers (*Banglar Shiksha.Gov.In*, 2022).

District Primary School Council (DPSC): DPSC is a district-level autonomous body whose primary functions are to look after various administrative issues besides support,

promotion, transfer, leave, disbursement of salary, and other services of primary teachers. The Chairman of DPSC is the Head of this Council, and the D.I/S(Primary Education) is the Ex-Officio Secretary (*Banglar Shiksha.Gov.In*, 2022).

Functions of Education Administration at Sub-district Level

The state has two separate sub-district structures for primary and secondary education.

Office of the A.I/S or A.D.I/S: Each district is divided into several education sub-divisions or structures. Each academic sub-department is headed by an ADI/S or an AI/S. They undertake inspection of primary and secondary level schools, teachers' salaries, other services, proper provision for problems, and implementation of Government policies and schemes at the sub-division level (*Banglar Shiksha.Gov.In*, 2022).

Block / Municipality level A.I/S: At the Block/Municipality level, the D.I/S (P.E.) is under the control of an A.I/S. Their functions are mainly to monitor the educational activities at the Block/Municipality level. (*Banglar Shiksha.Gov.In*, 2022)

Office of the S.I/S: In primary education, every district has some circles or sub-block structures, and each circle consists of about 70 primary schools. The total number in the state is 727. An officer of the WB Sub-ordinate Education Service nominated as S.I/S heads each circle. It also has a Circle Level Resource Center (CLRC) to look after the entire Education Mission (earlier SSA and RMSA) activities of the circle. The S.I/S is in charge of the CLRC as the Circle Project Coordinator (CPC). The S.I/S inspects primary schools, looks after teachers' salaries, pension papers, and other services, and takes necessary steps to resolve various problems for them, schools, and students under the concerned circle. They are also responsible for the implementation of various policies, schemes, and grants of the government and the utilisation of funds in both government and government-aided schools of their circle (Banglar Shiksha.Gov.In, 2022).

Functions of Head Master.: Schools are bad or good, in a healthy or unhealthy mental, moral and physical condition, flourishing or perishing, as the principal is capable, energetic of high ideals or the reverse (Konchar, 1988). In West Bengal, as a school administrators, headmasters/principals/headteachers of the school function as liaison officers between Govt., offices of School Education Departments, schools, and society. Along with their teaching functions, they act as the keeper of keys, the coordinators of

correspondence, implementors of the Govt. policies, schemes, and grants, chief planning officers and editors of school academic calendars, budgets, and handbooks, the director of public relations, leaders and coordinators of teachers and instructional process, etc. They are the key persons and administrators at the grassroots level of school education and take care of the final arrangements for the education of students in schools.

1.1.4 Problems of School Administration and Administrators

School success is closely related to the abilities, efficiencies, skills, positive attitudes, and good health conditions of education administrators. A good administrator can ensure good governance in the school, an environment of healthy competition between teachers and students regarding success, discover individual talents, create the most suitable educational design for students, etc., leading towards the school's success. However, some factors may negatively affect educational administration and leadership. While ensuring effective management, educational administrators face many issues, such as school administrators' workload, personal rights, school management, school climate, respect, education system, organisational commitment, and exposure to violence (Bozkus, 2022).

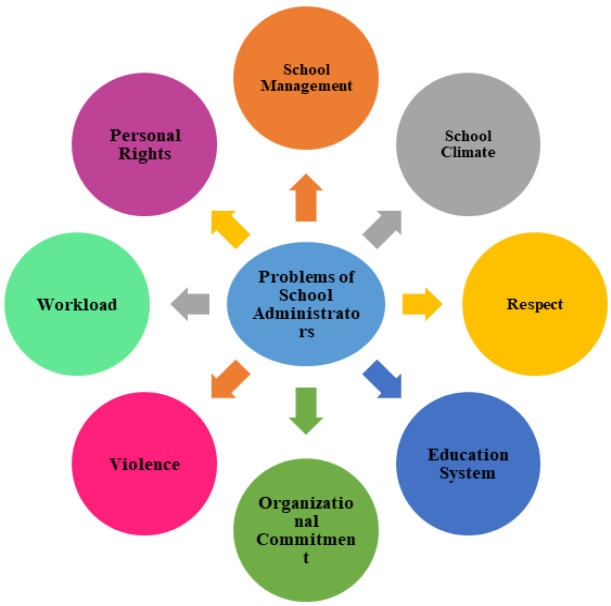


Fig. 1.2: Problems of School Administrators

(Source: Kivanc Bozkus, 2022)

As school administrators have more responsibilities, their **workload** is higher. They have to ensure the functioning of schools, create an appropriate school environment, ensure the safety of buildings, coordinate teachers, meet the school's needs within the specified budget and establish communication with all parties. Sometimes they are overburdened with their workload and cannot manage it. So, administrators try to finish the work by taking it to their homes. But, of course, they cannot devote enough time to family and social life due to this situation. Ultimately it leads to uncontrolled stress hampering their **work-life balance** and school administrative processes. Despite the heavy workload of school administrators, their right to privacy and **personal rights** are often violated. They have various personal problems such as career opportunities, housing, retirement age, maternity leave, etc. School administrators' salaries and personal rights lag far behind their professional counterparts, responsibilities, and duties. They do not earn much compared to teachers; again, they face injustice. **School Management** related issues like lack of resources and bureaucracy are some of the problems administrators face the most. In school management, student and technical issues are usually short-term, personnel and parent issues are medium-term, and organisational structure and policy-based issues are often long-term. Therefore, school stakeholders, infrastructure, physical conditions, educational policy, management, and financial issues become the most critical concerns of administrators. School administrators also face challenges related to **school climate, including** problems with teacher qualifications and rotation, the relationship between teachers, staff, and students, communication with parents, physical and financial opportunities, etc. **Respect** for school administrators and leadership skills in implementing their decisions is closely related. However, now a day, they are not getting proper respect for their work. They also have problems with many aspects of the **education system,** i.e., educational policies, laws, legal loopholes, various changes, and recruitment and transfer regulations. The organisational commitment of school administrators determines the excellent relationship between teachers and other employees within the organisation. Unfortunately, several studies reported that **organisational commitment-related problems** are prevailing. One of the problems facing school administrators today is **violence** in education. Poor communication is one of the causes of violence in this field. Many administrators may not always follow through or have the patience due to workload and other issues, causing them to use violence against others and themselves.

1.2.0 Employee Wellbeing (EW): A Vital Aspect of Education Administrators' Wholistic Development and Wellbeing

Wellbeing is having a positive outlook on life and feeling good (Diener et al., 1997). It is a multidimensional concept covering an individual's psychological, emotional, social, and physical aspects. It has several components like emotional wellbeing, social wellbeing, physical wellbeing, spiritual wellbeing, workplace wellbeing, employee wellbeing, hedonic wellbeing, eudaimonic wellbeing, psychological wellbeing, subjective wellbeing, and pedagogical wellbeing, etc. (Diener, 2009; Diener, 2000; Soini et al., 2010). Employee wellbeing is among the most significant aspects of the holistic development of any organisation and the wellbeing of its employees, administrators, and other stakeholders. It is one of the most popular research areas among organisational psychologists and administrators. It has a vital role in maximising the utilisation of employee potential (Pradhan et al., 2017). Occupational wellbeing is essential to human performance (De Neve et al., 2013). As an employee's personal and social life have a significant relationship with an employee's wellbeing, several studies have explored how employees maintain work-life and personal-life balance and how their wellbeing affects productivity (Kundi et al., 2020; Turban & Yan, 2016). Satisfaction in work and personal life affects employees' physical and mental health, comfort, and happiness (Danna & Griffin, 1999). EW can affect productivity at the organisational level, which can bring long-term profits to the organisation (Garawitch, Gottschalk, & Munz, 2006). It is an essential mediator between job satisfaction, burnout, work engagement, positive/negative affect, and job performance (Bakker, 2015).

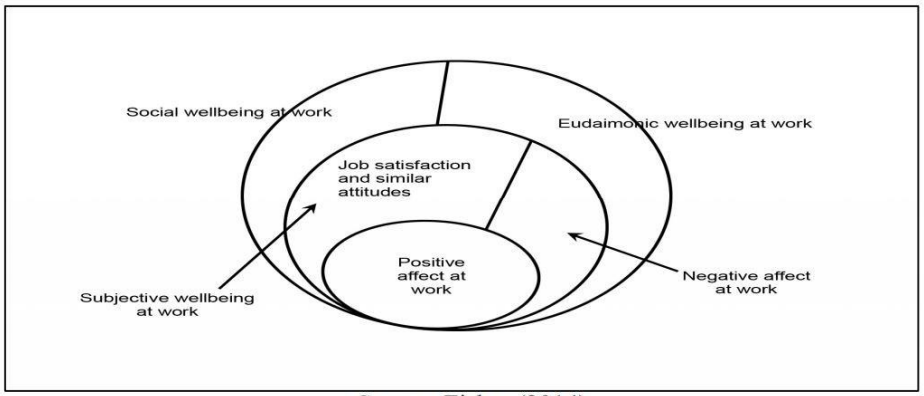
1.2.1 Meaning, Nature, Dimensions, and Theories of Employee Wellbeing

Employee wellbeing (EW) is a dynamic, subjective, and multidimensional concept (Juniper et al., 2011; Zheng et al., 2015; Grant et al., 2007; Page & Vella- Brodrick, 2009). It connotes employees' physical, psychological and emotional health, comfort, and happiness (Pradhan & Hati, 2019). EW covers work, non-work-associated psychological experiences, and health status (Zheng et al., 2015). It consists of meaningful work, effective response to the work environment, job uplifts and hassles ratio, work-life satisfaction, job-specific wellbeing, context-free wellbeing, and quality of

work (Sirgy, 2012). It also includes advancement, managerial and physical workplace considerations, and physical and psychological health (Junipe et al., 2011). In addition, job satisfaction, job involvement, affective organisational commitment, work engagement, positive and negative emotions and moods at work, intrinsic motivation, thriving, and vigour are included in EW (Fisher, 2010 & Simone, 2014). Analysis of the concept of EW will further clarify its nature, such as:

- EW is usually much more complex than physical health and the nature of work.
- EW is a significant predictor of employee retention and referrals.
- EW consists of several dimensions, including psychological and emotional support, a sense of purpose, personal support, financial health, and meaningful connections.
- Maintaining EW requires consistent evaluation with practices such as regular employee surveys.

Ryff and Keyes (1995) suggested that EW should be measured in terms of psychological wellbeing (PW), workplace wellbeing (WW), and subjective wellbeing (Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009). EW has two distinct components: context-free and domain-specific wellbeing (Warr, 1999). At the same time, Zheng et al. (2015) maintained that it has three major dimensions: life wellbeing, WW, and PW. Similarly, Fisher (2010) and Simone (2014) identified three components of overall wellbeing at work, i.e., subjective, social, and eudaimonic wellbeing. Different aspects like job satisfaction, motivation, moods at work, and negative and positive emotions might fit together to improve employee wellbeing. In this connection, Fisher (2014) presents a diagram (Fig. 1.3) of employee wellbeing to illustrate the concept and components of employee wellbeing precisely.



Source: Fisher (2014)

Fig. 1.3: Components of EW

In the diagram, the inner circle shows the pleasant or positive emotions of subjective wellbeing, and the second circle shows the adverse effect and job satisfaction of subjective wellbeing. Finally, the third circle shows the higher level of employee wellbeing components, eudaimonic and social wellbeing. However, based on the above discussion, we can discuss a few other elements or dimensions of EW with the following diagram (Fig. 1.4):

Fig. 1.4: Dimensions of Wellbeing

(Source: Alam, Adhikary and Mohakud, 2018)

1. ***Psychological Wellbeing (PW):*** Psychological wellbeing is a person's perception of life and experiences gained over a lifetime. These include self-acceptance, purpose in life, and environmental competence (Alam et al., 2018). In addition, it is positive human functioning that includes various resilience-related aspects such as purpose in life, maturity, and self-efficacy (Sagone and DeCaroli, 2014).
2. ***Social Wellbeing (SoW):*** Social wellbeing means social stability, positive relationships, and peace. It consists of social acceptance, implementation, integration, contribution, relationship satisfaction, and social support (Simone, 2014).

3. ***Workplace Wellbeing (WW):*** Workplace Wellbeing concerns all aspects of working life, i.e., employee assistance, employee growth, work facilities, work-life safety, environment, climate, etc. (Pradhan. et al., 2017).
4. ***Subjective Wellbeing (SuW)***: Subjective wellbeing is a person's subjective assessment of his current state based on his general life satisfaction, i.e., both positive and negative effects (Alam et al., 2018). This is how individuals perceive and evaluate their lives and activities (Stone & Mackie, 2013).
5. ***Eudaimonic Wellbeing***: Eudaimonic wellbeing includes job involvement, engagement, intrinsic motivation, and meaning of work (Simone, 2014).
6. ***Emotional Wellbeing:*** Emotional wellbeing is a characteristic of a person's mood and self-esteem, one of which is the affective evaluation of oneself (Schutte et al., 2002). It is a person's negative and positive emotions, including life satisfaction and happiness (Lopez et al., 2013).
7. ***Health Wellbeing:*** Health Wellness improves physical and mental health. Wellbeing and health are very closely related, and wellbeing has an essential protective role in maintaining health (Steptoe, 2015).

As a result of multiple studies, several theories of employee wellbeing have emerged, and among them, the most popular theory nowadays is Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) (Bakker & Demerouti, 2016). This theory explains how work conditions affect employees and how employee engagement affects work conditions. The theory is illustrated through the following diagram **(Fig. 1.5)**.

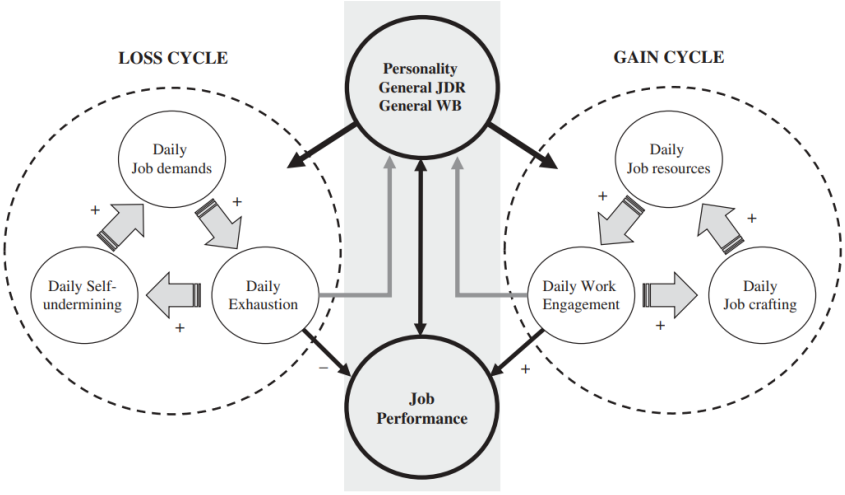


Fig. 1.5: A multilevel model of employee wellbeing based on Job Demands–Resources Theory

(Source: Bakker, 2015)

According to this theory, employee wellbeing is a function of a stable and flexible work environment. The work environment of all types of organisations can be of two categories, i.e., job demands and resources. These are responsible for motivational outcomes. Job demands can be challenging, whereas job resources are motivating. It helps to deal with adversity and achieve organisational goals (Bakker, 2015). However, employees' wellbeing triggers affect their job demands and resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2018).

1.2.2 Factors Affecting Employee Wellbeing

Many everyday factors influence EWB, for example, job satisfaction, job engagement, burnout, personality and positive/negative outcomes of job performance, etc. (Bakker, 2015). Let us discuss a few other significant factors affecting the wellbeing of employees in various organisations in general and educational administration sectors in particular. Simone (2014) claimed health hazards, safety hazards, and perils create dangerous ***work settings*** and impact EW negatively. An individual's ***personality traits*** can predict positive experiences in mental health (Authayarat & Umemuro, 2012) and employee wellbeing in a specific organisational setting. Generally, three personality traits affect employee wellbeing: neuroticism, extraversion, and conscientiousness. Broad personality factors influencing EW are typing A behaviour patterns (i.e., individuals who are hard-

driving, competitive, job-involved, and hostile) and locus of control (internal and external locus of control) (Danna & Griffin, 1999; Simone, 2014). The lack of balance between personal needs and the environment gives rise to ***occupational stress***, which directly affects EWB. Possible underlying causes of job and occupational stresses are long hours, work overload or underload, job shifting, and quality of work environment (Cooper & Marshall, 1978). ***Age*** is vital in employee wellbeing, long-term wellbeing, and stability (Mäkikangas et al., 2016). Older employees experience more wellbeing at work than younger employees (Warr, 1999) because older employees can cope better with different adverse situations through their experiences (Mauno et al., 2013). ***Physical fitness*** positively affects EWB. It helps maintain physical fitness and reduces job-related stress and anxiety (Frank & Jason, 2005). In addition, studies have shown that daily physical activity reduces stress and anxiety in workers of all ages (Pruyne, 2011; Paradise, 2016). ***Emotional Intelligence*** Being human requires emotions, which influence our actions, behaviours, and habits (Stanley & Burrows, 2005), which, in turn, affect our perceptions of psychological health (Slaski & Cartwright, 2003). A person's EI can also be explained based on one's adaptation to and response to stress, self-management, conflict, and leadership issues (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). An employee's ***support from friends and family*** provides an emotional support structure during challenging situations at work (Lynda et al., 2006). In addition, a strong family support structure helps employees enjoy a strain-oriented personal life from interfering with work life (Alam et al., 2018). ***Social Support*** plays a significant determinant of overall EWB (Ryff & Singer, 2000). In addition, positive social interactions facilitate the development of EWB and enhance their performance (Diener & Seligman, 2002). ***Work Environment*** impacts employees' wellbeing significantly (Arnold, 2015), employee growth, development, involvement, and recognition (Grawitch et al., 2006). Consideration for a healthy work environment, adequate salary, adequate staff, comprehensive training, proper distribution of workload, and work-life balance can improve and stabilise the work environment (Kossek et al., 2012), which can positively affect employees' wellbeing. ***Workplace flexibility*** helps employees maintain a work-life balance and ensure initiatives that help them focus on all their essential duties, both inside and outside work (Jamieson & O'Mara, 1991). ***Employee Retention*** and EW have a close relationship. EW plays a vital role as a predictor of an individual's current job rather than other job-related factors such as job satisfaction or commitment (Wright, 2006; Harter et al., 2002).

Some other factors affecting employee wellbeing are sex, race, residence, marital status, educational qualification, job status, work experience, work-home distance, special training, job promotion, job insecurity, stressful environment, health, demands, non-standard work schedule, etc. (Kossek et al., 2012).

1.3.0 Job Stress and School Education Administrators

The past few decades have seen a rise in the issue of stress in workplaces. In the modern world, stress has a global phenomenon and manifests itself in many ways in the workplace. Job stress is a growing issue in the management and administration of educational institutions (Daniel, 2019). While academic administrators go about their daily work, they come across opportunities or threats they judge to be so severe that they worry they might be unable to handle them or respond to them appropriately. Their ability to deal with all the difficulties associated with their employment may be threatened by feelings of physical, psychological, mental, emotional, and even spiritual anxiety (Peretomode, 2012). When academic heads carry out administrative duties, they are forced to fulfill several demanding jobs, including processing various requests from instructors and students and adhering to the law and the administration's rules. The adverse effects of inappropriate management settings increase workplace stress among administrative staff (Lee & Chen, 2006 in Chang & Tseng, 2009). Work stress and performance have a very complex relationship. Work stress is beneficial up to a certain point (Daniel, 2019). When work stress exceeds an acceptable level, it harms employees' performance. Thus, the organisation must make strategic decisions (Daniel, 2019).

According to Dollard (2003), competing demands from the employer, supervisors, co-workers, students, and parents are a vital source of stress for school administrators. Another set of pressures has to do with the workload, which has too many expectations and insufficient time to satisfy them fully. It is important to note that school administrators are entirely responsible for the school's success (Ngari et al., 2013). To conduct proper management, the administrative members feel stressed from much work. They have to face many problems and challenges in managing educational institutes. The school administrators have to solve all the problems of the school and teachers and notice whether all government projects are implemented correctly or not. So, they have a lot of job stress. Therefore, we have to be aware of this part of the education system so that

they may get some liberty in their personal life from their job. Thus ultimately, the job will be pleasing and perfect.

1.3.1 Meaning, Nature, Dimensions, and Theories of Job Stress

Stress is a social phenomenon in contemporary society and organisations (Jazani et al., 2010 in Kavosi et al., 2018). The term stress is used in physics, medicine, psychology, and management, but today it is also used in education administration. When a person is faced with a chance, demand, or resource relevant to what they want and for which the outcome is thought to be both hazy and essential, they are said to be in a robust state of stress (Ahmed & Ramzan, 2013). Stress is a person's response to an external stimulus that impacts their performance (Selye, 1975). According to the Health Safety Executive (HSE), UK, stress is an unfavourable reaction people have to extreme expectations or obligations placed on them. The degree to which employees experience tension or anxiety from their occupations is called job stress. Job stress is also the adverse physiological and psychological reaction that occurs when a worker's abilities, resources, or needs are not met by the job demands (Bemana et al., 2013). Job stress is the unfavourable psychological and physiological responses that administrators experience due to being unable to handle the expectations placed upon them (Moorhead et al., 1998; Daniel, 2019).

In establishing how stressful work can be, and its impact on employees' physical and mental health, a vast and multidisciplinary body of literature highlights several essential elements, including the work environment, managerial support, workload, etc. (Ganster & Loghan, 2005). Job stress occurs when stressors like work demands, limits, events, or conditions cause stressors. This strain can result in ill health or even harm (Beehr & Glazer 2001 in Desa et al. 2014). According to Scott (2006), workplace stresses include unclear expectations, role overload, high-stress periods without downtime, significant repercussions for little mistakes, personal control, a lack of acknowledgement, and bad leadership. Thus, detrimental physical and emotional reactions result when the job demands do not align with the employee's skills, resources, or needs (Desa. et al., 2014). One of the elements of job stress is work role stress. The range of work role stress includes role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload (Parasuraman et al., 1992; & Teas, 1983). Goolsby (1992) broadens the definition of role stresses by incorporating role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload, customer needs, and ethical demands.

Robbins and Judge (2012) described three dimensions of job stress, which are discussed below with a diagram.

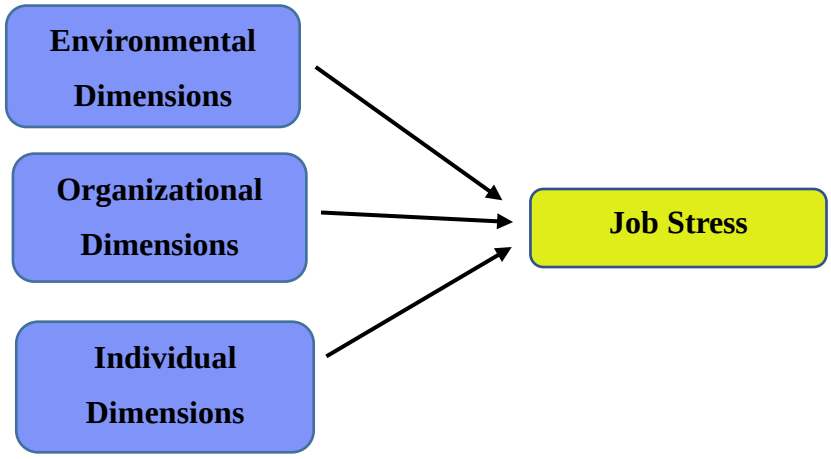


Fig. 1.6: Dimensions of Job Stress

Environmental dimensions can create stress for most employees. These include political uncertainty, economic uncertainty, and technological uncertainty. The second is the organisational dimension, which includes job demands, and role-related stressors of employees, that is, what role one plays in the organisation. Finally, the third dimension is individual factors, i.e., employees' life stress, family problems, personal financial problems, and inherent personality traits.

Theories of stress strongly emphasise how individuals interact with their working environment structurally. Among the many ideas put out, the Person-Environment Fit theory of French et al. and the Demand-Control theory of Karasek stand out as fundamental. Individual or situational variations rarely explain behaviour better than the degree to which individuals and their (work) environment are well matched. According to ***Person-environment fit theory***, stress happens, and wellbeing is harmed due to a lack of fit in either or both aspects. This theory draws two separate lines between personal variables (V) and environmental variables (E), as well as between objective reality and subjective impressions (P). Lack of fit may happen in four distinct ways given this straightforward 2 x 2 arrangement of P x E interaction, and each seems to threaten the worker's health (French et al., 1982 in Jovanovic et al., 2006). ***Work demand-control theory*** stresses the interplay between an individual's control and job demands. A person's expectations to execute a job are called psychological demands (Karasek, 1979). The degree to which a person can influence the workload or has the skill set to make it easier

to complete a task, on the other hand, is known as control or decision latitude. According to this model, having a job with many expectations but little control would make you stressed out at work, negatively affecting your health. In addition, the model may be divided into four strain levels: high-strain occupations, active jobs, low-strain jobs, and inactive jobs (Karasek & Theorell, 1990). One of the models most frequently used to comprehend the effects of occupational stress on health is the work demand-control model (Batista-Taran, & Reio, 2011).

1.3.2 Factors of Job Stress

Job stress is unhealthy for organisations and their constituents (Kahn et al., 1964). Therefore, precisely describing factors affecting work conditions and stress is crucial. Numerous essential aspects, including the work environment, management's support, workload, and others, are mentioned in a vast and multidisciplinary body of literature highlighting how stressful the workplace can be and how it affects workers' physical and mental health (Ganster & Loghan, 2005). Workplace discrimination, a lack of job stability, an excessive emphasis on doing things right, an excessive workload, and a lack of feedback are all problems. Long hours, a lack of organisational support, organisational change, and organisational elements (Davey et al., 2001), issues and problems with the economy, frequent displacement, and false expectations are all sources of stress for any organization (Singh et al., 2019). Job stress also occurs when there is a conflict with demands and pressures and a lack of support from superiors and co-workers (Leka et al., 2004). Several researchers identified eleven factors of job stress, i.e., overload, role vagueness, role conflict, responsibility for people, participation, lack of feedback, keeping up with quick technological change, being in an innovative role, career growth, organisational structure and environment, and recent episodic events (Ahmed & Ramzan, 2013). Work-family problems, work overload (Stamper & Johlke, 2003 in Ahmed & Ramzan, 2013), and the organisation's management position (Alexandros-Stamatios et al., 2003) also significantly contribute to stress. Lasky (1995) claimed that family and financial obligations could cause workplace stress.

Furthermore, role ambiguity can harm confidence, despondency, anxiety, and depression (Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Muchinsky, 1997), and role conflict is also a significant source of workplace stress (Butler & Constantine, 2005). Conflicts between work and family are another precursor that leads to stress among employees and affects job

satisfaction more in workers who place a high value on their family responsibilities (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000). Other sorts of job stress are psychological stress, stress brought on by their religion, social stress at work, etc. Workplace stress-producing factors include cultural difficulties, management or leadership practices, excessive work hours, workplace harassment, and interpersonal conflicts with co-workers or superiors (Kim, 2021). Lack of job skills, discrimination, strict monitoring with limited space for expression, issues with other employees regarding roles, and inadequate equipment are other workplace stressors. The demand for the workforce to perform at their highest level and improve competitiveness is rising due to changing global environment. As a result, workers must execute various duties to perform their jobs more effectively (Iqbal et al., 2012 in Kitole et al., 2019). One of the significant aspects affecting job stress at work has been identified as the eventual outcomes of this strain (Folkmann, 2012 in Kitole et al., 2019). Managers and organisational leaders face stressful working conditions as a result of complex work environments due to globalisation, rapid technological advancements, diminishing resources, increasing costs, new employment trends, such as longer working hours, increasing demands and pressures from management, as well as the lack of job security (Lovelace et al., 2007 in Kavosi et al., 2018). A mismatch between individual skills and organisational demands also results in work-related stress (Vijayan, 2017).

1.4.0 Self-efficacy: A Significant Ingredient of Wellbeing

According to Bandura, "self-efficacy" is the belief that people will use their skills effectively in specific situations. It helps an individual to understand how much effort will be expended, what activities to choose, and how long the effort will continue in the face of obstacles. It improves people's ability to perform tasks and achieve success. If one does not have self-confidence or self-belief, s/he cannot act according to her/his true abilities. So, self-efficacy helps a person evaluate his or her ability to accomplish a task, overcome obstacles and reach goals (Bandura, 1977).

Self-efficacy is the foundation of human agency (Bandura, 1977). It helps people understand themselves better, i.e., their strengths and weaknesses, thoughts, emotions, reactions to particular situations, personality, etc. Hence, one can set realistic goals by realising own limitations and achieving the goals and success quickly and, consequently, a valuable and enjoyable life. Self-efficacy also helps a person develop relationships and

interactions with others. It minimises weaknesses and failures while maximising our strengths (Chang et al., 2016).

Self-efficacy is one of the strongest motivators for correct behaviour in difficult situations, initial decision to perform tasks, and maximum effort and persistence to complete the task (Gardner & Pierce, 1998) and acts as an intrinsic motivation to endure challenges (Phillips & Lindsay, 2006). Therefore, it is considered an important central mechanism of human motivation (Landino & Owen, 1988) and leads to a better outcome in individual performance (Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Wood & Bandura, 1989). People with high self-efficacy have base confidence in their work, so they will be more likely to achieve extraordinary success in their posts (Sailo et al., 2019). In terms of emotions/feelings, low feelings of self-efficacy are associated with anxiety, depression, and helplessness. Individuals with low self-efficacy also have low self-esteem and pessimistic attitudes about personal development and accomplishments. In thinking, self-related cognitions are a vital component of the motivation process, so self-efficacy impacts action readiness. People with high self-efficacy are motivated to perform challenging tasks; they set high goals and stick to achieving them (Bal, 2008).

A person with solid self-efficacy always views challenging problems as tasks they have to achieve, developing the curiosity to go deep into the problem to find the solution. They think innovatively and get the motivation to discover the new dimensions of the problems so they can quickly recover from setbacks (Bandura, 1977). Hence, with adequate self-efficacy skills, educational administrators can effectively deal with all problems using their best administrative abilities. School education administrators are no exception to it. With high self-efficacy, they can successfully manage their administrative tasks and bring success to the organisation. It can contribute significantly to their leadership, success, and effectiveness. This is the education administrators' belief in their abilities and involves values, beliefs, and motivations in everyday practice. It helps to adapt and change in an environment of accountability and high-stakes testing (Eberhard, 2013). Administrators with high levels of self-efficacy believe in their ability to inspire positive change and motivate others to assume greater responsibility in a school's decision-making processes (Schunk, 2012). The determination to reach the school's mission reflects the level of efficacy practiced by the administration (Eberhard, 2013). Administrators who lack self-efficacy may rely more on transactional leadership style practices. This leads to lower motivation and achievement for the entire school

community (Avolio & Bass, 2003). Self-efficacy must be promoted amongst school administrators to increase their motivation, school performance, and persistence toward specific goals set by the school leadership (Eberhard, 2013).

1.4.1 Meaning, Nature, Dimensions, and Theories of Self-Efficacy

The concept of self-efficacy is derived from Bandura's (1986) 'Social Cognitive Theory,' which emphasises the human capacity to be self-regulated and aggressive. However, self-efficacy is not just a general belief in one's abilities; it is much broader. It has three essential areas: motivation, sources, and assessment of ability in action (Bandura 1982, 1986). First, it is a person's belief in their ability to perform the tasks necessary to achieve goals (Bandura, 1986). Second, one of the goals of self-efficacy is to improve personal abilities to cope effectively with various types of adverse or stressful situations (Jerusalem & Schwarzer, 1992). Third, it creates the motivation, cognitive resources, and belief in one's abilities to exercise control over life events (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Falki (2019) describes some significant aspects of self-efficacy from which we can understand the nature of self-efficacy:

- Self-efficacy influences a person's life choices and actions and helps them avoid tasks they are not confident about.
- It dramatically impacts a person's motivation because when it comes to performing a particular task, people with high self-efficacy try harder than those with low self-efficacy to succeed.
- It changes a person's perception of a task such that a person with high self-efficacy perceives it as easy and doable. In contrast, a person with low self-efficacy perceives the same task as complex and avoids it.
- Self-efficacy helps people realise that they control their actions and lives, whereas most are out of control.
- It helps people deal with negative or stressful situations with confidence instead of anxiety and fear.

Analysing self-efficacy reveals some basic dimensions. For example, Asarzadeh (1390) describes four dimensions of self-efficacy, namely: Social self-efficacy, Educational self-efficacy, Emotional self-efficacy, and Physical self-efficacy.

1. **Social self-efficacy:** Social self-efficacy is a personal understanding of social norms and the ability to make communication worthwhile (Ebrahimi & Jahanian, 2014).
2. **Educational self-efficacy:** Academic self-efficacy is an individual's perception of his or her abilities to learn, solve academic problems, and achieve academic success (Ebrahimi & Jahanian, 2014)
3. **Emotional self-efficacy:** Emotional self-efficacy is a person's perception of proper control and management of negative thoughts and emotions (Ebrahimi & Jahanian, 2014)
4. **Physical self-efficacy:** Physical self-efficacy is a person's awareness of his or her physical abilities and positive influence on other people (Richardson, 1999).

The originator of self-efficacy theory is Bandura (1997), who defined self-efficacy as a belief in one's ability to perform tasks necessary to achieve one's goals. It is primarily concerned with individual cognitive factors in the triadic reciprocity model of social cognitive theory. An important point of which is the effects of cognition on behaviour and the effects of environmental events. According to this theory, behavioural and psychological change processes deal with changes in an individual's sense of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is defined primarily as expectancy, i.e., the ability to perform a set of behaviours necessary to obtain a specific behaviour or outcome related to a person's beliefs (Bandura, 1986). Its basic premise is that personal mastery expectations (efficacy expectations or self-efficacy) and success (outcome expectations) determine whether a person will engage in a particular behaviour. Efficacy expectations and outcome expectations are related to a person's characteristics, behaviour, and consequences of behaviour. Outcome expectancy is an individual's belief about the outcome of a given behaviour, which may take the form of physical and social effects. Again, efficacy expectations or self-efficacy concern confidence in one's ability to produce behaviour. Generally, people are motivated to perform behaviours that they believe will lead to desired outcomes. However, outcome expectations are causally dependent on efficacy expectations, and therefore self-efficacy predicts performance much better than outcome expectations (Bandura, 1986). Shortridge-Baggett and Van der Bijl (1996) published a model of Bandura's self-efficacy theory, which is described below:

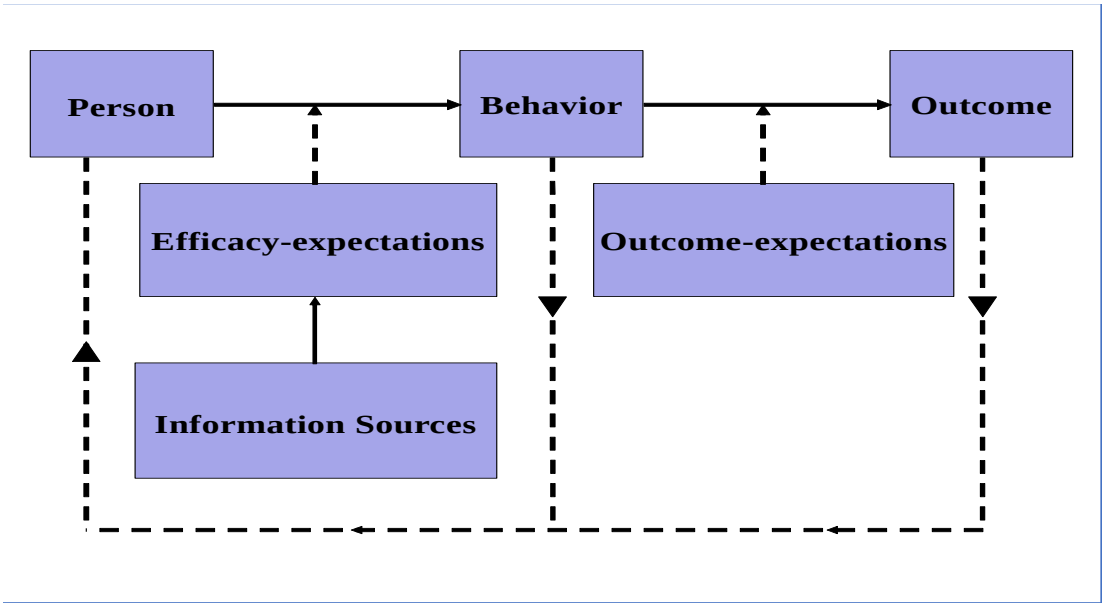


Fig. 1.7: Self-efficacy Model

(***Source:*** *Shortridge-Baggett & Van der Bijl, 1996*)

Efficacy beliefs differ in magnitude, strength, and generality (Asarzadeh, 1390). A) ***Level/Magnitude:*** Efficacy beliefs can be simple, moderate, or average activities. Consequently, the choice of activity should be based on the individual's performance rate and strength. Wrong choices lead to a poor sense of self-efficacy. B) ***Strength:*** Higher self-efficacy leads to higher stability in the individual. People with high self-efficacy protect themselves from problems with competence. C) ***Generality:*** People may consider themselves partially self-efficacious to some extent/dimensions. Some information sources affect efficacy expectations. Which in turn affects the individual's behaviour. Finally, even if the individual has some expected outcome demand, the outcome is obtained according to his/her actual behaviour or action.

1.4.2 Factors affecting Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy develops in individuals from early childhood and continues throughout life as individuals acquire new understandings, experiences, and skills daily throughout life (Bandura, 1992). Wood and Bandura (1989) describe four detailed factors which influence an individual's self-efficacy, as discussed below:

Mastery Experience is described as the individual's experience of success or failure. This means that a person who successfully performs a task strengthens that person's

sense of self-efficacy, while when a person fails to perform a task, that person's sense of self-efficacy is relatively weak (Falki, 2019). Therefore, it is the most effective approach to developing an individual's strong sense of self-efficacy (Bandura,1994).

Vicarious Experiences: Vicarious experience means that when a person sees another person accomplishing a task, that person's self-efficacy is strengthened because that person realises that if others can do it, he can too (Falki, 2019). According to Bandura (1994), a person's confidence and self-efficacy develop as a result of seeing others succeed through continuous effort. As a result, they realise they can also master similar activities to succeed in any task.

Social or Verbal Persuasion: It involves words of encouragement or discouragement from others in the successful performance of a task (Falki, 2019). According to Bandura (1977), people can be made to believe that they have special abilities and skills to succeed by receiving verbal encouragement from others, which significantly changes their self-esteem and confidence levels. As a result, it helps a person overcome self-doubt and focus on work.

Physiological and Emotional Responses: The person's mood, physical and mental reactions, and stress levels relate to a person's abilities and capabilities in a given situation (Falki, 2019). It represents a person's emotional and physical response to a particular situation (Bandura (1982, 1986), indicating a sense of quietness and fearfulness in stressful situations and appropriates coping mechanisms, which the individual applies as needed in the particular situation.

Like Bandura's four factors, Kumar and Priyadarshini (2018) indicate that life satisfaction and self-esteem are significant self-efficacy factors. Culture also plays an influential factor in self-efficacy because culture influences self-efficacy through beliefs, values, and self-regulatory processes. Feist (2006) considered the characteristic of the task, external incentives, and information about self-ability as essential factors of self-efficacy. Interestingly, Greenberg and Baron (2007) noted that direct experiences and indirect experiences are vital factors of self-efficacy. Along with these factors, several other factors influence individuals' self-efficacy, especially that of school education administrators. These factors are their perception concerning school as a learning organization (Hesbol, K. A., 2019), age and seniority (Santamaria, 2008), years of experience, leadership styles, etc. (Cobanoglu & Yurek, 2018).

1.5.0 Relationship among Employee wellbeing, Job Stress, and Self-efficacy of School Education Administrators

Job stress significantly threatens organisational and individual health worldwide (International Labour Organisation, 1986). It has a profound impact on employees' performance, productivity, and health drastically (Mimura & Griffiths, 2003 in Rana & Munir, 2011), like alcoholism, drug misuse, hypertension, and a variety of cardiovascular issues (Menezem 2005). It is directly correlated with lower job satisfaction and vice versa (Rizwan et al., (2014). It also causes abrupt behavioural changes and affects the employee's wellbeing (Kim, 2021). Organisations place a high value on managing employees' wellbeing to maintain a healthy work-life balance and ensure peak performance and productivity (Khan & Khurshid, 2017). Employees' attitudes, work behaviours, and physical and mental health are all negatively impacted by job stress (Jex & Yankelevich, 2008; Boyd et al., 2009 Kavosi et al., 2018).

People with high self-efficacy like to explore new environments, discover new opportunities, set challenging goals, and strive relentlessly to accomplish them. Even when they face obstacles, they quickly overcome them and remain committed to achieving goals (Lane et al., 2004; Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008). As a result, they are likelier to succeed in any challenging task (Luthans et al., 2007). Self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and job stress are closely related. While low self-efficacy is strongly related to job stress, high self-efficacy is positively related to job satisfaction (Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010). Employees' self-efficacy has a significant relationship with their organisational commitment (Chuang et al., 2013), engagement (Pati and Kumar, 2010), wellbeing (Chaudhary et al., 2013; Llorens et al., 2007), and psychological wellbeing (Hechavarria et al., 2012). Besides, self-efficacy mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational employee wellbeing (Nielsen et al., 2009) and positively correlates with these (Ahmed, 2019).

Employee wellbeing is the overall quality of an employee's experience and functioning, both physical and mental (Warr, 1994), which plays a significant role in the success and failure of any organisation. However, employee wellbeing is affected by personality traits, work setting, and occupational stress. Also, personal demands, occupational stress, and problems arising from adjustment to the work environment directly impact employee

wellbeing (Cooper & Marshall,1978). In today's workplace, longer working hours, increasing responsibilities, harder pressure to meet expectations, and increasing organisational problems often adversely affect and stress employee performance (Daniel, 2019). Besides, job stress not only affects the wellbeing of employees, but it is also directly related to the efficacy of educational administrators (Kokkinos, 2007). As self-efficacy is linked to an employee's life satisfaction and psychological wellbeing (Bandura, 2006), it uniquely reduces negative affect and psychological distress (Sumer et al., 2005). Although self-efficacy does not necessarily change educational administrators' ability, it influences their sense of mastery and control over different environments. It affects their ability to expend maximum effort and persevere in facing challenges and their anxiety or confidence levels (Bandura, 1997).

Thus, self-efficacious administrators can enhance psychological wellbeing even in challenging work situations (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995). Employees with high self-efficacy are more likely to practice healthy behaviours, leading to greater overall wellbeing (Ashford, Edmunds, & French, 2010) and meet the organisation's high demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2016). According to Schunk (1989), self-efficacy beliefs profoundly affect the adaptation and coordination of educational administrators as they face different challenges in different situations. Besides, self-efficacy is vital in comprehending employees' motivation and performance levels in organisations. Furthermore, self-efficacy is directly related to employee wellbeing, and employees' self-efficacy beliefs mediate the relationship between job stress and wellbeing (Hechavarria et al., 2012). Thus, just as there is a potential causal effect of job stress on the wellbeing of educational administrators, there is also a potential mediating effect of self-efficacy. If leaders practice positive self-efficacy, they can quickly create an impact on employee wellbeing and performance, as well as be able to increase their effectiveness in organisations (Swanepoel et al., 2015). Therefore, school administrators can practice self-efficacy to effectively implement educational policies and perform administrative duties, which helps to maintain wellbeing positively.

CHAPTER-II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

CHAPTER-II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1.0 Introduction

A literature review is a kind of academic writing that summarises the body of knowledge on a particular topic of study. A good literature review summarises, analyses, evaluates, and synthesises relevant literature within a particular field of study (Fannon, 2021). It illustrates the knowledge that has evolved in the field and highlights existing or previous studies, exception studies, new emerging fields, and the current state of thinking on specific topics. It helps the researcher to identify knowledge gaps, formulate research questions, and select research objectives for the currently defined research area.

This chapter provides the theoretical background as a foundation and new knowledge that requires the researcher to determine what has been established in previous studies and how the studies were carried out. It includes understanding the current study's theoretical orientation, methodologies, and significance to develop credible and reliable research findings (Fannon, 2021). A comprehensive literature review includes theoretical and conceptual knowledge of job stress, employee wellbeing, self-efficacy, and interrelationship. This study concerns self-efficacy as a mediator between job stress and employee wellbeing among school education administrators. Finally, it focused on a wide range of literature searches to develop a critical and comprehensive reason and background knowledge in developing the research problems and involvement of knowledge through a systematic study.

2.2.0 Objectives of the Literature Review

The objectives of the present literature are-

1. To determine the knowledge gaps and gather enough background information for this study.
2. To formulate the research questions, stating the research problem, objectives, and hypotheses, as well as to direct the research methodology.
3. To assist the researcher in carrying out the research process and determining the key factors or variables for this study.
4. To assist the researcher in comprehending the importance, applicability, connection of the findings with other studies, and pedagogical implications of the study.

2.3.0 Methodology of the Literature Review

The researcher followed a semi-systematic narrative and integrative literature review approach in this study. The researcher started the literature search using popular and authentic databases such as Google Scholar, ProQuest, Science Direct, Scopus, and Shoodganga. In searching this literature, the researcher used keywords such as 'job stress,' 'wellbeing of administrators,' 'self-efficacy,' 'mediating role of self-efficacy,' 'effect of work stress on the wellbeing of school education administrators,' etc. However, recently published literature has been determined in this regard.

After searching the five databases (Google Scholar, ProQuest, Science Direct, Scopus, and Shoodganga), the researcher downloaded 150 research articles and theses. After the initial screening of the titles and abstracts of these 150 research articles and theses, 70 studies were selected for this chapter, which is most related and relevant to the current research topic. Again, out of these 70 identified research articles, three articles had titles and abstracts written in English, but the entire paper was not written in English. Therefore, three articles were subsequently excluded. Finally, the researcher selected 67 articles for this chapter. For clear understanding, the distribution is presented in the table below, and the 67 identified studies are briefly reviewed:

Table No. 2.1: Sources of Included Literature

Database	Pages search	Paper and theses downloaded	Final included
Google Scholar	10	90	39
ProQuest	5	20	17
Science Direct	5	20	9
Scopus	5	15	5
Shoodganga	5	5	0
Total	30	150	70
Finally Selected			**67**

2.4.0 Review of Related Literature

2.4.1 Studies on Wellbeing

Kamboj and Garg (2021) carried out a cross-sectional study on 200 school teachers in the state of Haryana, India, to investigate the teachers' psychological wellbeing and the contribution of emotional intelligence and resilient character qualities to wellbeing. Ryff's psychological wellbeing Scale (1989) was used for data gathering. Mean, Standard Deviations, and Pearson's correlation was applied for data analysis through SPSS and AMOS. The findings showed that resilient characteristics and self-reliance emerge as a considerable facilitator and interpreter of psychological wellbeing, among other components, mediating the association between emotional intelligence and teachers' wellbeing in an unreliable but significant manner. Further, the result found that emotional intelligence's direct effect on psychological wellbeing also emerged as statistically significant.

Maurya and Agarwal (2015) reviewed the literature to know the women employees' wellbeing and its relationship with organisational productivity. A computerised literature search of accessible and available material using the keywords employees' wellbeing, female workers' wellbeing, gender role in employee wellbeing, stress reduction techniques, and organisational and extra organisational factors. The result of empirical research on organisational and extra organisational factors affecting stress and employees' wellbeing

for males and females is presented as support. Results also indicated that women experienced higher levels of job stress and lower levels of psychological wellbeing.

Zhao & Wang (2022) conducted a study on 204 university teachers to know the young university teachers' work wellbeing, based on the mediating effect of psychological empowerment. This study establishes a three-level linkage mechanism of work wellbeing promotion strategy from the perspective of psychological empowerment, which needs the joint participation of young teachers, universities, and society. For data collection, researchers used Self-Efficacy Scale (S. Sud, Schwarzer and Jerusalem, 1995) and Psychological Well-being (Carol Ryff, 1989). Collected data analysis through t-test, ANOVA, Co-relation, and multiple regression analysis. The study found that the process of social support and school management activities affect young university teachers' work wellbeing, personality trait plays a moderating effect, and psychological empowerment plays a mediating effect.

Ertürk (2021) conducted a co-relational survey on 400 primary school teachers in the city Centre of Bolu to determine the relationships between school administrators' supportive behaviours and teachers' job satisfaction and subjective wellbeing. The results revealed positive and highly significant relationships between informational support and teachers' job satisfaction and subjective wellbeing. Results also revealed that supportive behaviours of school administrators significantly impact teachers' job satisfaction and subjective wellbeing. Further, school administrators' support predicted teachers' job satisfaction and subjective wellbeing.

Nyarko (2021) conducted a survey on 258 faculty members at the University of Saskatchewan to explore the mutual relationship between administrator faculty and non-administrator faculty colleagues concerning each other's wellbeing. Close-ended questionnaires were used for data collection. The collected data were analysed using inferential statistics techniques like- Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test, Mann-Whitney U Test, and Ordinal Logistic Regression estimations. Results revealed that improved faculty wellbeing is likely to occur if faculty members consider adopting a reciprocal wellbeing improvement strategy.

Porter (2021) conducted a cross-sectional survey on 150 secondary school administrators i.c., Principal, Assistant Principals, and Dean of Instruction in Dubai to assess the impact

of leadership responsibilities and accountability on the general wellbeing. Results showed that Secondary school administrators are prone to experience stressors that stem from role conflict, accountability standards, student and parental relationships, staff development, and managerial issues. The results also revealed that there were no significant differences in coping strategies used by male and female participants.

Abun et al. (2020) conducted survey research among all teaching and non-teaching employees of Divine Word Colleges in the Ilocos region of the Philippines to ascertain the relationship between workplace health and work engagement. Data were gathered using the Satisfaction and Frustration Scale (Chen et al. 2015), and Pearson correlation was used for data analysis. The findings of the study found that there is a link between workplace health and the work engagement of employees.

Akanni et al. (2020) randomly selected 257 university employees in Southern Western Nigeria to assess the impact of perceived person-job fit on the link between emotional intelligence and worker wellbeing. Employee Wellbeing scale was used for data collection. Descriptive Statistics and correlation were applied for data analysis. The results revealed that partially mediate perceived person-fit links between emotional intelligence and employee wellbeing. The findings also demonstrated the need for researchers and university administrators to comprehend the dynamic interactions between the study's components, notably the indirect role that person-job fit plays in the connection between emotional intelligence and worker wellbeing.

Collie et al. (2020) conducted a survey on 5,951 school principals in 22 countries to examine the extent to which workplace factors are implicated in school principals' wellbeing. The teaching and Learning International Survey questionnaire (2013) was used for data collection. Path analysis showed that one interaction effect was significant and participatory climate was essential for occupational commitment under conditions of high staff shortages.

Ahmed and Malik (2019) carried out a cross-sectional study on 261 secondary school teachers from government high schools of Quetta through convenience sampling to investigate the impact of psychological empowerment and wellbeing on teachers' performance. A psychological wellbeing scale was applied to gather the data. In addition, the Coefficient of Correlation, Multiple Regression, and Mediation analysis were carried

out using SPSS software-23. The findings showed that a high level of psychological wellbeing and empowerment brought high performance to the teacher and partially mediated the relationship between psychological empowerment and performance.

Krekel et al. (2019) reviewed 339 independent research studies to understand that higher employee wellbeing leads to higher productivity and, ultimately, tangible benefits to the business bottom line. The findings showed that substantial negative association between staff turnover and employee turnover and a considerable positive correlation between employee productivity and customer loyalty.

Bakker et al. (2019) surveyed 87 Norwegian naval cadets from a Military University College to explore neuroticism, extraversion, and their blend would bolster. Descriptive statistics, ANOVA, Pearson's correlation, and Multiple Regression, were used for data analysis. The findings showed that after adjusting for the baseline levels of the dependent variables, daily usage of strengths was positively correlated with daily positive affect and job engagement.

Mahfouz (2018) interviewed 13 school administrators to explore the influence of cultivating awareness and resilience in education on wellbeing in Moscow, USA. School administrators reported that positive outcomes emerged from improved leadership skills, such as increased better relationships, self-reflection, and attendance to self-care. In addition, these skills are tied to an increased understanding better their leadership roles in shaping their school climates.

Garza and Gerardo (2016) carried a mixed methods approach on 13 employees (teachers) in the north of México to determine the relationship between person-centred work systems and employees' performance and wellbeing and focus on the mediating role of person-centred work systems. Pearson co-relation showed positive co-relation among person-centred work systems and employees' performance and wellbeing. Furthermore, structural equation modelling demonstrated the person-centred work systems and the fully functioning person for work-related wellbeing, as well as other important outcomes for the person at work.

Chessman (2015) conducted a survey on 2414 student affairs professionals to understand the role of wellbeing in the work-life. Both the Work-Related Quality of Life (QoL) survey and the Brief Inventory of Thriving (BIT) were applied to collect data. ANOVAs results

revealed significant differences in wellbeing for entry, midlevel, senior, and chief student affairs officers (CSAOs); there was a four-point difference in wellbeing between entry-level and CSAOs. A hierarchical linear regression found that several factors displayed a robust relationship to the wellbeing of student affairs professionals. The study also found that self-perceived levels of health had a mediating effect on stress levels. Additionally, it found that work-life balance was not significantly correlated with wellbeing.

Sabri and Falahati (2003) conducted survey research among 2,246 employees in the public and private sectors in Malaysia to explore the determinant factors of employees' financial wellbeing. The data were composed by using a self-administered questionnaire, and collected data were analysed by using path analysis through SPSS. The findings revealed that financial wellbeing determinants were financial literacy, financial behaviour, financial capability, and financial problem. The study also revealed that financial stress partially mediates the effect of factors on predicting financial wellbeing.

2.4.2 Studies on Job Stress

Chhabra (2020) conducted survey research on 347 professionals from 5 sectors to explore the effect of work role stressors and core self-evaluation (CSE) on important employee outcomes of job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), and turnover intentions. The results revealed that work role stress was negatively related to job satisfaction and OCB but positively related to turnover intentions. Further, CSE was found that positively related to job satisfaction and OCB but negatively related to turnover intentions. The result also reported the stress-buffering stress effect of CSE in predicting job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

Narban et al. (2016) reviewed some studies to explore occupational stress (Job stress/Work stress) to bring out its causative factors and impacts. Occupational stress has been viewed as a substantial work hazard. Therefore, the researcher collected secondary data through books, journals, articles, published research papers, and dissertations. The findings found that workplace stress was a pattern of emotional, cognitive, behavioural, and physiological responses to unfavourable and toxic work contexts, structure, and environmental features.

Tyagi & Kirmani (2012) conducted a survey study among 100 educational administrators to explore the influence of the type of school, gender, age, qualification, and experience of stress. The Organisational Role Stress scale developed by Pareek (1993) was used for collecting data. Collected data were evaluated through means, standard deviations, and t-tests. The findings showed that private school Principals/Directors had high job stress compared to public sector Principals/Directors, and female Principals/Directors showed significantly greater job stress than their male counterparts. Also, the result revealed that younger principals/directors had a significantly higher level of job stress than aged administrators. In addition, the less qualified Principals/Directors were found to experience a high-stress level compared to highly qualified administrators. Further, the result showed that the more experienced Principals/Directors had less job Stress than their less experienced counterparts.

Sen (2008) collected data from 31 teachers and 34 managers for surveying to explore the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction among managers and teachers. The researcher applied a self-made questionnaire to collect data. The results revealed no significant differences between teachers and managers in Job Stress and Job Satisfaction. However, results also revealed that teachers experience low job Satisfaction and face Job Stress, while in the case of managers, the two do not seem to associate.

Tokgöz and Önen (2021) randomly selected 622 (272 male and 350 female), primary school teachers and principals to measure the relationship between levels of work stress and democratic perceptions. The researcher collected the data using the job stress scale developed by House and Rizzo (1972) and the organisational democracy perceptions scale by Geçkil and Tikici (2015). The findings showed that the stress levels of teachers and administrators were negatively influenced by perceptions of fairness and equality in a substantial way. Also, the result revealed that male participants perceived their jobs as more stressful than female participants. Further, results showed that administrators' and teachers' job stress levels were not substantially predicted by the organisational democracy feature of involvement and transparency.

Bosco (2021) purposively selected five (5) retired school administrators for the interview of the school and district administrators' stressful jobs to understand better what affects their personal and professional lives. The qualitative data was analysed through qualitative inquiry and narrative analysis. The study revealed that current administrators are presented

and include specific recommendations such as trauma-informed practice training and individual and group coaching and support.

Fannon (2021) carried out a quantitative research study on 110 school counsellors to determine whether self-care mediates the relationship between stress and burnout and to learn the relationship between the three variables. Correlation and regression methods were used for data analysis through the SPSS version 27. The findings showed that the three variables of stress, burnout, and self-care were highly correlated, but that self-care did not mediate the relationship between stress and burnout.

Hunter and Rodriguez (2021) conducted a survey on 393 selected education administrators from the state of Tennessee through non-random sampling to explore the relationship between observational loads and school administrator turnover, time, and strain. Multiple regression shows that the amount of time individual school administrators allocate to observation is insensitive to observational load. Further, school administrator reports observational loads associated with unintended negative consequences on administrator strain or observer turnover.

Hu et al. (2019) surveyed 180 preschool classroom teachers in China to know the connection between teacher stress and school atmosphere. The investigator used Teacher Self-efficacy Inventory (Tschannen-Moran and Hoy, 2001) to collect the data. Mean, SD and ANOVA were used to analyse the data through SPSS. The study's results showed that principal collegial leadership pose a significant negative effect on teachers' stress through the mediating role of teacher self-efficacy. Also, the results of the study showed that professionalism was a significant predictor of teachers' stress through the mediating role of teachers' self-efficacy.

Borg and Riding (1991) surveyed 150 school administrators to find the relationship between occupational stress and job satisfaction. Self-reporting instrument used for data collection and for analysis Mean, SD, ANOVA, Person correlation, etc., used through SPSS. The results revealed that the effect of the stress factors was statistically significant and a combination of several aspects, rather than any single one, which plays a vital role in the job stress of school administrators. Also, the results showed that irrespective of the type of administrative post, the most experienced school administrators reported more stress due to the stress factors than their least experienced colleagues.

Lozada (2018) conducted a survey on 500 teachers selected from metropolitan areas in California through multi-stage sampling to determine the effect of teacher trust in the school administrator on school academic performance, the mediating roles of teacher stress, engagement, and work purpose. Multivariate analysis indicated a strong linkage between teachers' trust in their administrator, school engagement level, and sense of work purpose. For academic performance, teacher trust, stress, and engagement are found to have a significant influence on school academic performance.

Suleman et al. (2018) conducted survey research on 402 (260 male and 142 female) secondary school heads in Pakistan to measure the occupational stress met by male and female secondary school heads. The Occupational Stress Index (OSI) was used for collecting data, which was developed by Shrivastava and Singh (1981). The collected data were analysed by mean, standard deviation, and inferential statistics through SPSS. The results revealed that male and female secondary school heads experienced occupational stress due to job overload, role conflicts, demanding working conditions, excessive political pressure, under participation, and unprofitability. However, results also revealed no significant difference in the overall occupational stress experienced by male and female secondary school heads.

Manabete et al. (2016) reviewed some studies to understand the job stress among school administrators and teachers in secondary schools and technical colleges in Nigeria. The findings of the study reported that teachers' lives are often gravely affected by stress, leading to physical health illnesses such as headaches, stomach upset, aches, and pains. The findings also reported that severe and unchecked stress leads to severe conditions like high blood pressure, diabetes, stroke, and heart disease; in critical cases, stress can lead to death. In addition, it reported that the strategies to deal with stress, especially for teachers and school heads, include regular medical check-ups, exercises like jogging, bicycling, and muscle relaxation.

Desa et al. (2014) surveyed 120 academic administrators at the National University of Malaysia to know the relationship and influence of personality on job stress. Researchers used Eysenck Personality Questionnaire revised short-version (EPQR-S) for data collection. Pearson correlation and multiple regression results revealed a significant relationship between personalities and work-related stress. Results also showed that two personality dimensions, neuroticism, and lie, were good predictors of job stress.

Bradley (2013) conducted survey research on 122 school administrators in Tennessee and North Carolina to understand teaching experience and perceived challenges regarding job stress, respect, student achievement, assessment & evaluation, and professional development. The researcher used Survey Monkey to gather the data. Pearson Correlation, ANOVA, and MANOVA were analysed through SPSS-20. The findings reported that school administrators' teaching backgrounds and experience did not significantly affect their perceptions of level of stress.

Katsapis (2012) collected data from randomly selected 6,000 university research administrators in the United States to understand the incidence and types of occupational roles in stress. The Occupational Stress Inventory-Revised (OSI-R) and Occupational Roles Questionnaire (ORQ) (Osipow, 1998) were applied to collect the data. The results indicated that organisational affiliation and years of experience did not influence occupational stress.

Khalid et al. (2012) conducted a survey study on 200 educational employees in Islamabad and Rawalpindi (Pakistan) to assess the moderating impact of supportive leadership on the relationship between job stress and job performance. The data was gathered using the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire developed by Hemphill and Coon (1957). Descriptive Statistics, Correlation, and Regression results showed that supportive leadership negatively affects job stress and directly impacts job performance. Supportive Leadership moderates the relationship between these constructs.

Peretomode (2012) randomly selected 141 academic administrators in the Delta State of Nigeria to explore the sources and level of stress and how academic administrators of tertiary institutions handle job-related stress. The researcher applied a self-made questionnaire for the data collection. The findings revealed that the administrators experienced different stress levels, which did not adversely affect their performance.

Sogunro (2012) conducted a case study on 52 high school principals in Connecticut to assess stress in school administration. Data were collected through personal interviews by the investigator. Results revealed that principals would perform better when they can effectively cope with the stress evolving from their jobs, and their generalizability depends on the particularistic nature of the individual situation.

Ngari et al. (2013) carried out ex-post-facto research on 336 secondary school administrators in Nyandarua District in Kenya to examine the stress levels among secondary school administrators. A professional life stress scale (PLSS) modified from Fontana (1989) was applied for data collection. Descriptive and inferential statistics analysed the collected data were used for the analysis of the data SPSS. The result revealed that in the three administrative levels, a more significant proportion of principals recorded high-stress levels compared to deputy principals and heads of departments.

Hand (2010) surveyed 136 staff members from Catholic primary schools in Queensland to address the relationship between role conflict and role overload, leadership style, and stress among those holding leadership positions. Bi-variate correlation, ANOVAs and regression, correlation, and differences among the variables were used for analysis. The result revealed no significant differences among the senior administration staff positions in stress experienced; staff executives and age, gender, and years of service seemed unrelated to stress levels experienced.

Lainas (2010) studied 357 education directors to understand the job stress experienced by the Greek directors of education. The findings reported that directors of education in Greece experience moderate occupational stress while the main sources of their work stress come from different domains, including the shortage of human and financial resources, the implementation of national educational policies and reforms, the nature and the characteristics of their work, their relations with people and specific dimensions of their career. Also, the findings reported that the different subgroups examined with directors of secondary education and directors of directorates of education reported higher stress.

Chang and Tseng (2009) conducted a survey of 735 academic heads in universities in Taiwan to investigate differences in job stress related to differences in the backgrounds of academic heads the job stress experienced. Job Stress Awareness Questionnaire" developed by Caplan, Cobb, French, van Harrison, & Pineau, 1975 was used for data collection. Descriptive statistics, *t*-tests, one-way ANOVA, Tukey's post hoc comparison, and Pearson's correlation coefficient were used to analyse the data through SPSS. The result revealed that junior academic chiefs who accept higher education or are appointed to the administrative post for higher education feel heavy stress from work. Results also found that the stress of younger academic heads is significantly higher than that of senior heads.

Jaiyeoba and Jibril (2008) employed a survey study on 421 secondary school administrators in Kano state, Nigeria, to investigate the sources of occupational stress among secondary school administrators. The School Managers' Source of Stress Inventory (SMSSI) was applied to gather the data. The gathered data were analysed through simple percentages. The findings revealed that the majority of respondents (77.5%) reported that their job was stressful. Findings also revealed that administrative routine, workload, conflicting demands, and roles between work and family are the highest sources of stress.

Olayiwola (2008) conducted a survey on 94 public secondary school principals in Oyo State of Nigeria to measure the dimensions of job stress among public secondary school principals. Dimensions of Job Stress for Principal Questionnaire (DJSPQ) was used for data collection. Mean, standard deviation, and t-test results showed that 6.4% of participants stated the job as either not stressful or mildly stressful. On the other hand, 76.6% of the job was soberly tense. Also, the result found that 17.0% rated the job extremely stressful. Furthermore, the findings revealed no significant difference in job stress between the participants' demographic characteristics and school variables.

Assadi (2003) carried out a field study on 91 physical education organisation managers in Iran to evaluate all job stress factors at two levels: organisational (over seven factors) and organisational (over eight factors). The Spielberger standard questionnaire was applied to collect the data. The collected data were analysed using descriptive statistics and the non-parametric test of the Spearman correlation coefficient, the Mann-Whitney and Wilcoxon tests, the Alpha-Cronbach correlation coefficient, and the Regression equation. The results revealed that significant correlation between organisational and managerial job stress. However, results also revealed that there is no relationship between personal characteristics and organisational job stress, managerial job stress, and total stress types. Further results showed that bonuses and development of human resources were among the most intensive organisational job stress factors, while factors such as maximum pressure for work quality, job importance, and time pressure were among the most intensive managerial job stress factors.

Nhundu (1999) conducted a survey on 95 primary and secondary head teachers in Zimbabwe to understand the sources and incidence of self-reported occupational stress. Used self-made questionnaire for data collection and analysed Mean, SD and T-test. The results revealed that they experienced relatively high levels of administrative stress and

several demographic characteristics and school variables influenced the respondents' perceptions of situations that cause stress.

Allison (1997) collected data from 43 public school principals in British Columbia, Canada, to determine the stress level among those principals. The Administrative Stress Index, which was developed by Swent and Gmelch (1977), was applied to collect the data. Mean, SD, Rank Difference, and multivariate analysis were used for data analysis. After analysis, the data findings showed that principals with higher excellent total scores on the administrative stress scale believed that administrative isolation was a problem for them. Results also revealed they felt more significantly stressed than other people in their community and reported dealing with scarce or limited resources at their institutions.

Koch et al. (1982) conducted survey research on 40 school administrators at the Confederation of Oregon to measure the job stress among school administrators' factorial dimensions and differential effects. A self-made questionnaire was applied to gather the data. Gathering data was analysed through correlation and ANOVA. The findings revealed that the average amount of shared variance between factors was less than 1% (factor intercorrelations ranging from .14 to .02). Further, the result found that boundary-spanning stress increased with age.

Frick and Fraas (1990) conducted survey research among 86 school administrators in Richland County, Ohio, to investigate the aetiology of stress in educational administration and rate each identified stress's severity. The Administrative Stress Index (ASI) was used for data collection. The findings revealed that stressors were common to all levels of the administrative team and items that were more stress-inducing for specific administrative positions. Also, the findings revealed that demands on time and administrative constraints were the most frequent stress for site-based school administrators.

Sarros (1988) conducted a survey on 128 school administrators in Western Canada to know administrator burnout: findings and future directions. A self-made questionnaire was utilised to collect the information. One-way analysis of variance and multiple stepwise linear regression analysis was applied for the data analysis. The findings revealed that school administrators experience ordinary degrees of personal accomplishment burnout and lower-than-normal levels of emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation. Also,

findings revealed that work stress, work overload, a declining sense of status and recognition, and unsatisfying interpersonal interactions were most likely to cause burnout.

Rasch et al. (1986) collected data from 2,484 public university administrators in America to assess the stress among college and university administrators. The University Administrative Concerns Questionnaire (UACQ) was used for data collection. Mean, SD and ANOVA were applied for the data analysis through SPSS. The result of the study revealed that dimensions of stress are uniform in higher education or that different types of administrator stress are associated with different administrative levels. Further, the study revealed that some administrators perceived their work as stressful.

Tung (1980) conducted a survey on 1156 school administrators in Oregon to examine the occupational stress profiles of male versus female administrators. The Administrative Stress Index (ASI) was used to gather the information. Mean, Median, Coefficient Alphas, Factor Correlations, and ANOVA were applied for data analysis. The result of the study revealed that women administrators experienced lower levels of stress than their male counterparts on all four factors, particularly boundary-spanning stress, and conflict-mediating stress, both of which relate to stress arising from the management of the organisation-external environment interface.

2.4.3 Studies on Self-efficacy

Lee et al. (2022) conducted a survey on 469 anonymous preschool teachers in Taiwan through random sampling to examine the relationship between knowledge-sharing and sustainable happiness. The knowledge Sharing and Sustainable Happiness Survey (KSSHS) scale were used for collecting data. It also tested the multiple mediating effects of self-efficacy and helping behaviour. Multiple mediation analyses showed positive attitudes toward self-efficacy and helping behaviour enhance their happiness and wellbeing and achieve a sustainable workplace, contributing to global sustainability.

Alfano (2021) surveyed 97 school administrators of the state in the Northeast to investigate their self-efficacy rating and identify their role in implementing Social Emotional Learning (SEL) initiatives. The self-efficacy Scale developed by Tschannen-Moran & Gareis (2004) was used for data collection. The results revealed that despite low levels of self-efficacy, Building Level Administrators play an active role throughout the SEL implementation and work most closely with school-based mental health providers.

Sobalvarro (2021) randomly selected 251 Iranian teachers from University Putra Malaysia (UPM) to assess stress's effects on self-efficacy. The teacher Stress Inventory (TSI), the Perceived Stress Scale-10 Item (PSS-10), and the Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale (TSES-short) were utilised for data gathering. The collected data were analysed through structural equation modelling using AMOS 20.0. Findings revealed a significant negative relationship between teacher stress and self-efficacy, workload stress and self-efficacy, and student behaviour stress and teacher self-efficacy. The results also revealed that perceived stress in the study, teaching experience, and age of educators played the role of mediating variables. Further, the result revealed potential areas of focus for organisations and administrators in the education field relating to teacher stress and self-efficacy.

Troesch and Bauer (2017) conducted a survey on the 297 University of Teachers in Switzerland to investigate job satisfaction and stress in second-career teachers (SCT) compared to first-career teachers (FCT) and the role of self-efficacy. The teacher self-efficacy scale by Schwarzer and Schmitz (1999) and the job stress scale developed by Enzmann and Kleiber (1989) were used for data collection. The collected data were analysed using Mean, SD, T-test, and Regression. The results reported that they were highly satisfied and experiencing low levels of job stress. Moreover, t-tests revealed that SCT is more satisfied with their job than FCT. As the significant interaction between self-efficacy and career path shows, self-efficacy has a higher impact on job stress in SCT than in FCT.

Chan et al. (2016) conducted a survey study on 234 Australian organisational employees to examine how work-family enrichment contributes to job and family satisfaction by exploring the mediating mechanisms of self-efficacy and work-life balance. The researcher used a self-made questionnaire for data collection. The collected data were analysed using correlational analysis, CFA, and SEM through SPSS and AMOS. The findings of the study showed that work-to-family enrichment and family-to-work enrichment were positively related to self-efficacy, which positively affected work-life balance. Similarly, the work-life balance positively impacted job and family satisfaction.

Yu et al. (2014) conducted a survey on 387 middle school teachers selected through purposive sampling in China to examine the impact of work stress on job burnout and the mediator role of self-efficacy. 'Pearson co-relation' revealed that work stress and self-efficacy significantly correlated with job burnout. Furthermore, structural equation

modelling revealed that self-efficacy partially mediated work stress to job burnout. The final model also revealed significant paths from work stress to job burnout through self-efficacy.

Mansor et al. (2013) conducted a qualitative study investigating the primary teachers' perception of self-efficacy, self-leadership, and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Researchers used to interview for collecting data from primary school teachers in Malaysia. Results showed that when a teacher's self-leadership and self-efficacy are at most, they have more assets to dedicate to other people and tasks. Moreover, organisational citizenship behaviour should benefit the organisation or people.

2.4.4 Studies on Relationship between Stress and Wellbeing

Ortan et al. (2021) surveyed 658 K-12 (pre-university) teachers selected through simple random sampling in the USA to measure the relationship between teacher job satisfaction and self-efficacy, relational aspects, work-related aspects, and working conditions. Multiple regression results revealed that self-efficacy, promotion, positive student behaviour, and working conditions significantly affect job satisfaction.

Ikonne (2015) surveyed 125 librarians in southwest Nigeria to investigate job stress and psychological wellbeing, the role predictors of job stress, namely, role ambiguity and conflict, as well as physical work environment issues and their relationship to psychological wellbeing. Multiple Regression analysis showed that role ambiguity was the cause of job stress, not work environment and role conflict. However, psychological wellbeing is positively significant with role conflict, work environment, and role ambiguity.

2.4.5 Studies on Relationship between Self-efficacy and Wellbeing

Liang et al. (2022) surveyed 844 teachers from 28 schools in one province of south-eastern China through simple random sampling to know the relationship between professional learning community (PLC) and teacher wellbeing (TWB) and whether the relationship was mediated by teaching self-efficacy (TSE). The bootstrap analysis showed that each PLC component was positively related to teachers' hedonic and eudemonic wellbeing. Furthermore, structural Equation Models showed the association between the PLC and TWB was confirmed to be mediated by TSE.

Singh et al. (2018) carried out a cross-sectional survey on 527 full-time executives of Indian public and private manufacturing industries to determine how psychological variables, especially self-efficacy play a significant role in attaining workplace wellbeing. Regression analysis showed a positive relationship between self-efficacy and workplace wellbeing. Furthermore, the relationship between self-efficacy and workplace wellbeing was higher among executives with high sustainability practices and vice versa.

Damen and Dam (2016) conducted a cross-sectional survey on 506 Dutch working employments to determine how self-efficacy affects employee wellbeing and investigate the mediating role of employees' engagement in reflection and rumination. Structural equation modelling showed that self-efficacy was significantly related to emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. Furthermore, rumination mediated the self-efficacy-exhaustion relationship.

Zee and Koomen (2016) reviewed 165 eligible articles over 40 years to explore the consequences of teacher self-efficacy (TSE) on the quality of classroom processes, students' academic adjustment, and teachers' psychological wellbeing. Results showed that TSE links positively with students' academic adjustment, teacher behaviour and practices related to classroom quality patterns, and factors underlying teachers' psychological wellbeing, including personal accomplishment, job satisfaction, and commitment. However, the review also revealed a negative association between TSE and burnout factors. Last, a few studies indicated indirect effects between TSE and academic adjustment, through instructional support, and between TSE and psychological wellbeing, through classroom organisation.

Siu et al. (2007) conducted a cross-sectional survey on 386 and 306 employees in Hong Kong and Beijing to investigate the direct and moderating impact of general self-efficacy on the relationship between stressors and wellbeing. The results showed that general self-efficacy positively relates to mental and physical wellbeing. Hierarchical regressions revealed that general self-efficacy moderated the relationship between stressors and mental wellbeing yet did not moderate the relationship between stressors and physical wellbeing.

Beas and Salanova (2006) conducted a survey on 496 workers from different occupational sectors in Indonesia to examine the relationship between levels of self-efficacy (i.e., generalised, professional, and computer) and psychological wellbeing and training among

Information and Communication Technology (ICT) workers. Multiple co-relations showed a negative and significant relationship between self-efficacy and psychological wellbeing indicators. Furthermore, multiple regressions indicated that computer attitudes moderated the relationship between computer training (i.e., the number of training hours) and professional self-confidence. So far, workers with a highly positive attitude towards ICT, when the number of hours is high, their levels of professional self-confidence increase, but it depends on the number of training hours (i.e., more training hours, more self-confidence).

2.4.6 Studies on Relationship between Self-efficacy and Job stress

Helms-Lorenz and Maulana (2016) conducted a longitudinal study on 338 beginning teachers and 62 secondary school teachers in the Netherlands for three consecutive years to investigate the relationship between self-efficacy and stress caused experienced by beginning teachers and their job tension and discontent. Multilevel Growth Curve Modelling (MGCM) showed that school and beginning teacher Self-efficacy was negatively related, but stress causes had a positive relationship with work tension and dissatisfaction. However, in the secondary school group, self-efficacy had a weaker link between job tension and discontent.

Reilly et al. (2013) investigated a survey of 121 primary teachers from eight primary schools in Irish to examine teaching self-efficacy, perceived stress, and self-esteem with demographic characteristics (age, gender, education, and years of teaching experience). Co-relation results showed a significant negative relationship between self-efficacy, perceived stress, and teachers' job satisfaction. Multiple regressions revealed that the predictor variables accounted for 22% of teachers' job satisfaction variance. However, only perceived stress was found to explain the unique predictive variance, with high levels of occupational stress related to low levels of job satisfaction.

Klassen et al. (2012) conducted a study on 1,187 pre-service teachers from Canada (379), England (203), Hong Kong (211), and Thailand (394) to examine the cultural influences on teaching-related stress, self-efficacy, and occupational commitment. Results revealed that self-efficacy partially reduced (mediated) the effect of stress from student behaviour and workload on commitment in three of four contexts. Mediation tests showed significant differences in the strength of the mediating effect across the four contexts. The results also

suggest that teachers' self-efficacy changes how work stress influences the commitment to continue teaching, although cultural milieu influences the nature of the relationship according to context.

2.5.0 Research Trends

So far, the literature review is concerned, after rigorous scrutinisation and review of the studies available to the researcher, he found 67 studies were mostly relevant to the broad area of the present study. Studies were categorised under six domains i.e., studies conducted on employee job stress, wellbeing, self-efficacy separately, the relationship between job stress and wellbeing, self-efficacy and wellbeing, self-efficacy, and job stress. It is found that the number of studies conducted on wellbeing, job-stress, and self-efficacy separately were 16 (24%), 33 (49%), and 7 (10%) respectively. Further the number of studies focused on relationship analyses between job stress and wellbeing, self-efficacy and wellbeing, self-efficacy and job stress were 2 (3%), 6 (9%), and 3 (5%) respectively. The domain wise distribution of literature reviewed were shown in the following Fig. 2.1.

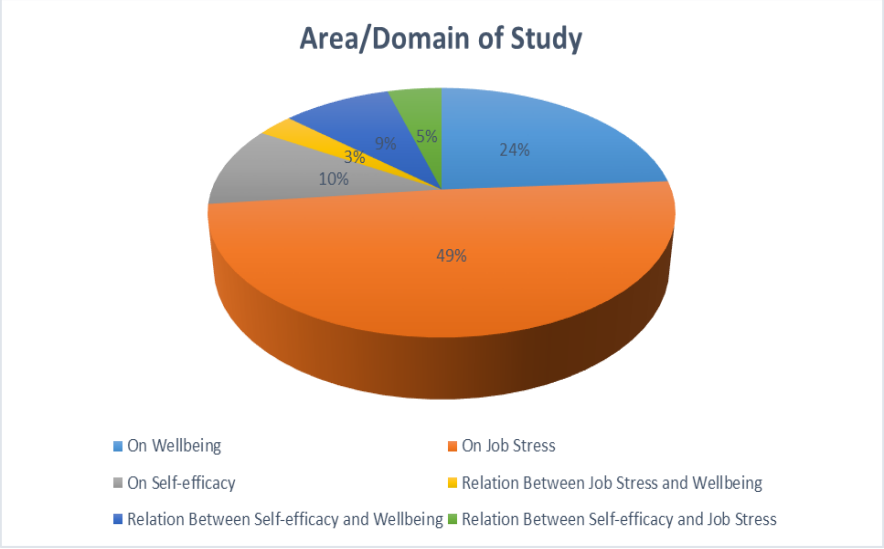


Fig. 2.1 Area/ Domain wise distribution of the reviewed studies

The research trend shows that the most thirst area of studies was the job stress. Most of researchers claimed that job stress as a severe concern and harmful and unhealthy for management and administration personnel and organisations which negatively impacted

their development. Several researchers explored different stressors or sources of job stress among administrators and few studies explored the correlates and factors of job stress. Some researchers also suggested some ways to reduce adverse effects of job. The second searched research domain was employee wellbeing and its factors and correlates. The least independently studied (10%) domain was self-efficacy of administrators. Concerning researches on correlation between these domains, the total number was 11 (17% of the literature studied). Most of the study results claimed that job stress had significant negative impact/relationship on/with both self-efficacy and wellbeing, whereas self-efficacy was positively associated with employee wellbeing. Few studies also maintained that self-efficacy mediated the relationship between wellbeing or employee wellbeing and its other correlates.

Concerning research methods and designs used, the analysis of the selected literature in this study revealed that survey (including descriptive, cross-sectional surveys, ex-post factor and correlational), qualitative (including grounded theory, case studies, and exploratory), review-based, mixed-method, and experimental research designs and methods were used as major methods of studies. The following bar graph (Fig. 2.2) shows that the number of studies conducted through survey, qualitative research, review-based, mixed methods and experimental were 57 (85.08%), 4 (5.97%), 3 (4.48%), 2 (2.98%), and 1 (1.49%) respectively. Hence, the research trends revealed that cross-sectional survey method was the most popular and used research method and it will be suitable and appropriate for further studies in this field.

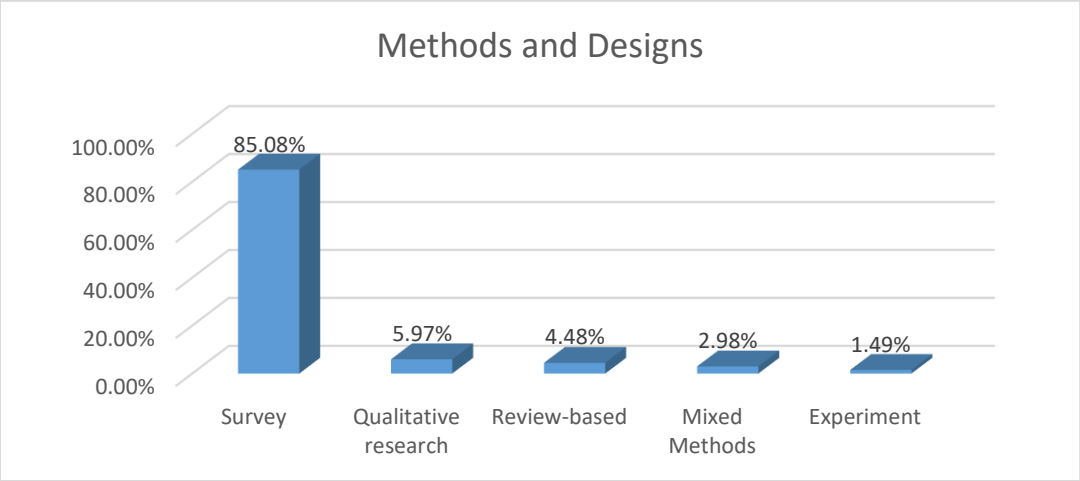


Fig. 2.2 Methods and Design wise distribution of the reviewed studies

Further, from the following pie-chart (Fig. 2.3), while analysing the trend of location and countries of reviewed literature in this study, the investigator found that most of the studies i.e., 61 number of studies (91%), in this area were conducted abroad and only six (9%) relevant studies found in India which needs more attention.

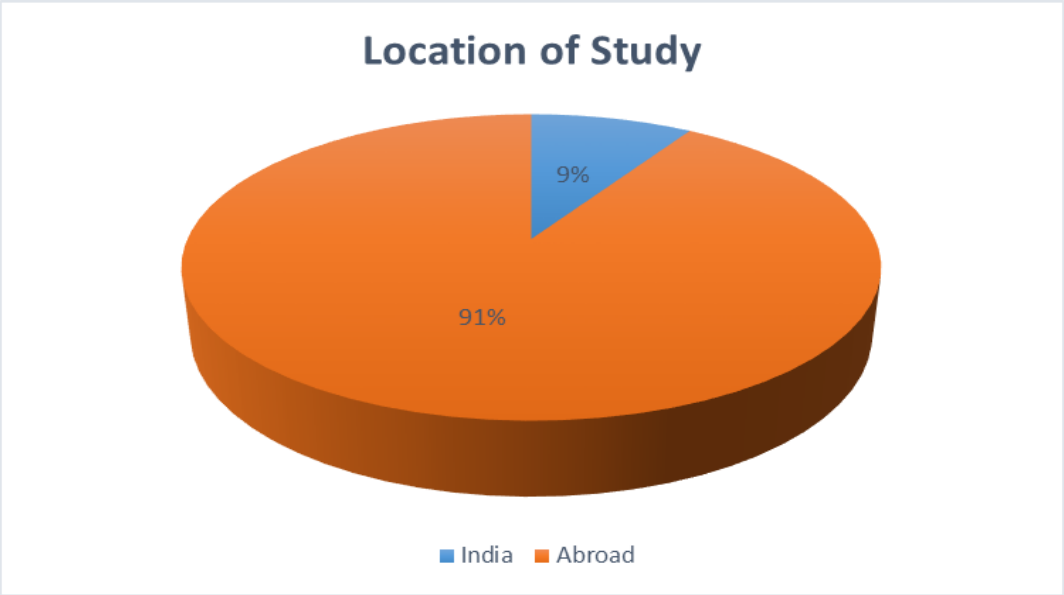


Fig. 2.3 Location wise distribution of the reviewed studies

Again, concerning publication years of the studies, the review of these 67 literatures given in the following chart (Fig. 2.4) shows that the number of relevant studies published prior to 2002 i.e., 1988-2002, 2003-2007, 2008-2012, 2013-2017, and 2018-2022 years were 7 (10%), 4 (6%), 13 (19%), 17 (25%), and 28 (41%), respectively. That means the trend shows very few studies were under taken before 2007 i.e., only 11 (16%), whereas 2008 onwards a gradual progress was observed in this respect. Interestingly, the analysis of these studies revealed that during the years 2018-2022, an encouraging number of studies i.e., 28 (41%) worldwide has taken place. Currently this field is becoming more popular and researchers are showing their interest to explore various aspects of this broad field of research. That means in the contemporary world, it has great importance and potential research value. It appears as one of the most fertile areas of studies.

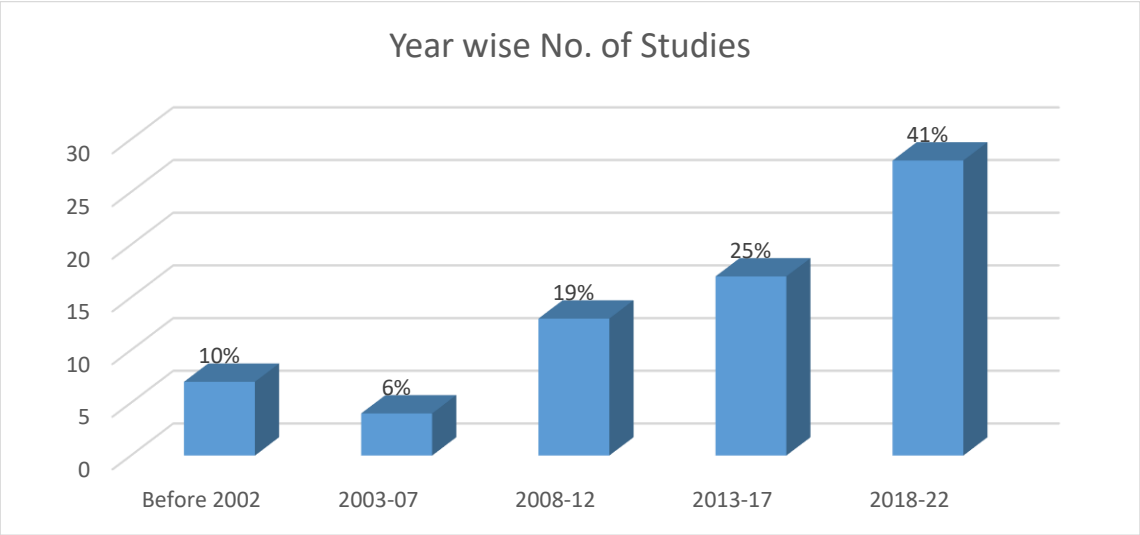


Fig. 2.4 Year wise distribution of the reviewed studies

CHAPTER-III

CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

CHAPTER-III

CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

3.1.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the context of the present study. The main purpose of this chapter is to describe the research problem, justification of the study, and direction of this study. This chapter builds on the previous two chapters. The specific methodology of the study is presented in the next chapter. This chapter especially focuses on the researcher's positionality, rationale of the study, statement of the problem, operational definition of the major terms used, research objectives, hypotheses, delimitations and the conceptual framework of the present study.

3.2.0 Assumptions, Background, and Positionality of the Researcher in the Study

I have worked as school education administrator for nine years and I have loved every day of my job life except last 2-3 years. At present I am working as an administrator of school education department in West Bengal. I have experienced stress in many forms over my career but none more severe than last 2-3 years. I selected this project to better understand the extent of this problem and help the other administrators who are currently in this job, how to deal with the pressures or situation of the job. While we cannot eliminate stress from the job of school administrators, we can try to understand it better in order to devise better ways of dealing with it. We need strategies that work to help administrator's lead healthy lifestyles throughout their careers.

3.3.0 Rationale of the Study

One of the most popular research areas among organisational psychologists and administrators is employee wellbeing. It is the psychological feeling, pleasant work experience and quality for employees to achieve their goals and full potential (Warr, 1999 and Zou, 2015). It is a multidimensional concept including emotional, professional, cognitive and social wellbeing (Zhao and Wang, 2022 and Pradhan and Hati, 2019), job satisfaction (Collie et al., 2020), and productivity of employees (Liang Huang, 2014). It has three influencing factors, i.e. individual, work, and social (Zhao and Wang, 2022 and Zee and Koomen, 2016). Some other factors also correlate to various dimensions of wellbeing. For example, role conflict, work environment, and role ambiguity, which are positively and significantly related to psychological wellbeing (Ikonne, 2015). Social support and and management activities improve the mental wellbeing of employers (Mensah, 2021and Zhao and Wang, 2022).

We often hear the term job stress, which means the harmful physical and emotional responses that occur when the job's requirements do not match the worker's capabilities, resources or needs. It can lead to health issues (De Longis et al., 1988), negatively impact performance ability, motivation (Motowidlo et al., 1986), employees' attitudes, work behaviours, physical, mental health (Jex & Yankelevich, 2008; Boyd et al., 2009), effectiveness, and led to workplace conflict (Jazani et al., 2010 cited in Kavosi et al., 2018). It is also unhealthy for school administration leading to various physical, psychological, physiological, and socio-emotional problems (Sogunro, 2012). School education administrators' job stress is a severe concern (Allison,1997). Majority of secondary school administrators perceived their job as moderate to highly stressful (Jaiyeoba & Jibril, 2008; Olayiwola, 2008; & Nhundu, 1999) and it varies with their position (Rasch,1986; Ngari, 2013 and Lainas, 2010). Several researchers explored different stressors or sources of job stress among school education administrators including adverse and unhealthy work content, organization, environment (Narban et al., 2016), bonuses, human resource development, work quality and time pressures, job importance (Assadi, 2003), administrative routine, workload, conflicting demands, work and family roles (Jaiyeoba & Jibril, 2008), demands on time, administrative constraints (Frick and Fraas, 1990), respondents' perceptions of situations (Olayiwola, 2008 and Nhundu, 1999), role conflict

(Butler & Constantine, 2005), work-family problems, work overload (Stamper & Johlke, 2003; Scheiber, 1987; Butterfield, 1988; Richardsen & Burke, 1991), long hour duty, lack of organisational support, change, and elements (Davey et al., 2001), demand and pressure conflicts and superiors and co-workers' support (Leka et al., 2004) etc,.

Few studies explored the correlates and factors of job stress. Desa et al., (2014) posits work-related stress was significantly related to personality characteristics. Assadi (2003) revealed a meaningful correlation between organizational and managerial job stress but not between personal characteristics and organizational, managerial and total job stress types. Concerning demographic factors' influence on the job stress among educational administrators, there were mixed results. Tung (1980) claimed that women school administrators experienced lower levels of stress than their male counterparts. Suleman et al.(2018) also found gender influence among secondary school heads. Tyagi and Kirmani (2012) claimed that private, female, younger, less qualified, less experienced categories of Principals/Directors showed significantly greater job stress than their public sectors, male, elder, highly qualified, more experienced counterparts respectively. Chang and Tseng (2009) also revealed younger academic heads face significantly higher stress than their senior counterparts but some scholars found job stress among school administrators increased with age (Koch et al., 1982), and experience (Borg & Riding, 1991). Interestingly, only one study (Bradley, 2013) found no significant effect of teaching backgrounds and experience on their perceptions of stress level. Numorous academicians and researchers also suggested some ways to reduce adverse effects of job stress like regular medical check-ups, exercise (Manabete, 2016), trauma informed practice training, individual and group coaching and support (Bosco, 2021), solid social support, and management activities reduce job stress (Cohen and Wills, 1985; Kahn and Byosiere, 1992 in Erkutlu & Chafra, 2006; Nyarko, 2021) etc.

One of the important attributes of human life is self-efficacy i.e., an individual's belief in own ability to organize and execute the actions required to achieve desired goals (Bandura, 1986). It plays a vital role in employees' wellbeing (Siu et al., 2007) and is positively linked with psychological (Alkhatib, 2020; Othman et al., 2019; Siddiqui, 2015; Komarraju & Nadler, 2013; & Siu et al., 2007), physical (Siu et al., 2007), spiritual (Han et al., 2014), workplace (Singh et al., 2018), and employee wellbeing (Singh et al., 2018 and Othman et al., 2019), positive thinking (Alkhatib, 2020), personal accomplishment, commitment (Zee

& Koomen, 2016), emotional exhaustion, and job satisfaction (Zee & Koomen, 2016; & Damen & Dam, 2016). Highly self-efficacious persons perform more challenging and complex tasks (Liu and Li, 2018 and Siddiqui, 2015) compared to poorly self-efficacious persons (Chang and Edwards, 2015 and Zhao et al., 2015). High self-efficacy has been positively associated with job satisfaction (Luthans et al., 2007) and subjective wellbeing (Avey et al., 2009) whereas low self-efficacy with stress, depression, anxiety, helplessness, and burnout (Bandura et al., 2001; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010; & Siddiqui, 2015). Singh et al. (2019) revealed that self-efficacy and workplace wellbeing was strongly related among executives with high sustainability practices and vice versa.

An increase in workplace stress reduces the wellbeing of employees (Khan and Khurshid, 2017) as it is negatively associated with employee wellbeing (Khan & Khurshid, 2017; Nyarko, 2021; Ahmed and Malik, 2019; & Li et al., 2021). Abo-Ali et al., (2021) reported that job stress was the primary predictor of negative mental wellbeing and low self-efficacy. On the other hand, positive attitudes toward self-efficacy enhances individual happiness and wellbeing (Lee et al., 2022). Therefore, potential areas of focus for organizations and administrators in the education field relate to their self-efficacy and stress (Sobalvarro, 2021). Self-efficacy is an essential personal resource to prevent stressors, promote adaptive adjustment (Morton et al., 2014; & Denovan and Macaskill, 2017) and cope with stressful situations (Zaki, 2016) while facing challenges of life (Betz and Klein, 1996 and Markman et al., 2002). It highly impacts job stress (Troesch & Bauer, 2017) and partially reduces stress effect from the workload, and work stress's influences on work commitment (Klassen et al., 2012). Self-efficacy mediates the relationship between dimensions of psychological wellbeing and resilience (Sabouripour et al., 2021). Freire et al. (2018) indicated that it partially mediates but does not moderate the relationship between eudaimonic wellbeing and adaptive coping strategies. Yu et al. (2014) revealed that self-efficacy partially mediated work stress to job burnout. Siu et al. (2007) reported self-efficacy as moderator between stressors and mental wellbeing yet did not moderate the relationship between stressors and physical wellbeing. Few studies also identified its negative, weaker and weak negative relationship with stress, job tension, (Helms-Lorenz & Maulana, 2016), and job stress (Han et al., 2014) respectively. According to the findings of Chang et al. (2018), it did not mediate the relationship between social support and depression.

While searching for the related literature the researcher left no stone unturned. Side by side the researcher also prepared a review matrix which has been provided in Appendix-F. Finally, based on the extensive integrative literature review and matrix analysis it is evident that though many studies have been conducted on school education administrators, job stress, employee wellbeing and self-efficacy, these fields still need the special attention of researchers. Studies which specially focused on job stress were found in diverse fields. The focused areas of those studies were sources of job stress or stressors, stress levels among administrators at different levels or sectors, strategies to cope with the adverse effects of stress, the impact of job stress on job satisfaction, relationship of job stress with job performance, personalities, leadership styles, justice and equality, organisational and managerial job stress, personal characteristics, non-instructional work, etc., the mediating role of self-efficacy between leadership and job stress, significant, influential factors affecting job stress like- gender, age, year of experience, work overload, bad working conditions, political pressure, teaching backgrounds, educational qualification, the impact of training, role ambiguity, administrative routine, conflict demands, the relation between work and family, etc. However, very few studies explored the prevalence of job stress and its impact on school education administrators' wellbeing. Even if some studies were found on education administrators, their target population were headteachers or principals of school or college or head of the institutions. Interestingly, not a single study was found on school education administrators including S.I/S, A.I/S, D.I/S those who are recruited for and involved exclusively in monitoring and administrative activities of school education.

Very few studies found where the impacts/influence of socio-demographic factors were measured separately on job stress or self-efficacy or employee wellbeing. However, not a single study was found that comprehensively studied the same altogether. Most of the studies were conducted abroad, and few studies were found in India, but no such study was found in the West Bengal context. That's the main reason the present researcher wanted to comprehensively study job stress, self-efficacy, and employee wellbeing of the school education administrators of West Bengal concerning their socio-demographic characteristics.

Further it is observed that though several studies were conducted on job stress, employee wellbeing and self-efficacy separately or on the relationship between any two of them, rarely any comprehensive attempt had been taken to explore the relationship among job

stress, self-efficacy, and employee wellbeing, and also the direct, indirect, and total effect of job stress on the wellbeing of school educational administrators. Further, no study was found where the mediating role of self-efficacy between job stress and employee wellbeing is being studied.

Hence, from the above discussion, following questions arised in the researcher's mind:

1. What are the prevalence rates of job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing among school education administrators of West Bengal?
2. Are there any socio-demographic factors which can significantly influence Job Stress, Self-efficacy and Wellbeing of the school education administrators?
3. If so, what are those factors, and how much do they influence their Job Stress, Self-efficacy and Wellbeing?
4. Is there any relationship that exists between job stress, self-efficacy and the wellbeing of school education administrators?
5. Do job stress and self-efficacy of the school education administrators affect their wellbeing?
6. Is it possible to predict the wellbeing of school education administrators through job stress and self-efficacy?
7. Does self-efficacy mediate the relationship between job stress and the wellbeing of the school education administrators?

In order to get answers of the above mentioned questions and fill up the identified knowledge gaps, a comprehensive study is needed to explore the mediating role of self-efficacy in the relationship between job stress and employee wellbeing among school education administrators in West Bengal considering various socio-demographic variables.

3.4.0 Statement of the Problem

Based on the extensive literature review, research trends and gaps, researcher's positionality, the above rationale, and the research questions, the problem for the present study can be stated as "**Impact of Job stress on School Education Administrators' Wellbeing: The Mediating Role of Self-efficacy**".

3.5.0 Operational Definition of the Major Terms Used

Job Stress (JS): The National Institute for Occupational Safety & Health (1999) defined job stress as "the harmful physical and emotional responses that occur when role (job) requirements do not match with the employees' capabilities, resources, or needs".

In the present study job stress is operationally defined as the harmful emotional responses that occurred due to inability of the school education administrators to manage their time stress, anxiety stress, role expectation conflict, co-worker support and work-life balance as identified by Shukla and Srivastava (2016).

Employee Wellbeing (EW): In general, employee wellbeing is defined as the comprehensive experience and function of an employee from a perspective of both physical and psychological dimensions (Warr, 1999). According to **t**he World Health Organization (2013) wellbeing is 'a state of every individual employee to understand his/her own capability, to manage with the everyday stresses of life, to work productively and is able to make a contribution to her/his community'.

In the present study, employee wellbeing is defined as the state of mind of the school education administrators to understand their own capabilities to manage with normal stress of life, to adjust with psychological, social, personal and workplace environments and work productively and is able to make a contribution to her/his community.

Self-efficacy (SE): General self-efficacy means a person's belief in their ability to succeed, which helps the person make appropriate decisions in adverse situations and can reduce overall stress. Bandura (1986) defined self-efficacy as 'a person's belief in his/her ability to perform the tasks necessary to achieve goals'.

In the present study, self-efficacy is considered in terms of self-confidence, efficacy expectation, positive attitude, and outcome expectation, as identified and defined by Singh and Narain (2014).

School Education Administrators (SEAs): The persons who are directly involved in managing and monitoring schools and implementing various government policies related to school education are the school education administrators. In West Bengal, Secretaries, Director, District Inspectors of Schools (D.I./S), Additional District Inspectors of Schools

(A.D.I./S), Assistant Inspectors of Schools (A.I./S), the Sub-Inspectors of Schools (S.I./S) and Headmaster have the sole responsibility for doing these jobs. However, in the present study D.I./S, A.D.I./S, A.I./S, and S.I./S were considered as the school education administrators.

3.6.0 Objectives of the Study

The major objectives of the present study were:

1. To measure the rate of prevalence of job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing among the school education administrators (SEAs);
2. To compare job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing among SEAs concerning their gender;
3. To compare job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing among SEAs concerning their highest educational qualification;
4. To compare job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing among SEAs concerning their present residence;
5. To compare job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing among SEAs concerning their marital status;
6. To compare job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing among SEAs concerning their spouse's job engagement status;
7. To compare job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing among SEAs concerning their previous job status;
8. To compare job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing among SEAs concerning their working hours in a week;
9. To compare job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing among SEAs concerning their special training status;
10. To compare job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing among SEAs concerning their preferences in other job opportunities;
11. To compare job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing among SEAs concerning their stream of education;

12. To compare job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing among SEAs concerning their present designation;
13. To find out the relationship of age with job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing among SEAs;
14. To find out the relationship of distance of the workplace from home with job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing among SEAs;
15. To find out the relationship of year of service experience with job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing among SEAs;
16. To find out the inter-relationship between overall and dimension wise job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing among SEAs;
17. To measure the direct effects/impacts of job stress on self-efficacy among SEAs;
18. To measure the direct and total effects/impacts of job stress on wellbeing among SEAs;
19. To measure the direct, effects/impacts of self-efficacy on wellbeing among SEAs;
20. To measure the indirect/mediating effects/impacts of job stress through self-efficacy on wellbeing among SEAs.

3.7.0 Hypotheses of the Study

In keeping with the problem formulated and objectives stated, the following hypotheses were proposed to be tested:

- $H_0$1: There is no significant difference in job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing and their dimensions among SEAs concerning their gender.
- $H_0$2: There is no significant difference in job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing and their dimensions among SEAs concerning their highest educational qualification.
- $H_0$3: There is no significant difference in job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing and their dimensions among SEAs concerning their present residence.
- $H_0$4: There is no significant difference in job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing and their dimensions among SEAs concerning their marital status.
- $H_0$5: There is no significant difference in job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing and their dimensions among SEAs concerning their spouse's job engagement status.

- $H_0$6: There is no significant difference in job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing and their dimensions among SEAs concerning their previous job status.
- $H_0$7: There is no significant difference in job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing and their dimensions among SEAs concerning their weekly working hours.
- $H_0$8: There is no significant difference in job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing and their dimensions among SEAs concerning their special training status.
- $H_0$9: There is no significant difference in job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing and their dimensions among SEAs concerning their preference in other job opportunities.
- $H_0$10: There is no significant difference in job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing and their dimensions among SEAs concerning their stream of education.
- $H_0$11: There is no significant difference in job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing and their dimensions among SEAs concerning their present designation.
- $H_0$12: Age of the SEAs is not significantly related to their job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing.
- $H_0$13: Distance of workplace from home of the SEAs is not significantly related to their job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing.
- $H_0$14: Service experience of the SEAs is not significantly related to their job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing.
- $H_0$15: There is no significant relationship exist between overall and dimension wise job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing among SEAs.
- $H_0$16: There is no significant direct impact of job stress on self-efficacy among SEAs.
- $H_0$17: There is no significant direct impact of self-efficacy on wellbeing among SEAs.
- $H_0$18: There is no significant direct impact of job stress on wellbeing among SEAs.
- $H_0$19: Job stress of the SEAs does not indirectly influences/impacts their wellbeing through self-efficacy.
- $H_0$20: Self-efficacy of the SEAs does not significantly mediate the relationship between their job stress and wellbeing.

3.8.0 Delimitations of the Study

Keeping in mind the specific study objectives, time and resource constraints, and various other factors, the present study was delimited to the following areas-

1. In the present study only S.I/S, A.I/S, A.D.I/S and D.I/S. were considered as SEAs;
2. For time constrain, only one state that is West Bengal is covered under study;
3. The study sample was restricted to 316 SEAs;
4. To measure job stress, self-efficacy and employee wellbeing of the SEAs only one instrument in the form of questionnaire was administered for each variable;
5. Only the English version of the questionnaires were administered to collect data form the representatives;
6. The socio-demographic characteristics (variables) considered under study are gender, age, marital status, stream of Education, highest educational qualifications, present designation, previous job status, year of service experience, present residence, spouse's job engagement status, distance of the workplace/office from home, weekly working hours, special training status, and preferences in other job opportunity.

3.9.0 Conceptual Framework of the Study

Based on the previous studies, it was conceptualised that job stress has direct and indirect impacts on employee wellbeing. Therefore, it was hypothesized that Job Stress directly impacts self-efficacy **[Path-a (model-1)].** Self-efficacy directly impacts employee wellbeing [**Path-b (model-2)].** Job Stress directly impacts employee wellbeing [**Path-c (model-3)],** and finally, Job Stress indirectly impacts employee wellbeing through self-efficacy [**Path-c' (model-4)].** The conceptual framework has been demonstrated below.

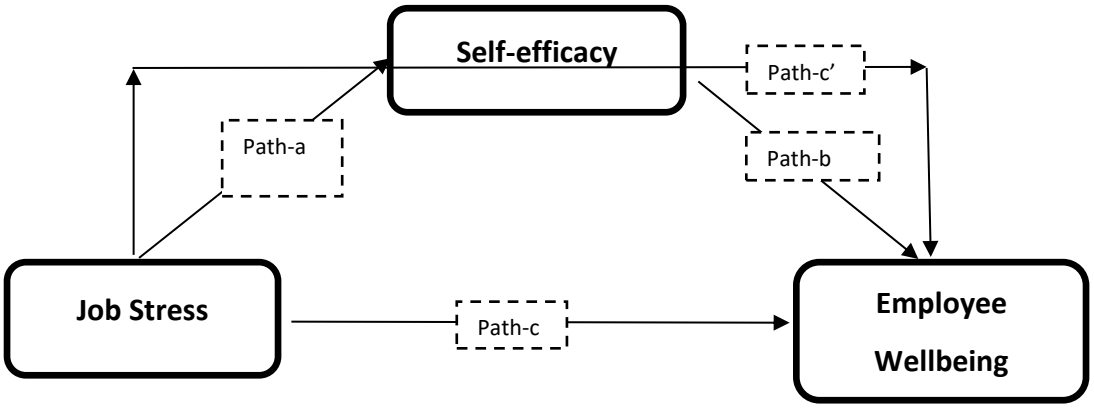


Figure No. 3.1.: Conceptual Framework of the study

CHAPTER-IV

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

CHAPTER-IV

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

4.1.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology of the present study. The primary purpose of this chapter is to describe the method of the study, population, sample, and sampling procedure. In addition, this chapter also describes the key variable used in this study, data collection tools and procedure, statistical analyses and analysis design; also discuss the assumption, limitation and ethical consideration to communicate the study validation.

This study aims to measure the impact of job stress (JS) on employee wellbeing (EW) and the mediating role of Self-efficacy (SE) between JS and EW among school education administrators (SEAs). For this purpose, a survey was conducted on SEAs within West Bengal, especially those who hold the office of S.I/S, A.I/S, D.I/S and working on school inspection.

4.2.0 Method of the Study

In the present study, the researcher used a cross-sectional survey design to measure and test the relationships among variables. This research design is used when researchers are interested in finding the relationship between the defined and measured variables (Appelbaum et al., 2018). In addition, this approach allows the researcher to generalize the findings to a large population (Creswell, 2014). In this kind of study, data are collected at a single point of a particular time, gathered from the specified population sample (Lavrakas, 2008). According to Lavrakas (2008), researchers follow this design to ascertain the trend or prevalence of a common theme depicted in the collected data. Therefore, the researcher thought this design would be most appropriate for the present study.

4.3.0 The Population of the Study

The SEA currently working under the Government of West Bengal constitute the target population for the present study. The present hierarchical structure of SEAs in West Bengal (Fig. 4.1) is the Heamasters (H.M), Sub-Inspector of Schools (S.I/S), Assistant Inspector of Schools (A.I/S), Additional District Inspector of Schools (A.D.I/S), District Inspector of Schools (D.I/S), Assistant Directors, Deputy Directors, Joint Directors, Director, and Principal Secretary. Among the above SEA, S.I/S, A.I/S, and D.I/S in West Bengal are the target population for this study because they are directly and inclusively involved in school inspection and supervision at the grassroots level and are fully engaged in school education administration at the primary and secondary levels. Headmasters (H.M) are excluded from the study because they perform the role of teachers and promote school administrators based on their teaching experience. Their sole focus is teaching and side-by-side school administration. Furthermore, other administrators like Assistant Directors, Deputy Directors, Joint Directors, Directors, and Principal Secretaries are excluded from this study because they are not directly engaged in school inspection and supervision at the grass root level.

At present, there are twenty-three (23) districts in West Bengal. In these twenty-three districts total of 47 D.I/S and 40 A.D.I/S are sincerely serving their duties. In total 727 school educational circles (341 blocks, 121 municipalities, and seven municipal corporations) exist all over West Bengal. A total 87 D.I/S and A.D.I/S, 427 A.I/S, and 889 S.I/S are working in the 727 circles, 23 districts, D.I. offices (i.e., Office of the District Inspector of Schools - Primary Education and Secondary Education) and headquarters (i.e., Bikash Bhavan). Therefore, the study's target population is finite, and the exact number of SEA working in West Bengal is 1403. The distribution of the same is given the table no-4.1.

Table No. 4.1: Distribution of the Target Population

D.I/S and A.D.I/S	A.I/S	S.I/S	Total
87	427	889	1403

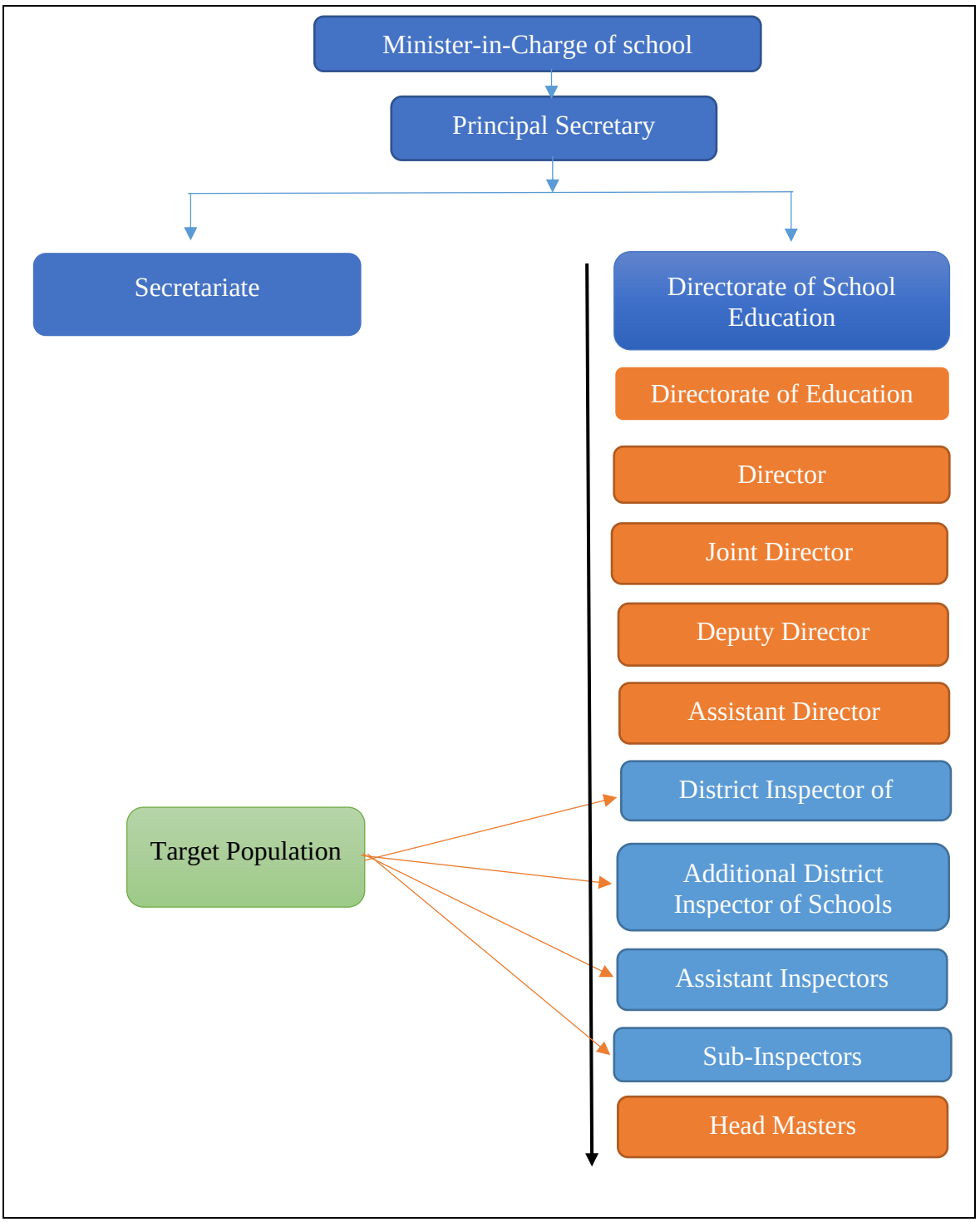


Fig. 4.1: Hierarchical Structure of School Education Administrators (SEAs) in West Bengal

4.4.0 Sample of the Study

For any sample-based survey research, the sample is the representative group of the whole population on which the study is centered. The selection of true representatives is the key to every successful sample survey research. Therefore, selecting a true representative is a challenge for every researcher. So, for the present study, the researcher first determined the actual sample size and then selected a representative.

4.4.1 Sample Size Determination

Sample size determination is necessary for the known/unknown population. The researcher applied the Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) formula , to determine the appropriate sample size for the study at first. This method was adopted to ensure a satisfactory degree of representativeness and unbiasedness (Ezugu & Akimbo, 2014). According to the formula, for a finite population (i.e., 1403), the approximate number of the sample should be 302. The researcher also cross-validated the sample size determined by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) method through the Raosoft sample size calculator. [When the 5% margin of error, 95% confidence interval, assuming a response rate of 50% (Aliyu et al., 2019; Ahmat et al., 2018), and the population is 1403, the sample size should be 302.] This online software is used because it is very easy to use and give reliable and valid calculation. In this study, minimum sample size required 302 and and above. The Krejcia and Morgan (1970) sample size determination formula is given below in the table no- 4.2.

Table No. 4.2: Sample Size Determination Formula

$S = X^2 NP (1 – P) / d^2 (N – 1) + X^2 P (1-P)$
Where: S = sample size required
X = confidence level value of 1.96
N = population size of 1403
P = proportion of population size (assumed to be 0.50)
d = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (0.05)
$S = (1.96)^2 1403*0.50 (1 – 0.50) / 0.05^2 (1403 – 1) + (1.96)^2 0.50 (1- 0.50)$
S= 3.8416 * 701.5 * 0.5 / 0.0025 *1402 + 3.8416 * 0.25
S= 1347.4412 / 3.505 + 0.9604
S= 1347.4412 / 4.4654
S= 301. 751512 or 302 (Approximation)

4.4.2 Sample and Sampling Technique

To select representatives for the study, researcher randomly selected 316 SEAs from 23 districts of West Bengal. The researcher tried to reach every participant through snowball sampling. Through this way, the researcher was able to reach 340 SEAs (S.I/S, A.I/S, A.D.I/S and D.I/S) of 23 districts in the state of West Bengal. However, after data mining and data cleaning, the researcher found that of the 340 questionnaires, 24 questionnaires were incomplete. The researcher excluded those incomplete questionnaires. Therefore, finally, the study sample consists of 316 SEAs. The detailed sample distribution is given in table no. 4.3. and socio-demographic profile is given in table no. 4.4.

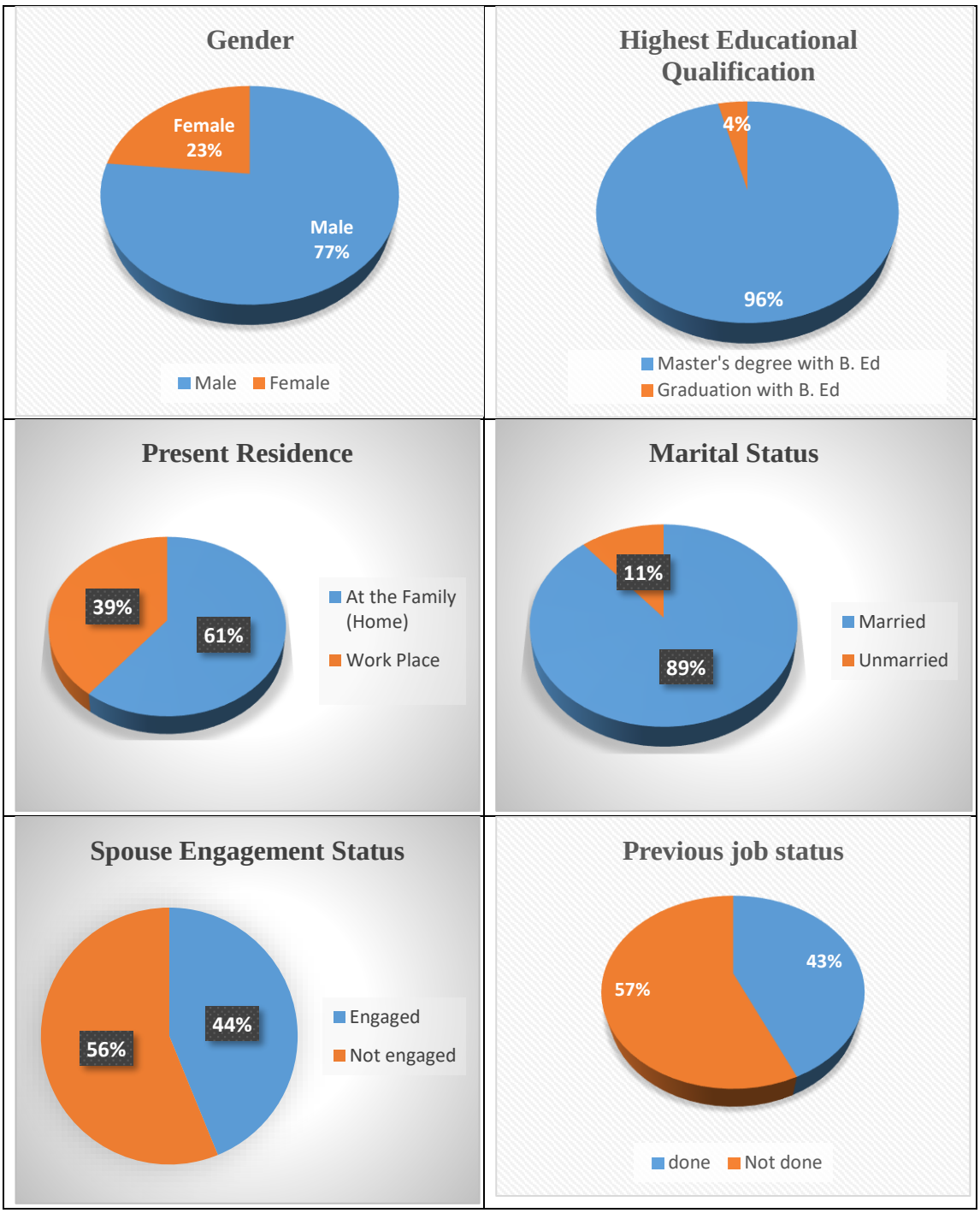
Table No. 4.3: Sample Distribution of the Study

Sl. No.	Population	Population Size	Sample Size
1	D.I/S and A.D.I/S	87	4
2	A.I/S	427	37
3	S.I/S	889	275
Total		**1403**	**316**

Table No. 4.4: Socio-demographic Profile of the Sample

Sl.No.	Variables	Classification	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
1.	Gender	Male	242	76.6
		Female	74	23.4
		Total	316	100%
2.	Highest Educational Qualification	Master's degree with B. Ed	304	96.2
		Graduation with B. Ed	12	3.8
		Total	316	100%
3.	Present Residence	At the Family (Home)	192	60.8
		Work Place	124	39.2
		Total	316	100%
4.	Marital Status	Married	267	84.5

		Unmarried	33	10.4
		Total	316	100%
5.	Spouse Engagement Status	Engaged	117	37.0
		Not engaged	150	63.0
		Total	267	100%
6.	Previous job status	done	137	43.4
		Not done	179	56.6
		Total	316	100%
7.	Working Hours in a Week	Usual duty hours (up to 38 hours/week)	186	58.9
		More than duty hours	130	41.1
		Total	316	100%
8.	Special Training Status	Trained	247	78.2
		Untrained	69	21.8
		Total	316	100%
9.	Preferences for other Job Opportunities	Will leave this job	110	34.8
		Will not leave this job	206	65.2
		Total	316	100%
10.	Stream of Education	Arts	79	25.0
		Science	181	57.3
		Commerce	34	10.8
		Technology	22	7.0
		Total	316	100%
11.	Present Designation	S.I/S	275	87.0
		A.I/S	37	11.7
		D.I/s	4	1.3
		Total	316	100%


Gender
Female 23%
Male 77%
Male
Female
Highest Educational Qualification
4%
96%
Master's degree with B. Ed
Graduation with B. Ed
Present Residence
39%
61%
At the Family (Home)
Work Place
Marital Status
11%
89%
Married
Unmarried
Spouse Engagement Status
44%
56%
Engaged
Not engaged
Previous job status
43%
57%
done
Not done

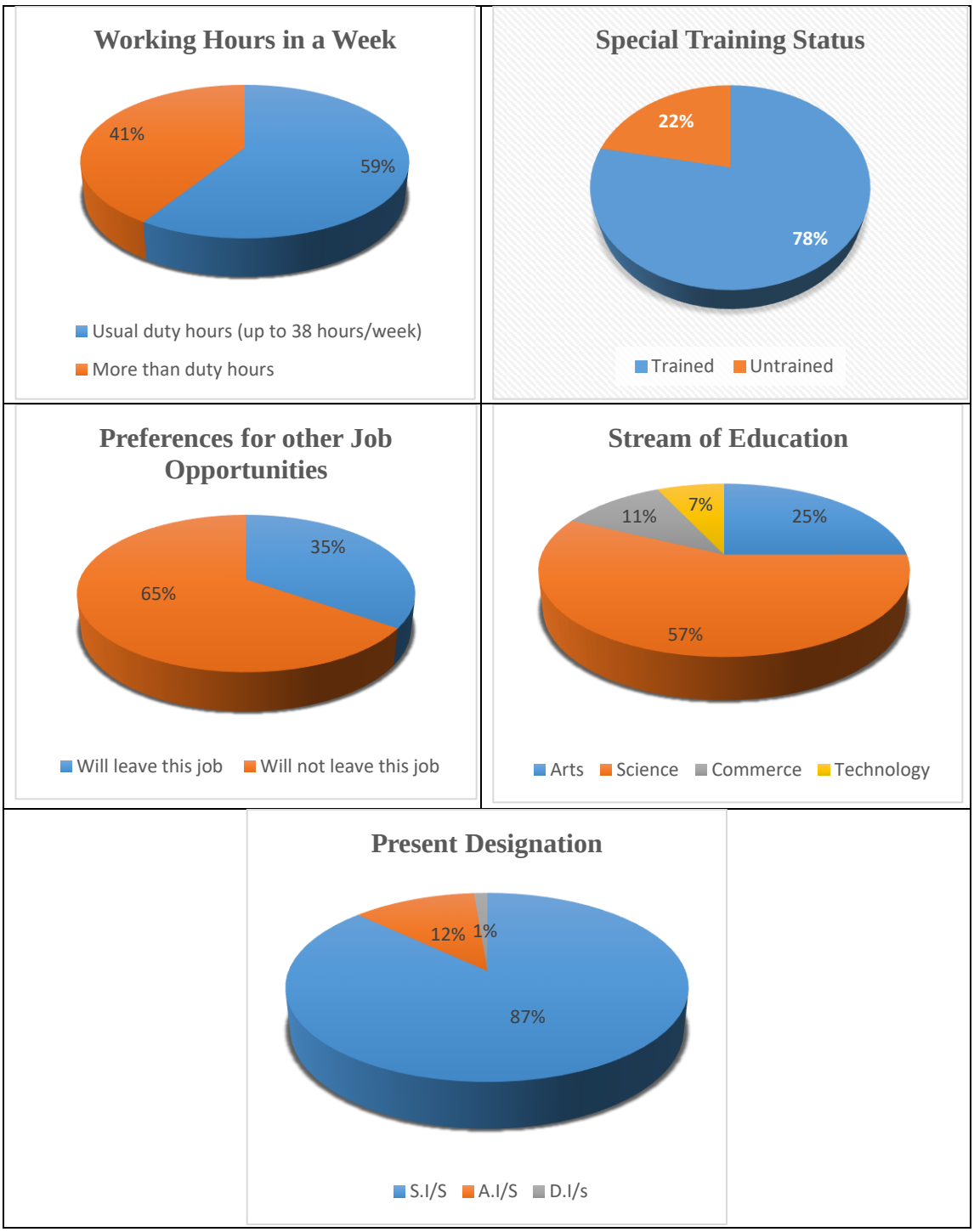


Fig. 4.2: Represents Socio-demographic Profile of the Sample

4.5.0 Key Variables of the Study

A variable is a measurable characteristic or a logical set of attributes of the research subjects (participants) that can vary from time to time and person to person. The following variables were included in the present study. These variables can be divided into two broad heads, i.e., Socio-Demographic Variables and Measured Variables. Detail description of the variables has been given below.

4.5.1 *Socio-demographic Variables*

In the present study, these Socio-demographic variables are also considered independent variables. Independent variables are the influencing variables that may impact the dependent variables. In the present study, the following independent variables have been considered- gender, highest educational qualification, present residence, marital status, spouse engagement status, previous job status,distance of the workplace from home, working hours in a week, special training status, preferences for other job opportunities, stream of education, present designation, age, year of service experience.

1. **Gender:** This variable was categorical in nature and measured up to two labels, i.e., male and female.
2. **Highest Educational Qualifications:** This variable was categorical in nature and measured up to two labels, i.e., graduation with B.Ed. and master's degree with B.Ed.
3. **Present Residence:** This variable indicates the present residence of the participants, which means where the participants were residing. The responses were recorded into two categories viz. in the family (home) and at the work place.
4. **Marital status:** This variable was categorical in nature and measured up to two labels viz. married and unmarried.
5. **Spouse Engagement Status:** This variable indicates spouse is engaged in any job/service other than homemaking. Participants' responses were collected in the form of a checklist, i.e., yes or no, and were categorized as engaged in job and not engaged in job.
6. **Previous Job Status:** This variable indicates whether the participant has done any job before or not. Their responses were collected in the form of yes or no and was categorized as done any job before and not done any job before.

7. **Working Hours in a Week:** This variable indicates the respondent's weekly working hours/ duty hours. Primarily this variable was measured in continuous form, i.e., hours/week. The usual duty hours of the respondents were 37.5 hours/per week. However, for convenience, the researcher categorized this variable into two labels. Usual or scheduled duty hours, i.e., up to 38 hours, and more than usual duty hours, i.e., more than 38 hours/week, which is an extra duty for the administrators.
8. **Special Training Status:** This variable indicates whether or not the participants have taken any special training in their respective fields. Their responses were collected in two categories, i.e., yes or no, and were categorized as having taken any special training/trained and not taking any special training/untrained.
9. **Preferences for other Job Opportunities:** This variable indicates if the participants get any other job will leave their present job or not. Their responses were also collected in two categories, i.e., yes or no, and were categorized as will left and will not leave the present job.
10. **Stream of Education:** This variable was categorical in nature and measured up to four labels, i.e., arts, science, commerce, and technology.
11. **Present designation:** This variable was categorical in nature and measured up to three labels viz. S.I/S, A.I/S, and D.I/S.
12. **Age:** This variable was continuous in nature and was measured in years.
13. **Distance of the workplace from home:** This variable indicates the distance of the participant's workplace from their home. It was continuous in nature and was measured in Kilometre(K.M.).
14. **Year of Service Experience:** This variable indicates the total year of service experience of the participants in the present job, which was continuous in nature.

4.5.2 *Measured Variables*

Measured variables are those variables that are represented through quantitative values, such as the physical attributes like weight, height, etc. In social science like Psychology, and Education, psychological attributes are also measured with some standardised psychological instruments. For example, emotional intelligence, happiness, wellbeing, etc. Sometimes these measured variables are also known as dependent or outcome variables. This labeling is based on the role these variables play in any research. In the present study,

JS, SE, and EW and their dimensions were considered as the measured variables. Detail of the included measured variables and their dimensions have been given below:

1. **Job Stress (JS):** In the present study, this variable was treated as both the independent variable (at the time for the testing of regression analysis) and the dependent variable (at the time for the testing of mean difference). This variable was continuous in nature and had five (5) dimensions/subscales- viz. Time Stress (TS), Anxiety Stress (AS), Role Expectation Conflict (REC), Co-Worker Support (CWS), and Work-Life Balance (WLB).
2. **Self-Efficacy (SE):** In the present study, this variable was also treated as both the independent variable (at the time for the testing of regression analysis) and the dependent variable (at the time for the testing of mean difference). This variable was continuous in nature and had four (4) dimensions/subscales- viz. Self-Confidence (SC), Efficacy Expectation (EE), Positive Attitude (PA), and Outcome Expectation (OE).
3. **Employee Wellbeing (EW):** In the present study, Employee wellbeing was treated as the dependent variable. It was a continuous variable and had 4 dimensions/subscales viz. Psychological Wellbeing (PW), Social Wellbeing (SoW), Workplace Wellbeing (WW), and Subjective Wellbeing (SuW).

4.6.0 Tools for Data Collection

To collect relevant data from the selected representatives, the researcher used five instruments; these were a consent letter, a personal information (socio-demographic profile sheet), and three questionnaires for measuring JS, SE, and EW. All participants were requested to give their responses to each item of the instruments. Detail description of each instrument has been given below:

4.6.1 Consent Letter

The investigator provided a consent letter to inform participants about the research title, the researcher and supervisor, research purposes, research background, descriptions of tools, target participants, brief instructions about the tools, the confidentiality of responses, and asking for voluntary participation in the study and provide relevant data for the study.

4.6.2 Participant's Socio-demographic Profile or Personal Information:

This socio-demographic profile sheet was used to collect and record participants' socio-demographic and personal information and consists of 17 items. The items are as follows- 1. Name, 2. Gender (male/female/others), 3. Age (year), 4. Caste (General/SC/ST/OBC/EWS), 5. Stream of your education (Arts/Science/Commerce/ Technology), 5. Educational qualification (highest), 7. The present designation, 8. Date of joining this job, 9. Have you done any job before? (yes/no), 10. Total years of service experience, 11. Where are you staying (Residence) (in the family/at the work place/other), 12. Have your spouse engaged in any job? (yes/no), 13. Distance from permanent residence to work place/office (k.m.), 14. Working hours in a week, 15. Any special training? (yes/no), 16. Are you promoted in this Job? (yes/no), 17. If you get any other job, will you leave this job? (yes/no).

4.6.3 The New Job Stress Scale

This scale was developed by Shukla and Srivastava (2016). The researcher used this scale to measure school educational administrators' job stress. This scale was a Liker type scale comprising 22 items under five separate dimensions/subscales viz. (i) Time Stress (Items no. 1-5), (ii) Anxiety Stress (Items no. 6-9), (ii) Role Expectation Conflict (items no. 10-14), (iv) Co-worker Support (item no. 15-18), and (v) Work-life Balance (item no. 19-22). There are 18 items having 5 alternative choices, viz. strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, and strongly agree, and 4 items in the Co-worker support subscale, i.e., item no. 15-18 have 6 alternative choices viz. never, very occasionally, sometimes, often, very often, and all the time. Item No. 20 of the scale was negative, and the other 21 items were positive. The scoring procedure of the scale was very easy. For the 18 items with 5 alternative choices, a score of 5 was assigned for strongly agree, 4 for agree, 3 for Neutral, 2 for disagree, and 1 for strongly disagree response. For the other 4 items with 6 responses, a score of 6 was assigned for all the time, 5 for very often, 4 for often, 3 for sometimes, 2 for very occasionally and 1 for never response. Scoring for the negative items was reversed. It generally takes about 15 minutes to complete this scale. In this scale and subscales, higher scores indicate higher job stress. The dimensions, their respective items, and the scoring procedure are given below.

Table No. 4.5: The Dimensions and their Respective Items and the Scoring Procedure for the Job Stress Scale

Dimensions of Job Stress Scale						
Sl. No.	Dimension of the Scale		Serial-wise item No.			No. of Items
I	Time Stress		1, 2, 3, 4, 5			5
II	Anxiety Stress		6, 7, 8, 9			4
III	Role Expectation		10, 11, 12, 13, 14			5
IV	Co-Worker Support		15, 16, 17, 18			4
V	Work-Life Balance		19, 20, 21, 22			4
			Total			22
Scoring System for Five Response						
	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	
Positive	5	4	3	2	1	
Negative	1	2	3	4	5	
Scoring System for Six Response						
	Never	Very occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Very often	All the time
Positive	6	5	4	3	2	1
Negative	1	2	3	4	5	6

4.6.3.1 Technical Information about the Scale

The Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient of the original version of the tool was 0.81, as ensured by Shukla and Srivastava (2016). While using the tool in this study, the researcher conducted a pilot study on 62 representatives to ensure the test's reliability and usability. The results of the pilot study are given in the below table.

Table No. 4.6: Reliability Coefficients of the New Job stress scale

Reliability Coefficients			
Scale version	**Cronbach's Alpha**	**Split-half**	**Test-retest**
The original version of the new job stress scale by Shukla and Srivastava (2016)	0.81	X	X
Pilot Study	0.618 (N=62)	0.805 (N=62)	0.876 (N=41)

4.6.4 Self-Efficacy Scale

To measure self-efficacy, the investigator uses the Self-Efficacy Scale developed by Dr. Arun Kumar Singh and Dr. Shruti Narain (2014). The scale was published by National Psychological Corporation, Agra, India. It is a five-point Likert-type scale consisting of 20 items under four dimensions. (i) Self-Confidence (5 items, i.e., items no. 1-5), (i) Efficacy Expectation (5 items, i.e., items no. 6-10), (iii) Positive Attitude (5 items, i.e., items no. 11-15), and (iv) Outcome Expectation (5 items, i.e., item no. 16-20). The tool consists of four negative items (Items no. 4, 10, 12, and 18). Other items were positive. The five alternative choices are Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, and Strongly Agree. The scoring procedure of the tool was very easy. A score of 5 has been assigned for each Strongly Agree response, accordingly, 4 for Agree, 3 for Neutral, 2 for Disagree, and 1 score for Strongly Disagree. For the four negative items, the scoring procedure was reversed. This scale generally takes about 10 to 15 minutes to complete. In this scale, high scores indicate high self-efficacy and vice-versa. The dimensions, their respective items, and the scoring procedure are given below.

Table No. 4.7: The Dimensions and their Respective Items and the Scoring Procedure for the Self-Efficacy Scale

Dimensions of a Self-efficacy scale					
SL. No.	Dimensions of the Scale	Item No.			No. of Items
I	Self-Confidence	1, 2, 3, 4, 5			5
II	Efficacy Expectation	6, 7, 8, 9, 10			5
III	Positive Attitude	11, 12, 13, 14, 15			5
IV	Outcome Expectation	16, 17, 18, 19, 20			5
		Total			20
Scoring procedure					
	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
For positive items	5	4	3	2	1
For negative items	1	2	3	4	5

4.6.4.1 Technical Information about the Scale

The researcher used this scale to measure SEAs self-efficacy. The validity and reliability coefficient of the original scale was 0.92 and 0.74. Previous researchers also used this Self-Efficacy Scale and reported similar or higher reliability coefficients than the original study. While using the tool in this study, the researcher conducted a pilot study on 62 representatives to ensure the reliability and usability of the test. The results of the pilot study are given in the below table.

Table No. 4.8: Reliability and Validity Coefficients for the Self-Efficacy Scale

Studies	Reliability	Validity
The original version by Singh and Narain (2014)	0.92	0.74
Falki (2019) and Ahuja (2016)	0.82 (re-test), 0.74 (split-half)	0.92
Talluri (2019)	0.82 (re-test)	X
Present study	0.768 (re-test), 0.672 (split-half)	X

4.6.5 Employee Wellbeing Scale

This scale was developed by Rabindra Kumar Pradhan and Lopamudra Hati (2019). The researcher used this scale to measure school educational administrators' wellbeing. It was a five-point Likert-type scale consisting of 33 items distributed in four dimensions. (i)

Psychological Wellbeing (10 items, items no. 1-10), (ii) Social Wellbeing (10 items, item no. 11-20), (iii) Workplace Wellbeing (9 items, item no. 21-29), and (vi) Subjective Wellbeing (4 items, item no. 30-33). The five alternative choices are Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, and Strongly Agree. The scale consists of 4 negative items, viz. items no. 4, 7, 16, and 33, and other items are positive. For the positive items, 5 scores were assigned for the Strongly Agree response, accordingly 4 for Agree, 3 for Neutral, 2 for Disagree, and 1 for Strongly Disagree response. For the four negative items, the scoring procedure was reversed. The scale generally takes about 25 minutes to complete. In this scale and subscales, a high score indicates high employee wellbeing and vice-versa. The dimensions, their respective items, and the scoring procedure are below.

Table No. 4.9: The Dimensions and their Respective Items and the Scoring Procedure for the Employee Wellbeing Scale

Dimensions of Employee Wellbeing Scale					
Dimension of the Scale		**Serial-wise item No.**			**No. of Items**
Psychological wellbeing		1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10			10
Social wellbeing		11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20			10
Workplace wellbeing		21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29			9
Subjective wellbeing		30, 31, 32, 33			4
		Total			33
Scoring procedure					
	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Positive	5	4	3	2	1
Negative	1	2	3	4	5

4.6.5.1 Technical Information about the Scale

The Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient of the original scale was 0.733. Various other researchers also used this scale and reported similar or higher reliability coefficients than the original study. While using the tool in this study, the researcher conducted a pilot study on 62 representatives to ensure the test's reliability and usability. The results of the pilot study are given in the below table.

Table No. 4.10: Reliability Coefficients of Employee Wellbeing Scale

Dimension of the Scale	Reliability coefficient
The original version by Pradhan and Hati (2019)	0.733 (Test-retest)
Pilot Study	0.814 (Cronbach's α) 0.876 (Split-half)

4.7.0 Data Collection Procedure

To collect data for the present study, the researcher followed a dual mode of data collection, viz. by a hard copy of the questionnaires by physically meeting the participants and online through Google forms by contacting the representatives over the telephone or via WhatsApp. For this purpose, the researcher first converted the three instruments, i.e., the Consent form, the socio-demographic and personal data sheet, and the self-efficacy scale, employee wellbeing scale, and job stress scale, into three separate Google Forms. After the Research Advisory Committee (RAC) meeting, the researcher started collecting data by taking a bona fide letter from the research supervisor. The data collection was done between 26/04/2022 and 27/07/2022.

Table No. 4.11: Districts wise Data Collection Methods

Online (What's App and Telephone)	**Face-to-face (print copy of the instruments)**	**Over Telephone**
All over West Bengal, 727 circles (23 Districts)	North 24 Parganas, Kolkata, South 24 Parganas	Howrah, Hoogly, Bardhaman, Nadia

4.7.1 Online Data Collection Method

At first, the researcher sent the three Google form links to one of his colleagues (S.I/S of Keshpur Circle in the Paschim Medinipur District) to cross-check whether the forms were correctly functioning. Further, the researcher requested his colleague to read the consent letter minutely and give his response in the given Google forms. After receiving the response, further, the researcher requested him to provide the contact number of his co-workers in the same district. This way, the researcher tried to reach each participant in the same district over the telephone. Then researcher contacted one of the office staff of the D.I. Primary office, Barasat, and collected the datasheet of names and contact lists of A.I/S, S.I/S, A.D.I/S and D.I/S of North 24 Parganas, Kolkata, Howrah, Hoogly, South 24 Parganas Districts. After that researcher contacted each participant over the telephone and sent them the Google Form links through their personal WhatsApp and requested them to give their response in their leisure time. However, the researcher still needs to receive the expected number of responses from the participants. That is why the researcher personally contacted one of his colleagues cum friends of Sagar Circle of south 24 Parganas and asked for help. The person agreed to help and personally contacted his colleagues in the district and sent Google Forms links through personal and WhatsApp groups of S.I/S, A.I/S, and D.I/S. This way, the researcher contacted one of his colleagues from each district and asked for help collecting data. In this way, the researcher collected the data for the present study. The below table shows the number of responses collected through google forms.

Table No. 4.12: Responses Collected through Online Method

Google Form No.	Google form-1	Google form-2	Google form-3
No. of responses received	317	304	300

The received responses via Google Forms were then converted into excel sheets and downloaded by the researcher. While screening the data sets, the researcher found that 300 responses were common in three google forms. However, among the 300 common responses, 24 still needed to be completed. As a result, the researcher excluded those incomplete 24 responses and finally included only those 276 responses who responded correctly in each of the three Google Forms.

4.7.2 Face-to-Face Mode of Data Collection

In the face-to-face mode of data collection in hard copies, the researcher conveniently reached 51 participants. Then the researcher introduced himself, and after some introductory conversation, he told the participants about his research topic and purpose. Then he asked them to voluntarily participate in the study. When they agreed, the researcher gave them the consent letter and told them to read it and sign it minutely. Afterward, the researcher handed over the questionnaires and requested them to read each item of the questionnaires minutely, give their responses against each item following the instructions, and return the questionnaires to the researcher later. The researcher gave the questionnaires to 51 participants, but he got a return from only 35 participants, which were fully completed.

Table No. 4.13: Responses Collected through the Offline Method

Districts	Provide Instruments as the Print Copy	Received Responses
Kolkata	22	15
North 24 Parganas	12	10
South 24 Parganas	15	10
Total	49	35

Among the 35 responses, the researcher put 15 responses into the Google form, and the remaining 20 responses were put into the final datasheet.

4.7.3 Telephonic Mode of Data Collection

In this mode of data collection, the researcher collected data from five (5) respondents who were not technically sound. It was also not possible for the researcher to reach them physically, so the researcher talked to them over the telephone, read out all the items, and asked them to choose their responses and tell them to the researcher. Finally, the researcher filled out the questionnaire by himself. The data collected through three modes is given in the table below.

Table No. 4.14: Distribution of Samples Collected through three modes

Online	**Offline/face-to-face/ hard copy**	**Over Telephone**	**Total**
300	35	5	340

4.8.0 Storage and Protection of Data

4.8.1. Data Screening

The participant responses were first checked for full completion of the survey questionnaires after completing the survey responses. The criteria for screening responses included collecting only responses with fully completed consent and survey questions. Declining demographic information was not a criterion for screening out participant responses. After data mining and cleaning, all the collected data were merged into a single MS Excel file and securely stored on the researcher's personal computer. The stored data were accessible for the present researcher only.

4.8.2 Tabulation of Data

The data were systematically and sequentially tabulated for further analysis and interpretation to draw inferences on the objectives of the present study. The raw data gathered from 316 school educational administrators were individually tabulated in an Excel sheet.

4.9.0 Statistical Analysis

While performing the statistical analysis, the researcher accessed the securely stored Excel sheet from his computer. To analyze the data, the researcher used the SPSS-20 software. For this purpose, at first, Excel data were transferred into SPSS-20 data sheet. Then all types of statistical analyses were performed through this software with the help of the research supervisor.

4.9.1 Outliers

First of all, the researcher has run Skewness and Kurtosis statistics in SPSS-20 to check the data normality. To examine and review outliers, using SPSS-20, the interquartile ranges were identified by using Tukey's hinges output values. Boxplots were generated to identify data values outside the +1.5 and -1.5 interquartile ranges (outside the third and first quartiles, respectively) and extreme outliers with data values outside the +3 and -3

interquartile ranges. Outliers removed, if any, were communicated in the final analysis and report of findings.

4.9.2 Descriptive Data Analyses

Specific descriptions for the socio-demographic profile of SEAs such as Gender, Highest Educational Qualification, Present Residence, Marital Status, Spouse Engagement Status, Previous Job Status, Working Hours in a Week, Special Training Status, Preferences for Other Job Opportunities, Stream of Education, Present Designation, Age, Year of Service Experiencereported through the major descriptive statistical techniques were Frequency, Percentage Analysis, Mean, Standard Deviation etc. Descriptions about the distribution of JS, SE, and EW and its dimensions scored for SEAs were also generated, which have been provided in Chapter V.

4.9.3 Parametric Analysis

Parametric statistics is a specific form of inferential statistics used to test hypotheses and draw inferences. The parametric statistic consists of a combination of descriptive and inferential statistical analysis. In this study, the investigator applied the parametric statistic because Skewness and Kurtosis, Kolmogorov-Smirnova, and Shapiro-Wilk test results showed that the data were normal (Which have been provided in Chapter-V) and the sample size was large. For testing the hypotheses, the researcher in this study applied parametric statistical techniques like- Pearson correlation, t-test, One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) in SPSS-20 and Regression Analysis through Hayes Process Macro. Pearson Correlation analysis was run to explore the relationship between JS, EW, and SE of SEAs. To test the significant mean difference in the dependent variables among the SEAs concerning their demographics, the researcher applied statistical techniques like t-test and One-way ANOVA. Finally, based on the correlation analysis, regression analysis through Hayes Process Macro was performed to examine the mediating effects, direction, and intensity of the effect of JS and SE on EW.

4.9.4 Analysis Design

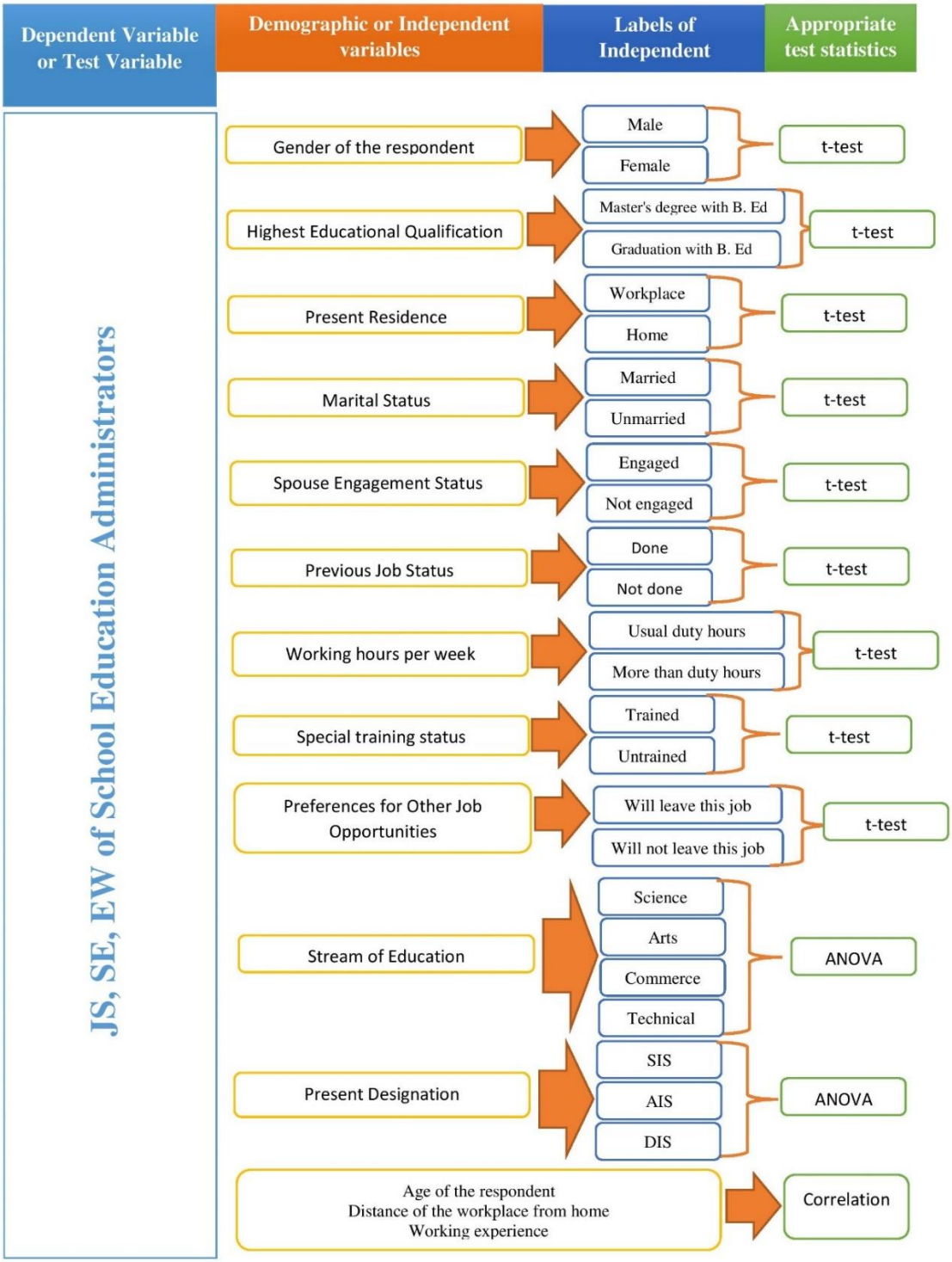


Fig. 4.3: Represents Analysis Designs

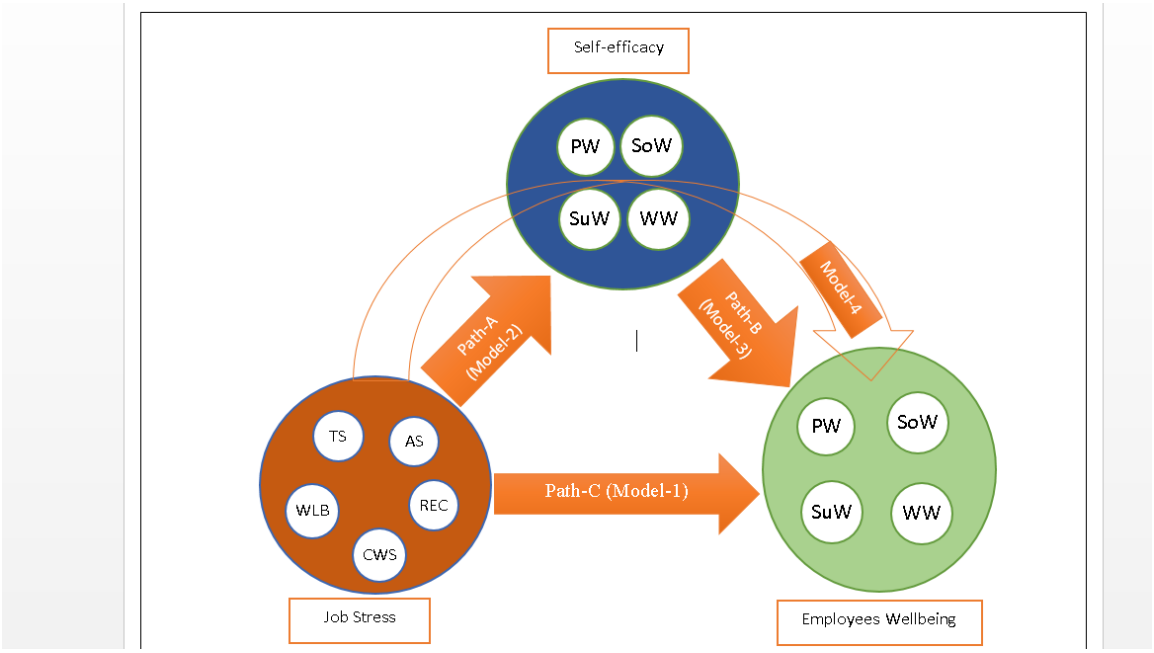


Fig. 4.4: Represents Path Analysis Designs

4.10.0 Assumptions, Limitations and Ethical Considerations

The assumptions, limitations, and ethical considerations are discussed to communicate the study's validity. In addition, factors such as input error and accuracy of information are included as well as any additional obstacles and relevant information that should be documented to assist in future research. Statistical assumptions for correlation analysis and normal distribution are addressed elsewhere in this document, where correlation and statistical methods are discussed.

4.10.1 Assumptions

One assumption was that participants engaged with honesty and accuracy in their survey responses and identified themselves as SEAs. Another assumption was that honesty and accuracy would ensure online and participant information protection, including population factors and survey responses.

4.10.2 Limitations

The study was dependent on self-reported responses from participants. The researcher maintained the assumption that the participants who were reporting were accurate and unbiased. Additionally, participants were only contacted during the study regarding the study.

4.10.3 Ethical Considerations

While conducting survey research, best ethical practices should be observed. The study aimed to better understand the relationship between variables, and causational claims cannot be made. The correlational study began with collecting data once written approval from the IRB was received. Before the study was conducted, all communication with potential participants included providing them with basic information, such as the purpose and topic of the study, to ensure that there was no coercion or pressure in the message. Before conducting the research, informed consent forms were provided to the participants for their signatures to ensure compliance with the Jadavpur University, Research Advisory Committee (RAC), and general scientific community standards. Confidentiality and anonymity of participants were maintained, as well as not collecting identifiable information that would have required disclosure. After the study's commencement, ensuring accurate data input was constantly focused. Reducing input error also increased the applicability of the study to make its claims.

CHAPTER-V

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

CHAPTER-V

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

5.1.0 Introduction

This chapter deals with the analysis, interpretation, and presentation of the collected data. It involves the use of statistical techniques for the analysis of the obtained data. This chapter is the backbone of the total study. In any kind of study, data analysis and interpretation play a vital role on the basis of which the total research results or findings can be formulated. Hence without this portion, the research works are always incomplete.

5.2.0 Analysis and Interpretation

5.2.1 Data Normality

Analysis and interpretation were started with a data normality test. This analysis shows whether or not the data is normally distributed among the representatives. In the present study**,** the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, Shapiro-Wilk test, Skewness (Sk), and Kurtosis (Ku) statistics were considered a normality test for overall and dimensions-wise JS, SE, and EW. Results of the test have given in the below table no. 5.1a and 5.1b.

Table No. 5.1a: Showing the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Test Statistics as the Test of Data Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			**Shapiro-Wilk**		
	Statistic	**df**	**Sig.**	**Statistic**	**df**	**Sig.**
D1JS: Time Stress (TS)	.116	316	.000	.926	316	.000
D2JS: Anxiety stress (AS)	.106	316	.000	.967	316	.000
D3JS: Role Expectation Conflict (REC)	.064	316	.003	.987	316	.005
D4JS: Co-worker Support (CWS)	.145	316	.000	.945	316	.000
D5JS: Work-Life Balance (WLB)	.121	316	.000	.974	316	.000
Job Stress (Overall)	.064	316	.003	.987	316	.006
D1SE: Self-Confidence (SC)	.109	316	.000	.955	316	.000
D2SE: Efficacy Expectation (EE)	.107	316	.000	.970	316	.000

D3SE: Positive Attitude (PA)	.115	316	.000	.965	316	.000
D4SE: Outcome Expectation (OE)	.120	316	.000	.953	316	.000
Self-Efficacy (Overall)	.092	316	.000	.976	316	.000
D1EW: Psychological Wellbeing (PW)	.095	316	.000	.964	316	.000
D2EW: Social Wellbeing (SoW)	.164	316	.000	.879	316	.000
D3EW: Workplace Wellbeing (WPW)	.115	316	.000	.946	316	.000
D4EW: Subjective Wellbeing	.118	316	.000	.956	316	.000
EW (Overall)	.101	316	.000	.954	316	.000
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction						

Table No. 5.1b: Representing the Skewness and Kurtosis Statistics as the Test of Data Normality

	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
		Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
D1JS: TS	316	.903	.137	.786	.273
D2JS: AS	316	.580	.137	.121	.273
D3JS: REC	316	-.072	.137	-.109	.273
D4JS: CWS	316	.908	.137	1.659	.273
D5JS: WLB	316	.272	.137	-.031	.273
Job Stress (Overall)	316	.305	.137	.530	.273
D1SE: SC	316	-.585	.137	.328	.273
D2SE: EE	316	-.358	.137	-.232	.273
D3SE: PA	316	-.512	.137	.480	.273
D4SE: OE	316	-.591	.137	.411	.273
SE (Overall)	316	-.378	.137	.779	.273
D1EW: PW	316	-.661	.137	.427	.273
D2EW: SoW	316	-1.479	.137	2.777	.273
D3EW: WPW	316	-.956	.137	2.527	.273
D4EW: SuW	316	-.511	.137	-.057	.273
EW (Overall)	316	-.763	.137	1.187	.273

Interpretation

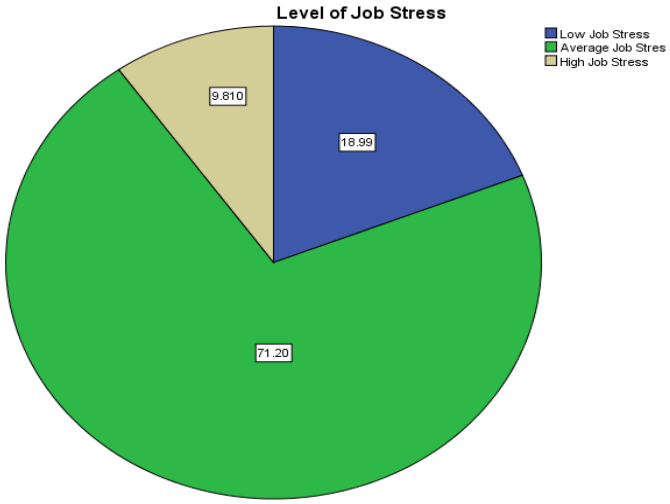
The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and Shapiro-Wilk test are considered a test of normality. The basic assumption of these tests is data is normally distributed among the sample units. A significant result in these tests rejects the assumptions of normality and indicates the non-normality of data distribution. The test statistics show that the present study data were non-normal, as the *P*-value (Sig.) is less than 0.05 for overall and dimensions-wise job stress, SE, and EW. That is why the researcher further calculated the Sk and Ku statistics. In the Sk and Ku tests, data is considered normal when the Sk statistic is zero (0) and the Ku statistic is .263. Literally, the deviation in these values indicates the non-normality of data. But, in social sciences, some empirical evidence is also present where a deviation of 1 to 7 in the statistic is considered normal or near normal. Curran et al. (1996) considered up to a variation of 2 for Sk and 7 for Ku. Similarly, Kline (2005) considered the variation up to 3 and 10 for Sk and Ku. In this study, the researcher followed Curran et al. (1996) and Kline (2005) and considered the distribution normal among the representatives as the

Sk and Ku statistics for overall and dimensions-wise JS, SE, and EW were within the variation range considered.

5.2.2 Prevalence of JS, SE and EW among SEAs

Table No. 5.2 and Figure No. 5.1: Depicting the Overall Level of JS

Level of JS	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Low JS	60	19.0	19.0	19.0
Average JS	225	71.2	71.2	90.2
High JS	31	9.8	9.8	100.0
Total	316	100.0	100.0	

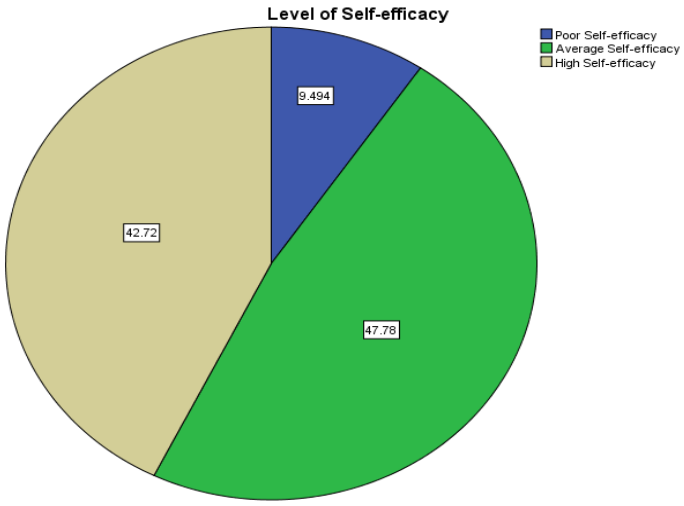


Interpretation

Above table- 5.2, and Figure No. 5.1 reflects that out of 316 SEAs, 19.0% of administrators face a low level of JS, 71.2% face an average level of JS, and only 9.8% face a high level of JS. This means most of the administrators (71.2%) face the average level of JS.

Table No. 5.3 and Figure No. 5.2: Depicting the Overall Level of SE

Level of SE	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Poor SE	30	9.5	9.5	9.5
Average SE	151	47.8	47.8	57.3
High SE	135	42.7	42.7	100.0
Total	316	100.0	100.0	

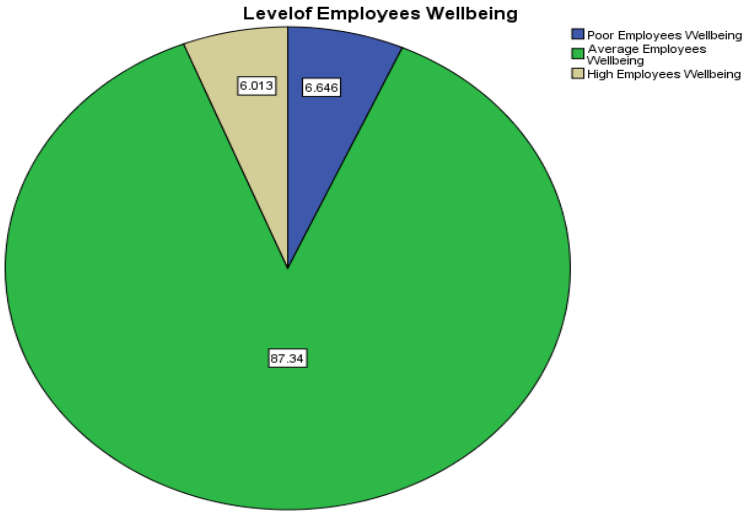


Interpretation

Above table No. 5.3 and Figure No. 5.2 reflects that out of 316 SEAs, only 9.5% of administrators showed a poor level of SE, 47.8% of administrators had an average level of SE, and 42.7% had a high level of SE. That means cumulatively, most of the administrators (90.5%) have an average to a high level of SE.

Table No. 5.4 and Figure No. 5.3: Depicting the Overall Level of EW

Level of EW	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Poor EW	21	6.6	6.6	6.6
Average EW	276	87.3	87.3	94.0
High EW	19	6.0	6.0	100.0
Total	316	100.0	100.0	



Interpretation

Above table No. 5.4 and Figure No. 5.3 reflects that out of 316 SEAs, cumulatively, 12.6% of administrators showed a poor and high level of EW, and most of the administrators have an average level of EW, i.e., 87.3%.

5.2.3 Testing of Hypotheses

5.2.3.1 Testing of Hypothesis-1 ($H_0$1): There is no significant difference in JS, SE and EW and their dimensions among SEAs concerning their gender

Table No. 5.5: Effect of Gender on Overall and Dimensions wise JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

	Gender	N	Mean	SD	SEM	t	df	*P*
D1JS: TS	Male	242	8.76	3.630	.233	-.049	314	.961
	Female	74	8.78	3.497	.406			
D2JS: AS	Male	242	13.06	4.473	.288	-1.220	314	.223
	Female	74	13.77	4.137	.481			
D3JS: REC	Male	242	13.40	3.643	.234	-1.213	314	.226
	Female	74	13.97	3.351	.390			
D4JS: CWS	Male	242	9.62	3.109	.200	-.401	314	.688
	Female	74	9.78	2.962	.344			
D5JS: WLB	Male	242	10.52	2.816	.181	-.793	314	.428
	Female	74	10.81	2.713	.315			
JS (Overall)	Male	242	55.35	10.021	.644	-1.370	314	.172
	Female	74	57.12	8.680	1.009			
D1SE: Self-Confidence	Male	242	21.13	2.666	.171	2.206	314	.028
	Female	74	20.36	2.390	.278			
D2SE: EE	Male	242	20.33	2.926	.188	1.710	314	.088
	Female	74	19.66	2.920	.339			
D3SE: PA	Male	242	20.83	2.492	.160	1.668	314	.096
	Female	74	20.28	2.303	.268			
D4SE: OE	Male	242	21.68	2.168	.139	1.427	314	.154
	Female	74	21.27	2.179	.253			
SE (Overall)	Male	242	83.96	7.753	.498	2.345	314	.020
	Female	74	81.58	7.281	.846			
D1EW: PW	Male	242	43.26	3.963	.255	1.558	314	.120
	Female	74	42.43	4.201	.488			
D2EW: SoW	Male	242	44.46	4.664	.300	2.278	314	.023
	Female	74	43.03	4.949	.575			
D3EW: WPW	Male	242	35.31	5.507	.354	.837	314	.403
	Female	74	34.72	4.934	.574			
D4EW: SuW	Male	242	16.33	2.557	.164		314	.322

	Female	74	16.00	2.196	.255	.992		
EW (Overall)	Male	242	139.36	12.451	.800	1.938	314	.054
	Female	74	136.18	12.169	1.415			

Interpretation

Table- 5.5 shows that out of 316 SEAs, the mean score of 242 males in the case of TS (i.e., 8.76) is less than the mean score of 74 females (i.e., 8.78). It means that female administrators face more TS than male administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.049, df=314 & *P*= .961) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in TS among SEAs concerning their gender.

The result concerning AS, the mean score of 242 male SEAs (i.e., 13.06) is less than the mean score of 74 females (i.e., 13.77). It means that female administrators face more anxiety and stress than male administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -1.220, df=314 & *P*= .223) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in AS among SEA with regard to their gender.

Concerning REC, the mean score of 242 male SEAs (i.e., 13.40) is less than the mean score of 74 females (i.e., 13.97). It means that female administrators face more REC than male administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -1.213, df=314 & *P*= .226) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in REC among SEA based on their gender.

Regarding CWS, the mean score of 242 male SEAs (i.e., 9.62) is less than 74 females (i.e., 9.78). Therefore, it means that female administrators have less CWS than male administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.401, df=314 & *P*= .688) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in CWS among SEAs concerning their gender.

In the case of WLB, the mean score of 242 male SEAs (i.e., 10.52) is less than the mean score of 74 females (i.e., 10.81). It means that female administrators have less WLB than male administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.793, df=314 & *P*= .428) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in WLB among SEAs concerning their gender.

In JS, the mean score of 242 male SEAs (i.e., 55.35) is less than the mean score of 74 females (i.e., 57.12). It means that female administrators face more JS than male administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -1.370, df=314 & *P*= .172) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in JS among SEAs concerning their gender.

In the dimension of self-confidence, the mean score of 242 male SEAs (i.e., 21.13) is greater than the mean score of 74 females (i.e., 20.36). It means that male administrators have more SC than female administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 2.206, df=314 & *P*= .028) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in SC among SEA concerning their gender.

Concerning EE, the mean score of 242 male SEAs (i.e., 20.33) is greater than the mean score of 74 females (i.e., 19.66). It means that male administrators have more EEs than female administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 1.710, df=314 & *P*= .088) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in EEs among SEA concerning their gender.

The result concerning PA, the mean score of 242 male SEAs (i.e., 20.83) is greater than the mean score of 74 females (i.e., 20.28). It means that the male administrators have a more PA than the female administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 1.668, df=314 & *P*= .096) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in PAs among SEA concerning their gender.

Regarding OE, the mean score of 242 male SEAs (i.e., 21.68) is greater than 74 females (i.e., 21.27). Therefore, it means that male administrators have more OEs than female administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 1.427, df=314 & *P*= .154) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in OEs among SEA concerning their gender.

In SE, the mean score of 242 male SEAs (i.e., 83.96) is greater than the mean score of 74 females (i.e., 81.58). Therefore, it means that male administrators have more SE than female administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 2.345, df=314 & *P*= .020) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in SE among SEA concerning their gender.

In the dimension of PW, the mean score of 242 male SEAs (i.e., 43.26) is greater than the mean score of 74 females (i.e., 42.43). It means that male administrators have more PW than female administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 1.558, df=314 & *P*= .120) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in PW among SEAs concerning their gender.

Concerning SoW, the mean score of 242 male SEAs (i.e., 44.46) is greater than the mean score of 74 females (i.e., 43.03). Therefore, it means that male administrators have more SoW than female administrators. Further, the t-test result shows that (t= 2.278, df=314 & *P*= .023) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in SoW among SEAs based on their gender.

In the case of WPW, the mean score of 242 male SEAs (i.e., 35.31) is greater than the mean score of 74 females (i.e., 34.72). It means that male administrators have more WPW than female administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .837, df=314 & *P*= .403) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in WPW among SEAs concerning their gender.

The result concerning SuW, the mean score of 242 male SEAs (i.e., 16.33), is greater than the mean score of 74 females (i.e., 16.00). Therefore, it means that male administrators have more SuW than female administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .992, df=314 & *P*= .322) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in SuW among SEAs concerning their gender.

In EW, the mean score of 242 male SEAs (i.e., 139.36) is greater than the mean score of 74 females (i.e., 136.18). Therefore, it means that male administrators have more EW than female administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 1.938, df=314 & *P*= .054) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in EW among SEAs concerning their gender.

5.2.3.2 Testing of Hypothesis-2 ($H_0$2): There is no significant difference in JS, SE and EW and their dimensions among SEAs concerning their highest educational qualification

Table No. 5.6: Effect of Highest Educational Qualification on Overall and Dimensions wise JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

	Highest Educational Qualification	N	Mean	SD	SEM	t	df	*p*
D1JS: TS	Master's Degree with B. Ed.	304	8.71	3.535	.203	-1.379	314	.169
	Graduation with B. Ed.	12	10.17	4.840	1.397			
D2JS: AS	Master's Degree with B. Ed.	304	13.05	4.259	.244	-3.563	314	.000
	Graduation with B. Ed.	12	17.58	5.775	1.667			
D3JS: REC	Master's Degree with B. Ed.	304	13.45	3.513	.201	-1.951	314	.052
	Graduation with B. Ed.	12	15.50	4.758	1.373			
D4JS: CWS	Master's Degree with B. Ed.	304	9.61	3.003	.172	-1.450	314	.148

	Graduation with B. Ed.	12	10.92	4.461	1.288			
D5JS: WLB	Master's Degree with B. Ed.	304	10.61	2.763	.158	.740	314	.460
	Graduation with B. Ed.	12	10.00	3.516	1.015			
JS (Overall)	Master's Degree with B. Ed.	304	55.43	9.480	.544	-3.088	314	.002
	Graduation with B. Ed.	12	64.17	12.669	3.657			
D1SE: Self-Confidence	Master's Degree with B. Ed.	304	20.89	2.607	.149	-1.873	314	.062
	Graduation with B. Ed.	12	22.33	2.708	.782			
D2SE: EE	Master's Degree with B. Ed.	304	20.19	2.887	.166	.707	314	.480
	Graduation with B. Ed.	12	19.58	4.055	1.171			
D3SE: PA	Master's Degree with B. Ed.	304	20.67	2.468	.142	-1.032	314	.303
	Graduation with B. Ed.	12	21.42	2.109	.609			
D4SE: OE	Master's Degree with B. Ed.	304	21.57	2.170	.124	-.673	314	.501
	Graduation with B. Ed.	12	22.00	2.335	.674			
SE (Overall)	Master's Degree with B. Ed.	304	83.33	7.627	.437	-.884	314	.377
	Graduation with B. Ed.	12	85.33	9.557	2.759			
D1EW: PW	Master's Degree with B. Ed.	304	43.04	4.045	.232	-.669	314	.504
	Graduation with B. Ed.	12	43.83	3.664	1.058			
D2EW: SoW	Master's Degree with B. Ed.	304	44.19	4.699	.270	1.205	314	.229
	Graduation with B. Ed.	12	42.50	6.201	1.790			
D3EW: WPW	Master's Degree with B. Ed.	304	35.07	5.374	.308	-1.752	314	.081
	Graduation with B. Ed.	12	37.83	4.933	1.424			
D4EW: SuW	Master's Degree with B. Ed.	304	16.24	2.479	.142	-.237	314	.813
	Graduation with B. Ed.	12	16.42	2.539	.733			
EW (Overall)	Master's Degree with B. Ed.	304	138.54	12.494	.717	-.558	314	.578
	Graduation with B. Ed.	12	140.58	11.309	3.265			

Interpretation

Table- 5.6 shows that in the case of TS, out of 316 SEAs, the mean score of 304 administrators who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed (i.e., 8.71) is less than the mean score of 12 administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed (i.e., 10.17). It means that the administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed face more TS than those who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -1.379, df=314 & *P*= .169) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in TS among SEAs concerning their highest educational qualifications.

The result concerning AS, the mean score of 304 SEAs who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed (i.e., 13.05) is less than the mean score of 12 administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed (i.e., 17.58). It means that the administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed face more anxiety and stress than those who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -3.563, df=314 & *P*= .000) the result is significant. Hence, it means a significant difference exists in AS among SEAs concerning their highest educational qualifications.

Regarding REC, the mean score of 304 SEAs who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed (i.e., 13.45) is less than the mean score of 12 administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed (i.e., 15.50). It means that the administrators who have qualified for Graduation with B. Ed face more REC than those who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -1.951, df=314 & *P*= .052) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in REC among SEAs concerning their highest educational qualifications.

In the CWS dimension, the mean score of 304 SEAs who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed (i.e., 9.61) is less than the mean score of 12 administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed (i.e., 10.92). It means that the administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed have less CWS than those who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -1.450, df=314 & *P*= .148) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in CWS among SEAs concerning their highest educational qualifications.

In the dimension of WLB, the mean score of 304 SEAs who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed (i.e., 10.61) is greater than the mean score of 12 administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed (i.e., 10.00). It means that the administrators who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed have less WLB than those who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .740, df=314 & *P*= .460) the result

is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in WLB among SEAs concerning their highest educational qualifications.

In JS, the mean score of 304 SEAs who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed (i.e., 55.43) is less than the mean score of 12 administrators who have qualified for Graduation with B. Ed (i.e., 64.17). It means that the administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed face more JS than those who have a qualified Master's degree with B. Ed. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -3.088, df=314 & *P*= .002) the result is significant. Hence, it means a significant difference exists in JS among SEAs concerning their highest educational qualifications.

The above table also shows that in the dimension of self-confidence, the mean score of 304 SEAs who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed (i.e., 20.89) is less than the mean score of 12 administrators who have qualified to Graduation with B. Ed (i.e., 22.33). It means that the administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed have more SC than those who have a qualified Master's degree with B. Ed. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -1.873, df=314 & *P*= .062) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in SC among SEAs concerning their highest educational qualifications.

Regarding EE, the mean score of 304 SEAs who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed (i.e., 20.19) is greater than the mean score of 12 administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed (i.e., 19.58). It means that the administrators who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed have more EEs than those who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .707, df=314 & *P*= .480) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in EEs among SEAs concerning their highest educational qualifications.

In the PA dimension, the mean score of 304 SEAs who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed (i.e., 20.67) is less than the mean score of 12 administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed (i.e., 21.42). It means that the administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed have a more PA than the administrators who have a qualified Master's degree with B. Ed. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -1.032, df=314 & *P*= .303) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in PAs among SEAs concerning their highest educational qualifications.

In the case of OE, the mean score of 304 SEAs who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed (i.e., 21.57) is less than the mean score of 12 administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed (i.e., 22.00). It means that the administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed have more OEs than those who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.673, df=314 & *P*= .501) the result is not

significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in OEs among SEAs concerning their highest educational qualifications.

In SE, the mean score of 304 SEAs who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed (i.e., 83.33) is less than the mean score of 12 administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed (i.e., 85.33). It means that the administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed have more SE than those who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.884, df=314 & *P*= .377) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in SE among SEAs concerning their highest educational qualifications.

The above table also shows that in the dimension of PW, the mean score of 304 SEAs who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed (i.e., 43.04) is less than the mean score of 12 administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed (i.e., 43.83). It means that the administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed have more PW than those who have a qualified Master's degree with B. Ed. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.669, df=314 & *P*= .504) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference in PW among SEAs concerning their highest educational qualifications.

In the SoW dimension, the mean score of 304 SEAs who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed (i.e., 44.19) is greater than the mean score of 12 administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed (i.e., 42.50). It means that the administrators who have a qualified Master's degree with B. Ed have more SoW than those who have a qualified Graduation with B. Ed. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 1.205, df=314 & *P*= .229) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in SoW among SEA concerning their highest educational qualifications.

Concerning WPW, the mean score of 304 SEAs who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed (i.e., 35.07) is less than the mean score of 12 administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed (i.e., 37.83). It means that the administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed have more WPW than those who have a qualified Master's degree with B. Ed. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -1.752, df=314 & *P*= .081) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in WPW among SEAs based on their highest educational qualifications.

In the SuW dimension, the mean score of 304 SEAs who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed (i.e., 16.24) is less than the mean score of 12 administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed (i.e., 16.42). It means that the administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed have more SuW than those who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.237, df=314 & *P*= .813) the result is not

significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in SuW among SEAs concerning their highest educational qualifications.

In EW, the mean score of 304 SEA who have qualified Master's degree with B. Ed (i.e., 138.54) is less than the mean score of 12 administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed (i.e., 140.58). It means that the administrators who have qualified Graduation with B. Ed have more EW than those who have a qualified Master's degree with B. Ed. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.558, df=314 & *P*= .578) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in EW among SEAs concerning their highest educational qualifications.

5.2.3.3 Testing of Hypothesis-3 ($H_0$3): There is no significant difference in JS, SE and EW and their dimensions among SEAs concerning their present residence

Table No. 5.7: Effect of Present Residence on Overall and Dimensions wise JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

	Present Residence	N	Mean	SD	SEM	t	df	*P*
D1JS: TS	In the Family	192	8.83	3.591	.259	.415	314	.678
	At the Workplace	124	8.66	3.611	.324			
D2JS: AS	In the Family	192	13.53	4.524	.327	1.544	314	.123
	At the Workplace	124	12.75	4.174	.375			
D3JS: REC	In the Family	192	13.49	3.490	.252	-.260	314	.795
	At the Workplace	124	13.60	3.728	.335			
D4JS: CWS	In the Family	192	9.55	3.107	.224	-.764	314	.445
	At the Workplace	124	9.82	3.020	.271			
D5JS: WLB	In the Family	192	10.49	2.717	.196	-.718	314	.473
	At the Workplace	124	10.73	2.906	.261			
JS (Overall)	In the Family	192	55.90	9.528	.688	.307	314	.759
	At the Workplace	124	55.56	10.092	.906			
D1SE: Self-Confidence	In the Family	192	21.03	2.572	.186	.691	314	.490
	At the Workplace	124	20.82	2.699	.242			
D2SE: EE	In the Family	192	20.22	3.000	.216	.360	314	.719
	At the Workplace	124	20.10	2.838	.255			
D3SE: PA	In the Family	192	20.86	2.387	.172	1.491	314	.137
	At the Workplace	124	20.44	2.548	.229			
D4SE: OE	In the Family	192	21.80	2.030	.147	2.164	314	.031

	At the Workplace	124	21.26	2.351	.211			
SE (Overall)	In the Family	192	83.91	7.510	.542	1.457	314	.146
	At the Workplace	124	82.62	7.952	.714			
D1EW: PW	In the Family	192	43.36	3.856	.278	1.624	314	.105
	At the Workplace	124	42.61	4.257	.382			
D2EW: SoW	In the Family	192	44.23	4.668	.337	.515	314	.607
	At the Workplace	124	43.95	4.920	.442			
D3EW: WPW	In the Family	192	35.84	5.139	.371	2.762	314	.006
	At the Workplace	124	34.15	5.593	.502			
D4EW: SuW	In the Family	192	16.36	2.367	.171	.977	314	.330
	At the Workplace	124	16.08	2.640	.237			
EW (Overall)	In the Family	192	139.80	11.813	.853	2.109	314	.036
	At the Workplace	124	136.79	13.195	1.185			

Interpretation

Table- 5.7 shows that in the case of TS, out of 316 SEAs, the mean score of 192 administrators who stay in the family (i.e., 8.83) is greater than the mean score of 124 administrators who stay at the workplace (i.e., 8.66). It means that the administrators who stay in the family face more TS than the administrators who stay at the workplace. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .415, df=314 & *P*= .678) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in TS among SEAs in relation to their present residence.

Concerning AS, the mean score of 192 SEAs who stay in the family (i.e., 13.53) is greater than the mean score of 124 administrators who stay at the workplace (i.e., 12.75). It means that the administrators who stay in the family face more anxiety and stress than those who stay at the workplace. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 1.544, df=314 & *P*= .123) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in AS among SEAs based on their present residence.

Regarding REC, the mean score of 192 SEAs who stay in the family (i.e., 13.49) is less than the mean score of 124 administrators who stay at the workplace (i.e., 13.60). It means that the administrators who stay at the workplace face more REC than those who stay in the family. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.260 (df=314, *P*= .795), the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in REC among SEAs concerning their present residence.

The above table shows that in CWS, the mean score of 192 school administrators who stay in the family (i.e., 9.55) is less than the mean score of 124 administrators who stay at the

workplace (i.e., 9.82). It means that the administrators who stay at the workplace have less CWS than those who stay in the family. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.764, df=314 & *P*= .445) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in CWS among SEAs concerning their present residence.

Results revealed that in the dimension of WLB, the mean score of 192 SEAs who stay in the family (i.e., 10.49) is less than the mean score of 124 administrators who stay at the workplace (i.e., 10.73). It means that the administrators who stay at the workplace have less WLB than those who stay in the family. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.718, df=314 & *P*= .473) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in WLB among SEAs concerning their present residence.

In JS, the mean score of 192 SEAs who stay in the family (i.e., 55.90) is greater than the mean score of 124 administrators who stay at the workplace (i.e., 55.56). It means that the administrators who stay in the family face more JS than those who stay at the workplace. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .307, df=314 & *P*= .759) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in JS among SEAs in relation to their present residence.

Regarding self-confidence, the mean score of 192 SEAs who stay in the family (i.e., 21.03) is greater than the mean score of 124 administrators who stay at the workplace (i.e., 20.82). It means that the administrators who stay in the family have more SC than those who stay at the workplace. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .691, df=314 & *P*= .490) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in SC among SEAs concerning their present residence.

In the dimension of EE, the mean score of 192 SEAs who stay in the family (i.e., 20.22) is greater than the mean score of 124 administrators who stay at the workplace (i.e., 20.10). It means that the administrators who stay in the family have more EEs than those who stay at the workplace. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .360, df=314 & *P*= .719) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in EE among SEAs concerning their present residence.

In the case of PA, the mean score of 192 SEAs who stay in the family (i.e., 20.86) is greater than the mean score of 124 administrators who stay at the workplace (i.e., 20.44). It means that the administrators who stay in the family have a more PA than the administrators who stay at the workplace. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 1.491, df=314 & *P*= .137) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in PAs among SEAs concerning their present residence.

The result shows that in the OE dimension, the mean score of 192 SEAs who stay in the family (i.e., 21.80) is greater than the mean score of 124 administrators who stay at the workplace (i.e., 21.26). It means that the administrators who stay in the family have more OEs than those who stay at the workplace. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 2.164, df=314 & *P*= .031) the result is significant. Hence, it means a significant difference exists in OEs among SEAs concerning their present residence.

In SE, the mean score of 192 SEAs who stay in the family (i.e., 83.91) is greater than the mean score of 124 SEAs who stay at the workplace (i.e., 82.62). It means that the administrators who stay in the family have more SE than those who stay at the workplace. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 1.457, df=314 & *P*= .146) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in SE among SEAs concerning their present residence.

Regarding the PW dimension, the mean score of 192 SEAs who stay in the family (i.e., 43.36) is greater than the mean score of 124 SEAs who stay at the workplace (i.e., 42.61). It means that the administrators who stay in the family have more PW than those who stay at the workplace. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 1.624, df=314 & *P*= .105) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in PW among SEAs concerning their present residence.

In the dimension of SoW, the mean score of 192 SEAs who stay in the family (i.e., 44.23) is greater than the mean score of 124 SEAss who stay at the workplace (i.e., 43.95). It means that the administrators who stay in the family have more SoW than those who stay at the workplace. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .515, df=314 & *P*= .607) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in SoW among SEAs concerning their present residence.

In the case of WPW, the mean score of 192 SEAs who stay in the family (i.e., 35.84) is greater than the mean score of 124 administrators who stay at the workplace (i.e., 34.15). It means that the administrators who stay in the family have more WPW than the administrators who stay at the workplace. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 2.762, df=314 & *P*= .006) the result is significant. Hence, it means a significant difference exists in WPW among SEAs concerning their present residence.

Concerning the SuW dimension, the mean score of 192 SEAs who stay in the family (i.e., 16.36) is greater than the mean score of 124 administrators who stay at the workplace (i.e., 16.08). It means that the administrators who stay in the family have more SuW than those who stay at the workplace. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .977, df=314 & *P*= .330) the

result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in SuW among SEAs concerning their present residence.

The above table also shows that in EW, the mean score of 192 SEAs who stay in the family (i.e., 139.80) is greater than the mean score of 124 administrators who stay at the workplace (i.e., 136.79). It means that the administrators who stay in the family have more EW than those who stay at the workplace. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 2.109, df=314 & *P*= .036) the result is significant. Hence, it means a significant difference exists in EW among SEAs concerning their present residence.

5.2.3.4 Testing of Hypothesis-4 ($H_0$4): There is no significant difference in JS, SE and EW and their dimensions among SEAs concerning their marital status

Table No. 5.8: Effect of Marital Status on Dimensions wise and overall, JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

	Marital status	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**	**SEM**	**t**	**df**	***P***
D1JS: TS	Married	267	8.70	3.531	.216	.428	298	.669
	Unmarried	33	8.42	3.231	.562			
D2JS: AS	Married	267	13.15	4.392	.269	.073	298	.942
	Unmarried	33	13.09	4.126	.718			
D3JS: REC	Married	267	13.36	3.648	.223	-1.282	298	.201
	Unmarried	33	14.21	3.059	.533			
D4JS: CWS	Married	267	9.63	3.117	.191	.149	298	.882
	Unmarried	33	9.55	2.360	.411			
D5JS: WLB	Married	267	10.55	2.851	.174	-.973	298	.331
	Unmarried	33	11.06	2.536	.442			
JS (Overall)	Married	267	55.40	9.734	.596	-.528	298	.598
	Unmarried	33	56.33	8.440	1.469			
D1SE: SE	Married	267	21.10	2.606	.160	1.299	298	.195
	Unmarried	33	20.48	2.412	.420			
D2SE: EE	Married	267	20.25	2.922	.179	.400	298	.689
	Unmarried	33	20.03	3.067	.534			
D3SE: PA	Married	267	20.89	2.414	.148	2.274	298	.024
	Unmarried	33	19.88	2.315	.403			
D4SE: OE	Married	267	21.71	2.205	.135	1.611	298	.108
	Unmarried	33	21.06	1.936	.337			
SE (Overall)	Married	267	83.95	7.624	.467	1.789	298	.075
	Unmarried	33	81.45	6.933	1.207			

D1EW: PW	Married	267	43.21	4.020	.246	.156	298	.876
	Unmarried	33	43.09	3.908	.680			
D2EW: SoW	Married	267	44.22	4.662	.285	.258	298	.797
	Unmarried	33	44.00	4.521	.787			
D3EW: WPW	Married	267	35.23	5.524	.338	-.135	298	.892
	Unmarried	33	35.36	4.314	.751			
D4EW: SuW	Married	267	16.31	2.511	.154	-.041	298	.967
	Unmarried	33	16.33	1.963	.342			
EW (Overall)	Married	267	138.97	12.420	.760	.081	298	.936
	Unmarried	33	138.79	10.511	1.830			

Interpretation

Table- 5.8 shows that in the case of TS, out of 300 SEAs, the mean score of 267 married administrators (i.e., 8.70) is greater than the mean score of 33 unmarried administrators (i.e., 8.42). It means that married administrators face more TS than unmarried administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .428, df=298 & *P*= .669) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference in TS among SEAs with regard to their marital status.

In the dimensions of AS, the mean score of 267 married SEAs (i.e., 13.15) is greater than the mean score of 33 unmarried administrators (i.e., 13.09). It means that married administrators face more anxiety and stress than unmarried administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .073, df=298 & *P*= .942) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in AS among SEAs with regard to their marital status.

Regarding REC, the mean score of 267 married SEAs (i.e13.36) is less than the mean score of 33 unmarried administrators (i.e., 14.21). It means that unmarried administrators face more REC than married administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -1.282, df=298 & *P*= .201) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in REC among SEAs with regard to their marital status.

Results show that in the dimensions of CWS, the mean score of 267 married SEAs (i.e., 9.63) is greater than the mean score of 33 unmarried administrators (i.e., 9.55). It means that married administrators have less CWS than unmarried administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .149, df=298 & *P*= .882) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in CWS among SEAs with regard to their marital status.

The above table also shows that in the dimensions of WLB, the mean score of 267 married SEAs is 10.55, less than the mean score of 33 unmarried administrators is 11.06. It means that unmarried administrators have less WLB than married administrators. Further, the t-

test shows that (t= -.973, df=298 & *P*= .331) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in WLB among SEAs with regard to their marital status.

In JS, the mean score of 267 married SEAs (i.e., 55.40) is less than the mean score of 33 unmarried administrators (i.e., 56.33). It means that unmarried administrators face more JS than married administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.528, df=298 & *P*= .598) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in JS among SEAs with regard to their marital status.

In the dimensions of self-confidence, the mean score of 267 married SEAs (i.e., 21.10) is greater than the mean score of 33 unmarried administrators (i.e., 20.48). It means that married administrators have more SC than unmarried administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 1.299, df=298 & *P*= .195) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in SC among SEAs with regard to their marital status.

In the case of EE, the mean score of 267 married SEAs (i.e., 20.25) is greater than the mean score of 33 unmarried administrators (i.e., 20.03). It means that married administrators have more EEs than unmarried administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .400, df=298 & *P*= .689) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in EEs among SEAs with regard to their marital status.

Regarding PA, the mean score of 267 married SEAs (i.e., 20.89) is greater than the mean score of 33 unmarried administrators (i.e., 19.88). It means that married administrators have a more PA than unmarried administrators. Further, the t-test result shows that (t= 2.274, df=298 & *P*= .024) the result is significant. Hence, it means a significant difference exists in PAs among SEAs regarding their marital status.

Results revealed that in the case of OE, the mean score of 267 married SEAs (i.e., 21.71) is greater than the mean score of 33 unmarried administrators (i.e., 21.06). It means that married administrators have more OEs than unmarried administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 1.611, df=298 & *P*= .108) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in OEs among SEAs with regard to their marital status.

In SE, the mean score of 267 married SEA (i.e., 83.95) is greater than the mean score of 33 unmarried administrators (i.e., 81.45). It means that married administrators have more SE than unmarried administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 1.789, df=298 & *P*= .075) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in SE among SEAs with regard to their marital status.

In the dimensions of PW, the mean score of 267 married SEAs (i.e., 43.21) is greater than the mean score of 33 unmarried administrators (i.e., 43.09). It means that married administrators have more PW than unmarried administrators. Further, the t-test shows that

(t= .156, df=298 & *P*= .876) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in PW among SEAs with regard to their marital status.

In the case of SoW, the mean score of 267 married SEAs (i.e., 44.22) is greater than the mean score of 33 unmarried administrators (i.e., 44.00). It means that married administrators have more SoW than unmarried administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .258, df=298 & *p*= .797) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in SoW among SEAs with regard to their marital status.

Concerning WPW, the mean score of 267 married SEAs (i.e., 35.23) is less than the mean score of 33 unmarried administrators (i.e., 35.36). It means that unmarried administrators have more WPW than married administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.135, df=298 & *P*= .892) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in WPW among SEAs with regard to their marital status.

The result shows that in SuW, the mean score of 267 married SEAs (i.e., 16.31) is less than the mean score of 33 unmarried administrators (i.e., 16.33). Therefore, it means that unmarried administrators have more SuW than married administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.041, df=298 & *P*= .967) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in SuW among SEAs with regard to their marital status.

In EW, the mean score of 267 married SEAs (i.e., 138.97) is greater than the mean score of 33 unmarried administrators (i.e., 138.79). It means that married administrators have more EW than unmarried administrators. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .081, df=298 & *P*= .936) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in EW among SEAs with regard to their marital status.

5.2.3.5 Testing of Hypothesis-5 (H_05): There is no significant difference in JS, SE and EW and their dimensions among SEAs concerning their spouse's job engagement status

Table No. 5.9: Effect of Spouse Engagement Status on Overall and Dimensions wise JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

	Spouse Engagement status	N	Mean	SD	SEM	t	df	*P*
D1JS: TS	Yes	117	8.29	3.243	.300	-1.681	265	.094
	No	150	9.02	3.719	.304			
D2JS: AS	Yes	117	13.33	3.996	.369	.602	265	.548
	No	150	13.01	4.687	.383			
D3JS: REC	Yes	117	13.35	3.531	.326	-.051	265	.960
	No	150	13.37	3.748	.306			
D4JS: CWS	Yes	117	9.72	2.726	.252	.410	265	.682
	No	150	9.56	3.399	.277			
D5JS: WLB	Yes	117	10.74	2.829	.262	.958	265	.339
	No	150	10.41	2.869	.234			
JS (Overall)	Yes	117	55.44	8.421	.779	.058	265	.954
	No	150	55.37	10.675	.872			
D1SE: Self-Confidence	Yes	117	20.78	2.282	.211	-1.819	265	.070
	No	150	21.36	2.815	.230			
D2SE: EE	Yes	117	19.89	2.677	.248	-1.777	265	.077
	No	150	20.53	3.080	.251			
D3SE: PA	Yes	117	20.66	2.429	.225	-1.374	265	.171
	No	150	21.07	2.396	.196			
D4SE: OE	Yes	117	21.50	2.128	.197	-1.334	265	.183
	No	150	21.87	2.257	.184			
SE (Overall)	Yes	117	82.83	7.350	.680	-2.131	265	.034
	No	150	84.82	7.744	.632			
D1EW: PW	Yes	117	42.80	3.922	.363	-1.448	265	.149
	No	150	43.52	4.079	.333			
D2EW: SoW	Yes	117	43.64	4.804	.444	-1.803	265	.073
	No	150	44.67	4.513	.369			
D3EW: WPW	Yes	117	33.67	6.013	.556	-4.206	265	.000
	No	150	36.45	4.787	.391			
D4EW: SuW	Yes	117	16.06	2.537	.235	-1.467	265	.143
	No	150	16.51	2.481	.203			
EW (Overall)	Yes	117	136.17	12.618	1.167	-3.313	265	.001
	No	150	141.15	11.852	.968			

Interpretation

Table- 5.9 shows that in TS out of 267 SEAs, the mean score of 117 SEAs whose spouses are engaged with any job (i.e., 8.29) is less than the mean score of 150 administrators whose spouses are not engaged with any job (i.e., 9.02). It means that the administrators whose spouses are not engaged in any job to face more TS than those whose spouses are engaged with any job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -1.681, df=265 & *P*= .094) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in TS among SEAs concerning their spouse engagement status.

Regarding AS, the mean score of 117 SEAs whose spouses are engaged with any job (i.e., 13.33) is greater than the mean score of 150 administrators whose spouses are not engaged with any job (i.e., 13.01). It means that the administrators whose spouses are engaged in any job to face more anxiety and stress than the administrators whose spouses are not engaged in any job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .602, df=265 & *P*= .548) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in AS among SEAs based on their spouse engagement status.

Results show that in REC, the mean score of 117 SEAs whose spouses engage with any job (i.e., 13.35) is less than the mean score of 150 administrators whose spouses are not engaged with any job (i.e., 13.37). It means that the administrators whose spouses are not engaged in any job to face more REC than those who are engaged in any job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.051, df=265 & *P*= .960) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in REC among SEAs concerning their spouse engagement status.

The above table revealed that in the dimension of CWS, the mean score of 117 SEAs whose spouses are engaged with any job (i.e., 9.72) is greater than the mean score of 150 administrators whose spouses are not engaged with any job (i.e., 9.56). It means that the administrators whose spouses are engaged with any job have less CWS than the administrators whose spouses are not engaged with any job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .410, df=265 & *P*= .682) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in CWS among SEAs concerning their spouse engagement status.

Concerning WLB, the mean score of 117 SEAs whose spouses are engaged with any job (i.e., 10.74) is greater than the mean score of 150 administrators whose spouses are not engaged with any job (i.e., 10.41). It means that the administrators whose spouses are engaged with any job have less WLB than the administrators whose spouses are not engaged in any job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .958, df=265 & *P*= .339) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in WLB among SEAs in relation to their spouse engagement status.

In JS, the mean score of 117 SEAs whose spouses are engaged with any job (i.e., 55.44) is greater than the mean score of 150 administrators whose spouses are not engaged with any job (i.e., 55.37). It means that the administrators whose spouses are engaged in any job to face more JS than the administrators whose spouses are not engaged in any job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .058, df=265 & *P*= .954) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in JS among SEAs concerning their spouse engagement status.

In the dimension of self-confidence, the mean score of 117 SEAs whose spouses are engaged with any job (i.e., 20.78) is less than the mean score of 150 administrators whose spouses are not engaged with any job (i.e., 21.36). It means that the administrators whose spouses are not engaged in any job have more self-confidence than those whose spouses are engaged in any job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -1.819, df=265 & *P*= .070) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in SC among SEAs concerning their spouse engagement status.

Regarding EE, the mean score of 117 SEAs whose spouses are engaged with any job (i.e., 19.89) is less than the mean score of 150 administrators whose spouses are not engaged with any job (i.e., 20.53). It means that the administrators whose spouses are not engaged in any job have more EEs than those whose spouses are engaged with any job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -1.777, df=265 & *P*= .077) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in EEs among SEA concerning their spouse engagement status.

The same table also shows that in a PA, the mean score of 117 SEAs whose spouses are engaged with any job (i.e., 20.66) is less than the mean score of 150 administrators whose spouses are not engaged with any job (i.e., 21.07). It means that the administrators whose spouses are not engaged in any job have more PAs than those whose spouses are engaged in any job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -1.374, df=265 & *P*= .171) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in PAs among SEAs concerning their spouse engagement status.

In the dimension of OE, the mean score of 117 SEAs whose spouses are engaged with any job (i.e., 21.50) is less than the mean score of 150 administrators whose spouses are not engaged with any job (i.e., 21.87). It means that the administrators whose spouses are not engaged in any job have more OEs than those whose spouses are engaged in any job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -1.334, df=265 & *P*= .183) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in OEs among SEAs concerning their spouse engagement status.

In SE, the mean score of 117 SEAs whose spouses are engaged with any job (i.e., 82.83) is less than the mean score of 150 administrators whose spouses are not engaged with any job (i.e., 84.82). Therefore, it means that the administrators whose spouses are not engaged in any job have more SE than those whose spouses are engaged in any job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -2.131, df=265 & *P*= .034) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in SE among SEAs concerning their spouse engagement status.

Concerning PW, the mean score of 117 SEAs whose spouses are engaged with any job (i.e., 42.80) is less than the mean score of 150 administrators whose spouses are not engaged with any job (i.e., 43.52). It means that the administrators whose spouses are not engaged in any job have more PW than those whose spouses are engaged in any job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -1.448, df=265 & *P*= .149) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in PW among SEAs concerning their spouse engagement status.

The above table shows that in SoW, the mean score of 117 SEAs whose spouses are engaged with any job (i.e., 43.64) is less than the mean score of 150 administrators whose spouses are not engaged with any job (i.e., 44.67). It means that the administrators whose spouses are not engaged in any job have more SoW than those whose spouses are engaged in any job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -1.803, df=265 & *P*= .073) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in SoW among SEAs concerning their spouse engagement status.

The same table also shows that in WPW, the mean score of 117 SEAs whose spouses are engaged with any job (i.e., 33.67) is less than the mean score of 150 administrators whose spouses are not engaged with any job (i.e., 36.45). It means that the administrators whose spouses are not engaged in any job have more WPW than those whose spouses are engaged in any job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -4.206, df=265 & *P*= .000) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in WPW among SEAs concerning their spouse engagement status.

In the dimension of SuW, the mean score of 117 SEAs whose spouses are engaged with any job (i.e., 16.06) is less than the mean score of 150 administrators whose spouses are not engaged with any job (i.e., 16.51). It means that the administrators whose spouses are not engaged in any job have more SuW than those whose spouses are engaged in any job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -1.467, df=265 & *P*= .143) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in SuW among SEAs concerning their spouse engagement status.

In EW, the mean score of 117 SEAs whose spouses are engaged with any job (i.e., 136.17) is less than the mean score of 150 administrators whose spouses are not engaged with any

job (i.e., 141.15). It means that the administrators whose spouses are not engaged in any job have more EW than those whose spouses are engaged in any job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -3.313, df=265 &*P*= .001) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in EW among SEAs concerning their spouse engagement status.

5.2.3.6 Testing of Hypothesis-6 ($H_0$6): There is no significant difference in JS, SE and EW and their dimensions among SEAs concerning their previous job status

Table No. 5.10: Effect of Previous Job Status on Overall and Dimensions wise JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

	Previous Job Status	N	Mean	SD	SEM	t	df	*P*
D1JS: TS	Yes	137	8.82	3.839	.328	.223	314	.823
	No	179	8.73	3.405	.254			
D2JS: AS	Yes	137	13.18	4.481	.383	-.149	314	.882
	No	179	13.26	4.350	.325			
D3JS: REC	Yes	137	13.97	3.610	.308	1.916	314	.056
	No	179	13.20	3.530	.264			
D4JS: CWS	Yes	137	9.48	2.893	.247	-.893	314	.372
	No	179	9.79	3.202	.239			
D5JS: WLB	Yes	137	10.82	2.722	.233	1.336	314	.183
	No	179	10.40	2.835	.212			
JS (Overall)	Yes	137	56.28	9.388	.802	.816	314	.415
	No	179	55.37	10.007	.748			
D1SE: SC	Yes	137	21.01	2.691	.230	.343	314	.732
	No	179	20.91	2.572	.192			
D2SE: EE	Yes	137	20.77	2.904	.248	3.203	314	.001
	No	179	19.72	2.882	.215			
D3SE: PA	Yes	137	21.01	2.328	.199	1.958	314	.051
	No	179	20.46	2.531	.189			
D4SE: OE	Yes	137	22.01	2.051	.175	3.112	314	.002

	No	179	21.26	2.214	.165			
SE (Overall)	Yes	137	84.80	7.626	.651	2.840	314	.005
	No	179	82.34	7.607	.569			
D1EW: PW	Yes	137	43.34	3.828	.327	1.056	314	.292
	No	179	42.86	4.174	.312			
D2EW: SoW	Yes	137	44.34	4.478	.383	.717	314	.474
	No	179	43.96	4.976	.372			
D3EW: WPW	Yes	137	35.23	5.399	.461	.151	314	.880
	No	179	35.13	5.375	.402			
D4EW: SuW	Yes	137	16.39	2.469	.211	.905	314	.366
	No	179	16.14	2.485	.186			
EW (Overall)	Yes	137	139.31	12.304	1.051	.862	314	.390
	No	179	138.09	12.552	.938			

Interpretation

Table- 5.10 shows that in the case of TS, the mean score of 137 SEAs who have done any job before (i.e., 8.82), which is greater than the mean score of 179 administrators who have not done any job before (i.e., 8.73). It means that the administrators who have done any job before face more TS than those who have not done any job before. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .223, df=314 & *P*= .823) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in TS among SEAs concerning their previous job status.

Regarding AS, the mean score of 137 SEAs who have done any job before (i.e., 13.18) is less than the mean score of 179 administrators who have not done any job before (i.e., 13.26). It means that the administrators who have not done any job before face more anxiety and stress than those who have done any job before. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.149, df=314 & *P*= .882) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in AS among SEAs concerning their previous job status.

Results revealed that in REC, the mean score of 137 SEAs who have done any job before (i.e., 13.97) is greater than the mean score of 179 administrators who have not done any job before (i.e., 13.20). It means that the administrators who have done any job before face more REC than those who have not done any job before. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 1.916, df=314 & *P*= .056) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in REC among SEAs concerning their previous job status.

In the dimension of CWS, the mean score of 137 SEAs who have done any job before (i.e., 9.48) is less than the mean score of 179 administrators who have not done any job before (i.e., 9.79). It means that the administrators who have not done any job before having less CWS than those who have done any job before. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.893, df=314 & *P*= .372) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in CWS among SEAs concerning their previous job status.

The same table shows that in WLB, the mean score of 137 SEAs who have done any job before (i.e., 10.82) is greater than the mean score of 179 administrators who have not done any job before (i.e., 10.40). It means that the administrators who have done any job before having less WLB than those who have not done any job before. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 1.336, df=314 & *P*= .183) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in WLB among SEAs concerning their previous job status.

In JS, the mean score of 137 SEAs who have done any job before (i.e., 56.28) is greater than the mean score of 179 administrators who have not done any job before (i.e., 55.37). It means that the administrators who have done any job before face more JS than those who have not done any job before. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .816, df=314 & *P*= .415) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in JS among SEAs concerning their previous job status.

Concerning SC, the mean score of 137 SEAs who have done any job before (i.e., 21.01) is greater than the mean score of 179 administrators who have not done any job before (i.e., 20.91). It means that the administrators who have done any job before having more SC than those who have not done any before. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .343, df=314 & *P*= .732) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in SC among SEAs on the basis of their previous job status.

Another result shows that in EE, the mean score of 137 SEAs who have done any job before (i.e., 20.77) is greater than the mean score of 179 administrators who have not done any job before (i.e., 19.72). It means that the administrators who have done any job before have more EEs than those who have not done any job before. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 3.203, df=314 & *P*= .001) the result is significant. Hence, it means a significant difference exists in EEs among SEAs concerning their previous job status.

In the case of PA, the mean score of 137 SEAs who have done any job before (i.e., 21.01) is greater than the mean score of 179 administrators who have not done any job before (i.e., 20.46). It means that the administrators who have done any job before have a more PA than those who have not done any job before. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 1.958,

df=314 & *P*= .051) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in PAs among SEAs concerning their previous job status.

The above table shows that in OE, the mean score of 137 SEAs who have done any job before (i.e., 22.01) is greater than the mean score of 179 administrators who have not done any job before (i.e., 21.26). It means that the administrators who have done any job before have more OEs than those who have not done any job before. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 3.112, df=314 & *P*= .002) the result is significant. Hence, it means a significant difference exists in OEs among SEAs concerning their previous job status.

In SE, the mean score of 137 SEAs who have done any job before (i.e., 84.80) is greater than the mean score of 179 administrators who have not done any job before (i.e., 82.34). It means that the administrators who have done any job before have more SE than the administrators who have not done any job before. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 2.840, df=314 & *P*= .005) the result is significant. Hence, it means a significant difference exists in SE among SEAs concerning their previous job status.

In the PW dimension, the mean score of 137 SEAs who have done any job before (i.e., 43.34) is greater than the mean score of 179 administrators who have not done any job before (i.e., 42.86). It means that the administrators who have done any job before have more PW than the administrators who have not done any job before. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 1.056, df=314 & *P*= .292) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in PW among SEAs concerning their previous job status.

In the dimension of SoW, the mean score of 137 SEAs who have done any job before (i.e., 44.34) is greater than the mean score of 179 administrators who have not done any job before (i.e., 43.96). It means that the administrators who have done any job before have more SoW than the administrators who have not done any job before. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .717, df=314 & *P*= .474) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in SoW among SEAs concerning previous job status.

Results revealed that in WPW, the mean score of 137 SEAs who have done any job before (i.e., 35.23) is greater than the mean score of 179 administrators who have not done any job before (i.e., 35.13). It means that the administrators who have done any job before have more WPW than the administrators who have not done any job before. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .151, df=314 & *P*= .880) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in WPW among SEAs concerning their previous job status.

The same table also shows that in SuW, the mean score of 137 SEAs who have done any job before (i.e., 16.39) is greater than the mean score of 179 administrators who have not done any job before (i.e., 16.14). It means that the administrators who have done any job

before have more SuW than the administrators who have not done any job before. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .905, df=314 & *P*= .366) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in SuW among SEAs concerning their previous job status.

In EW, the mean score of 137 SEAs who have done any job before (i.e., 139.31) is greater than the mean score of 179 administrators who have not done any job before (i.e., 138.09). It means that the administrators who have done any job before have more EW than those who have not done any job before. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .862, df=314 & *P*= .390) the result is not significant. Hence, it means no significant difference exists in EW among SEAs concerning their previous job status.

5.2.3.7 Testing of Hypothesis-7 (H_07): There is no significant difference in JS, SE and EW and their dimensions among SEAs concerning their weekly working hours

Table No. 5.11: Effect of Working Hours on Overall and Dimensions wise JS, SE and EW among SEAs

	Weekly Working Hours	N	Mean	SD	SEM	t	df	*P*
D1JS: TS	Scheduled duty (up to 38 hours/week)	186	9.02	3.699	.271	1.516	314	.131
	More than duty hours	130	8.40	3.418	.300			
D2JS: AS	Scheduled duty (up to 38 hours/week)	186	13.27	4.245	.311	.239	314	.811
	More than duty hours	130	13.15	4.630	.406			
D3JS: REC	Scheduled duty (up to 38 hours/week)	186	13.63	3.348	.245	.610	314	.542
	More than duty hours	130	13.38	3.897	.342			
D4JS: CWS	Scheduled duty (up to 38 hours/week)	186	9.58	3.105	.228	-.537	314	.592
	More than duty hours	130	9.77	3.031	.266			
D5JS: WLB	Scheduled duty (up to 38 hours/week)	186	10.54	2.786	.204	-.323	314	.747
	More than duty hours	130	10.65	2.806	.246			
JS (Overall)	Scheduled duty (up to 38 hours/week)	186	56.05	9.672	.709	.628	314	.530

	More than duty hours	130	55.35	9.856	.864			
D1SE: SC	Scheduled duty (up to 38 hours/week)	186	20.93	2.620	.192	-.156	314	.876
	More than duty hours	130	20.98	2.631	.231			
D2SE: EE	Scheduled duty (up to 38 hours/week)	186	20.24	2.885	.212	.475	314	.635
	More than duty hours	130	20.08	3.011	.264			
D3SE: PA	Scheduled duty (up to 38 hours/week)	186	20.72	2.329	.171	.136	314	.892
	More than duty hours	130	20.68	2.636	.231			
D4SE: OE	Scheduled duty (up to 38 hours/week)	186	21.49	2.025	.148	-.888	314	.375
	More than duty hours	130	21.72	2.373	.208			
SE (Overall)	Scheduled duty (up to 38 hours/week)	186	83.38	7.365	.540	-.079	314	.937
	More than duty hours	130	83.45	8.184	.718			
D1EW: PW	Scheduled duty (up to 38 hours/week)	186	43.22	3.676	.270	.796	314	.427
	More than duty hours	130	42.85	4.491	.394			
D2EW: SoW	Scheduled duty (up to 38 hours/week)	186	44.48	4.421	.324	1.613	314	.108
	More than duty hours	130	43.61	5.187	.455			
D3EW: WPW	Scheduled duty (up to 38 hours/week)	186	35.83	5.330	.391	2.610	314	.009
	More than duty hours	130	34.24	5.325	.467			
D4EW: SuW	Scheduled duty (up to 38 hours/week)	186	16.39	2.238	.164	1.224	314	.222
	More than duty hours	130	16.05	2.781	.244			
EW (Overall)	Scheduled duty (up to 38 hours/week)	186	139.92	11.156	.818	2.249	314	.025
	More than duty hours	130	136.75	13.909	1.220			

Interpretation

Table- 5.11 shows that in the TS dimension out of 316 SEAs, the mean score of 186 administrators who have reported that they are doing usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) (i.e., 9.02) is greater than the mean score of 130 administrators who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours (i.e., 8.40). It means that the administrators who

have reported that they are doing their usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) face more TS than those who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 1.516, df=314 & *P*= .131) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in TS among SEAs concerning their weekly working hours.

Another result from the above table shows that in AS, the mean score of 186 SEAs who have reported that they are doing usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) (i.e., 13.27) is greater than the mean score of 130 administrators who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours (i.e., 13.15). It means that the administrators who have reported that they are doing their usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) face more AS than those who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .239, df=314 & *P*= .811) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in AS among SEAs concerning their weekly working hours.

Regarding REC, the mean score of 186 SEAs who have reported that they are doing usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) (i.e., 13.63) is greater than the mean score of 130 administrators who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours (i.e., 13.38). It means that the administrators who have reported that they are doing their usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) face more REC than those who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .610, df=314 & *P*= .542) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in REC among SEAs concerning their weekly working hours.

The result shows that in CWS, the mean score of 186 administrators who have reported that they are doing usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) (i.e., 9.58) is less than the mean score of 130 administrators who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours (i.e., 9.77). It means that the administrators who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours have less CWS than those who have reported that they are doing usual duty (up to 38 hours/week). Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.537, df=314 & *P*= .592) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in CWS among SEAs concerning their weekly working hours.

In the case of WLB, the mean score of 186 administrators who have reported that they are doing usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) (i.e., 10.54) is less than the mean score of 130 administrators who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours (i.e., 10.65). It means that the administrators who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours have less WLB than those who have reported that they are doing usual duty (up to 38 hours/week). Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.323, df=314 & *P*= .747) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in WLB among SEAs concerning their weekly working hours.

In JS, the mean score of 186 SEAs who have reported that they are doing usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) (i.e., 56.05) is greater than the mean score of 130 administrators who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours (i.e., 55.35). It means that the administrators who have reported that they are doing their usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) face more JS than those who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .628, df=314 & *P*= .530) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in JS among SEAs concerning their weekly working hours.

Regarding SC, the mean score of 186 SEAs who have reported that they are doing their usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) (i.e., 20.93) is less than the mean score of 130 administrators who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours (i.e., 20.98). It means that the administrators who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours have more SC than those who have reported that they are doing usual duty (up to 38 hours/week). Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.156, df=314 & *P*= .876) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in SC among SEAs concerning their weekly working hours.

The above table shows that in EE, the mean score of 186 SEAs who have reported that they are doing usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) (i.e., 20.24), which is greater than the mean score of 130 administrators who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours (i.e., 20.08). It means that the administrators who have reported that they are doing their usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) have more EEs than those who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .475, df=314 & *P*= .635) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in EEs among SEAs concerning their weekly working hours.

Another result shows that in a PA, the mean score of 186 SEAs who have reported that they are doing usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) (i.e. 20.72) is greater than the mean score of 130 administrators who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours (i.e., 20.68). It means that the administrators who have reported that they are doing their usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) have a more PA than the administrators who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .136, df=314 & *P*= .892) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in PAs among SEAs concerning their weekly working hours.

The result regarding OE, the mean score of 186 SEAs who have reported that they are doing usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) (i.e., 21.49) is less than the mean score of 130 administrators who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours (i.e., 21.72). It means that the administrators who have reported that they are working more than

usual duty hours have more OEs than those who have reported that they are doing usual duty (up to 38 hours/week). Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.888, df=314 & *P*= .375) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in OEs among SEAs concerning their weekly working hours.

In SE, the mean score of 186 SEAs who have reported that they are doing usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) (i.e., 83.38) is less than the mean score of 130 administrators who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours (i.e., 83.45). It means that the administrators who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours have more SE than those who have reported that they are doing usual duty (up to 38 hours/week). Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.079, df=314 & *P*= .937) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in SE among SEAs concerning their weekly working hours.

In the dimension of PW, the mean score of 186 SEAs who have reported that they are doing usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) (i.e., 43.22) is greater than the mean score of 130 administrators who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours (i.e., 42.85). It means that the administrators who have reported that they are doing their usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) have more PW than those who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .796, df=314 & *P*= .427) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in PW among SEA concerning their weekly working hours.

The above table shows that in SoW, the mean score of 186 SEAs who have reported that they are doing usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) (i.e., 44.48) is greater than the mean score of 130 administrators who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours (i.e., 43.61). It means that the administrators who have reported that they are doing their usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) have more SoW than those who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 1.613, df=314 & *P*= .108) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in SoW among SEAs concerning their weekly working hours.

In the case of WPW, the mean score of 186 SEAs who have reported that they are doing usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) (i.e., 35.83) is greater than the mean score of 130 administrators who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours (i.e., 34.24). It means that the administrators who have reported that they are doing their usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) have more WPW than those who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 2.610, df=314 & *P*= .009) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in WPW among SEAs concerning their weekly working hours.

Concerning SuW, the mean score of 186 SEAs who have reported that they are doing their usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) (i.e., 16.39) is greater than the mean score of 130 administrators who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours (i.e., 16.05). It means that the administrators who have reported that they are doing their usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) have more SuW than those who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 1.224, df=314 & *P*= .222) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in SuW among SEAs based on their weekly working hours.

In EW, the mean score of 186 SEAs who have reported that they are doing usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) (i.e., 139.92), which is greater than the mean score of 130 administrators who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours (i.e., 136.75). It means that the administrators who have reported that they are doing their usual duty (up to 38 hours/week) have more EW than those who have reported that they are working more than usual duty hours. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 2.249, df=314 & *P*= .025) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in EW among SEAs concerning their weekly working hours.

5.2.3.8 Testing of Hypothesis-8 ($H_0$8): There is no significant difference in JS, SE and EW and their dimensions among SEAs concerning their special training status

Table No. 5.12: Effect of Special Training Status on Overall and Dimensions wise JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

	Special Training Status	N	Mean	SD	SEM	t	df	*P*
D1JS: TS	Yes	247	8.73	3.701	.235	-.347	314	.729
	No	69	8.90	3.205	.386			
D2JS: AS	Yes	247	13.11	4.558	.290	-.851	314	.396
	No	69	13.62	3.785	.456			
D3JS: REC	Yes	247	13.42	3.735	.238	-1.039	314	.300
	No	69	13.93	2.947	.355			
D4JS: CWS	Yes	247	9.60	3.005	.191	-.690	314	.491
	No	69	9.88	3.310	.398			
D5JS: WLB	Yes	247	10.51	2.845	.181	-.908	314	.365
	No	69	10.86	2.585	.311			
JS (Overall)	Yes	247	55.37	10.211	.650	-1.374	314	.170

	No	69	57.19	7.714	.929			
D1SE: SC	Yes	247	21.14	2.547	.162	2.489	314	.013
	No	69	20.26	2.779	.335			
D2SE: EE	Yes	247	20.27	2.838	.181	1.151	314	.250
	No	69	19.81	3.251	.391			
D3SE: PA	Yes	247	20.98	2.311	.147	3.867	314	.000
	No	69	19.71	2.712	.327			
D4SE: OE	Yes	247	21.75	2.029	.129	2.552	314	.011
	No	69	21.00	2.561	.308			
SE (Overall)	Yes	247	84.14	7.206	.458	3.248	314	.001
	No	69	80.78	8.825	1.062			
D1EW: PW	Yes	247	43.35	3.879	.247	2.377	314	.018
	No	69	42.06	4.405	.530			
D2EW: SoW	Yes	247	44.45	4.397	.280	2.288	314	.023
	No	69	42.97	5.783	.696			
D3EW: WPW	Yes	247	35.51	5.296	.337	2.088	314	.038
	No	69	33.99	5.535	.666			
D4EW: SuW	Yes	247	16.34	2.397	.153	1.224	314	.222
	No	69	15.93	2.740	.330			
EW (Overall)	Yes	247	139.64	11.387	.725	2.806	314	.005
	No	69	134.94	15.176	1.827			

Interpretation

Table- 5.12 shows that in the TS dimension out of 316, the mean score of 247 SEAs who have taken any special training (i.e., 8.73) is less than the mean score of 69 administrators who have not taken any special training (i.e., 8.90). It means that the administrators who have not taken any special training face more TS than those who have taken any special training. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.347, df=314 & *P*= .729) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in TS among SEAs concerning their special training.

In the case of AS, the mean score of 247 SEAs who have taken any special training (i.e., 13.11), which is less than the mean score of 69 administrators who have not taken any special training (i.e., 13.62). It means that the administrators who have not taken any special training face more anxiety and stress than those who have taken any special training. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.851, df=314 & *P*= .396) the result is not

significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in AS among SEAs concerning their special training.

Another result shows that in the case of REC, the mean score of 247 SEAs who have taken any special training (i.e., 13.42) is less than the mean score of 69 administrators who have not taken any special training (i.e., 13.93). It means that the administrators who have not taken any special training face more REC than those who have taken any special training. Further, the t-test shows that (t=-1.039, df=314 & *P*= .300) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in REC among SEAs concerning their special training.

The above table shows regarding CWS, the mean score of 247 SEAs who have taken any special training (i.e., 9.60) is less than the mean score of 69 administrators who have not taken any special training (i.e., 9.88). It means that the administrators who have not taken any special training have less CWS than those who have taken any special training. Further, the t-test display that (t= -.690, df=314 & *P*= .491) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in CWS among SEAs concerning their special training.

In the case of WLB, the mean score of 247 SEAs who have taken any special training (i.e., 10.51) is less than the mean score of 69 administrators who have not taken any special training (i.e., 10.86). It means that the administrators who have not taken any special training have less WLB than those who have taken any special training. Further, the t-test display that (t= -.908, df=314 & *P*= .365) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in WLB among SEAs concerning their special training.

In JS, the mean score of 247 SEAs who have taken any special training (i.e., 55.37) is less than the mean score of 69 administrators who have not taken any special training (i.e., 57.19). It means that the administrators who have not taken any special training face more JS than those who have taken any special training. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -1.374, df=314 & *P*= .170) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in JS among SEAs concerning their special training.

In the dimension of SC, the mean score of 247 SEAs who have taken any special training (i.e., 21.14) is greater than the mean score of 69 administrators who have not taken any special training (i.e., 20.26). It means that the administrators who have taken any special training have more SC than those who have not taken any special training. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 2.489, df=314 & *P*= .013) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in SC among SEAs concerning their special training.

Regarding EE, the mean score of 247 SEAs who have taken any special training (i.e., 20.27) is greater than the mean score of 69 administrators who have not taken any special

training (i.e., 19.81). It means that the administrators who have taken any special training have more EEs than those who have not taken any special training. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 1.151, df=314 & *P*= .250) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in EEs among SEAs concerning their special training.

The above table shows that in the case of PA, the mean score of 247 SEAs who have taken any special training (i.e., 20.98) is greater than the mean score of 69 administrators who have not taken any special training (i.e., 19.71). It means that the administrators who have taken any special training have a more PA than those who have not taken any special training. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 3.867, df=314 & *P*= .000) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in PAs among SEAs concerning their special training.

In the case of OE, the mean score of 247 SEAs who have taken any special training (i.e., 21.75) is greater than the mean score of 69 administrators who have not taken any special training (i.e., 21.00). It means that the administrators who have taken any special training have more OEs than those who have not taken any special training. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 2.552, df=314 & *P*= .011) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in OEs among SEAs concerning their special training.

In SE, the mean score of 247 SEAs who have taken any special training (i.e., 84.14) is greater than the mean score of 69 administrators who have not taken any special training (i.e., 80.78). It means that the administrators who have taken any special training have more SE than those who have not taken any special training. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 3.248, df=314 & *P*= .001) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in SE among SEAs concerning their special training.

Another result shows that in the case of PW, the mean score of 247 SEAs who have taken any special training (i.e., 43.35) is greater than the mean score of 69 administrators who have not taken any special training (i.e., 42.06). It means that the administrators who have taken any special training have more PW than the administrators who have not taken any special training. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 2.377, df=314 & *P*= .018) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in PW among SEAs concerning their special training.

In the dimension of SoW, the mean score of 247 SEAs who have taken any special training (i.e., 44.45) is greater than the mean score of 69 administrators who have not taken any special training (i.e., 42.97). It means that the administrators who have taken any special training have more SoW than the administrators who have not taken any special training.

Further, the t-test shows that (t= 2.288, df=314 & *P*= .023) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in SoW among SEAs concerning their special training. The above table shows that in the case of WPW, the mean score of 247 SEAs who have taken any special training (i.e., 35.51) is greater than the mean score of 69 administrators who have not taken any special training (i.e., 33.99). It means that the administrators who have taken any special training have more WPW than the administrators who have taken any special training. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 2.088, df=314 & *P*= .038) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in WPW among SEAs concerning their special training.

The result shows regarding SuW, the mean score of 247 SEAs who have taken any special training (i.e., 16.34) is greater than the mean score of 69 administrators who have not taken any special training (i.e., 15.93). It means that the administrators who have taken any special training have more SuW than the administrators who have taken any special training. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 1.224, df=314 & *P*= .222) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in SuW among SEAs concerning their special training.

In the case of EW, the mean score of 247 SEAs who have taken any special training (i.e., 139.64) is greater than the mean score of 69 administrators who have not taken any special training (i.e., 134.94). It means that the administrators who have taken any special training have more EW than those who have not taken any special training. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 2.806, df=314 & *P*= .005) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in EW among SEAs concerning their special training.

5.2.3.9 Testing of Hypothesis-9 ($H_0$9): There is no significant difference in JS, SE and EW and their dimensions among SEAs concerning their preference in other job opportunities

Table No. 5.13: Effect of Preferences for Other Job Opportunities on Overall and Dimensions wise JS, SE and EW among SEAs

	Preferences for Other Job Opportunities	N	Mean	SD	SEM	t	df	*P*
D1JS: TS	Yes	110	8.71	3.663	.349	-.205	314	.838
	No	206	8.80	3.565	.248			
D2JS: AS	Yes	110	12.85	4.189	.399	-1.120	314	.264
	No	206	13.43	4.506	.314			
D3JS: REC	Yes	110	13.64	3.642	.347	.379	314	.705
	No	206	13.48	3.554	.248			
D4JS: CWS	Yes	110	9.89	3.371	.321	.984	314	.326
	No	206	9.53	2.899	.202			
D5JS: WLB	Yes	110	11.26	2.892	.276	3.203	314	.001
	No	206	10.22	2.672	.186			
JS (Overall)	Yes	110	56.35	9.412	.897	.773	314	.440
	No	206	55.46	9.918	.691			
D1SE: SC	Yes	110	20.52	3.082	.294	-2.150	314	.032
	No	206	21.18	2.313	.161			
D2SE: EE	Yes	110	20.02	3.014	.287	-.676	314	.500
	No	206	20.25	2.894	.202			
D3SE: PA	Yes	110	20.30	2.533	.241	-2.124	314	.034
	No	206	20.91	2.394	.167			
D4SE: OE	Yes	110	21.45	2.540	.242	-.836	314	.404
	No	206	21.66	1.953	.136			
SE (Overall)	Yes	110	82.28	8.887	.847	-1.903	314	.058
	No	206	84.00	6.933	.483			
D1EW: PW	Yes	110	42.42	4.327	.413	-2.112	314	.035
	No	206	43.42	3.826	.267			
D2EW: SoW	Yes	110	43.39	5.335	.509	-2.007	314	.046
	No	206	44.51	4.391	.306			
D3EW: WPW	Yes	110	33.71	6.193	.590	-3.606	314	.000
	No	206	35.96	4.719	.329			
D4EW: SuW	Yes	110	15.55	2.688	.256	-3.771	314	.000
	No	206	16.63	2.276	.159			
EW (Overall)	Yes	110	135.06	13.383	1.276	-3.788	314	.000
	No	206	140.51	11.497	.801			

Interpretation

Table- 5.13 shows that in the TS dimension out of 316 SEAs, the mean score of 110 administrators who will leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 8.71) is less than the mean score of 206 administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 8.80). It means that the administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job face more TS than those who will leave it if they get any other job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.205, df=314 & *P*= .838) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in TS among SEAs concerning their preferences for other job opportunities.

In the case of AS, the mean score of 110 SEAs who will leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 12.85) is less than the mean score of 206 administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 13.43). It means that the administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job face more anxiety and stress than those who will leave it if they get any other job. Further, the t-test result shows that (t= -1.120, df=314 & *P*= .264) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in AS among SEAs concerning their preferences for other job opportunities.

Another result shows that in the case of REC, the mean score of 110 SEAs who will leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 13.64), is greater than the mean score of 206 administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job is 13.48. It means that the administrators who will leave this job if they get any other job face more REC than the administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job. Further, the t-test result shows that (t= .379, df=314 & *P*= .705) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in REC among SEAs concerning their preferences for other job opportunities.

The above table shows that in CWS, the mean score of 110 SEAs who will leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 9.89) is greater than the mean score of 206 administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 9.53). It means that the administrators who will leave this job if they get any other job have less CWS than those who will not leave it if they get any other job. Further, the t-test result shows that (t= .984, df=314 & *P*= .326) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in CWS among SEAs concerning their preferences for other job opportunities.

Regarding the WLB dimension, the mean score of 110 SEAs who will leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 11.26) is greater than the mean score of 206administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job (i.e. 10.22). It means that the administrators who will leave this job if they get any other job have less WLB than the administrators who will

not leave this job if they get any other job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= 3.203, df=314 & *P*= .001) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in WLB among SEAs concerning their preferences for other job opportunities.

In JS, the mean score of 110 SEAs who will leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 56.35), which is greater than the mean score of 206 administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 55.46). It means that the administrators who will leave this job if they get any other job face more JS than the administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= .773, df=314 & *P*= .440) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in JS among SEA concerning their preferences for other job opportunities.

In the case of SC, the mean score of 110 SEAs who will leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 20.52) is less than the mean score of 206 administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 21.18). It means that the administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job have more SC than those who will leave it if they get any other job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -2.150, df=314 & *P*= .032) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in SC among SEAs concerning their preferences for other job opportunities.

The above table shows that in EE, the mean score of 110 SEAs who will leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 20.02) is less than the mean score of 206 administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 20.25). It means that the administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job have more EEs than those who will leave it if they get any other job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.676, df=314 & *P*= .500) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in EEs among SEA concerning their preferences for other job opportunities.

The result shows concerning PA dimension, the mean score of 110 SEAs who will leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 20.30), which is less than the mean score of 206 administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 20.91). It means that the administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job have a more PA than those who will leave it if they get any other job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -2.124, df=314 & *P*= .034) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in PAs among SEAs concerning their preferences for other job opportunities.

In the case of OE, the mean score of 110 SEAs who will leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 21.45) is less than the mean score of 206 administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 21.66). It means that the administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job have more OEs than the administrators who will

leave this job if they get any other job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -.836, df=314 & *P*= .404) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in OEs among SEAs concerning their preferences for other job opportunities.

In SE, the mean score of 110 SEAs who will leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 82.28), which is less than the mean score of 206 administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 84.00). It means that the administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job have more SE than those who will leave it if they get any other job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -1.903, df=314 & *P*= .058) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in SE among SEAs concerning their preferences for other job opportunities.

In the dimension of PW, the mean score of 110 SEAs who will leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 42.42) is less than the mean score of 206 administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 43.42). It means that the administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job face more PW than those who will leave it if they get any other job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -2.112, df=314 & *P*= .035) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in PW among SEAs concerning their preferences for other job opportunities.

The result shows regarding SoW, the mean score of 110 SEAs who will leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 43.39), which is less than the mean score of 206 administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 44.51). It means that the administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job face more SoW than those who will leave it if they get any other job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -2.007, df=314 & *P*= .046) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in SoW among SEAs concerning their preferences for other job opportunities.

In the case of WPW, the mean score of 110 SEAs who will leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 33.71) is less than the mean score of 206 administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 35.96). It means that the administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job face more WPW than the administrators who will leave this job if they get any other job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -3.606, df=314 & *P*= .000) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in WPW among SEAs concerning their preferences for other job opportunities.

Concerning SuW, the mean score of 110 SEAs who will leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 15.55) is less than the mean score of 206 administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 16.63). It means that the administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job face more SuW than those who will leave it if they

get any other job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -3.771, df=314 & *P*= .000) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in SuW among SEAs concerning their preferences for other job opportunities.

In EW, the mean score of 110 SEAs who will leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 135.06) is less than the mean score of 206 administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job (i.e., 140.51). It means that the administrators who will not leave this job if they get any other job face more EW than the administrators who will leave this job if they get any other job. Further, the t-test shows that (t= -3.788, df=314 & *P*= .000) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in EW among SEAs concerning their preferences for other job opportunities.

5.2.3.10 Testing of Hypothesis-10 ($H_0$10): There is no significant difference in JS, SE and EW and their dimensions among SEAs concerning their stream of education

Table No. 5.14 (A): Effect of Stream of Education on Overall and Dimensions wise JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

	Stream of Education	N	Mean	SD	SEM	F	df	*P*
D1JS: TS	Science	181	8.77	3.551	.264	.603	3/312	.613
	Arts	79	9.10	3.995	.450			
	Commerce	34	8.15	3.491	.599			
	Technical	22	8.50	2.464	.525			
	Total	316	8.77	3.594	.202			
D2JS: AS	Science	181	13.06	4.189	.311	1.089	3/312	.354
	Arts	79	13.86	4.937	.555			
	Commerce	34	13.32	4.965	.851			
	Technical	22	12.14	2.783	.593			
	Total	316	13.22	4.400	.248			
D3JS: REC	Science	181	13.38	3.410	.253	1.106	3/312	.347
	Arts	79	14.14	4.047	.455			
	Commerce	34	13.03	3.849	.660			
	Technical	22	13.41	2.538	.541			
	Total	316	13.53	3.580	.201			
D4JS: CWS	Science	181	9.78	2.983	.222	.425	3/312	.735
	Arts	79	9.58	3.568	.401			
	Commerce	34	9.15	2.966	.509			
	Technical	22	9.73	1.882	.401			
	Total	316	9.66	3.071	.173			
D5JS: WLB	Science	181	10.79	2.706	.201			

	Arts	79	10.34	2.864	.322	1.807	3/312	.146
	Commerce	34	10.79	3.082	.529			
	Technical	22	9.45	2.577	.549			
	Total	316	10.59	2.790	.157			
JS (Overall)	Science	181	55.77	9.596	.713	1.150	3/312	.329
	Arts	79	57.03	11.185	1.258			
	Commerce	34	54.44	8.764	1.503			
	Technical	22	53.23	5.698	1.215			
	Total	316	55.77	9.739	.548			
D1SE: SC	Science	181	20.90	2.581	.192	1.149	3/312	.330
	Arts	79	20.85	2.838	.319			
	Commerce	34	21.71	2.541	.436			
	Technical	22	20.59	2.175	.464			
	Total	316	20.95	2.621	.147			
D2SE: EE	Science	181	20.07	3.025	.225	1.925	3/312	.125
	Arts	79	19.87	2.950	.332			
	Commerce	34	21.24	2.487	.427			
	Technical	22	20.45	2.502	.533			
	Total	316	20.17	2.934	.165			
D3SE: PA	Science	181	20.78	2.522	.187	2.069	3/312	.104
	Arts	79	20.46	2.536	.285			
	Commerce	34	21.38	1.970	.338			
	Technical	22	19.86	2.054	.438			
	Total	316	20.70	2.456	.138			
D4SE: OE	Science	181	21.60	2.134	.159	2.571	3/312	.054
	Arts	79	21.22	2.432	.274			
	Commerce	34	22.44	1.812	.311			
	Technical	22	21.50	1.739	.371			
	Total	316	21.59	2.174	.122			
SE (Overall)	Science	181	83.34	7.990	.594	2.787	3/312	.041
	Arts	79	82.39	8.145	.916			
	Commerce	34	86.76	6.199	1.063			
	Technical	22	82.41	3.487	.743			
	Total	316	83.41	7.700	.433			
D1EW: PW	Science	181	42.88	4.123	.306	.634	3/312	.594
	Arts	79	43.08	4.379	.493			
	Commerce	34	43.88	3.082	.529			
	Technical	22	43.36	3.185	.679			
	Total	316	43.07	4.029	.227			
D2EW: SoW	Science	181	43.92	4.598	.342	2.668	3/312	.048
	Arts	79	43.56	5.852	.658			

	Commerce	34	46.15	3.249	.557			
	Technical	22	44.68	2.607	.556			
	Total	316	44.12	4.763	.268			
D3EW: WPW	Science	181	34.90	5.559	.413	2.483	3/312	.061
	Arts	79	35.16	5.195	.584			
	Commerce	34	37.41	4.768	.818			
	Technical	22	34.05	4.766	1.016			
	Total	316	35.17	5.377	.302			
D4EW: SuW	Science	181	16.22	2.414	.179	.197	3/312	.899
	Arts	79	16.20	2.681	.302			
	Commerce	34	16.56	2.402	.412			
	Technical	22	16.23	2.487	.530			
	Total	316	16.25	2.477	.139			
EW (Overall)	Science	181	137.91	12.555	.933	2.417	3/312	.066
	Arts	79	138.00	13.972	1.572			
	Commerce	34	144.00	9.560	1.640			
	Technical	22	138.32	6.992	1.491			
	Total	316	138.62	12.440	.700			

Table No. 5.14 (B): Stream of Education wise Multiple Comparisons in LSD Test

Dependent Variable	(I) Stream of Education	(J) Stream of Education	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
SE (Overall)	Science	Arts	.945	1.030	.360
		Commerce	-3.428*	1.427	**.017**
		Technical	.928	1.724	.591
	Arts	Commerce	-4.372*	1.566	**.006**
		Technical	-.017	1.841	.993
	Commerce	Technical	4.356*	2.089	**.038**
D2EW: SoW	Science	Arts	.366	.637	.566
		Commerce	-2.224*	.883	**.012**
		Technical	-.759	1.067	.477
	Arts	Commerce	-2.590*	.969	**.008**
		Technical	-1.125	1.139	.324
	Commerce	Technical	1.465	1.293	.258

Interpretation

The above table- 5.14 (A) shows that in the case of TS, out of 316 SEAs, the mean score of 181 administrators from science, 79 from arts, 34 from commerce, and 22 from the technical stream are 8.77, 9.10, 8.15, and 8.50 respectively. It means that the administrators

from the arts stream face more TS than the other category administrators. Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= .603, df=3/312 & *P*= .613) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in TS among school administrators concerning their education stream.

Regarding the AS dimension, the mean score of 181 SEAs from science, 79 from arts, 34 from commerce, and 22 from the technical stream are 13.06, 13.86, 13.32, and 12.14, respectively. It means that the administrators from the arts stream face more anxiety and stress than the other category administrators. Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= 1.089, df=3/312 & *P*= .354) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in AS among school administrators concerning their stream of education.

Another result shows that in the case of REC, the mean score of 181 SEAs from science, 79 arts, 34 commerce, and 22 technical streams are 13.38, 14.14, 13.03, and 13.41, respectively. It means that the administrators from the arts stream face more REC than the other category administrators. Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= 1.106, df=3/312 & *P*= .347) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference exists in REC among SEAs concerning their stream of education.

Concerning CWS, the mean score of 181 SEAs from science, 79 arts, 34 commerce, and 22 technical streams are 9.78, 9.58, 9.15, and 9.73, respectively. It means that the administrators from the science stream have less CWS than the administrators from other categories. Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= .425, df=3/312 & *P*= .735) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference exists in CWS among SEAs concerning their stream of education.

In the case of WLB, the mean score of 181 SEAs from science, 79 arts, 34 commerce, and 22 technical streams are 10.79, 10.34, 10.79, and 9.45, respectively. It means that the science and commerce stream administrators have less WLB than those from the other two categories. Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= 1.807, df=3/312 & *P*= .146) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in WLB among SEAs concerning their stream of education.

In JS, the mean score of 181 SEAs from science, 79 arts, 34 commerce, and 22 technical streams are 55.77, 57.03, 54.44, and 53.23, respectively. It means that the administrators from the arts stream face more JS than the other stream administrators. Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= 1.150, df=3/312 & *P*=.329) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in JS among SEAs concerning their education stream.

The result revealed that in the dimension of SC, the mean score of 181 SEAs from science, 79 arts, 34 commerce, and 22 technical streams are 20.90, 20.85, and 21.71, 20.59, respectively. It means that the administrators from the commerce stream have more SC than the other category administrators. Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= 1.149, df=3/312 & *P*= .330) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in SC among SEAs concerning their stream of education.

The result regarding EE, the mean score of 181 SEAs from science, 79 arts, 34 commerce, and 22 technical streams are 20.07, 19.87, 21.24, and 20.45, respectively. It means that the administrators from the commerce stream have more EEs than the other category administrators. Further, the one-way ANOVA result in the same table shows that (F= 1.925, df=3/312 & *P*= .125) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in EEs among SEAs concerning their stream of education.

In the PA dimension, the mean score of 181 SEAs from science, 79 arts, 34 commerce, and 22 technical streams are 20.78, 20.46, 21.38, and 19.86, respectively. It means that the administrators from the commerce stream have a more PA than the other category administrators. Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= 2.069, df=3/312 & *P*= .104) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference exists in PAs among SEAs concerning their stream of education.

Regarding OE, the mean score of 181 SEAs from science, 79 arts, 34 commerce, and 22 technical streams are 21.60, 21.22, 22.44, and 21.50, respectively. It means that the commerce stream administrators have more OEs than the other category administrators. Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= 2.571, df=3/312 & *P*= .054) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in OEs among SEAs concerning their stream of education.

In SE, the mean score of 181 SEAs from science, 79 arts, 34 commerce, and 22 technical streams are 83.34, 82.39, 86.76, and 82.41, respectively. It means that the administrators from the commerce stream have more SE than the other category administrators. And the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= 2.787, df=3/312 & *P*= .041) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in SE among SEAs concerning their stream of education. Further, the multiple comparisons [see table- 5.14 (B)] show that the administrators from the science and commerce stream differ significantly as the p= .017<.05 level of significance, and it shows the administrators from the arts and commerce stream differ significantly as the p= .006<.05 level of significance. It also shows that administrators from the commerce and technical stream differ significantly as the p= .038<.05 level of significance.

The result regarding PW, the mean score of 181 SEAs from science, 79 arts, 34 commerce, and 22 technical streams are 42.88, 43.08, 43.88, and 43.36, respectively. It means that the administrators from the commerce stream have more PW than the other category administrators. Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= .634, df=3/312 & *P*= .594) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in PW among SEAs concerning their stream of education.

The above table shows that in the case of SoW, the mean score of 181 SEAs from science, 79 arts, 34 commerce, and 22 technical streams are 43.92, 43.56, 46.15, and 44.68, respectively. It means that the administrators from the commerce stream have more SoW than the other category administrators. And the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= 2.668, df=3/312 & *P*= .048) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in SoW among school administrators concerning their education stream. Further, the multiple comparisons [see table- 5.14 (B)] show that the science and commerce stream administrators differ significantly as the p= .012<0.05 level of significance. It also shows that the administrators from the arts and commerce stream differ significantly as the p= .008<0.05 level of significance.

The same table also shows that in the case of WPW, the mean score of 181 SEAs from science, 79 arts, 34 commerce, and 22 technical streams are 34.90, 35.16, 37.41, and 34.05, respectively. It means that the administrators from the commerce stream have more WPW than the other category administrators. Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= 2.483, df=3/312 & *P*= .061) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in WPW among school administrators concerning their education stream.

In the dimension of SuW, the mean score of 181 SEAs from science, 79 arts, 34 commerce, and 22 technical streams are 16.22, 16.20, 16.56, and 16.23, respectively. It means that the administrators from the commerce stream have more SuW than the other category administrators. Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= .197, df=3/312 & *P*= .899) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in SuW among school administrators concerning their education stream.

In EW, the mean score of 181 SEAs from science, 79 arts, 34 commerce, and 22 technical streams are 137.91, 138.00, 144.00, and 138.32, respectively. Therefore, it means that the administrators from the commerce stream have more EW than the other category administrators. Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= 2.417, df=3/312 & *P*= .066) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in EW among SEAs concerning their stream of education.

5.2.3.11 Testing of Hypothesis-11 ($H_0$11): There is no significant difference in JS, SE and EW and their dimensions among SEAs concerning their present designation

Table No. 5.15 (A): Effect of Present Designation on Overall and Dimensions wise JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

	Present Designation	N	Mean	SD	SEM	F	df	*P*
D1JS: TS	Sub-Inspector of Schools (S.I/S)	275	8.47	3.238	.195	9.975	2/313	.000
	Assistant Inspector of Schools (A.I/S)	37	11.14	4.995	.821			
	District Inspector of Schools (D.I/S)	4	7.00	4.243	2.121			
	Total	316	8.77	3.594	.202			
D2JS: AS	S.I/S	275	12.71	3.867	.233	20.930	2/313	.000
	A.I/S	37	17.32	5.740	.944			
	D.I/S	4	10.75	5.679	2.839			
	Total	316	13.22	4.400	.248			
D3JS: REC	S.I/S	275	13.17	3.434	.207	11.537	2/313	.000
	A.I/S	37	15.89	3.710	.610			
	D.I/S	4	16.50	3.317	1.658			
	Total	316	13.53	3.580	.201			
D4JS: CWS	S.I/S	275	9.72	3.110	.188	.557	2/313	.573
	A.I/S	37	9.32	2.935	.483			
	D.I/S	4	8.50	.577	.289			
	Total	316	9.66	3.071	.173			
D5JS: WLB	S.I/S	275	10.76	2.730	.165	4.766	2/313	.009
	A.I/S	37	9.27	3.015	.496			
	D.I/S	4	10.75	1.893	.946			
	Total	316	10.59	2.790	.157			
JS (Overall)	S.I/S	275	54.83	9.108	.549	12.242	2/313	.000
	A.I/S	37	62.95	11.578	1.903			
	D.I/S	4	53.50	7.141	3.571			
	Total	316	55.77	9.739	.548			
D1SE: SC	S.I/S	275	20.90	2.607	.157	1.623	2/313	.199
	A.I/S	37	21.05	2.738	.450			
	D.I/S	4	23.25	1.708	.854			
	Total	316	20.95	2.621	.147			
D2SE: EE	S.I/S	275	20.25	2.883	.174	2.471	2/313	.086
	A.I/S	37	19.38	3.200	.526			
	D.I/S	4	22.25	2.754	1.377			

	Total	316	20.17	2.934	.165			
D3SE: PA	S.I/S	275	20.70	2.455	.148	1.216	2/313	.298
	A.I/S	37	20.49	2.490	.409			
	D.I/S	4	22.50	1.915	.957			
	Total	316	20.70	2.456	.138			
D4SE: OE	S.I/S	275	21.61	2.166	.131	.414	2/313	.662
	A.I/S	37	21.35	2.085	.343			
	D.I/S	4	22.25	3.775	1.887			
	Total	316	21.59	2.174	.122			
SE (Overall)	S.I/S	275	83.46	7.678	.463	2.001	2/313	.137
	A.I/S	37	82.27	7.723	1.270			
	D.I/S	4	90.25	6.850	3.425			
	Total	316	83.41	7.700	.433			
D1EW: PW	S.I/S	275	43.08	4.099	.247	.023	2/313	.977
	A.I/S	37	42.95	3.628	.596			
	D.I/S	4	43.25	3.403	1.702			
	Total	316	43.07	4.029	.227			
D2EW: SoW	S.I/S	275	44.26	4.704	.284	.875	2/313	.418
	A.I/S	37	43.16	5.320	.875			
	D.I/S	4	43.75	2.872	1.436			
	Total	316	44.12	4.763	.268			
D3EW: WPW	S.I/S	275	35.00	5.319	.321	1.632	2/313	.197
	A.I/S	37	36.62	5.804	.954			
	D.I/S	4	33.75	4.031	2.016			
	Total	316	35.17	5.377	.302			
D4EW: SuW	S.I/S	275	16.14	2.489	.150	2.228	2/313	.109
	A.I/S	37	17.05	2.285	.376			
	D.I/S	4	16.25	2.630	1.315			
	Total	316	16.25	2.477	.139			
EW (Overall)	S.I/S	275	138.48	12.191	.735	.211	2/313	.810
	A.I/S	37	139.78	14.701	2.417			
	D.I/S	4	137.00	7.746	3.873			
	Total	316	138.62	12.440	.700			

Table No. 5.15 (B): Present Designation wise Multiple Comparisons in LSD Test

Dependent Variable	(I) Present Designation	(J) Present Designation	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
D1JS: TS	S.I/S	A.I/S	-2.662*	.612	.000
		D.I/S	1.473	1.761	.403

	A.I/S	D.I/S	4.135*	1.840	.025
D2JS: AS	S.I/S	A.I/S	-4.615*	.726	.000
		D.I/S	1.959	2.088	.349
	A.I/S	D.I/S	6.574*	2.182	.003
D3JS: REC	S.I/S	A.I/S	-2.721*	.607	.000
		D.I/S	-3.329	1.745	.057
	A.I/S	D.I/S	-.608	1.824	.739
D5JS: WLB	S.I/S	A.I/S	1.490*	.483	.002
		D.I/S	.010	1.389	.994
	A.I/S	D.I/S	-1.480	1.451	.309
JS (Overall)	S.I/S	A.I/S	-8.113*	1.648	.000
		D.I/S	1.333	4.739	.779
	A.I/S	D.I/S	9.446	4.952	.057

Interpretation

The above table- 5.15 (A) shows that in the TS dimension out of 316 SEAs, the mean score of 275 S.I/S administrators, 37 A.I/S, and 4 D.I/S are 8.47, 11.14, and 7.00, respectively. It means that the administrators from A.I/S face more TS than the other category administrators. The one-way ANOVA shows that (F= 9.975, df=2/313 & *P*= .000) the result is significant. Hence, it shows a significant difference in TS among SEAs concerning their designation. Further, the multiple comparisons [see table- 5.15 (B)] show that the S.I/S and A.I/S administrators differ significantly in TS as the p= .000<0.05 level of significance. It also shows that in TS, the A.I/S and D.I/S administrators differ significantly as the p= .025<0.05 level of significance.

The result regarding AS, the mean score of 275 S.I/S administrators, 37 A.I/S, and 4 D.I/S are 12.71, 17.32, and 10.75, respectively. It means that the administrators from A.I/S face more anxiety and stress than the other category administrators. And the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= 20.930, df=2/313 & *P*= .000) the result is significant. Hence, it shows a significant difference in AS among SEAs concerning their designation. Further, the multiple comparisons [see table- 5.15 (B)] show that in AS, the S.I/S and A.I/S administrators differ significantly as the p= .000<0.05 level of significance, and it also shows that the A.I/S and D.I/S administrators differ significantly in AS as the p=.003<0.05 level of significance.

The above table shows that in the case of REC, the mean score of 275 S.I/S administrators, 37 A.I/S, and 4 D.I/S are 13.17, 15.89, and 16.50, respectively. It means that the administrators from D.I/S face more REC than the other category administrators. And the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= 11.537, df=2/313 & *P*= .000) the result is significant. Hence, it shows a significant difference in REC among SEAs concerning their designation.

Further, the multiple comparisons [see table- 5.15 (B)] show that in REC, the S.I/S and A.I/S administrators differ significantly as the p= .000<0.05 level of significance.

In the dimension of CWS, the mean score of 275 S.I/S administrators, 37 A.I/S, and 4 D.I/S are 9.72, 9.32, and 8.50, respectively. It means that the administrators from S.I/S have less CWS than the other category administrators. Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= .557, df=2/313 & *P*= .573) the result is not significant. Hence, it shows no significant difference in CWS among SEAs concerning their designation.

In the WLB dimension, the mean score of 275 S.I/S administrators, 37 A.I/S, and 4 D.I/S are 10.76, 9.27, and 10.75, respectively. It means that the administrators from S.I/S have less WLB than the other category administrators. And the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= 4.766, df=2/313 & *P*= .009) the result is significant. Hence, it shows a significant difference in WLB among SEAs concerning their designation. Further, the multiple comparisons [see table- 5.15 (B)] show that in WLB, the S.I/S and A.I/S administrators differ significantly as the p= .002<0.05 level of significance.

In JS, the mean score of 275 S.I/S administrators, 37 A.I/S, and 4 D.I/S are 54.83, 62.95, and 53.50, respectively. It means that the administrators from A.I/S face more JS than the other category administrators. And the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= 12.242, df=2/313 & *P*= .000) the result is significant. Hence, it shows a significant difference in JS among SEA concerning their designation. Further, the multiple comparisons [see table- 5.15 (B)] show that in JS, the S.I/S and A.I/S administrators differ significantly as the p= .000<0.05 level of significance.

The result revealed that in the case of SC, the mean score of 275 S.I/S administrators, 37 A.I/S, and 4 D.I/S are 20.90, 21.05, and 23.25, respectively. It means that the administrators from D.I/S have more SC than the other category administrators. Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= 1.623, df=2/313 & *P*= .199) the result is not significant. Hence, it shows no significant difference in SC among SEAs concerning their designation.

The above table shows regarding EE, the mean score of 275 S.I/S administrators, 37 A.I/S, and 4 D.I/S are 20.25, 19.38, and 22.25, respectively. It means that the administrators from D.I/S have more EEs than the other category administrators. Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= 2.471, df=2/313 & *P*= .086) the result is not significant. Hence, it shows no significant difference in EEs among SEAs concerning their designation.

The result also shows that in the case of PA, the mean score of 275 S.I/S administrators, 37 A.I/S, and 4 D.I/S are 20.70, 20.49, and 22.50, respectively. It means that the administrators from D.I/S have a more PA than the other category administrators. Further,

the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= 1.216, df=2/313 & *P*= .298) the result is not significant. Hence, it shows no significant difference in PAs among SEAs concerning their designation.

In the dimension of OE, the mean score of 275 S.I/S administrators, 37 A.I/S, and 4 D.I/S are 21.61, 21.35, and 22.25, respectively. It means that the administrators from D.I/S have more OEs than the other category administrators. Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= .414, df=2/313 & *P*= .662) the result is not significant. Hence, it shows no significant difference in OEs among SEAs concerning their designation.

In SE, the mean score of 275 S.I/S administrators, 37 A.I/S, and 4 D.I/S are 83.46, 82.27, and 90.25, respectively. It means that the administrators from D.I/S have more SE than the other category administrators. Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= 2.001, df=2/313 & *P*= .137) the result is not significant. Hence, it shows no significant difference in SE among SEAs concerning their designation.

The result concerning PW, the mean score of 275 S.I/S administrators, 37 A.I/S, and 4 D.I/S are 43.08, 42.95, and 43.25, respectively. It means that the administrators from S.I/S have more PW than the other category administrators. Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= .023, df=2/313 & *P*= .977) the result is not significant. Hence, it shows no significant difference in PW among SEAs concerning their designation.

Regarding the SoW dimension, the mean score of 275 S.I/S administrators, 37 A.I/S, and 4 D.I/S are 44.26, 43.16, and 43.75, respectively. It means that the administrators from S.I/S have more SoW than the other category administrators. Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= .875, df=2/313 & *P*= .418) the result is not significant. Hence, it shows no significant difference in SoW among SEAs concerning their designation.

In the dimension of WPW, the mean score of 275 S.I/S administrators, 37 A.I/S, and 4 D.I/S are 35.00, 36.62, and 33.75, respectively. It means that the administrators from A.I/S have more WPW than the other category administrators. Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= 1.632, df=2/313 & *P*= .197) the result is not significant. Hence, it shows no significant difference in WPW among SEAs concerning their designation.

The above table shows that in the case of SuW, the mean score of 275 S.I/S administrators, 37 A.I/S, and 4 D.I/S are 16.14, 17.05, and 16.25, respectively. It means that the administrators from A.I/S have more SuW than the other category administrators. Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= 2.228, df=2/313 & *P*= .109) the result is not significant. Hence, it shows no significant difference in SuW among SEAs concerning their designation.

In EW, the mean score of 275 S.I/S administrators, 37 A.I/S, and 4 D.I/S are 138.48, 139.78, and 137.00, respectively. It means that the administrators from A.I/S have more EW than the other category administrators. Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that (F= .211, df=2/313 & *P*= .810) the result is not significant. Hence, it shows no significant difference in EW among SEAs concerning their designation.

5.2.3.12 Testing of Hypothesis-12 ($H_0$12): Age of the SEAs is not significantly related to their JS, SE and EW

Table No. 5.16: Relationship between Age and (Overall and Dimensions wise) JS, SE and EW among SEAs

Age of the Respondent	r	*P*
D1JS: TS	.139*	.013
D2JS: AS	.213**	.000
D3JS: REC	.109	.053
D4JS: CWS	-.076	.176
D5JS: WLB	-.158**	.005
JS (Overall)	.118*	.036
D1SE: SC	.144*	.010
D2SE: EE	.027	.638
D3SE: PA	.125*	.026
D4SE: OE	.101	.074
SE (Overall)	.128*	.023
D1EW: PW	.069	.224
D2EW: SoW	.074	.187
D3EW: WPW	.196**	.000
D4EW: SuW	.137*	.014
EW (Overall)	.163**	.004
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).		
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).		

Interpretation

Table- 5.16 shows a relationship between the respondent's age and overall and dimensions-wise JS, SE, and EW. The result shows a low positive but significant relationship between the age of SEA and TS (i.e., r=.139, *P*=.013). The result shows a low positive but significant relationship between the age of SEAs and AS (i.e., r=.213, p=0.000). At the same time, a low positive and insignificant relationship was found between age and REC of SEAs (i.e., r=.109, *P*=.053). The result also revealed that a low negative and insignificant relationship was found between the respondent's age and CWS of SEAs (i.e., r=-.076, *P*=.176). But a low negative and significant relationship was found between the respondent's age and the WLB of SEAs (i.e., r=-.158, *P*=.005). The result also shows a low positive but significant relationship between the respondent's age and SEAs JS (i.e., r=.118, *P*=.036).

The same table shows a low positive but significant relationship between the respondent's age and the SC of SEAs (i.e., r=.144, *P*=.010). In contrast, a low positive and insignificant relationship was found between the respondent's age and EE of SEAs (i.e., r=.027, *P*=.638). But a low positive and significant relationship was found between the respondent's age and the PA of SEA (i.e., r=.125, *P*=.026). Another result shows a low positive and insignificant relationship between the respondent's age and OE of SEAs (i.e., r=.101, P=.074). A low positive but significant relationship exists between the respondent's age and the SE of SEAs (i.e., r=.128, *P*=.023).

The above table shows a low positive, and insignificant relationship was found between the respondent's age and the PW of SEAs (i.e., r=.069, *P*= .224). The result also shows a low positive and insignificant relationship between the respondent's age and the SoW of SEAs (i.e., r=.074, P=.187). At the same time, a low positive but significant relationship was found between the age of the respondent and the WPW of SEAs (i.e., r=.196, *P*=.000). The same table also shows a low positive but significant relationship exists between the respondent's age and the SuW of SEAs (i.e., r=.137, *P*=.014). A low positive but significant relationship between the age of the respondent and EW of SEAs (i.e., r=.163, *P*=.004).

5.2.3.13 Testing of Hypothesis-13 ($H_0$13): Distance of workplace from home of the SEAs is not significantly related to their JS, SE and EW

Table No. 5.17: Relationship between Distance from Home to Workplace and (Overall and Dimensions wise) JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

Distance from Permanent Residence to Work Place/Office (km)	r	*P*
D1JS: TS	-.089	.113
D2JS: AS	-.174**	.002
D3JS: REC	-.016	.773
D4JS: CWS	-.015	.793
D5JS: WLB	.083	.140
JS (Overall)	-.098	.081
D1SE: SC	.028	.618
D2SE: EE	-.006	.914
D3SE: PA	-.024	.665
D4SE: OE	-.027	.629
SE (Overall)	-.008	.884
D1EW: PW	.043	.444
D2EW: SoW	.009	.868
D3EW: WPW	-.095	.090
D4EW: SuW	-.050	.373
EW (Overall)	-.034	.550
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).		
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).		

Interpretation

Table- 5.17 shows the relationship between distance from home to the workplace and overall and dimensions-wise JS, SE, and EW. The result shows a low negative, and insignificant relationship was found between distance from home to workplace and TS of SEAs (i.e., r=-.089, P=.113). But a low negative and significant relationship exists between distance from home to the workplace and AS of SEA (i.e., r=-.174, *P*=.002). At the same time, a low negative and insignificant relationship was found between distance from home to workplace and REC of SEAs (i.e., r=-.016, *P*=.773). The results also show a low negative and insignificant relationship between distance from home to the workplace and

CWS of SEAs (i.e., r=-.015, *P*=.793). The same table also shows a low positive and insignificant relationship between distance from home to workplace and the WLB of SEAs (i.e., r=.083, *P*=.140). A low negative and insignificant relationship between distance from home to workplace and JS of SEAs (i.e., r=-.098, *P*= .081).

The above table shows a low positive and insignificant relationship between distance from home to the workplace and the SC of SEAs (i.e., r=.028, P=.618). A low negative and insignificant relationship exists between distance from home to workplace and EE of SEAs (i.e., r=-.006, P=.914). It also shows a low negative and insignificant relationship between distance from home to the workplace and the PA of SEAs (i.e., r=-.024, P=.665). The results revealed a low negative and insignificant relationship between distance from home to workplace and OE of SEAs (i.e., r=-.027, *P*=.629). The above table also shows a low negative and insignificant relationship between distance from home to workplace and the SE of SEAs (i.e., r= -.008, *P*=.884).

The same table shows a low positive and insignificant relationship between distance from home to the workplace and the PW of SEAs (i.e., r=.043, *P*=.444). A low positive and insignificant relationship between distance from home to workplace and the SoW of SEAs (i.e., r=.009, P=.868). The result also shows a low negative and insignificant relationship between distance from home to workplace and WPW of SEAs (i.e., r=-.095, *P*=.090). A low negative and insignificant relationship exists between distance from home to workplace and the SuW of SEAs (i.e., r=-.050, *P*=.373). The same table shows a low negative and insignificant relationship between distance from home to workplace and the EW of SEAs (i.e., r=-.034, *P*=.550).

5.2.3.14 Testing of Hypothesis-14 ($H_0$14): Service experience of the SEAs is not significantly related to their JS, SE and EW

Table No. 5.18: Relationship between Year of Service Experience and (Overall and Dimensions wise) JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

Total years of Service Experience	r	*P*
D1JS: TS	.126*	.025
D2JS: AS	.232**	.000
D3JS: REC	.135*	.017
D4JS: CWS	-.092	.103
D5JS: WLB	-.159**	.005
JS (Overall)	.126*	.025

D1SE: SC	.110	.051
D2SE: EE	.069	.223
D3SE: PA	.093	.099
D4SE: OE	.128*	.023
SE (Overall)	.129*	.021
D1EW: PW	.066	.242
D2EW: SoW	.076	.179
D3EW: WPW	.172**	.002
D4EW: SuW	.164**	.003
EW (Overall)	.157**	.005
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).		
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).		

Interpretation

Table- 5.18 shows the relationship between years of experience and overall and dimensions-wise JS, SE, and EW. It shows a low positive, but a significant relationship was found between the year of service experience and TS of SEAs (i.e., r=.126, *P*=.025). The results also revealed a low positive but significant relationship between year of service experience and AS of SEAs (i.e., r=.232, *P*=.000). A low positive but significant relationship exists between the year of service experience and REC of SEAs (i.e., r=.135, *P*=.017). At the same time, a low negative and insignificant relationship exists between the year of service experience and CWS of SEAs (i.e., r=-.092, *P*=0.103). But a low negative and significant relationship between the year of service experience and the WLB of SEAs (i.e., r=-.159, *P*=.005). The result also shows a low positive, but a significant relationship was found between the year of service experience and JS of SEAs (i.e., r=.126, *P*=.025).

The above table shows a low positive and insignificant relationship was found between the year of service experience and the SC of SEAs (i.e., r=.110, *P*=.051). A low positive and insignificant relationship exists between the year of service experience and EE of SEAs (i.e., r=.069, *P*=.223). The same table also shows a low positive and insignificant relationship was found between the year of service experience and the PA of SEAs (i.e., r=.093, *P*=.099). In contrast, another result also shows a low positive but significant relationship between years of service experience and OE of SEAs (i.e., r=.128, *P*=.023). A low positive but significant relationship exists between the year of service experience and SE of SEAs (i.e., r=.129, *P*=.021).

The result revealed that a low positive and insignificant relationship was found between the year of service experience and the PW of SEA (i.e., r=.066, P=.242). The result also shows a low positive, and insignificant relationship exists between the year of service

experience and the SoW of SEAs (i.e., r=.076, P=.179). At the same time, a low positive but significant relationship was found between the year of service experience and WPW of SEA (i.e., r=.172, *P*=.002). The above table also shows a low positive, but significant relationship exists between the year of service experience and the SuW of SEAs (i.e., r=.164, *P*=.003). The same table shows a low positive but significant relationship between years of service experience and employees' wellbeing of SEAs (i.e., r=.157, *P*=.005).

The Honey-moon Effect

While the total year of experience was the concern, in the case of JS, a very important concept, i.e., Honey-Moon Effect, is discoursed across the literature. It creates an overly positive picture of the job for the new employee. To measure whether this effect is present in this study or not, the researcher assessed this effect by categorizing the SEAs based on their total years of service experience. In the initial data, it was found that the year of experience of the administrators ranged from less than 1 year to 31 years. Previous studies reported that this effect lasts about one year. Therefore, in the present study, the researcher divided the year of experience into five separate categories, viz. up to 1 year, 2 to 5 years, 6 to 10 years, 11 to 15 years, and more than 15 years. Descriptive statistics showed that there were 40 administrators in the up-to-one-year experience group, and their mean score of JS was 53.43. For 66, the two to five-year experience group was 56.50; for 101 six to ten-year age group was 54.99, 76 eleven to fifteen-year age group was 55.24; and for 33, the sixteen to thirty-one-year experience group was 60.73. It indicates that the first group of administrators, i.e., up to one year of experience, have lowest JS than the other categories. Further, the F-test result (F=3.110, p=.016) showed that the variances among the groups were significant for a total of 316 administrators. To neutralize the honey-moon effect, the F-test was run again after excluding the first group (N=276), and the result showed that the result was also significant (F=3.016, p=.030), but the p-value increased from .016 to .030. Therefore, based on the mean score and the increased p-value, it can be inferred that very little, but Honey-moon Effect exists in JS among SEAs.

Table No. 5.19: Honey-moon Effect of JS among SEAs

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	N=316		N=276	
					F	p	F	p
JS	**Up to 1 year**	40	53.43	6.660	3.110	.016	3.016	.030
	2 to 5 years	66	56.50	10.000				
	6 to 10 years	101	54.99	9.613				
	11 to 15 years	76	55.24	9.545				
	16 to 31 years	33	60.73	11.756				

5.2.3.15 Testing of Hypothesis-15 ($H_0$15): There is no significant relationship exist between overall and dimension wise JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

Table No. 5.20: Relationship between (Overall and Dimensions wise) JS, SE, and EW

		AS	REC	CWS	WLB	SC	EE	PA	OE	SE	PsW	SoW	WPW	SuW	EW
TS	r	.581	.366	.011	-.274	-.031	-.064	-.165	-.036	-.098	-.120	-.112	.150	.111	.005
	P	.000	.000	.852	.000	.580	.259	.003	.519	.082	.033	.047	.008	.049	.926
AS	r		.459	-.006	-.305	-.027	-.055	-.152	-.060	-.095	-.098	-.096	.199	.196	.056
	P		.000	.921	.000	.638	.331	.007	.286	.091	.080	.088	.000	.000	.318
REC	r			.015	-.043	-.088	-.012	-.095	-.062	-.082	-.118	-.173	.077	.103	-.051
	P			.789	.443	.118	.832	.091	.271	.144	.036	.002	.173	.067	.369
CWS	r				.218	-.107	-.122	-.113	-.090	-.144	-.193	-.380	-.317	-.253	-.395
	P				.000	.057	.030	.046	.109	.010	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000
WLB	r					-.198	-.079	-.083	-.032	-.133	-.136	-.170	-.326	-.245	-.299
	P					.000	.161	.141	.570	.018	.015	.002	.000	.000	.000
JS	r					-.147	-.114	-.224	-.101	-.193	-.232	-.317	-.020	.017	-.202
	P					.009	.043	.000	.073	.001	.000	.000	.722	.758	.000
SC	r						.453	.480	.337	.761	.372	.347	.313	.272	.443
	P						.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
EE	r							.438	.392	.786	.330	.282	.291	.317	.404
	P							.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
PA	r								.444	.775	.455	.397	.263	.419	.496
	P								.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
OE	r									.688	.417	.279	.244	.256	.398
	P									.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
SE	r										.515	.431	.370	.419	.575
	P										.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
PsW	r											.432	.291	.374	.689
	P											.000	.000	.000	.000
SoW	r												.432	.371	.783
	P												.000	.000	.000
WPW	r													.498	.791
	P													.000	.000
SuW	r														.678
	P														.000

Interpretation

Table- 5.19 shows the relationship between overall and dimension-wise JS, SE, and EW among SEAs. The result shows an average positive but significant relationship between TS and AS of SEA (i.e., r=.581, *P*=.000). A low positive but significant relationship also exists between TS and REC of SEA (i.e., r=.366, *P*=.000). Whereas, a low positive and insignificant relationship was found between TS and CWS of SEA (i.e., r=.011, *P*=.852). But a low negative and significant relationship exists between TS and WLB of SEAs (i.e., r=-.274, *P*=.000). Another result shows that a low negative and insignificant relationship

was found between TS and SC of SEA (i.e., r=-.031, *P*=.580). The result also revealed that a low negative and insignificant relationship was found between TS and EE of SEAs (i.e., r=-.064, *P*=.259). But a low negative and significant relationship exists between TS and the PA of SEA (i.e., r=-.165, *P*=.003). At the same time, a low negative and insignificant relationship was found between TS and OE of SEAs (i.e., r=-.036, *P*=.519). The above table also shows a low negative and insignificant relationship exists between TS and SE of SEA (i.e., r=-.098, *P*=.082). Another result revealed a low negative but significant relationship between TS and the PW of SEAs (i.e., r=-.120, *P*=.033). It is also shown that a low negative but significant relationship was found between TS and the SoW of SEAs (i.e., r=-.112, *P*=.047). The result also revealed a low positive but significant relationship between TS and WPW of SEAs (i.e., r=.150, *P*=.008). A low positive but significant relationship was found between TS and the SuW of SEA (i.e., r=.111, *P*=.049). In Contrast, a low positive and insignificant relationship between TS and EW of SEA (i.e., r=.005, *P*=.926).

The above table shows an average positive, but significant relationship exists between AS and REC of SEAs (i.e., r=.459, *P*=.000). In contrast, a low negative and insignificant relationship was found between AS and CWS of SEAs (i.e., r=-.006, *P*=.921). Another result revealed that a low negative but significant relationship exists between AS and WLB of SEA (i.e., r=-.305, p=0.000). At the same time, a low negative and insignificant relationship was found between AS and the SC of SEAs (i.e., r=-.027, *P*=.638). The result also shows a low negative and insignificant relationship exists between AS and EE of SEAs (i.e., r=-.055, *P*=.331). But a low negative and significant relationship was found between AS and the PA of SEA (i.e., r=-.152, *P*=0.007). In contrast, a low negative and insignificant relationship was found between AS and OE of SEAs (i.e., r=-.060, *P*=.286). The result also shows that a low negative and insignificant relationship was found between AS and SE of SEA (i.e., r=-.095, *P*=.091). It also shows a low negative, and insignificant relationship exists between AS and the PW of SEA (i.e., r=-.098, *P*=.080). The result in the same table also shows a low negative and insignificant relationship between AS and the SoW of SEAs (i.e., r=-.096, *P*=.088). But a low positive and significant relationship exists between AS and the WPW of SEAs (i.e., r=.199, p=0.000). A low positive and significant relationship also exists between AS and the SuW of SEA (i.e., r=.196, *P*=.000). In contrast, a low positive and insignificant relationship exists between AS and employees' wellbeing of SEAs (i.e., r=.056, *P*=.318).

The same table shows a low positive and insignificant relationship between REC and CWS of SEA (i.e., r=.015, *P*=.789). A low negative and insignificant relationship also exists

between the role of expectation conflict and the WLB of SEA (i.e., r=-.043, *P*=.443). The result also revealed a low negative and insignificant relationship between the role of expectation conflict and the SC of SEAs (i.e., r=-.088, *P*=.118). The same table also shows a low negative and insignificant relationship between the role of expectation conflict and EE of SEAs (i.e., r=-.012, *P*=.832). A low negative and insignificant relationship exists between the role of expectation conflict and the PA of SEAs (i.e., r=-.095, *P*=.091). Furthermore, it shows a low negative and insignificant relationship between the role of expectation conflict and OE of SEA (i.e., r=-.062, *P*=.271). Another result shows a low negative and insignificant relationship between the role of expectation conflict and SE of SEA (i.e., r=-.082, *P*=.144). At the same time, a low negative but significant relationship was found between the role of expectation conflict and the PW of SEAs (i.e., r=-.118, *P*=.036). Also, a low negative and significant relationship exists between the role of expectation conflict and the SoW of SEA (i.e., r=-.173, *P*=.002). Further, a low positive and insignificant relationship between the role of expectation conflict and the WPW of SEA (i.e., r=.077, *P*=.173). The result also shows a low positive and insignificant relationship between the role of expectation conflict and the SuW of SEA (i.e., r=.103, *P*= .067). It also shows a low negative and insignificant relationship between the role of expectation conflict and employees' wellbeing of SEAs (i.e., r=-.051, *P*=.369).

The above table shows a low positive but significant relationship between CWS and WLB of SEA (i.e., r=.218, *P*=.000). At the same time, a low negative and insignificant relationship between CWS and SC of SEAs (i.e., r=-.107, *P*=.057). But a low negative and significant relationship between CWS and EE of SEA (i.e., r=-.122, *P*=.030). The result also shows a low negative but significant relationship between CWS and the PA of SEAs (i.e., r=-.113, *P*=.046). In contrast, a low negative and insignificant relationship between CWS and OE of SEA (i.e., r=-.090, *P*=.109. Another result shows a low negative but significant relationship between CWS and SE of SEA (i.e., r=-.144, *P*=.010). The result also shows a low negative but significant relationship between CWS and the PW of SEA (i.e., r=-.193, *P*=.001). It also shows a low negative but significant relationship between CWS and the SoW of SEA (i.e., r=-.380, *P*=.000). The result also shows a low negative but significant relationship between CWS and WPW of SEAs (i.e., r=-.317, *P*=.000). A low negative but significant relationship exists between CWS and SuW of SEA (i.e., r=- .253, *P*=.000). Another result also revealed that a low negative and significant relationship was found between CWS and employees' wellbeing of SEAs (i.e., r=-.395, *P*=.000).

The result shows a low negative, but significant relationship exists between WLB and SC of SEA (i.e., r= -.198, *P*=.000). At the same time, a low negative and insignificant

relationship was found between WLB and EE of SEAs (i.e., r=-.079, *P*=.161). The same table also shows a low negative and insignificant relationship exists between WLB and the PA of SEAs (i.e., r=-.083, *P*=.141). The result also revealed that a low negative and insignificant relationship exists between WLB and OE of SEA (i.e., r=-.032, *P*=.570). But, a low negative and significant relationship between WLB and SE of SEA (i.e., r=-.133, *P*=.018). The same table also shows a low negative, but a significant relationship was found between WLB and the PW of SEA (i.e., r=-.136, *P*=.015). The result also shows a low negative, but a significant relationship was found between WLB and the SoW of SEAs (i.e., r=-.170, *P*=.002). The same table also shows a low negative but significant relationship exists between WLB and WPW of SEAs (i.e., r=-.326, *P*=.000). It also shows a low negative, but significant relationship between WLB and SuW of SEAs (i.e., r=-.245, *P*=.000). A low negative but significant relationship was found between WLB and EW of SEAs (i.e., r=-.299, *P*=.000).

The result revealed that a low negative but significant relationship was found between JS and the SC of SEAs (i.e., r=-.147, *P*=.009). It also shows a negative but significant relationship exists between JS and EE of SEAs (i.e., r=-.114, *P*=.043). The same table also shows a low negative, but a significant relationship was found between JS and the PA of SEA (i.e., r=-.224, *P*=.000). At the same time, a low negative and insignificant relationship was found between JS and OE of SEA (i.e., r=-.101, *P*=.073). But a low negative and significant relationship exists between JS and the SE of SEA (i.e., r=-.193, *P*=.001). The result also revealed that a low negative but significant relationship was found between JS and the PW of SEA (i.e., r=-.232, *P*=.000). The same table also shows a low negative but significant relationship between JS and SoW of SEAs (i.e., r=-.317, *P*=.000). In contrast, a low negative and insignificant relationship exists between JS and WPW of SEA (i.e., r=-.020, *P*=.722). The result also revealed that a low negative and insignificant relationship was found between JS and the SuW of SEA (i.e., r=-.017, *P*=.758). But, a low negative and significant relationship between JS and the EW of SEAs (i.e., r=-.202, *P*=.000).

The above table shows an average positive but significant relationship was found between SC and EE of SEAs (i.e., r=.453, *P*=.000). The result also shows an average positive but significant relationship between SC and PA of SEAs (i.e., r=.480, *P*=.000). A low positive but significant relationship exists between SC and OE of SEA (i.e., r=.337, *P*=.000). The results also revealed that a high positive but significant relationship was found between SC and SE of SEA (i.e., r=.761, *P*=.000). Another result also shows a low positive but significant relationship was found between SC and PW of SEAs (i.e., r=.372, *P*=.000). The same table shows a low positive and significant relationship was found between SC and

SoW of SEA (i.e., r=.347, *P*=.000). Above table also shows that a low positive but significant relationship exists between SC and WPW of SEAs (i.e., r=.313, *P*=.000). A low positive but significant relationship exists between SC and SuW of SEA (i.e., r=.272, *P*=.000). Another result revealed that an average positive but significant relationship was found between SC and employees' wellbeing of SEAs is .443, *P*=.000).

The above table shows an average positive but significant relationship was found between EE and PA of SEAs (i.e., r=.438, *P*=.000). The result also revealed that a low positive but significant relationship exists between EE and OE of SEA (i.e., r=.392, *P*=.000). A high positive but significant relationship was found between EE and SE of SEAs (i.e., r=.786, *P*=.000). It also shows a low positive but significant relationship was found between EE and PW of SEAs (i.e., r=.330, *P*=.000). The result also shows a low positive but significant relationship was found between EE and SoW of SEAs (i.e., r=.282, *P*=.000). A low positive but significant relationship was found between EE and WPW of SEAs (i.e., r=.291, *P*=.000). It shows a low positive but significant relationship was found between EE and SuW of SEA (i.e., r=.317, *P*=.000). The result shows an average positive but significant relationship exists between efficacy] expectation and employees' wellbeing of SEA (i.e., r=.404, *P*=.000).

The result in the same table shows that an average positive but significant relationship was found between PA and OE of SEAs (i.e., r=.444, *P*=.000). A high positive but significant relationship exists between PA and SE of SEA (i.e., r=.775, *P*=.000). The result also revealed that an average positive but significant relationship was found between PA and PW of SEA (i.e., r=.455, *P*=.000). It also shows that a low positive but significant relationship was found between PA and SoW of SEAs (i.e., r=.397, *P*=.000). The result also revealed that a low positive but significant relationship was found between PA and WPW of SEA (i.e., r=.263, *P*=.000). The same table also shows an average positive but significant relationship exists between PA and SuW of SEAs (i.e., r=.419, *P*=.000). An average positive but significant relationship was found between PA and employees' wellbeing of SEAs (i.e., r=.496, *P*=.000).

The result in the same table revealed that a high positive but significant relationship was found between OE and SE of SEAs (i.e., r=.688, *P*=.000). The same table also shows an average positive but significant relationship exists between OE and PW of SEAs (i.e., r=.417, *P*=.000). It also shows a low positive but significant relationship was found between OE and SoW of SEA (i.e., r=.279, *P*=.000). Another result in the same table also shows a low positive but significant relationship was found between OE and WPW of SEAs (i.e., r=.244, *P*=.000). The result also revealed that a low positive but significant

relationship was found between OE and SuW of SEAs (i.e., r=.256, *P*=.000). A low positive but significant relationship was found between OE and employees' wellbeing of SEAs (i.e., r=.398 *P*=.000).

The result in the same table shows that an average positive but significant relationship was found between SE and PW of SEA (i.e., r=.515, *P*=.000). It also shows an average positive, but a significant relationship was found between SE and SoW of SEAs (i.e., r=.431, *P*=.000). A low positive but significant relationship exists between SE and WPW of SEA (i.e., r=.370, *P*=.000). The result also revealed that an average positive but significant relationship was found between SE and SuW of SEAs (i.e., r=.419, *P*=.000). The same table also shows an average positive but significant relationship between SE and employees' wellbeing of SEAs (i.e., r=.575, *P*=.000).

The above table shows that an average positive but significant relationship was found between PW and SoW of SEAs (i.e., r=.432, *P*=.000). It also shows a low positive, but a significant relationship was found between PW and WPW of SEA (i.e., r=.291, *P*=.000). The result revealed that a low positive but significant relationship was found between PW and SuW of SEA (i.e., r=.374, *P*=.000). Another result in the same table also shows that a high positive but significant relationship exists between PW and employees' wellbeing of SEA (i.e., r=.689, *P*=.000).

The same table shows that an average positive but significant relationship was found between SoW and WPW of SEAs (i.e., r=.432, *P*=.000). It also shows a low positive, but significant relationship exists between SoW and SuW of SEAs (i.e., r=.371, *P*=.000). In the same table shows a high positive but significant relationship was found between SoW and EW of SEAs (i.e., r=.783, *P*=.000).

The above table shows that an average positive but significant relationship was found between WPW and SuW of SEAs (i.e., r=.498, *P*=.000). It also shows a high positive, but significant relationship exists between WPW and EW of SEAs (i.e., r=.791, *P*=.000).

The same table shows a high positive, but a significant relationship was found between SuW and EW of SEsA (i.e., r=.678, *P*=.000).

Mediation Analysis

The influence between two constructs may take an indirect path through a third variable called a mediator. In this situation, the third variable will influence the influence between two constructs (Hair et al., 2009). When testing mediation, we need to understand three very important concepts of Total effect, Direct effect, Indirect effect, and Mediation or mediating effect are needed to be clear first.

Total Effect: It is the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable. In the presence of any mediator, the total effect is the combined influence of the direct effect between two constructs and the indirect effect flowing through a mediator (c'= c+a*b).

Direct Effect: It is the direct relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable in the presence of any moderator.

Indirect Effect: It is the effect of an independent variable on a dependent variable through a third mediating variable. This means the relationship flows from an independent variable to a mediator and then to a dependent variable, which is calculated by multiplying path-a and path-b (i.e., a*b).

To know the total, direct and indirect effects of JS on EW the regression analysis was run through the Hayes process macro in SPSS. Accordingly, the mediating effect of SE between JS and EW was assessed among 316 SEAs. The Hayes Model-4 was run because there was present only one dependent variable (DV) (i.e., EW), independent variable (IV) (i.e., JS), and mediator (M) (i.e., SE). In the present study, the three variables were continuous, approximately normally distributed, and correlated to each other, which were the regression assumptions. Results of the Regression analysis through the Hayes process macro have been presented in the table and figure below.

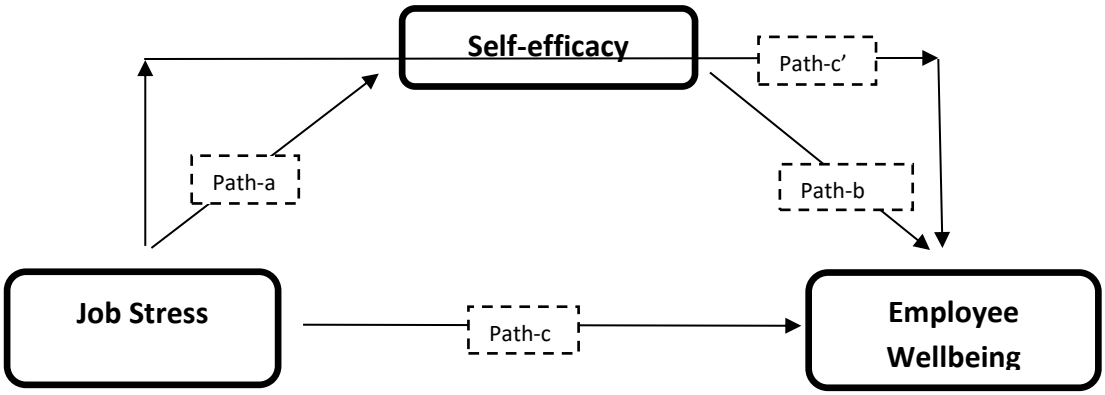


Fig. 5.4: Figure depicting the Model of Mediation Analysis and the Path Co-efficient

Table No. 5.21: Shows Mediation Analysis Model Summary

Model (Paths)	Outcome	Predictor/s	R	R-square	F (p)	Coeff	t (p)	LLCI	ULCI
Model-1 (Path-a)	SE	JS	.1932	.0373	12.1712 (.0006)	-.1527	-3.4887 (.0006)	-.2389	-.0666
Model-2 (Path-b)	EW	SE	.5753	.3310	155.3595 (.0000)	.9295	12.4643 (.0000)	.7828	1.0763
In the presence of SE(M)	EW	JS	.5827	.3395	80.4386 (.0000)	-.1199	-2.0056 (.0458)	-.2376	-.0023
		SE				.9002	11.9009 (.0000)	.7514	1.0491
Model-3 (Path-c)	EW	JS	.2015	.0406	13.2931 (.0003)	-.2574	-3.6460 (.0003)	-.3964	-.1185

Effect size

	Description	Coefficient	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
	Total effect of X on Y	-.2574	-3.6460	.0003	-.3964	-.1185
	Direct effect of X on Y	-.1199	-2.0056	.0458	-.2376	-.0023
		Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI	
Path-c’	Indirect effect(s) of X on Y	-.1375	.0504	-.2420	-.0422	

Note: Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in the output: 95.0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals: 5000

Model Breakdown Results:

5.2.3.16 Testing of Hypothesis-16 ($H_0$16): There is no significant direct impact of JS on SE among SEAs

Model-1 (Path-a): Direct effect/impact of JS on SE

The Haye’s regression analysis result showed that the loading (i.e., R) between JS and SE is .1932, and the path coefficient is -.1527, which means JS and SE of the participants are negatively but significantly related (t=-3.4887, p=.0006). It also showed that the R-square value between the two is .0373, and the path is significant (F=12.1712 and p=.0006). That means only 3.73% change in SE is accounted by JS.

5.2.3.17 Testing of Hypothesis-17 ($H_0$17): There is no significant direct impact of SE on EW among SEAs

Model-2 (Path-b): Direct effect/impact of SE on EW

To know the direct effect of SE on EW the, Haye's regression analysis was run separately, and the result showed that the R-value between JS and SE is .5753, and the path coefficient is .9295, which means SE and EWof the participants are positively and significantly related (t=12.4643, p=.0000). It also showed that the R-square value between the two is 33.10, and the path is significant (F=155.3595, p=.0000). That means 33.10% change in EW is accounted by SE separately.

5.2.3.18 Testing of Hypothesis-18 ($H_0$18): There is no significant direct impact of JS on EW among SEAs

Model-3 (Path-c): Direct effect/impact of JS on EW

Haye's regression analysis result showed that the R-value between JS and EW is .2015, and the coefficient value is -.2574, which means JS and the EW of the participants are negatively and significantly related (t=-3.646, p=.0003). It also showed that the R-square value between the two is .0406, and the respective F=13.2931 and p=.0000. It means separate JS significantly explains 4.06% of the variation in EW.

Further, in the presence of SE, the R between JS and EW is .5827, and the path coefficient is -.1199 (which is the direct effect in the present case). The path is significant (F=80.4386 and p=.0000). It also showed that the R-square value is .3395, which means 33.95% of the variation or change in EW is accounted by JS in the presence of SE. This means JS directly influences EW.

The Total Effect/Impact of JS on EW

The total effect of JS on EW is the sum of the direct effect/influence and the indirect effect, and it is calculated by adding the path-c with the product of path-a and path-b {i.e., c+(a*b)}. The coefficient of path-a is -.1527, path-b is .9002, and path-c is -.1199. Therefore, the total effect of JS on the employee is -.2574 (c+a*b or -.1199+-.1527*.9002). This total effect is significant (t=-3.6460, p=.0003), where the Lower-Level Confidence Interval (LLCI) is -.3964 and the Upper-Level Confidence Interval (ULCI) is -.1185.

5.2.3.19 Testing of Hypothesis-19 ($H_0$19): JS of the SEAs do not indirectly influences/impacts their EW through SE

Model-4 (Path-c): Indirect effect/impact of JS on EW through SE

The indirect effect of JS on EW is the effect of JS on EW through a third mediating variable, i.e., SE. It is calculated by multiplying path-a and path-b (i.e., a*b). Here are the coefficients of path-a -.1527, and path-b is .9002. Therefore, the indirect effect of JS on EW is -.1527*.9002= -.1375. This indirect effect is significant where the LLCI is -.2420 and the ULCI is -.0422.

5.2.3.20 Testing of Hypothesis-20 ($H_0$20): SE of the SEAs do not significantly mediate the relationship between their JS and EW

Table No. 5.22: Represents the Mediating Effect of JS on EW through SE among SEAs

Relationship	Total effect	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Confidence levels		Conclusion
				LLCI	ULCI	
JS=>SE=>EW	-.2574 p=.0003	-.1199 p=.0458	-.1375	-.2420	-.0422	Partial and complementary mediation

Haye's regression analysis revealed there is mediation as the indirect effect is significant (LLCI is -.2420 and the ULCI is -.0422), and the mediating effect is partial (Partial mediation) because some impacts are passing directly from JS to EW and some are passing through SE (i.e., mediator). And the nature of mediation is complementary because the signs of path coefficient of direct effect and indirect effect are the same {viz. negative (-)}. That means the SE of the SEAs is partially and complementarily mediating between their JS and EW.

CHAPTER-VI

MAJOR FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

CHAPTER-VI

MAJOR FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

6.1.0 Introduction

The analysis and interpretation of data from the previous chapter led the researcher toward this conclusive phase. Therefore, this chapter describes the final or concluding aspects of the study briefly. I have taken due care to include the significant features of the conclusion. Otherwise, there would be a miss in the charm of the practicability of the study. However, the content materials of the present chapter have been categorised under five broad heads, namely Major Findings of the Study, Discussion of The Major Results, Implications of the Study, Limitations of the Study, and Suggestions for Further Study.

6.2.0 Major Findings of the Study

As per the analysis and interpretations, the following findings were drawn.

6.2.1 Prevalence of Job Stress (JS), Self-efficacy (SE), and Employee Wellbeing (EW) among School Education Administrators (SEAs)

1. Most of the SEAs faced an average level of JS.
2. Most of the SEAs had an average to high level of SE.
3. Most of the SEAs had an average level of EW.

6.2.2 Effect of Gender on Overall and Dimensions wise JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

1. No significant difference existed in overall JS and its dimensions, viz., time stress (TS), anxiety stress (AS), role expectation conflict (REC), co-worker support (CWS), and work-life balance (WLB) among SEAs concerning their gender.
2. Male and female SEAs differed significantly in their self-confidence (SC).

3. No significant difference existed in efficacy expectation (EE), positive attitude (PA), and outcome expectation (OE) among SEAs concerning their gender.
4. Gender had a significant influence on SE among SEAs.
5. No significant difference was found in psychological wellbeing (PW), workplace wellbeing (WW), subjective wellbeing (SuW), and EW among SEAs concerning their gender.
6. Male and female SEAs differed significantly in respect of social wellbeing (SoW).

6.2.3 Effect of Highest Educational Qualification on Overall and Dimensions wise JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

1. The highest education qualification had no significant effect on TS, REC, CWS, and WLB among SEAs.
2. The highest educational qualification significantly influenced AS among SEAs.
3. Master's degree with a B.Ed and Graduation with B.Ed qualified SEAs differed significantly regarding JS.
4. No significant difference existed in overall SE and its dimensions, viz. SC, EE, PA, and OE among SEAs concerning their highest educational qualification.
5. No significant difference was found in overall EW and its dimensions, such as PW, SoW, WW, and SuW among SEAs concerning their highest educational qualification.

6.2.4 Effect of Present Residence on Overall and Dimensions wise JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

1. The present residence of SEAs had no significant effect on their overall JS and its dimensions, viz., TS, AS, REC, CWS, and WLB.
2. Results revealed no significant difference in overall SE and its dimensions, such as SC, EE, and PA among SEAs regarding their present residence.
3. The present residence significantly impacted OE among SEAs.
4. Based on the residence, SEAs did not significantly differed in their PW and SuW.
5. There was a significant difference in WW among SEAs concerning their present residence.

6. There was a significant difference in EW among SEAs regarding their present residence.

6.2.5 Effect of Marital Status on Overall and Dimensions wise JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

1. Married and unmarried SEAs did not differ significantly in overall JS and its dimensions, such as TS, AS, REC, CWS, and WLB.
2. Marital status did not significantly influence overall SE and its dimensions, such as SC, EE, and OE among SEAs.
3. The positive attitude dimension of SE differed significantly due to variation in marital status of SEAs.
4. No significant difference prevailed in overall EW and its dimensions, such as PW, SoW, WW and SuW among SEAs regarding their marital status.

6.2.6 Effect of Spouse Engagement Status on Overall and Dimensions wise JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

1. Spouse engagement status had no significant effect on overall JS and its dimensions, viz., TS, AS, REC, CWS, and WLB among SEAs.
2. No significant difference existed in SC, EE, PA, and OE among SEAs concerning their spouse engagement status.
3. Spouses' engagement status significantly affected SE among SEAs.
4. Education administrators' spouse’s engagement status had no significant effect on their PW, SoW, and SuW.
5. Spouse engagement status of SEAs significantly influenced their WW and EW.

6.2.7 Effect of Previous Job Status on Overall and Dimensions wise JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

1. No significant difference prevailed in overall JS and its dimensions, such as TS, AS, REC, CWS, and WLB among SEAs based on their previous job status.
2. Previous job status did not significantly influenced SC and PA among SEAs.
3. SEAs' previous job status didn't bring significant differences in overall SE and its dimensions, such as EE and OE among them.

4. No significant difference prevailed in overall EW and its dimensions, viz. PW, SoW, WW, and SuW among SEAs regarding their previous job status.

6.2.8 Effect of Weekly Working Hours on Overall and Dimensions wise JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

1. No significant difference existed in overall JS and its dimensions (TS, AS, REC, CWS, and WLB) among SEAs concerning their working hours.
2. SEAs didn't differ significantly in overall SE and its dimensions, viz. SC, EE, PA, and OE due to their working hours.
3. There was no significant difference in PW, SoW, and SuW among SEAs concerning variation in their working hours.
4. A significant difference existed in WW and EW among SEAs concerning variation in their working hours.

6.2.9 Effect of Special Training on Overall and Dimensions wise JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

1. Special training did not significantly affect the overall JS and its dimensions, such as TS, AS, REC, CWS, and WLB among SEAs.
2. SE and its dimensions, viz. SC, PA, and OE differed significantly among SEAs due to variations in their special training.
3. Special training significantly affected the EE among SEAs.
4. Special training significantly affected EW and its dimensions, viz. PW, SoW, and WW among SEAs.
5. Special training had no significant influence on SuW among SEAs.

6.2.10 Effect of Other Job Opportunity Preferences on Overall and Dimensions wise JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

1. Other job opportunity preferences had no significant effect on overall JS and its dimensions, i.e., TS, AS, REC, and CWS among SEAs.
2. SEAs other job opportunity preferences significantly affected their WLB.
3. SEAs differed significantly in SC and PA due to their other job opportunity preferences.

4. Based on other job opportunity preferences, SEAs didn't vary in overall SE and its dimensions, viz. EE and OE.
5. Other job opportunity preferences significantly impacted overall EW and its dimensions, such as PW, SoW, WW, and SuW among SEAs.

6.2.11 Effect of Stream of Education on Overall and Dimensions wise JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

1. The stream of education did not significantly influence the overall JS and its dimensions, viz., TS, AS, REC, CWS, and WLB among SEAs concerning their stream of education.
2. No significant difference prevailed in SC, EEs, PAs, and outcome expectations among SEAs concerning variation in their stream of education.
3. The stream of education significantly influenced SE among SEAs.
4. No significant difference existed in PW, WW, SuW and EW among SEAs concerning variation in their stream of education.
5. The stream of education significantly affected the SoW among SEAs.

6.2.12 Effect of Designation on Overall and Dimensions wise JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

1. A significant difference prevailed in overall JS and its dimensions, viz., TS, AS, REC, and WLB among SEAs based on variation in their designation.
2. No significant difference existed in CWS among SEAs based on variations in their designation.
3. No significant difference existed in overall SE and its dimensions, such as SC, EE, PA, and OE among SEAs concerning their designation variation.
4. The designation was not found as an influential factor of overall EW and its dimensions, viz. PW, SoW, WW, and SuW among SEAs.

6.2.13 Relationship between Age and (Overall and Dimensions wise) JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

1. The result revealed a low positive and significant relationship between age and TS among SEAs.

2. A low positive and significant relationship existed between age and AT among SEAs.
3. The age of SEAs was positively and significantly related to REC.
4. A low negative and insignificant relationship prevailed between the age of the SEAs and their CWS.
5. Age and WLB of the SEAs had a significant negative relationship.
6. A low positive, significant relationship was found between age and JS of SEAs.
7. A low positive and significant relationship existed between the age of the SEAs and SC.
8. The age of the SEAs was positively and significantly related to EEs.
9. A low positive but significant relationship prevailed between the age of the SEAs and PA.
10. Positive and insignificant relationship existed between the age of the SEA and their OE.
11. The age of SEAs was positively and significantly related to SE.
12. A low positive and insignificant association was observed between age and PW among the SEAs.
13. Positively and insignificant relationship was present between the age of SEAs and social wellbeing.
14. A low positive but significant relationship was observed between the age of SEAs and workplace wellbeing.
15. A low positive and significant relationship was found between the age of SEAs and subjective wellbeing.
16. A significant positive relationship prevailed between age and overall employee wellbeing among SEAs.

6.2.14 Relationship between Distance from Home to Workplace and (Overall and Dimensions wise) JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

1. A low negative and insignificant relationship were found between distance from home to the workplace and TS among SEAs.
2. A significant negative relationship prevailed between distance from home to the workplace of SEAs and AS.

3. An insignificant low negative relationship existed between distance from home to workplace and REC among SEAs.
4. An insignificant low negative relationship was observed between distance from home to the workplace and CWS among SEAs.
5. The distance from home to the workplace of SEAs was positively and insignificantly related to work-life balance.
6. The distance from home to the workplace of SEAs and JS was negatively and insignificantly related.
7. The relationship between distance from home to the workplace of SEAs and their SC was positive and insignificant.
8. A low negative and insignificant relationship were present between distance from home to the workplace of SEAs and their EE.
9. The result revealed a low negative and insignificant relationship between distance from home to the workplace and PA among SEAs.
10. The distance from home to the workplace of SEAs was negatively and insignificantly related to their outcome expectations.
11. A negative and insignificant relationship prevailed between distance from home to the workplace and SE among SEAs.
12. Distance from home to the workplace of SEAs was positively and insignificantly related to their PW.
13. The relationship between distance from home to the workplace and the social wellbeing of SEAs was found positive and insignificant.
14. An insignificant low negative relationship prevailed between distance from home to workplace and the workplace wellbeing of SEAs.
15. The distance from home to the workplace of SEAs was negatively and insignificantly related to their subjective wellbeing.
16. An insignificant negative relationship existed between distance from home to the workplace and the EW of SEAs.

6.2.15 Relationship between Year of Service Experience and (Overall and Dimensions wise) JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

1. The year of service experience of SEAs was positively and significantly associated with their TS.

2. A low positive but significant association prevailed between the year of service experience and AS among SEAs.
3. A low positive but significant relationship existed between the year of service experience and REC among SEAs.
4. A low negative and insignificant relationship were found between the year of service experience and CWS among SEAs.
5. A low negative but significant relationship prevailed between the year of service experience and the work-life balance among SEAs.
6. The result revealed a significant positive relationship between the year of service experience and JS among SEAs.
7. A low positive and insignificant relationship was observed between years of service experience and SC among SEAs.
8. Significantly, SEAs' year of service experience was positively related to their EE.
9. A positive and insignificant relationship existed between SEAs' years of service experience and PAs.
10. Significantly, the year of service experience of SEAs was positively associated with their outcome expectations.
11. The result revealed a low positive and significant relationship between the years of service experience and the SE of SEAs.
12. A low positive and insignificant association was found between the years of service experience and the PW of SEAs.
13. Positive and insignificant relationships prevailed between the year of service experience of SEAs and social wellbeing.
14. The year of service experience of SEAs was positive but significantly related to workplace wellbeing.
15. A low positive and significant relationship was present between the year of service experience of SEAs and subjective wellbeing.
16. A significant positive relationship existed between the year of service experience and the EW of SEAs.
17. The result revealed a low honeymoon effect among the newly recruited SEAs.

6.2.16 Relationship between Overall and Dimensions wise JS, SE, and EW among SEAs

1. An average positive but significant relationship was present between TS and AS among SEAs.
2. A low positive but significant relationship existed between TS and REC among SEAs.
3. The time stress was positive and insignificantly related to CWS among SEAs.
4. A significantly low negative relationship was identified between TS and WLB among SEAs.
5. An insignificant negative relationship was found between TS and the SC among SEAs.
6. The relationship between TS and EE among SEAs was negative and insignificant.
7. Significantly, the TS was negatively related to the PA among SEAs.
8. A low negative and insignificant relationship were found between TS and OE among SEAs.
9. A low negative and insignificant relationship between TS and SE were found among SEAs.
10. A low negative but significant relationship existed between TS and the PW of SEAs.
11. A low negative but significant relationship was present between TS and the social wellbeing of SEAs.
12. A significant positive relationship was found between TS and workplace wellbeing among SEAs.
13. A low positive but significant relationship was found between TS and subjective wellbeing among SEAs.
14. The results revealed a low positive and insignificant relationship between TS and EW of SEAs.
15. An average positive but significant relationship prevailed between AS and REC among SEAs.
16. The anxiety stress was negatively and insignificantly related to CWS among SEAs.

17. Significantly, a low negative relationship was found between AS and WLB among SEAs.
18. A low negative and insignificant relationship were found between AS and the SC of SEAs.
19. A low negative and insignificant relationship were present between AS and EE of SEAs.
20. A significant negative relationship was found between AS and PA among SEAs.
21. The relationship between AS and OE was negative and insignificant among SEAs.
22. A low negative and insignificant relationship were found between AS and SE among SEAs.
23. A low negative and insignificant relationship were found between AS and PW among SEAs.
24. A low negative and insignificant relationship were found between AS and social wellbeing among SEAs.
25. Between anxiety stress and workplace wellbeing, a low positive but significant relationship was found among SEAs.
26. A positive but significant relationship was found between AS and subjective wellbeing among SEAs.
27. A low positive and insignificant relationship was found between AS and employees' wellbeing among SEAs.
28. The role expectation conflict was positive and insignificantly related to CWS among SEAs.
29. A low negative and insignificant relationship existed between REC and the work-life balance among SEAs.
30. A low negative and insignificant relationship were found between REC and SC among SEAs.
31. A low negative and insignificant relationship were found between REC and EE among SEAs.
32. The relationship between REC and the PA of SEAs was negative and insignificant.
33. A low negative and insignificant relationship were present between REC and OE among SEAs.

34. It showed a negative and insignificant relationship between REC and SE among SEAs.
35. The role expectation conflict was negative but significantly related to PW among SEAs.
36. A low negative but significant relationship was found between REC and social wellbeing among SEAs.
37. The results prevailed a low positive and insignificant relationship between REC and workplace wellbeing among SEAs.
38. A low positive and insignificant association existed between REC and subjective wellbeing among SEAs.
39. The association between REC and employees' wellbeing of SEAs was found negative and insignificant.
40. A significant positive relationship was present between CWS and work-life balance among SEAs.
41. A negative and insignificant relationship existed between CWS and SC among SEAs.
42. The co-worker support was negative but significantly related to the EE among SEAs.
43. A low negative but significant relationship was found between CWS and the PA among SEAs.
44. A low negative and insignificant relationship existed between CWS and the OE among SEAs.
45. A significant negative relationship was observed between CWS and SE among SEAs.
46. A negative but significant relationship was present between CWS and the PW of SEAs.
47. The CWS was negative but significantly related to the social wellbeing of SEAs.
48. A low negative but significant relationship was found between CWS and workplace wellbeing among SEAs.
49. The relationship was found to be negative but significant between CWS and the subjective wellbeing among SEAs.
50. A significant negative relationship existed between CWS and EW among SEAs.
51. A low negative but significant relationship was found between work-life balance and SC among SEAs.

52. The relationship between work-life balance and EEs among SEAs was negative and insignificant.
53. A negative and insignificant relationship existed between work-life balance and PA among SEAs.
54. A low negative and insignificant relationship existed between work-life balance and outcome expectations among SEAs.
55. A low negative but significant relationship was found between work-life balance and SE among SEAs.
56. The result revealed a significant negative relationship between work-life balance and PW among SEAs.
57. A negative but significant relationship existed between work-life balance and social wellbeing among SEAs.
58. The work-life balance was negatively and significantly related to workplace wellbeing among SEAs.
59. A low negative but significant relationship was found between work-life balance and subjective wellbeing among SEAs.
60. A low negative but significant relationship existed between work-life balance and EW among SEAs.
61. A significantly negative relationship was identified between JS and SC among SEAs.
62. A low negative but significant relationship was found between JS and the EE among SEAs.
63. A low negative but significant relationship prevailed between JS and the PA among SEAs.
64. An insignificant negative relationship was present between JS and the OE among SEAs.
65. A low but significant negative relationship was found between JS and SE among SEAs.
66. A low but significant negative relationship was found between JS and PW among SEAs.
67. A low negative but significant relationship was found between JS and social wellbeing among SEAs.
68. The relationship between JS and workplace wellbeing was negative and insignificant among SEAs.

69. A negative and insignificant relationship was found between JS and subjective wellbeing among SEAs.
70. A significant negative relationship prevailed between JS and EW among SEAs.
71. An average but significant positive relationship was found between SC and EE among SEAs.
72. An average positive but significant relationship was found between SC and PA among SEAs.
73. A low but significant positive relationship prevailed between SC and OE among SEAs.
74. A positive but significant relationship existed between SC and SE among SEAs.
75. A significant positive relationship existed between SC and PW among SEAs.
76. A significant positive relationship was found between SC and SoW among SEAs.
77. SC was positively but significantly related to WW among SEAs.
78. A low but significant positive relationship existed between SC and subjective wellbeing among SEAs.
79. An average positive but significant association prevailed between SC and EW among SEAs.
80. It was found that an average positive but significant relationship existed between EE and the PA among SEAs.
81. The EE was positively and significantly related to the OE among SEAs.
82. A highly positive but significant relationship existed between EE and SE among SEAs.
83. It was found that a significant positive relationship was present between EE and PW among SEAs.
84. Significantly, the EE was positively to the SoW among SEAs.
85. A low but significant positive relationship was found between EE and WW among SEAs.
86. A low positive but significant relationship was found between EE and SuW among SEAs.
87. The efficacy expectation was positively and significantly related to EW among SEAs.
88. Significantly an average positive relationship existed between PA and OE among SEAs.

89. A highly positive and significant relationship was found between PA and SE among SEAs.
90. Significantly, an average positive existed between PA and PW among SEAs.
91. The result revealed a significant positive relationship between the PA dimension and SoW among SEAs.
92. There is a low positive but significant relationship between PA and WW among SEAs.
93. An average positive but significant relationship existed between PA and SuW among SEAs.
94. A significant positive relationship between PA and EW prevailed among SEAs.
95. Significantly, a high positive relationship was found between OE and SE among SEAs.
96. Significantly, the outcome expectation of SEAs was positively related to their PW
97. A significant positive relationship was identified between OE and SoW among SEAs.
98. There was a low positive but significant relationship between OE and the WW of SEAs.
99. A low positive and significant relationship existed between OE and the SuW of SEAs.
100. The result revealed a significant positive relationship between OE and EW among SEAs.
101. SE of SEAs was significantly and positively related to their PW.
102. Significantly, the result showed an average positive relationship between SE and SoW among SEAs.
103. A low positive but significant relationship existed between SE and WW of SEAs.
104. An average positive and significant relationship were identified between SE and the subjective wellbeing of SEAs.
105. The result revealed that SE and EW of SEAs had an average positive but significant relationship.
106. The PW was positive and significantly related to the SoW of SEAs.
107. The relationship was found significant positive between PW and WW of SEAs.

108. A low but significant positive relationship existed between the PW and SuW among SEAs.
109. A significant positive relationship was observed between PW and EW among SEAs.
110. A significant average positive relationship prevailed between SoW and WW among SEAs.
111. The relationship was found positive and significant between SoW and SuW of SEAs.
112. A highly positive and significant relationship prevailed between SoW and EW among SEAs.
113. There was an average positive and significant relationship between WW and the SuW of SEAs.
114. Workplace wellbeing was positively and significantly related to EW among SEAs.
115. The relationship between SuW and EW of SEAs was positive and significant.

6.2.17 Direct, Indirect, and Total Effect/Impact of JS on EW among SEAs

1. The result showed that JS significantly predicted variation in SE, and variation in EW was significantly predicted by SE among SEAs.
2. JS predicted variation in EW among SEAs significantly.
3. Further, JS significantly predicted variation in EW in the presence of SE among SEAs.
4. The total effect of JS on EW was significant among SEAs.
5. JS directly affected EW among SEAs, and the effect size was also significant.
6. Significantly, JS indirectly affected EW among SEAs, and the effect size was also significant.
7. Significantly, SE partially and complementarily mediated the relationship between JS and EW among SEAs.

6.3.0 Discussion of the Major Findings

While the prevalence rate of job stress, self-efficacy, and employee wellbeing was the concern, the result revealed that most school education administrators (72.2%) faced average job stress. This finding was supported by Peretomode (2012), Olayiwola, S. (2008), Nhundu (1999), Jaiyeoba and Jibril (2008), Aarthi and Solomon (2012), Ngari, S. M. (2013), and Sogunro, O. A. (2012). In the case of Self-efficacy, most of the SEAs had average to high levels of self-efficacy, i.e., 47.8% and 42.7%, respectively. Again, concerning EW, most of the SEAs (i.e., 87.3%) possessed an average level of EW. From this, it can be inferred that there was job stress in the school education administration jobs; however, maintaining wellbeing in the job requires at least an average level of SE.

The present study findings also revealed that the gender of the SEAs had no significant influence on their overall JS and its dimensions (i.e., TS, AS, REC, CWS, and WLB). This finding was corroborated by Hand, L. E. (2010). On the contrary, Tung, R. L. (1980) reported that women administrators experienced lower levels of stress than their male counterparts. The study also revealed that female administrators are slightly more stressed than their counterparts. Female school administrators generally perceive their job as more stressful than males. Aarthi and Solomon reported a similar kind of result (2012). Suleman et al. (2018) found that male and female secondary school heads were occupationally stressed. Again, it also revealed that their gender influences the overall self-efficacy and the self-confidence dimension, and the male administrators have higher self-confidence and self-efficacy than the female administrators. In the other three dimensions of self-efficacy, i.e., self-expectation, positive attitude, and outcome expectation, the scores of male administrators are slightly higher than females, but those differences are not statistically significant. In a similar study, Siddiqui (2015) reported an insignificant difference in self-efficacy between male and female participants. That means, in general, male school administrators have more self-efficacy than males. Except for social and overall employee wellbeing, the gender of the SEAs did not influence other dimensions of employee wellbeing. The findings of Siddiqui (2015) contradicted this finding, and he reported that significant difference in psychological wellbeing between male and female participants. However, female SEAs have more job stress and less wellbeing than male administrators. It may be because of self-efficacy, as they possess less self-efficacy.

Concerning the highest educational qualification of the school education administrators, the findings revealed that the undergraduate with B. Ed qualified administrators had (overall and dimension-wise) higher job stress than the post-graduate with B. Ed. qualified administrators, except the work-life balance dimension. However, a significant difference was marked only in the overall job stress. Aarthi and Solomon (2012) also reported a similar kind of result, i.e., less qualified Principals/directors had higher levels of job stress than their counterparts. In the case of self-efficacy, a significant difference was not present among the administrators concerning their highest educational qualifications. However, undergraduates with B. Ed administrators possessed higher self-confidence, positive attitude, outcome expectation, and overall self-efficacy than their counterparts. On the other hand, post-graduate with B. Ed. qualified administrators had higher efficacy-expectation than their counter group. And again, in the case of employee wellbeing, no significant difference was found among the administrators concerning their highest educational qualification. However, undergraduates with B. Ed qualified administrators possessed higher psychological, workplace, subjective, and overall wellbeing than their counterparts. On the other hand, post-graduate with B. Ed. qualified administrators had higher social wellbeing than their counter group. That means undergraduates with B. Ed qualified administrators had more job stress, self-efficacy, and employee wellbeing than post-graduates with B. Ed. qualified administrators.

The results revealed no significant difference in overall and dimension-wise job stress between the administrators, who were presently reside with their family at home, and the administrators at the workplace. However, those residing with the family had time, anxiety, and overall job stress. On the other hand, the counter group had higher role expectation conflicts, less co-worker support, and less work-life balance. In the case of self-efficacy, except for the outcome expectation dimension, no significant difference exists in overall self-efficacy and its other dimensions. However, those residing with the family had higher self-confidence, efficacy expectation, positive attitude, outcome expectation, and self-efficacy. Finally, in the case of employee wellbeing, a significant difference was observed in overall employee wellbeing and its workplace wellbeing dimension. The other dimensions were insignificant: psychological, social, and subjective wellbeing. However, those residing with the family had higher scores in all aspects of employee wellbeing. That means those administrators staying with the family

have greater wellbeing as they get more co-worker support, less role expectation conflict, better work-life balance, and higher self-efficacy.

While marital status was a concern, the study findings revealed no significant difference in job stress and its dimensions between married and unmarried administrators. However, married administrators faced more time, anxiety, and co-worker support-related stress. In contrast, in the other two dimensions, viz. role expectation conflict and work-like balance, and the overall job stress, they faced less stress than unmarried administrators. And again, married administrators had overall and dimension-wise higher self-efficacy than unmarried administrators, but except positive attitude dimension, no significant difference was present between them. Finally, in the case of employee wellbeing, married administrators had higher psychological wellbeing, social wellbeing, and overall employee wellbeing. On the other hand, unmarried administrators had greater workplace and subjective wellbeing.

In continuation with marital status, further, the study focused on the job engagement status of spouses of married SEA. The findings revealed no significant difference in overall and dimension-wise job stress. However, in all aspects of job stress, the administrators whose spouses were doing some job had more job stress (overall and dimension-wise) than the administrators whose spouses are not engaged with any job other than homemaking. Interestingly, in all aspects of self-efficacy, the former group of administrators had lower self-efficacy level (overall and dimension-wise) than the latter group of administrators. A significant difference was found only in overall self-efficacy. Finally, again in the case of employee wellbeing, the first group of administrators had a low level of self-efficacy (overall and dimension-wise). But in this case, a significant difference was found in overall employee wellbeing and its workplace wellbeing dimension.

The researcher is also interested to know the impact of previous job status on overall and dimension-wise job stress, self-efficacy, and employee wellbeing. Study findings revealed no significant difference in overall and dimension-wise job stress between the administrators who had done any job before (having job experience) and those who had not done any job before (without previous job experience). However, the former group of administrators faced more time stress, role expectation conflict, and overall job stress but less work-life balance. On the other hand, the second group of administrators faced more

anxiety and stress and get less co-worker support. At the same time, the overall and dimension-wise self-efficacy of the first group of administrators is higher than the other group. However, a significant difference is present in overall self-efficacy and its efficacy expectation and outcome expectation dimensions. And again also, in the case of employee wellbeing, the first group of administrators had a higher level of wellbeing than the second group. Still, in any case, the groups did not differ significantly. Therefore, it indicates that administrators with higher self-efficacy have higher wellbeing despite higher job stress.

While weekly working hours were a concern, a group of administrators reported their duty up to 38 hours (5 days a week), which was their usual schedule duty. But, another group of administrators reported their duty as more than 38 hours. In this group, some administrators reported 24x7 hours of duty or no fixed duty hours. Study findings revealed no significant difference between the groups' overall and dimension-wise job stress, self-efficacy, and employee wellbeing. However, the first group faced more time stress, anxiety stress, role expectation conflict, overall job stress, and less co-worker support and work-life balance than the other group of administrators. Again, in the case of self-efficacy, the first group had more efficacy expectations and positive attitude but less self-confidence, outcome expectation, and overall self-efficacy. Finally, in employee wellbeing and its dimensions, the first group of administrators had higher wellbeing than the other group. That means administrators who do their usual scheduled duty had higher job stress and lower self-efficacy but higher wellbeing. This finding needs to be clarified because empirical evidence justified that job stress is negatively related to self-efficacy and wellbeing.

While studying the impact of training on overall and dimension-wise job stress, self-efficacy, and employee wellbeing, the study revealed an interesting result, as expected. That is, the administrators with special training had low job stress but higher self-efficacy and wellbeing than the administrators without special training. However, no significant difference was present in any aspect of job stress between the groups. Also, no significant difference was present in the efficacy-expectation dimension of self-efficacy and the subjective wellbeing dimension of employee wellbeing. But a significant difference was present in self-confidence, positive attitude, outcome expectation, and

overall self-efficacy. Again, significant difference was found in psychological, social, workplace, and employee wellbeing.

When the administrators were asked, "If you got any other job, will you leave this job?" out of 316, 206 participants said they would leave it. Study findings revealed that they had higher time stress and anxiety stress than the other 110 participants who said no. However, those who said yes had higher role expectation conflict and overall job stress but less co-worker support and work-life balance; however, except work-life balance dimension, no significant difference was found between the groups. In the case of self-efficacy, the first group (i.e., those who said they would leave this job) had higher self-efficacy (overall and dimension-wise) than the other group. However, a significant difference was present only in self-efficacy's self-confidence and positive attitude dimension. But in the case of employee wellbeing, the groups differed significantly in all aspects of wellbeing, and those who said they would not leave this job had higher wellbeing. It means in the working condition, less role expectation conflict, co-worker support, job stress, and higher work-life balance (which are the essential factors for employee wellbeing) are ideal for staying in administrative posts (jobs). At the same time, despite the job stress factors, high self-efficacy is also required for employee wellbeing.

The researcher compared the job stress, self-efficacy, and employee wellbeing of administrators from the Science, Arts, Commerce, and Technical streams of education to determine whether administrators from background faced more or less of those factors. Study findings showed that administrators from the Arts stream had the highest, the Science stream had the second highest, and Commerce had the lowest job stress. But no significant difference was present among the administrators from different backgrounds. This finding was corroborated by Erika H. and Bradley, E. H. (2013). In the case of self-efficacy, administrators having a Commerce background possessed the highest self-efficacy and employee wellbeing. While having an arts background had the lowest self-efficacy and second lowest employee wellbeing. A significant difference prevailed among the groups concerning their self-efficacy and social wellbeing dimensions, indicating administrators from Arts and science backgrounds had higher job stress and lower self-efficacy and employee wellbeing. On the other hand, administrators from Commerce and technical backgrounds have lower job stress and higher self-efficacy and

employee wellbeing. In general, the focus of study, i.e., vocational or technical, and on the other hand, general education/academic may be the reasons behind this type of result. However, more researches need to be conducted to generalize this finding.

While the present designation (viz. S.I./S, A.I./S, and D.I./S) of the SEAs was a concern, study findings revealed a significant difference in job stress among the three groups. Still, no significant difference was present in self-efficacy and employee wellbeing. However, A.I./S. had the highest job-stress lowest self-efficacy, and, again, the highest employee wellbeing Rasch, C. (1986) and Ngari, S. M. (2011) also reported that stress level varies with the administrative level or position. Latinas, A. (2010) also presented a similar kind of result. On the other hand, D.I./S had the lowest job stress, highest self-efficacy, and, again, lowest employee wellbeing. This type of result was unexpected. It may be because of the sampling fluctuations because there was a considerable deviation in the number of representatives in each category (viz. S.I./S=275, A.I./S=37, and D.I./S=4), though this distribution was proportionately correct.

The age of the SEA was positively and significantly related to job stress and its time stress and anxiety stress dimensions. This finding was supported by Aarthi and Solomon (2012). Similarly, However, Koch, J. L. et al. (1992) revealed that Boundary-Spanning stress increased with age. Conversely, Hand, L. E. (2010) reported that age was unrelated to stress. On the other hand, a significant negative relation was found with work-life balance-related stress. Role expectation conflict was also positively related, but the relationship was not significant; also, a very little negative but not significant relation with co-worker support-related stress. Self-efficacy and wellbeing of the SEAs were also positively and significantly related. It means job-related stress will increase with age. However, at the same time, self-efficacy and employee wellbeing also increase. Concerning the distance workplace of the administrators from home, except for anxiety stress, no significant effect was observed on other aspects of job stress, self-efficacy, and employee wellbeing. That means more or less distance from the workplace does not matter in job stress, self-efficacy, or employee wellbeing, but administrators may face some anxiety-related issues.

While the year of experience of the administrators was considered, the study revealed almost similar kinds of results, i.e., the experience of the administrators was positively and significantly related to job stress, self-efficacy, and employee wellbeing. Similarly,

Aarthi and Solomon (2012) reported that less experienced Principals/directors had higher levels of job stress than their counterparts. Cheng-Ping Chang, C. P., and Tseng, Y. M. (2009) also found that the stress of younger academic heads was significantly higher than that of senior heads. On the contrary, Mark G. Borg, M. G., and Riding, R. J. (2018) reported that most experienced school administrators faced more stress than their less experienced colleagues. On the other hand, Erika H. and Bradley, E. H. (2013) reported that administrators' teaching backgrounds and years of administrative experience had no significant effect on their perceptions of stress. Katsapis, C. C. (2012) found that years of experience did not influence the occupational stressors reported. In this regard, an interesting finding is that with age, experience also increases, and co-worker support and work-life balance-related stress decrease. That means experienced administrators get more support from their co-workers and maintain their work-life balance. Here social and interpersonal relations play an essential role.

When the relationship among the three significant variables, viz. job stress, self-efficacy, and employee wellbeing, was a concern, study findings revealed a low negative but significant relation of job stress with self-efficacy and employee wellbeing. Khan and Khurshid (2017) also reported that employee wellbeing negatively affects workplace stress. Helms-Lorenz and Maulana (2016) showed that self-efficacy was negatively related to stress. Similarly, Han et al. (2014) revealed a weak negative correlation between self-efficacy and job stress. On the other hand, self-efficacy was positively (moderate) and significantly related to employee wellbeing. Singh et al. (2018) and Othman et al. (2019) supported this finding. Self-efficacy was also positively related to psychological wellbeing (Siddiqui, 2015; Singh et al. (2018), Siu et al. (2007), Alkhatib (2020, Othman et al. (2019), Siddiqui (2015), Siu et al. (2007), physical wellbeing (Siu et al., 2007), spiritual wellbeing (Han et al., 2014), workplace wellbeing (Singh et al., 2018), positive thinking (Alkhatib, 2020), including personal accomplishment, job satisfaction, and commitment (Zee and Koomen, 2016). Singh et al. (2019) also revealed that the relationship between self-efficacy and workplace wellbeing was stronger among executives. On the other hand, Beas and Salanova (2006) found a significant negative between self-efficacy and employee wellbeing.

Mediation Effect

When the researcher tried to rate the change in self-efficacy, findings revealed that job stress significantly predicted only a 3.73% variation. Troesch and Bauer (2017) reported that self-efficacy impacts job stress. Low self-efficacy people suffer from a different aspect of job stress, and high self-efficacy people positively cope with stressful situations (Zaki, 2016).

While employee wellbeing was the target, a 33.10% variation was predicated by self-efficacy, and individual job stress predicted a 4.06% variation. Further, job stress predicted a 33.95% variation in employee wellbeing in the presence of self-efficacy.

The total effect of job stress on employee wellbeing was -.2574, which was significant. Job stress directly affects wellbeing, and the effect size was -.1199, which was also significant. Finally, job stress indirectly significantly affected employee wellbeing, and the effect size was -.1375, which was also significant. Finally, the results revealed that self-efficacy significantly partially and complementarily moderated between job stress and employee wellbeing. It means job stress directly and indirectly through self-efficacy influences employee wellbeing. Furthermore, self-efficacy reduced the adverse effects of job stress and helped increase the wellbeing of SEA. A similar kind of study by Klassen et al. (2012) reported that self-efficacy partially reduced the effect of stress from the workload and changed how work stress influenced the commitment to continue work. The study by Jimmieson (2010) also stated that self-efficacy weakens the adverse affected of work stress and helped develop employees' wellbeing. Abo-Ali et al. (2021) reported job stress as the primary predictor of negative Mental Well-being and low Self Efficacy. Arshadi and Damiri (2013) also presented a similar kind of result, organization-based self-esteem significantly moderated the relationship between job stress with turnover intention and job performance. Hu, B. Y. et al. (2019) also reported that principal collegial leadership adversely affected preschool teachers' stress through the mediating role of teacher self-efficacy. Significant work stress and job burnout effects through self-efficacy were reported by Yu et al. (2014). Yu et al. (2014) revealed that self-efficacy partially mediated work stress to job burnout. Freire et al. (2018) found that self-efficacy partially mediated but did not moderate the relationship between eudemonic wellbeing and adaptive coping strategies.

The present study intended to measure the impact of various socio-demographic factors on job stress, self-efficacy, and employee wellbeing and the various sub-domains of the SEA of West Bengal. Also, to find out the mediation role of self-efficacy between job stress and employee wellbeing. Based on the results and discussions of the study, it is concluded that low job stress and high self-efficacy ensure higher wellbeing in school administration jobs. It is the ideal condition for workplace wellbeing/employee wellbeing. However, high self-efficacy slightly decreased job stress's adverse effects and helped increase employee wellbeing. School administrative jobs were more suitable for males, as they possess lower job stress, higher self-efficacy, and higher wellbeing than females. Though the less qualified administrators had significantly higher job stress, self-efficacy and wellbeing were not significantly influenced by their highest educational qualification. Staying with family would increase employee wellbeing; however, present residence (place of staying) would not influence job stress or self-efficacy. Marital status was not influential in job stress, self-efficacy, or employee wellbeing. Both married and unmarried administrators faced similar kinds of job stress; they also had the same level of self-efficacy and employee wellbeing.

Spouses' engagement in any job/service was found an influential factor for job stress, self-efficacy, and wellbeing. Those whose spouses were engaged in any job have higher job stress and lower self-efficacy and employee wellbeing. So, from this, it can be concluded that both partners' job engagement can cause high job stress and, consequently, low self-efficacy, lower employee wellbeing, and vice versa.

From the study findings, it can also be concluded that previous job experience increased self-efficacy and employee wellbeing; however, the job stress factor would also be present there.

The present study also revealed that extra workload that was doing/having more than usual duties would hamper the wellbeing of the SEAs. On the other hand, doing a schedule will help maintain wellbeing. Further, training in school education administrative jobs will help to develop self-efficacy and employee wellbeing by reducing the adverse effects of job stress.

SEA with low self-efficacy faced higher job stress and low employee wellbeing. Therefore, those administrators preferred other job opportunities; they would leave their

school education administrative jobs. Therefore, administrative jobs require a high level of self-efficacy for school education. However, special training can help increase SEAs self-efficacy levels.

Administrators with a commerce or technical background faced lower job-related stress and higher self-efficacy and employee wellbeing than administrators with a science or arts background. Profession oriented nature of education plays a vital role in developing abilities required for administrative jobs.

The study results concluded that the level of job stress, self-efficacy, and employee wellbeing varies with the level/post of administrative jobs. Higher-level administrators faced higher job stress and less wellbeing. However, in higher-level administrative jobs, higher self-efficacy is also required.

Age and working experience of the SEAs were positively and significantly related to job stress, self-efficacy, and wellbeing. But, again, a low honeymoon effect was present among the newly recruited SEAs. Nevertheless, the distance between the workplace and home does not matter regarding job stress, self-efficacy, and employee wellbeing.

From the other section of the study, it is concluded that the job stress of the SEAs was low and negative but significantly related to their self-efficacy and employee wellbeing. However, their self-efficacy and employee wellbeing were moderately, positively, and significantly related. Job stress of the SEA caused minimal variation in self-efficacy and employee wellbeing. Again, self-efficacy predicted employee wellbeing significantly, and the prediction rate was higher than job stress. Finally, it is concluded that job stress, directly and indirectly through self-efficacy, impacted/influenced the wellbeing of the SEAs of West Bengal. And again, their self-efficacy partially and complementarily mediated between job stress and employee wellbeing.

6.4.0 Educational Implications of the Study

The present study has significant implications for education and other related fields.

1. This study can help to identify the level or present status of job stress, EW, and self-efficacy among SEAs.
2. By identifying the influential factors in JS, SE, and EW, SEAs can manipulate them to control their JS and increase their SE and wellbeing.
3. The study findings will help in the quality development of school education administration which in turn helps the proper functioning of school education.
4. After knowing these findings, government authorities should arrange guidance and counselling programmes for SEAs.
5. The literature review and results of the present study identified the need for special training to improve self-confidence and SE and maintain the wellbeing of the SEA. Therefore, the government should arrange special training programmes to reduce JS and develop SE.
6. As SEAs are the key persons for policy development and implementation in schools, they should take due care of their mental health and wellbeing.
7. SEA will understand the importance of co-worker support and work-life balance in their wellbeing; therefore, they will maintain good relations with their co-workers.
8. The outcome can be put into practice to motivate the administrators to pursue further higher education.
9. The results of the study can be implemented in that workload should be reduced for those SEA whose ages are more.
10. The results revealed that school administrators' wellbeing improves when their place of employment is close to their place of residence and when they stay with family. Hence, policymakers should take necessary steps concerning this aspect to put it into practice.
11. The results implied that age-wise special training and programmes should be arranged to balance JS and improve the wellbeing and SE of SEAs.
12. The study's results implied a fixed working hour for employees to improve their wellbeing and SE and reduce JS.

13. The policy and various programmes related to school education should be constructed to give importance to the wellbeing and SE of SEAs.
14. The present study will help the organization (School Education Department) realize their employees' JS and wellbeing status.
15. The present study will be helpful to the organization (School Education Department) to develop proper strategies for maintaining their employee's wellbeing.

6.5.0 Limitations of the Study

In the present study, the researcher left no stone unturned to a high standard. But, owing to various reasons such as time, accessibility, resource, etc., the researcher had to carry on his research under unavoidable limitations. These are as follows:

1. The present study was conducted only at the surface level. Therefore, it was not an extensive and "in-depth" study.
2. Further, the study could not employ qualitative methods like observation, case studies, interviews, or interview schedules to get qualitative data regarding SEA' JS, wellbeing, and SE. These were known as a more reliable and valid sources of data collection.
3. Due to a shortage of time, the researcher could not survey many SEAs. He conducted an intensive study with a limited number of SEA, which might not represent the population. Hence, the generalization of the result may be slightly different and may not apply precisely to the population.
4. The study could not cover all levels of SEA in West Bengal.
5. The study only focused on S.I/S, A.I/S, and D.I/S, A.D.I/S but excluded other SEA like secretaries, directors, governing bodies, and headmasters.
6. The researcher didn't adopt the tools to Bengali culture and language, which may be more accurate for the selected sample.
7. In this study, three tools were used, validated in the corporate sector, not the education sector.
8. Due to lack of time, the researcher could not follow all the proper ways of standardizing the scale and could not justify each item and each dimension.

9. Due to a lack of time, the researcher could not study more than 16 independent variables.
10. The study could not cover all administrators of all levels of all districts in West Bengal in the same manner.
11. School administrators' responses did not come from all of West Bengal's districts equally. The highest number of responses came from the districts of Kolkata, North 24PGS, South 24PGS, Howrah, and Hooghly.
12. This study had very few responses (data) from north Bengal.
13. The researcher only managed to gather 316 responses because of time constraints.
14. He didn't consider the actual number of representatives from each district or district-wise distribution.
15. Due to the pandemic, he could not reach all participants physically. Therefore, he reached some participants online. The dual mode of data collection can cause variation in data.
16. Only self-reporting, i.e., a questionnaire survey, was used to collect data. Other modes, like an interview, can make a difference in the result.
17. Here, the researcher used the tools' English version to collect data from the administrators. However, this version might not have been equally understandable for each participant. Therefore, this may cause variation in the result.

6.6.0 Suggestions for Further Studies

Further studies are required to get a better result, considering the present study's limitations. However, this study indicated the need for researching the following lines to estimate a concrete generalization:

1. Further studies should be conducted to determine the participation of SEAs on significant variables through different techniques, i.e., experimental, observation, case study, mixed-method, etc.
2. Studies may be conducted covering different levels of SEAs in West Bengal.
3. Studies may be conducted on other SEAs like secretaries, directors, headmasters, etc.
4. Studies may be conducted covering different levels of SEAs in any state in India,
5. Studies may conduct to find out other variables combined with JS.
6. Studies may be conducted with a more considerable number of SEAs.
7. Studies can be conducted using deterrents constructed standardized scale for measuring the SEAs JS, EW, and SE.
8. In the future, a series of studies must be conducted considering the important psychological variables and their relationship to JS.
9. Studies may be conducted with more influencing factors on EW.
10. Studies may be conducted with other demographic variables.

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APPENDICES

Appendix- A

Consent Form

Impact of Job Stress on School Education Administrators' Wellbeing: The Mediating Role of Self-Efficacy

Investigator's Name:	Md Sahanaj Alam
Department:	Education
Institution:	Jadavpur University
Phone:	8926906609
Email Id:	alamsahanaj@gmail.com
Supervisor's Name:	Dr. Lalit Lalitav Mohakud

Dear Sir/Madam,

I hope, in this new normal situation, you are safe and healthy with all of your family members. Myself Md Sahanaj Alam is a Ph.D. Scholar of Dept. of Education, Jadavpur University, Kolkata, W.B, India and the tentative title of my study is "Impact of Job Stress on School Education Administrators' Wellbeing: The Mediating Role of Self-efficacy".

The purpose of my study is to assess the level of the job stress among school education administrators and its impact on their wellbeing. Further, the study intends to explore the extent to which self-efficacy is mediating between job stress and school education administrators' wellbeing and relation among them. Another major purpose of this study is to analyse and compare these three major variables i.e. job stress, wellbeing and self-efficacy among school education administrators' in relation to selected demographic and background variables.

It is a survey research and the target participants (Population) for this survey are school education administrators in West Bengal. To collect data for this study, I am making both online and offline surveys, keeping in mind the new-normal situation. For online survey I am using Google form. I am taking four types of instrument in this survey as follows:

1. Personal Information Questionnaire (consists of 17 items)
2. 'Self-efficacy Scale' of A.K. Singh and Sruti Narayin (consists of 20 items)
3. 'Employee well-being scale' of Rabindra Kumar Pradhan and Lopamudra Hati (consists of 33 items). 4. 'New Job Stress Scale' of Shukla and Srivastava (consists of 22 items)

I am conducting this survey with the permission of the DRC and ARC of the Department of education, Jadavpur University. For my study I am collecting my data from the school education administrators i.e. D.I/S, A.I/S, S.I/S and H.M. of School in West Bengal.

You are requested to go through the instruction of each Google form and each section (Questionnaire/scale) of the Google form and give your response to each item of the respective section. Please answer all the items. Each item of the questionnaire will be scored for analysis. There is no time limit as such but it generally takes about 20-30 minutes to complete each questionnaire/ scale in your leisure time. The information provided by you will be very helpful in my research.

To make sure that your name and responses are kept confidential, I will create a number coding system for each participant. Any information obtained in connection with this study and which could be identified with the subjects will only be used by the researcher named mention above along with his guide and will be kept strictly confidential. I welcome questions about the study at any time. If you want to take and interest regarding the study, you will get information in any time.

Your participation in this study is voluntary and you may refuse to participate at any time. Data shall be used only for the researcher's Ph.D. work and this data will be available till the end of the study and related publications.

After submitting this consent Google form, I will send you another two Google form containing my other two research instruments (Questionnaire/Scale) and you will get a response feedback after submitting each Google form. Please read each item minutely and choose the option that you feel is appropriate for you. After completing all the items please click on the submit button.

Email *

Permission for Providing the Data

EDUCATION

This data may be shared with educational professionals outside of Jadavpur University. At no time will my name be used.

RESEARCH

This data will be used as part of a Ph. D. work at Jadavpur University. I have already given written consent for my participation in this research project. At no time will my name be used.

HOW LONG WILL BE DATA BE USED?

I give permission for these Data to be used till the end of the study and related publications.

WHAT IF I CHANGE MY MIND?

I understand that I can withdraw my permission at any time. Upon my request, the data will no longer be used. This will not affect my relationship with investigator in any way related this study.

FOR FURTHER INFORMATION

If I want more information about the data, or if I have questions or concerns at any time, I can contact with Md Sahanaj Alam (Researcher)

I am declaring that I read and understand the contents of this Consent Form and that I agree to take part in this study. *

Yes ☐

Appendix- B

Questionnaire for Personal Information

I hope, you are understanding my research purpose and interest. This Google form consists of three sections as follows:

1. 1st Section: Personal Information Questionnaire (consists of 17 items)
2. 2nd Section: 'Self-efficacy Scale' of A.K. Singh and Sruti Narayin (consists of 20 items)
3. 3rd Section: 'Employee well-being scale' of Rabindra Kumar Pradhan and Lopamudra Hati (consists of 33 items).

You are requested to go through the instruction of each section (Questionnaire/scale) of the Google form and give your response to each item of the respective section. Details and procedure of scale is given each section about the concern scale.

Please read each item minutely and choose the option that you feel is appropriate for you. After completing all the items please click on the submit button.

Email: *

Personal Information

Please fill up all items positively

Name: *

Gender *
- ◯ Male
- ◯ Female
- ◯ Other

Age (year) *

Caste *
- ◯ General
- ◯ SC
- ◯ ST
- ◯ OBC
- ◯ EWS

Stream of your Education *
- ◯ Arts
- ◯ Science
- ◯ Commerce
- ◯ Technology

Educational Qualification (Highest) *

Present Designation *

Date of Joining in this job *

Have you done any job before? *
- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

Total year of Service Experience *

Where are you staying (Residence)? *

- ◯ In the Family
- ◯ At the Work Place
- ◯ Other

Have your spouse engaged with any Job? *

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

Distance from Permanent Residence to Work Place/Office (km) *

Working Hours in a Week *

Any Special Training *

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

Are you promoted in this Job? *

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

If you get any other job, will you leave this job *

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

Appendix- C

Self-efficacy Scale

Self-Efficacy Scale by Dr. Arun Kumar Singh & Dr. Shruti Narain (2014}

Your Email *

I feel confident about my capabilities that with little efforts I can resolve difficult problems *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree

I am confident that I can achieve all targets that I set for myself *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree

I am so confident of my capabilities that I can finish tasks on time *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree

Despite hard work, I feel I will not succeed *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree

I feel I can keep self-control even at difficult times *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

In any circumstance, I can achieve what I desire *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

I have enough self-confidence to finish any work *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

With my efforts, I can achieve anything *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ . Strongly Agree.

My own potential and capabilities are responsible for all my achievements so far *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

It is usually not possible for me to achieve any targets *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

I am able to balance myself even in most difficult times *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

I am unable to face difficulties without any help and support *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

Even in most difficult situations, I can strategize to resolve and deal with it *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

I try to level best to achieve my targets *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

I can keep my cool even when others try to take up fight with me *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ . Strongly Agree.

If I get stuck in some work, with little efforts I can resolve it *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

If I try sincerely, I am confident I shall be able to succeed *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

Despite concentrating on my any aim, I will fail *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

If I am determined to succeed, I shall be able to achieve success *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

If work as per plan, I shall be able to reap result quickly *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

Appendix- D

Employee well-being scale

Employee Well-being Scale by Rabindra Kumar Pradhan & Lopamudra Hati (2019)

Following are some statements which are related to any persons' well-being.

For each statement, there are five response options like "strongly disagree", "disagree", "neutral", "agree" and "strongly disagree". There are some reverse rating means these statements are in negative form. Read each statement carefully and tick mark only that option which you find that is most appropriate and true in your case. There is no time limit as such but it generally takes about 25 minutes to complete this.

I easily adapt to day-to-day changes of my life and manage my responsibilities well. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree

I care for things that are important to me, not what is important to others. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree

I feel I am a sensible person. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree

I am not flexible. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree

I understand the expectation from me. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree

I feel I am capable of decision-making. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree

I feel depressed from the stress and demands of day-to-day life. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree

I believe that I have a purpose and direction in life. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

I think life is a continuous process of learning *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

I am a confident person *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

I am an important part of my team and organization. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ . Strongly Agree.

People are trustworthy in my team. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

I am close to my teammates in my organization. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

My team is a great source of social support. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

My views are well accepted by my teammates. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree. .

People in my team don’t help each other in difficult times. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

I take active part in important decision-making activities of my team. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

I love to spend time with my teammates. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

I can freely share my problems with my colleagues. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

My day-to-day activities contribute towards the benefits of my team. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

I am quite satisfied with my job. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

I enjoy meaningful work *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

I attach lots of value to my work. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

My work achievement often acts as a source of motivation. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

My workplace is very conducive. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

My job provides sample scope for career growth. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

I used to maintain a balance between work and home life *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

My employer does care a lot about their employees. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

My work offers challenges to advance my skills. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

Mostly I feel happy *

Strongly Disagree  Strongly Agree.

I am an optimistic person. *

Strongly Disagree  Strongly Agree.

I feel good about myself. *

Strongly Disagree  Strongly Agree.

My life is mostly sorrowful. *

Strongly Disagree  Strongly Agree.

Appendix- E

The New Job Stress Scale

"Job Stress" Scale by Abhishek Shukla and Rajeev Srivastava (2016)

Thanking you for submit the previous one. In this Google form consists of only one section namely "Job Stress Scale" with 22 items. This scale is developed by Abhishek Shukla and Rajeev Srivastava (2016). Some statements, there are five response options like "strongly disagree", "disagree", "neutral", "agree" and "strongly disagree" and some statements, there are six response like "never", "very occasionally" "sometimes" "often" "very often" and "all the time". There are some reverse rating means these statements are in negative form. Read each statement carefully and tick mark only that option which you find that is most appropriate and true in your case.

There is no time limit as such but it generally takes about 15 minutes to complete this. Any information obtained in connection with this study and which could be identified with the subjects will only be used by the researcher named above along with his guide and will be kept strictly confidential. Your participation in this study is voluntary and you may refuse to participate at any time. Data shall be used only for researcher's Ph.D. work and this data will be available till end of the study. After completing all the items, please click on the submit button.

Thanking you in advance.

Your Email * .....

I have a lot of work and fear that very little time to do it. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree

I feel so burdened that even a day without work seems bad. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ . Strongly Agree

I feel that I never take a leave. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree

Many people at my office are tired of the departmental demand. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree

My job makes me nervous. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ . Strongly Agree

The effect of my job on me is too high. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

Many a times, my job becomes a big burden. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

Sometimes when I think about my job I get a tight feeling in my chest. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

I feel bad when I take a leave. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

I'm not able to satisfy the different demands of various people above me. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

I'm not able to satisfy the conflicting demands of my colleagues and juniors. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

I'm not able to satisfy the demands of clients and others, because they are opposite to each other. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

The expectations of my seniors are different from my juniors. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

I am concerned about the different expectations of different people. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

Have the people working with me ever given any information or advice to me? *

Never ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ All the time

Have the people working with me ever understand me and given advice? *

Never ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ All the time

Has anyone given me a clear and helpful feedback about my work? *

Never ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ All the time

Has anyone given me assistance in my work? *

Never ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ All the time

I am able to balance between time at work and time at other activities. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree.

I have difficulty balancing my work and other activities. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree

I feel that the job and other activities are currently balanced. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ . Strongly Agree

Overall, I believe that my work and other activities are balanced. *

Strongly Disagree ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ Strongly Agree

Appendix- F

Review Matrix

Authors	Objectives	Methodology	Instrument	Findings
Review on wellbeing in India and Abroad				
Kamboj, and Garg (2019) India	To examine the teachers' psychological wellbeing and the contribution of emotional intelligence and resilient character qualities to the wellbeing of Indian school teachers.	A cross-sectional study was conducted on 200 school teachers across Haryana, India. Independent sample t-test, ANOVA, Co-relation and Simple linear regression analysis were used.	Resilient Scale, Emotional intelligence scale (Goleman, 1957) Psychological Well-being (Carol Ryff, 1989) were applied to this study.	It was found that a significant mediator and predictor of psychological wellbeing among factors of resilient traits and self-reliance emerges as an inconsistent significant mediator between emotional intelligence and the wellbeing of teachers and the direct effect of emotional intelligence on psychological wellbeing.
Maurya and Agarwal (2015) India	To know the women employees' wellbeing and its relationship with organisational productivity.	A computerised literature search of accessible and available material using the keywords employees' wellbeing, female workers' wellbeing, gender role in employee wellbeing, stress reduction techniques, and	Document analysis	Gender moderates the effects of stress on emotional and physical wellbeing and absenteeism. The conceptualised integrated model illustrates the importance of women workers' wellbeing in changing business environment norms in current and future organisational life and overall organisational

		organisational and extra organisational factors.		wellbeing along with productivity with internal and external environmental factors.
Zhao and Wang (2022)	To know the young university teachers' work wellbeing based on the mediating effect of psychological empowerment.	204 university teachers who jointly, up to 5 years, participated in this survey. Independent sample t-test, ANOVA, Co-relation and multiple regression analysis were used.	Self-Efficacy Scale (S. Sud, Schwarzer and Jerusalem, 1995) and Psychological Well-being (Carol Ryff, 1989) were used.	The process of social support and school management activities affect young university teachers' work wellbeing, personality trait plays a moderating effect, and psychological empowerment plays a mediating effect.
Ertürk, (2021) Aboard	To identify the relationships between school administrators' supportive behaviours and teachers' job satisfaction and subjective wellbeing.	A cross-sectional survey was conducted on 400 primary school teachers in the city Centre of Bolu. Pearson's correlation coefficient and multiple regression were used for the analysis of the data.	The teaching Satisfaction Scale (Ho and Au, 2006), Principal Support Scale (Litrell, 1992), and Teacher Subjective Well-being scale (Renshaw et al., 2015) were used.	Positive and highly significant relationships were found between informational support and teachers' job satisfaction and subjective wellbeing, between informational support and teachers' job satisfaction, and between principal support and emotional (expressive) support dimension and teachers' subjective wellbeing.

Nyarko, (2021)	To explore the reciprocal or mutual relationship between administrator faculty and their non-administrator faculty colleagues with respect to each other's wellbeing.	This cross-sectional survey was conducted on 258 faculty members at the University of Saskatchewan. Data were analysed using Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test, Mann-Whitney U Test, and Ordinal Logistic Regression.	Psychological Well-being (Carol Ryff, 1989) and Principal Support Scale (Litrell, 1992) were applied.	Faculty wellbeing is likely to occur if faculty members consider adopting a reciprocal wellbeing improvement strategy. Faculty reciprocal wellbeing: thus, this is explored practically to help minimise distress and improve faculty wellbeing.
Porter, (2021) Aboard	To assess the impact of leadership responsibilities and accountability on the general wellbeing of secondary school administrators in middle and high schools (grades 6 – 12).	A cross-sectional survey conducted on Secondary school administrators with the Principal, Assistant Principal and Dean of Instruction was chosen as the sample.	Gmelch and Swent's Administrative Stress Index and Allison's Coping Preference Scale.	There was no significant difference in coping strategies utilised by male and female study participants. Through a Multiple Regression model, stress and coping present a significant correlational relationship in that coping strategies are needed to manage stress.
Abuna, et. al. (2020)	To determine the correlation between workplace wellbeing and work engagement of Divine Word Colleges'	Descriptive research was conducted on all employees, teaching and non-teaching of Divine Word Colleges in the Ilocos region.	The basic Psychological Need Satisfaction and Frustration Scale (Chen et al. 2015) was used.	It found a significant correlation between workplace wellbeing and the work engagement of employees.

	employees in the Ilocos Region.			
Akanni, A. A. et, al. (2020) Aborad	To measure the indirect effect of perceived person-job fit in the relationship between emotional intelligence and employee wellbeing	Randomly selected 257 university staff for this survey. Independent sample t-test, ANOVA, Co-relation and multiple regression analysis were used.	Bradburn Scale of Psychological Well-Being scale, Emotional intelligence scale (Goleman, 1956) and Job descriptions Scale.	Results revealed a partial mediation of perceived person-fit in the link between emotional intelligence and employee wellbeing. The particular indirect effect of person-job fit in the relationship between emotional intelligence and employee wellbeing.
Collie et, al. (2020) Aborad	to examine the extent to which several workplace factors are implicated in school principals' wellbeing	It is survey research. job satisfaction, job resource, occupational commitment 5951 participants were selected from 22 organisations. Descriptive statistics and Co-relation, chi-square used for analysing the data.	TALIS questionnaire (2013) used.	The result showed that staff shortages and a collegial climate predicted job satisfaction. In addition, one interaction effect was significant, showing that a participatory climate was especially important for occupational commitment under conditions of high staff shortages.

Ahmed & Malik (2019) Aborad	To explore the effect of psychological wellbeing as a mediator between psychological empowerment and the job performance of teachers.	It is a cross-sectional study. 261 secondary school teachers were selected through Convenience sampling. Descriptive statistics, Pearson's correlation and regression were used for the analysis of the data.	Psychological empowerment scale (Spreitzer, 1995), Psychological wellbeing scale (Diener et al., 2009) and Job performance scale (Kuvaas, 2007).	Psychological wellbeing partially mediated the relationship between psychological empowerment and wellbeing.
Krekel et, al. (2019) Aborad	To understand that higher employee wellbeing leads to higher productivity and ultimately tangible benefits.	It is a review-based study. 339 independent research studies followed through books, journals, articles, published research papers, a thesis, and dissertations.	Systematic Literature and Narrative Literature Review.	A substantial negative association between staff turnover and employee turnover and a considerable positive correlation between employee productivity and customer loyalty.
Bakker, B. A. et, al. (2019) Aborad	Explore neuroticism, extraversion, and their blend would bolster.	A survey study was conducted on 87 Norwegian naval Cadets. Descriptive statistics, ANOVA, Pearson's correlation and Multiple	The revised NEO Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI-R; McCrae & Costa, 2004) was used.	Daily strengths use was positively related to daily positive affect and work engagement after controlling for previous levels of the dependent variables. The study found evidence for the predicted three-way interaction effects.

		Regression were used for the analysis of the data.		
Mahfouz (2018) Aboard	To investigate the influence of cultivating awareness and resilience in Education on wellbeing.	It is a grounded theory. Indepth interview used on 13 administrators for data collection, before and after the implementation of the CARE program.	Ppro-social Classroom Model (Jennings and Greenberg, 2009) was employed as a theoretical foundation, following the coding, iterative data analysis process, and interpretive techniques.	Participants reported that positive outcomes emerged from improved leadership skills, such as increased better relationships, self-reflection, and attendance to self-care. In addition, these skills are tied to an increased understanding better their leadership roles in shaping their school climates.
Garza and Gerardo, (2016) Aborad	To investigate the human resources practices that constitute a person-centred work system and what is the potential influence of a person-centred work system on the emergence of the fully functioning person.	Mixed method approach 13 people were selected through the judgemental sample. Descriptive statistics and factor analyses were conducted through SPSS & AMOS.	Ryff's Scales of Psychological Well-Being was used.	The results revealed the relevance of person-centred work systems and the fully functioning person for achieving wellbeing, as well as additional significant outcomes for the person at work.

Chessman, (2015) Aborad	To investigate the wellbeing of student affairs professionals to better 7 understand the impact of these trends.	2,414 students resend the questionnaire after fill up. Descriptive statistics, t-test, ANOVA, and Correlation using SPSS Version 22.	Psychological wellbeing scale (Diener et al., 2009) and a self-administered questionnaire were used.	The significant contribution of this study is the idea that wellbeing is inextricably linked to the quality of one's work life.
Sabri, M. F. and Falahati, L. (2003) Aborad	employees to explore the determinant factors of employees' financial wellbeing in Malaysia	Survey research was carried out by 2,246 employees through a simple random sample. ANOVA, Correlation and Multiple Regression using SPSS.	A self-administered questionnaire was applied to collect the data.	Financial stress had either a direct or indirect effect on financial wellbeing. The study also revealed that financial stress partially mediates the effect of factors on predicting financial wellbeing.
Review on Job Stress in India and Abroad				
Chhabra, B. (2020) Indian	To investigate the direct influence of work role stressors and CSEs on employee outcomes of job satisfaction, OCB and turnover intention.	347 professionals (234 males and 113 females) were purposively selected from 5 sectors. Descriptive statistics, i.c. SD, Mean, and Multiple regression models used in SPSS for data analysis.	CSEs scale (Judge et al. 2003), the Role of conflict & Role of Ambiguity scale (Peterson et al. 1995), and the Facets of job satisfaction scale (Cellucci and De Vries, 1978) were used.	CSE was positively related to job satisfaction and OCB but negatively related to turnover intentions. The support was also found for the stress-buffering stress effect of CSE in the prediction of job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

Narban et, al. (2016) India	To explore occupational stress (Work stress/Job stress) and its causative factors and impacts.	It is an explorative study. Data was collected from secondary sources like books, journals, articles, published research papers, theses, and dissertations.	Systematic Literature Review	Workplace stress was a pattern of emotional, cognitive, behavioural, and physiological responses to unfavourable and toxic work contexts, structures, and environmental features.
Tyagi and Kirmani (2012) India	To explore the influence of the type of school, gender, age, qualification, and experience on Principals/Directors to see the role of stress.	100 Principals/Directors selected who work in schools of Asmara, Eritrea, Africa. Means, standard deviations, and student tests for data analysis.	The organisational Role Stress scale was developed by Pareek (1993) for data collection.	Private school Principals/ Directors have had high job stress in comparison to public sector Principals/Directors. More experienced Principals/ Directors had less job Stress than their less experienced counterparts.
Sen, K. (2008) India	To know the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction among managers and teachers.	31 teachers and 34 managers from the NCR region were selected for this Survey research. Descriptive (Mean, SD), inferential (t-test, ANOVA) statistics and Pearson correlation were used.	The self-made questionnaire used for data collection.	Teachers and managers have similar Job Stress and Job Satisfaction level. Teachers experience low job Satisfaction and face job stress, while in the case of managers, the two do not seem to associate.

Tokgoz, and Onen, (2021) Abroad	To measure the relationship between levels of work stress and democratic perceptions.	The co-relational research design was used. Randomly selected 622 (272 male and 350 female) primary school teachers and principals. Descriptive (Mean, SD) and inferential (t-test, ANOVA) statistics and Pearson correlation were used.	Applied The job stress scale (House and Rizzo, 1972), The organisational democracy perceptions scale by Geçkil and Tikici (2015).	Stress levels of teachers and administrators were negatively influenced by perceptions of fairness and equality in a substantial way. Also, the result revealed that male participants perceived their jobs as more stressful than female participants. Further, results showed that administrators' and teachers' job stress levels were not substantially predicted by the organisational democracy feature of involvement and transparency.
Bosco, (2021) Abroad	The school and district administrators' stressful jobs to better understand what affects their personal and professional lives.	A mixed methods design (inquiry and narrative) was used. Purposively selected 5 retired School Administrators (3 women and 2 men) for interview.	Qualitative procedures include narrative analysis, coding, and reporting of emergent themes from the narratives.	Ninety per cent of school administrators reported that the pandemic is making their job more stressful, and specific recommendations such as trauma-informed practice training and individual and group coaching and support.
Fannon (2021)	to determine whether self-care mediates the relationship between stress and burnout and to learn the relationship	Purposively selected 110 school counsellors for the sample.	Counselor Burnout Inventory and Mindfulness Self-Care	Stress, burnout, and self-care were highly correlated, but that self-care did not mediate the relationship between stress and burnout.

	between the three variables.		Scale were used for data collection.	
Hunter and Rodriguez (2021) Aboard	To examine the associations between observational loads and school administrator turnover, reported time use and strain.	Non-randomly selected Education Administrative from the state of Tennessee.	The JD-R model suggests observations of school administrators.	School administrators reported observational loads are associated with unintended negative consequences on administrator strain or observer turnover.
Hu, B. Y. et al. (2019) Abroad	To investigate the relationship between school climate and teacher stress.	180 teachers were selected from 60 preschools through multistage sampling for this survey. Descriptive (Mean, SD) and inferential (t-test, ANOVA) statistics and regression analysis were used in SPSS.	Teacher Self-efficacy Inventory (Tschannen-Moran and Hoy, 2001) and School Climate Inventory (SCI; Tschannen-Moran et al., 2006)	Principal collegial leadership pose a significant negative effect on teachers' stress through the mediating role of teacher self-efficacy. Also, the results of the study showed that professionalism was a significant predictor of teachers' stress through the mediating role of teachers' self-efficacy.
Borg and Riding, (2018) Abroad	To assess occupational stress and job satisfaction among school administrators.	Surveyed on research among 97 head teachers and 53 heads mistress in school. Descriptive (Mean, SD) and inferential (t-test, ANOVA)	Occupational Stress Inventory-Revised (OSI-R) and Job stress scale (Bergen, 1983 used.	The main effect of the stress factors was statistically significant. The report showed that it is the combination of a number of various aspects, rather than any

		statistics and regression analysis were used in SPSS.		single one, which plays an important role in the job stress of school administrators.
Lozada, (2018) Aborad	The impact of teacher trust in school leadership relates to their perceived work-related stress, work purpose, and professional engagement in the school.	It is a Survey study 500 teachers in metropolitan areas in California, United States. Descriptive statistics, bivariate and multivariate analysis used in SPSS- 22.	O factor™ Survey developed at Claremont Graduate University by Zak.	Teachers' trust in the school administrator has a significant influence on their work-related stress and engagement in the school, in turn affecting student academic performance.
Suleman, et al. (2018) Abroad	To measure the occupational stress met by male and female secondary school heads in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa.	Surveyed 402 (260 male and 142 female) secondary school head teachers through simple random sampling. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used in SPSS for the analysis of the data.	Used Occupational Stress Index (OSI) and the Role of conflict & Role of Ambiguity scale (Peterson et al. 1995) were used.	Male and female secondary school heads teachers have similar occupationally stressed with respect to work overload, role conflict, strenuous working conditions, unreasonable political pressure, under participation, and unprofitability.
Manabete, S. S. (2016) Abroad	To examine job or vocational and workplace stress.	Literature was conducted from secondary sources of data through published journals, articles, a thesis, and dissertations.	A systematic literature review was used.	Teachers' lives are often gravely affected by stress, leading to physical health illnesses such as headaches, stomach upset, and aches.

Desa. A. et, al. (2013) Abroad	To examine the relationship and influence of administrator personality on job stress at the National University of Malaysia.	The University Administrative Concern, Rasch (1986), was utilised to gather the data. Pearson Correlation and Multiple Regression were used to analyse the data.	Eysenck Personality Questionnaire revised short-version (EPQR-S) (1985).	A significant relationship between personalities and work-related stress. Neuroticism and lie were good predictors of job stress.
Bradley (2013) Abroad	To understand the professional teaching background and experience influence perceptions of the opportunities and challenges to improve teaching and learning.	Pearson Correlation, ANOVA, and MANOVA were analysed through SPSS-20.	Data were collected and analysed in Survey Monkey.	Teaching backgrounds and experience had no significant effect on perceptions of the level of stress.
Katsapis, C. C. (2012) Abroad	To understand the incidence and types of occupational roles in stress.	It is survey research. 6,000 employees were selected from the university research administration through the purposive sample.	The Occupational Stress Inventory-Revised (OSI-R) and Occupational Roles Questionnaire (ORQ) (Osipow, 1998) were used.	The organisational affiliation and years of experience did not influence occupational stress.

Khalid, A. et al. (2012) Abroad	To assess the moderating impact of supportive style leadership on the relation between job stress and job performance.	Surveyed 200 administrators. Independent sample t-test, One-way ANOVA, Pearson Correlation and Multiple Regression were used to analyse the data.	Leadership Scale (Li & Shi 2005), Job stress scale (Parker & Decotiis, 1983) and Job Performance Scale (Paterson, 1922) were used.	Supportive leadership negatively affects job stress and directly impacts job performance.
Peretomode, (2012) Abroad	To explore the sources, stress levels and how academic administrators of tertiary institutions handle job-related stress.	Randomly selected 102 administrators from the Delta State of Nigeria. Independent sample t-test, One-way ANOVA, Pearson Correlation and Multiple Regression were used to analyse the data.	Self-made questionnaire for the data collection	Time pressures, lack infrastructure, control of the conduct of semester examinations, student unruliness, and the popularity of all forms of examination malpractices among students as very high-ranked stressors. The administrators experienced a low to moderate stress level on average, which did not adversely affect their performance.
Sogunro, O. A. (2012) Abroad	To assess Stress in School Administration and Coping Tips for Principals.	It is a Case study. Personal interview was conducted with 52 high school principals.	A semi-structured interview protocol was used for collecting data.	Stress is a worrisome and inescapable entity in school administration and predisposes principals to various physical, psychological, physiological, and socio-emotional problems. However, principals would perform better when they can effectively cope with the stress evolving from their jobs.

Ngari, S. M. (2011) Abroad	To examine the stress levels among secondary school administrators in Olkalou Division of Nyandarua District in Kenya.	Ex post facto research was conducted on 384 secondary school administrators in the Olkalou Division of Nyandarua District in Kenya. The collected data were analysed by descriptive and inferential statistics using SPSS.	A professional life stress scale (PLSS) modified from Fontana (1989) was applied for data collection.	54.5% of the respondents have high levels of stress resulting from their school workload and other responsibilities. At administrative levels, a more significant proportion of principals recorded high-stress levels compared to deputy principals and heads of departments.
Hand, L. E. (2010) Abroad	The relationship between role conflict and role overload, leadership style, and stress among those holding leadership positions within the Catholic primary education system in Queensland.	It is survey research. A sample of 136 principals and executive staff members from Catholic Education schools in the Brisbane Archdiocese.	Occupational Stress Inventory Revised, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire was used.	Transactional and transformational leadership styles are associated with personal resources of social support and self-care and are negatively associated with role conflict. Transactional leadership style was negatively related to role conflict but positively related to the personal resource of rational cognitive coping.
Lainas, A. (2010) Abroad	To understand the job stress experienced by the Greek directors of education.	It is survey research.	A job stress scale (Parker & Decotiis, 1983) was used.	Directors of education in Greece have moderate occupational stress, including the shortage of human and financial resources, the implementation of national educational policies

		357 education directors were selected as a sample through purposive sampling. Descriptive statistics, *t*-tests, ANOVA, and Tukey's post hoc comparison were used through SPSS.		and reforms, the nature and the characteristics of their work, their relations with people and specific dimensions of their career.
Cheng-Ping Chang and Tseng (2009) Abroad	To investigate the job stress experienced by academic heads in universities in Taiwan.	This survey was conducted on 735 academic heads through a simple random sample. Descriptive statistics, *t*-tests, ANOVA, Tukey's post hoc comparison, and Pearson's correlation were used through SPSS.	The Technology Universities' Academic Heads' Job Stress Awareness Questionnaire (Caplan et al. 1975).	Junior academic chiefs who are appointed to the administrative post for higher education feel heavy stress from the work. Results also found that the stress of younger academic heads is significantly higher than that of senior heads.
Jaiyeoba and Jibril (2008) Abroad	To investigate the sources of occupational stress in secondary school managers in Kano state, Nigeria.	A survey was conducted on 421 school managers in Kano state, Nigeria, through a simple random sample.	The School Managers Source of Stress Inventory (SMSSI) was used.	Administrative routine, workload, and Conflicting demands and roles between work and family were the highest sources of stress. Also, 77.5% of the respondents reported that their job was stressful.

		Descriptive statistics, *t*-tests, ANOVA, and Tukey's post hoc comparison were used.		
Olayiwola, S. (2008) Abroad	To measure the dimensions of job stress among public secondary school principals.	94 public secondary school principals participate in this survey from Oyo State, Nigeria.	Dimensions of Job Stress for Principal Questionnaire (DJSPQ).	76.6% believed that their job was moderately stressful. 17.0% rated their job to be extremely stressful. No significant difference was found in job stress between the participants' demographic characteristics and school variables.
Assadi, H. (2003) Abroad	To examine all job stress factors at two levels: organisational (over seven factors) and organisational (over eight factors).	A field study was conducted on 91 physical education organisation managers. Descriptive statistics and Spearman correlation coefficient, Mann-Whitney and Wilcoxon tests, Cronbach-Alpha and the Regression equation were used.	Perceived organisational support (Eisenberger et al. 1986) and The Spielberger standard questionnaire were applied to collect the data.	Bonuses and development of human resources were among the most intensive organisational job stress factors, while factors such as maximum pressure for work quality, job importance, and time pressure were among the most intensive managerial job stress factors. No meaningful relationship was found between personal characteristics and organisational job stress, managerial job stress, and total stress.

Nhundu, T. J. (1999) Abroad	To understand the sources and incidence of self-reported occupational stress among primary and secondary school head teachers.	A survey was conducted on 95 primary and secondary head teachers.	Five-point Lickert scale was used.	Several demographic characteristics and school variables influenced the primary and secondary school head teachers' perceptions of situations that cause stress.
Allison, D. G. (1997) Abroad	To assess stress among public school principals in British Columbia.	This survey was conducted on 43 public school principals in British Columbia, Canada,	The Administrative Stress Index (Swent and Gmelch) was used.	Principals who had more excellent total scores on the measure of administrative stress perceived that administrative isolation was a problem for them, reported more significant stress due to the job, had seriously considered leaving school administration, and felt that rink laser was under more significant stress than other members of their community.
Koch, J. L. et, al. (1992) Abroad	To assess job stress among school administrators and factorial dimensions and differential effects on job stress.	It is a cross-sectional survey. 40 school administrators were selected purposively and distributed the questionnaire. Confirmatory Factor analysis was used.	A self-made questionnaire was applied to gather the data.	The practical significance of differences in factor loadings for these five items is minimal. The average amount of shared variance between factors was less than 1% (factor intercorrelations ranging from .14 to .02). Further, the result found that Boundary-Spanning stress increased with age.

Frick, C. R. and Fraas, J. W. (1990) Abroad	To investigate the aetiology of stress in educational administration and rate each identified stress's severity.	A survey study was conducted on 86 school administrators in Richland County.	The Administrative Stress Index was used for data collection.	Stressors were common to all levels of the administrative team. Also, the demands on time and administrative constraints were the most frequent stress for site-based school administrators in Richland County.
Sarros, J. C. (1988) Abroad	To know administrator burnout: findings and future directions.	128 administrators participate from Western Canadian urban separate school districts. One-way analysis of variance and multiple regression analysis was used.	A self-made questionnaire was utilised to collect the information.	School principals experience ordinary degrees of personal accomplishment burnout and lower-than-normal levels of emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation. Work stress, work overload, a declining sense of status and recognition, and unsatisfying interpersonal interactions were most likely to cause burnout.
Rasch et al. (1986) Abroad	To assess the stress among college and university administrators.	A survey was conducted on 2,484 administrators from public universities in America.	The University Administrative Concerns Questionnaire (UACQ) was used for data collection.	The dimensions of stress are uniform in higher education, and that different types of administrator stress are associated with different administrative levels. Also, findings showed promise as a measure of self-reported stress for administrators in higher education.
Tung, R. L. (1980) Abroad	To examine the occupational stress	1156 school administrators were selected through a	Administrative Stress Index (ASI)	Women administrators experienced lower levels of stress than their male counterparts on all four factors, particularly boundary-spanning stress and conflict-mediating stress arising from

	profiles of male versus female administrators.	purposive sample on this survey. Independent Sample t-test, ANOVA, Co-relation and Simple linear regression analysis were used.		the management of the organisation-external environment interface.
Review on self-efficacy in India and Abroad				
Lee et al. (2022) Aborad	To examine the relationship between knowledge sharing and sustainable happiness among preschool teachers. Whether self-efficacy and helping behaviour mediated on knowledge sharing and sustainable happiness.	It is a Survey study of 469 anonymous preschool teachers in Taiwan through Random sampling. Structural Equation Modelling and Post-hoc Power Analysis were conducted through SPSS.	The knowledge Sharing and Sustainable Happiness Survey (KSSHS) scale were used. It has four comprised four factors knowledge sharing, sustainable happiness, self-efficacy, and helping behaviour.	Self-efficacy and helping behaviour positively mediate the association between knowledge sharing and sustainable happiness. The sustainable happiness of preschool teachers is influenced by their perceptions of knowledge sharing about their career happiness and workplace wellbeing to achieve sustainable development goals. Their positive attitudes toward self-efficacy and helping behaviour enhance their individual happiness and wellbeing, which contributes to a sustainable workplace.

Alfano, (2021) Aborad	To investigate their self-efficacy rating and identify their role in implementing Social Emotional Learning (SEL) initiatives.	97 middle school students at BLAs in a northeast state were selected to administer the questionnaire, and 8 individual interviews were conducted to learn how to implement BLAs.	Arabic literature considering self –the efficacy scale (Aljaser, 2007) used.	The results revealed that low levels of self-efficacy hold an active role throughout the stages of SEL and work most closely with school-based mental health providers.
Sobalvarro, (2021) Aborad	To assess the effects of stress on self-efficacy on Secondary level School teachers.	It was a cross-sectional survey. 250 School educators were selected from the different areas through a simple random sample. Independent sample t-test, ANOVA, and Pearson correlations were used in SPSS.	The teacher Stress Inventory (TSI), the Perceived Stress Scale-10 Item (PSS-10), and the Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale (TSES-short) were used.	It was found that a statistically significant negative relationship between teacher stress and teacher self-efficacy, workload stress and teacher self-efficacy, and student behaviour stress and teacher self-efficacy. Mediating variables explored perceived stress, years of teaching experience, and the age of educators.
Troesch and Bauer, (2017) Aborad	To investigate job satisfaction and stress in second-career teachers (SCT) compared to first-	It is survey research. 912 teachers were selected from teacher education in Switzerland through convenient sampling.	The Perceived Stress Scale (PSS-14), Self-efficacy Scale (Friedman & Kass, 2002) and Self-	Results suggest that after several years in the profession, career switchers who completed a full teaching degree develop positively,

	career teachers (FCT) and the role of self-efficacy.	Descriptive statistic Mean and chi-square used in SPSS.	Efficacy Scale (Schwarzer et al.'s 1997) were used.	showing exceptionally high levels of job wellbeing.
Chan et, al. (2016) Aborad	To examine how work-family enrichment contributes to job and family satisfaction by exploring the mediating mechanisms of self-efficacy and work-life balance.	A survey study was conducted on 234 Australian employees. Descriptive Statistics, t-test, ANOVA, correlation, multiple regression and structural equation models were used.	self-report survey questioner	Work-to-family enrichment and family-to-work enrichment were positively related to self-efficacy, which positively affected work-life balance. Similarly, the work-life balance positively impacted job and family satisfaction.
Yu et, al. (2014) Aborad	To examine the impact of work stress on job burnout and the mediator role of self-efficacy.	387 middle school teachers were selected through purposive sampling. Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Analysis, Structural Equation Model used in AMOS.	Perceived Stress Scale, General Self-Efficacy Scale and Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey were used.	Work stress and self-efficacy were significantly correlated with job burnout. Self-efficacy partially mediated work stress to job burnout. Significant both paths from work stress to job burnout through self-efficacy.
Mansor et, al. (2013) Aborad	To investigate at what level the teachers display contextual performance, namely Organisational citizenship behaviour	It is a Qualitative study. Primary-level school teachers selected from Malaysia for interview.	Thematic word analysis and descriptive statistical analysis were used.	The study concludes that when a teacher's self-leadership and self-efficacy are at most, they have more assets to be dedicated to other people and tasks. And OCB is a benefit for the organisation or people.

	(OCB) and also investigate the teachers' perception of self-efficacy, self-leadership and OCB.			
Review of relations between stress and wellbeing in India and Abroad				
Ortan et al. (2021) Abroad	To explore the relations between job satisfaction and self-efficacy of teacher.	A survey was conducted on 658 K-12 (pre-university) teachers through a simple random sample. Mean, standard deviation, frequency, percentage, t-test, ANOVA, and Pearson correlation were used in SPSS.	Self-Efficacy Scale, job satisfaction, and work Place scale (American Psychological Association 2011) scale used.	Self-efficacy, promotion, positive student behaviour, and working conditions significantly affect job satisfaction.
Ikonne, (2015) Abroad	To investigate job stress and the psychological wellbeing of library employees, the role predictors of job stress, role ambiguity and role	125 librarians participated in this cross-sectional survey, and structured questionnaires were used for data collection. Independent sample t-test, ANOVA, Correlation, Sophie	Ryff's Scales of Psychological Well-Being and General Self-Efficacy Scale (Grau et al., 2000) were used.	Role ambiguity was the cause of job stress, not work environment and role conflict. But psychological wellbeing is positively significant with role conflict, work environment, and role ambiguity.

	conflict, physical work environment issues, and their relationship to psychological wellbeing.	test, and Multiple Regression were used in SPSS.		
Review of relations between self-efficacy and wellbeing in India and Abroad				
Liang, W. (2022) Abroad	To explore the relationship between professional learning community (PLC) and teacher wellbeing (TWB) and whether the relationship was mediated by teaching self-efficacy (TSE). To investigate whether the PLC-TWB relationship was mediated by teaching self-efficacy (TSE).	It is a survey study of 844 teachers selected from 28 primary and middle schools in China through Random Sampling. Descriptive analysis, bootstrap analysis, and Structural Equation Models (SEMs) were used for the analysis collecting of data.	Hedonic Well-being Scale and the Eudaimonic Well-being Scale (Diener et al. 2010), Professional Learning Community (PLC) scale (Song 2015), and teaching self-efficacy (TSE) (Tschannen-Moran and Hoy, 2001) used for data collection.	Six components of the Professional Learning Community (PLC) were positively related to teachers' hedonic and eudaimonic wellbeing. The association between the PLC and TWB was confirmed to be mediated by TSE.
Singh et al. (2018)	The moderating role of sustainability practices	A cross-sectional study was conducted on 527 full-time executive employees in	Self-efficacy (Riggs et al., 1994) and workplace	The relationship between self-efficacy and workplace wellbeing was stronger among

Aborad	between Self-efficacy and workplace wellbeing.	Indian manufacturing organisations. Correlation, Regression, and chi-square were used in SPSS.	wellbeing scales were used.	executives with high sustainability practices and vice versa.
Damen and Dam, (2016) Abroad	To determine how self-efficacy affects employee wellbeing (i.e., emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction) by investigating the mediating role of employees' engagement in reflection and rumination.	A representative sample of the Dutch working employee (n ¼ 506) filled out an online questionnaire. Structural equation modelling was used for the analysis of the data.	Job satisfaction (Farrell and Rusbult, 1981), General Perceived Self-efficacy Scale (Teeuw et al., 1994), and Maslach Burnout Inventory (Schaufeli and Van Dierendonck, 2000) were used.	The result revealed, as predicted that self-efficacy was significantly related to emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. Furthermore, rumination mediated the self-efficacy-exhaustion relationship.
Zee and Koomen, (2016) Abroad	To explore the consequences of teacher self-efficacy (TSE) on the quality of classroom processes, students' academic adjustment, and teachers' psychological wellbeing.	Criteria-based review approach was used to search articles from 1976 to March 2014. The articles were collected from the Internet databases of PsycInfo, ERIC, and Google Scholar. Finally, 165 eligible articles were selected.	Meta-analysis used.	TSE shows positive links with students' academic adjustment, teacher behaviour and practices related to classroom quality patterns, and factors underlying teachers' psychological wellbeing and job satisfaction, including personal accomplishment and commitment.

Siu et al. (2007) Abroad	To investigated the direct and moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between stressors and wellbeing in Chinese societies.	A survey was conducted on 386 male and 306 female employees from Hong Kong and Beijing through purposive sampling. Collected data were analysed through hierarchical regressions.	Occupational Stress Indicator (OSI) (Evers, Frese, & Cooper, 2000), Physical and Mental wellbeing scale, and Generalised Self-efficacy Scale (Schwarzer et al., 1997) were used.	Self-efficacy moderated the relationship between stressors and mental wellbeing yet did not moderate the relationship between stressors and physical wellbeing. Results verified that general self-efficacy plays a vital role in employees' wellbeing in the collectivist society of China.
Beas and Salanova, (2006) Aboard	To examines the factorial structure of self-efficacy and the relationship between levels of self-efficacy (i.e., generalised, professional, and computer) and psychological wellbeing and training among Information and Communication Technology (ICT) workers.	Data were collected from 496 workers from different occupational sectors who are working in ICT and are well-trained in ICT. Correlation and Regression Analysis used through SPSS.	MBI-GS-Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (Schaufeli et al., 1996), Generalised self-efficacy (Grau et al., 2000) and Psychological wellbeing related to work (Warr, 1990) scale used.	There is a negative relationship between workers' self-efficacy and psychological wellbeing. For workers with a highly positive attitude towards ICT, when the number of hours is high, their levels of professional self-confidence increase, but it depends on the number of training hours (i.e., more training hours, more self-confidence). However, workers with low levels of positive attitude towards ICT experiment decrease in professional self-confidence.

Review of relations between self-efficacy and job stress in India and Abroad				
Helms-Lorenz and Maulana, (2016) Aboard	To investigate the relationship between self-efficacy and stress caused experienced by beginning teachers and their job tension and discontent.	It is experimental research. Total 62 secondary schools and 338 beginning teachers in the Netherlands were randomly selected as samples. A more complex multilevel, multilevel growth curve modelling (MGCM) is used for data analysis.	School Context teacher self-efficacy scale (Friedman & Kass, 2002) and perceived stress causes and outcomes questionnaire (Van Veldhoven et al., 2002) were used.	School and beginning teacher Self-efficacy were negatively related, but stress causes had a positive relationship with work tension and dissatisfaction. However, in the secondary school group, self-efficacy had a weaker link between job tension and discontent.
Reilly et al. (2013) Aboard	To examine teaching self-efficacy, perceived stress, and self-esteem with demographic characteristics.	Survey data were collected on 121 Irish primary teachers from eight primary schools in Dublin, Ireland. Comparisons of means, correlations, and multiple regressions were used for the analysis of the data.	The Rosenberg self-esteem scale (RSES; Rosenberg, 1965) and Job Satisfaction Survey (Wellness Councils of America, 2004) were used.	The predictor variables accounted for 22 per cent of teachers' job satisfaction variance. However, only perceived stress was found to explain the unique predictive variance, with high levels of occupational stress related to low levels of job satisfaction.
Klassen et, al. (2012)	To examine the teaching-related stress, self-efficacy, and occupational	The sample included 1,187 pre-service teachers from Canada (379), England (203),	Teacher Self-efficacy Inventory (Tschannen-Moran and Hoy, 2001),	Self-efficacy partially reduced the effect of stress from student behaviour and workload on commitment in three of four contexts.

Aboard	commitment of pre-service teachers.	Hong Kong (211), and Thailand (394).	Teacher Stress Inventory (Fimian, 1982) and Occupational commitment scale used.	Mediation tests with the country as moderator revealed significant differences in the strength of the mediating effect across the four contexts.

Appendix- G

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EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING: CONCEPT, DIMENSIONS AND FACTORS

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ABSTRACT:

Well-being is how a person feels about various aspects of their life - their health, relationships with others, home life, work life and other activities; Basically, whether they are feeling good in all these aspects. Today's well-being in the workplace is a significant issue. However, employee well-being extends beyond physical or mental health; there are many elements besides happiness and job satisfaction. The present study is a theoretical discussion based on the previous literature available in the field. This paper tries to explain the conceptual and theoretical understanding of employee well-being, including concepts and types of well-being, elements and factors affecting employee well-being and strategies for promoting employee well-being. The literature review provides evidence that employee well-being plays a significant role in people's lives. It emerged from the study that the components or dimensions of employee well-being are: psychological well-being, social well-being, workplace well-being, subjective well-being, eudemonic well-being, emotional well-being, and health well-being. Further, work setting, occupational stress, personality, age, physical fitness, emotional intelligence, work-supportive family members, social support, employee retention, workplace–home distance, stressful environment, health, non-standardised work schedules etc., have been identified as factors that affect employee well-being. However, adequate levels of leisure, work-life balance, and a supportive work environment can maintain employee well-being and make them more efficient in life.

KEYWORDS: Employee Well-being; Workplace Well-being; Subjective Well-being;

INTRODUCTION:

Well-being generally refers to the quality of human life. It is a dynamic subject and deals with objective measures (Statham & Chase, 2010). According to Bandura (1986), "well-being" is a broad phrase that relates to people's valued experiences that help them perform better at work and other activities (Huang et al., 2016). It is a subjective term describing people's happiness, wish fulfilments, satisfaction, abilities and task accomplishments (Diener, 2009). Well-being is being comfortable, healthy, and happy (New Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 2005). Warr (1994) defined well-being as the all-embracing quality of an employee's experience and functions in physical and psychical dimensions, whereas, in their integrative approach to the concept of well-being. In simple terms, Well-being is having a positive outlook on life and feeling good (Ed Diener et al., 1997).

The well-being of an individual considers the feelings, functioning, and evaluation criterion of that individual (Ryan and Deci, 2000). However, well-being is a multidimensional concept covering an individual's psychological, emotional, social, and physical aspects. It has several components/elements like emotional well-being, social well-being, physical well-being, spiritual well-being, workplace well-being, employee well-being, hedonic well-being, eudaimonic well-being, psychological well-being, subjective well-being, pedagogical well-being etc., (Diener, 2009; Diener, 2000; Soini et al., 2010). There have been several studies on EWB (Diener et al., 1999; Keyes et al., 2002; Seligman, 2011). EWB is among the most popular research by organisational psychologists and administrators. Researchers emphasised employee well-being's role in enhancing potential employee utilisation (Pradhan et al., 2017).

CONCEPT OF EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING (EWB):

Does the employee's well-being have necessary implications at work and for other aspects of an employee's life? Of course! For years, We are aware of how they affect work-life balance, and several studies have identified how EWB affects productivity (Kundi et al., 2020; Turban & Yan, 2016). It has a significant role in people's lives as employees invest a lot of time in their workplace. Danna and Griffin (1999) define employee well-being as satisfaction in work and personal life, affecting the individual's physical, mental, and general health. In general, employee well-being is the comprehensive experience and function of an employee from a perspective of both physical and psychological dimensions (Warr, 1999). It is EWB that employees perceive to be influenced by work and workplace interventions (Pradhan et al., 2017; Juniper, Bellamy, & White, 2011; Siegrist, Wahrendorf, Knesebeck, Jurges, & Borsch-Supan, 2006).

EWB can be described in three terms: employee commitment, employee retention and well-being, and employee performance (Pradhan et al., 2017). EWB can affect productivity at the organisational level, bringing long-term organisation profitability (Garawitch, Gottschalk, & Munz, 2006). There are six elements, i.e., a manageable workload, positive relationships at work, a reasonably clear role, a sense of control of involvement in changes in the organisation, personal control over the job, support from colleagues and supervisors (Guest, & Conway, 2004), essential for every employee to perform at their workplace. Here are two other forms of EWB: hedonic and eudaimonic well-being (Ballesteros-Leiva et al., 2017). EWB connotes employees' physical, psychological and emotional health, comfort and happiness (Pradhan et al., 2017). It is an employee's comprehensive experience and function from physical and psychological perspectives (Warr, 1999). It also includes psychological well-being (PWB) (Wright & Cropanzano, 2007).

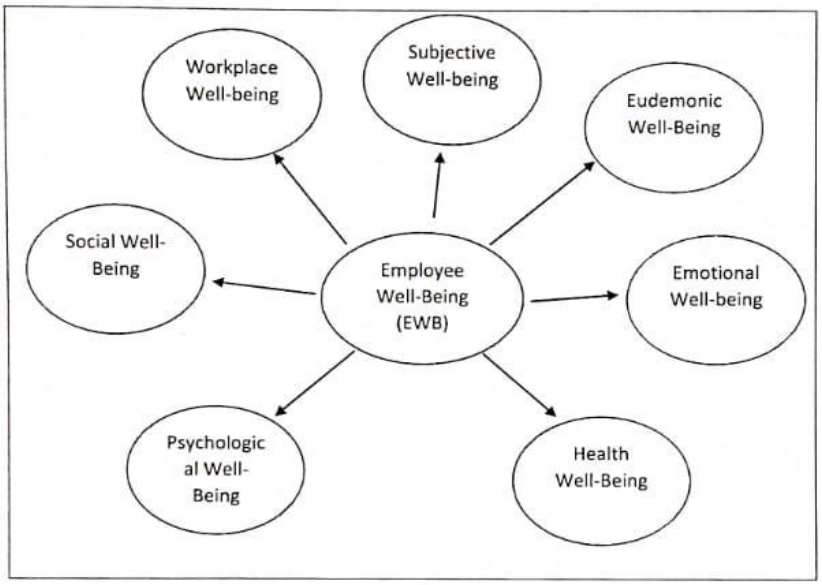
DIMENSIONS OR ELEMENTS OF EWB:

EWB is dynamic, subjective, and multidimensional (Juniper et al., 2011; Zheng et al., 2015). Warr (1999, 2007) claimed that EWB has two distinct components: context-free well-being and domain-specific or job-specific well-being. It has three other dimensions: displeasure/ pleasure, anxiety/ comfort, and depression /enthusiasm (Warr, 1999, 2007). EWB has positive well-being and negative un-well-being approaches (Huhtala & Parzefall, 2007).

EWB covers work, non-work-associated psychological experiences, and health status (Zheng et al., 2015). It consists of meaningful work, effective response to the work environment, job uplifts and hassles ratio, need satisfaction, work-life satisfaction, job-specific well-being and context-free well-being, and the European Commission's definition of quality of work (Sirgy, 2012). It is more than just people's medical and includes advancement, managerial and physical workplace considerations, and physical and psychological health (Junipe et al. 2011). Ryff and Keyes (1995) highlight three significant dimensions of well-being: PWB, social well-being, and emotional well-being and suggested that EWB should be measured in terms of PWB, workplace well-being (WWB) and subjective well-being (Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009). Zheng et al. (2015) reported that EWB has three major dimensions: life well-being, WWB and PWB. EWB at work is multidimensional (Grant, Christianson, & Price, 2007; Page & Vella- Brodrick, 2009). Fisher (2010) argued that many concepts and dimensions of EWB include job satisfaction, job involvement, affective organisational commitment, work engagement, positive and negative emotions and moods at work, intrinsic motivation, thriving, and vigour (Simone, 2014). He also highlighted three components of overall well-being at work, i.e. subjective, social and eudaimonic well-being (Fisher, 2010 & Simone, 2014).

Based on the above discussion, many elements or dimensions of EWB have been found: PWB, social well-being, WWB, subjective well-being, eudemonic well-being, EWB, and health well-being. Let us see the following Fig. 1 for a better understanding.

Fig 1: Elements or Dimensions of Well-being



1. ***Psychological Well-being (PWB)*** is the individual's perception about their lives and experience gained in their lifetime. It includes self-acceptance, personal growth, purpose in life and environmental mastery. According to Sagone and De Caroli (2014), psychological well-being is a combination of psychological characteristics associated with positive human functioning, including various resilience-related aspects such as maturity, purpose in life and self-efficacy.
2. ***Social Well-being*** is positive relationships, social stability, and peace. It consists of social acceptance, social actualisation, social contribution, social integration, relationship satisfaction and social support (including emotional and instrumental purport) (Simone, 2014).

3. ***Workplace Well-being (WWB)*** concerns all aspects of working life, i.e., work-life safety, employee assistance, employee growth, work facilities, environment, climate etc. (Pradhan. et al., 2017).
4. ***Subjective Well-being*** means the subjective evaluation of an individual's present status based on their positive and negative effects and general life satisfaction. It is how people experience and evaluate their lives, specific domains, and activities (Stone & Mackie, 2013).
5. ***Eudaimonic Well-being*** includes job involvement, work engagement, thriving, flow and intrinsic motivation, and meaning in work (Simone, 2014).
6. ***Emotional Well-being*** is characteristic of mood and self-esteem, a component of which is affective evaluation of the self (Schutte et al., 2002). It includes positive and negative emotions, life satisfaction and happiness (Lopez et al., 2013).
7. ***Health Wellbeing*** improves physical and mental health. Well-being and health are closely related, and well-being has a protective role in maintaining health (Steptoe, 2015).

FACTORS AFFECTING EWB:

Many factors affect EWB, along with several general antecedent factors. For example, EWB markers such as job satisfaction, burnout, work engagement, and positive/negative affect have been studied as outcome variables or as essential mediators between working conditions/personality and job performance (Bakker, 2015). These are:

The Work Setting: Health hazards, safety hazards, and perils create dangerous work settings that negatively impact EWB. Their absence has a positive effect on EWB (Simone, 2014).

Personality Traits: In an organisational setting, personality traits significantly affect EWB. Researchers explored the relationships between personality and EWB. An individual's personality traits can predict positively affective experiences (Authayarat & Umemuro, 2012). Generally, three personality traits affect employee well-being, i.e., neuroticism, extraversion, and conscientiousness. The broadest personality factors affecting EWB are

Type A behaviour pattern (means that the individual is hard-driving, competitive, the job involved, and hostile) and locus of control (internal and external locus of control) (Danna & Griffin, 1999; Simone, 2014).

Occupational Stress: The lack of a balance between individual needs and demands and those of the environment gives rise to occupational stress. It directly affects EWB. The intrinsic potential factors of job and occupational stresses are work overload or underload, work shift, long hours, and physical working environment quality (Cooper and Marshall, 1978).

Age: Age plays an important role in the long-term stability of employee well-being (Mäkikangas et al., 2016). Older employees perceive workplace wellbeing more than their younger counterparts (Warr, 1999), because older employees can cope better with different stressful situations through work experience (Mauno et al., 2013).

Physical Fitness: Physical fitness has a positive impact on EWB. It helps the body remain healthy and reduces job-related stress and anxiety (Frank & Jason, 2005). In addition, studies revealed (Pruyne, 2011; Paradise, 2016) that daily physical activities reduce stress and anxiety faced by employees of all ages.

Emotional Intelligence (EI): Being human requires experiencing emotions, which have an impact on our behaviour, habits, and activities (Stanley & Burrows, 2005), which, in turn, affect our perceptions of psychological health (Slaski & Cartwright, 2003). EI in an individual can also be explained based on one's adaptation and reaction to stress, self-management, conscientiousness, and social stimuli such as conflicts and leadership issues (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Work-supportive Family Members: According to Lynda and colleagues (2006), the support structure of an employee from friends and family provides emotional and instrumental support structures in challenging situations at the workplace. A strong family support structure helps employees minimise strain-based personal life from interfering with their work.

Effect of Social Support: Social support is a significant determinant of overall EWB (Ryff & Singer, 2000). Positive social interactions help the development of an EWB and enhance their performance (Diener & Seligman, 2002).

Work Environment: The work environment has a marked effect on EWB (Arnold, 2015), employees' growth and development, recognition, and involvement (Grawitch et al., 2006). In this connection, Kossek et al. (2012) suggested the following necessary work environments required for EWB:

- Adequate pay meeting the market standards;
- Healthy work environment;
- Sufficient staffing to ensure that distributed sustainable workloads;
- Overall training;
- Consideration for work-life balance.

Flexible Working: Flexibility at work helps ensure work-life balance and initiatives that help achieve the employees to provide their attention to all the necessary duties within work and outside of it promptly (Jamieson & O'Mara, 1991)

Employee Retention: EWB and staff retention have a close relationship. EWB plays a vital role as a predictor and strongly influences EWB or stay in their current job rather than other job-related factors such as job satisfaction or commitment (Wright, 2006; Harter et al., 2002; 2003).

Other Important Factors Affecting EWB: Several other factors affect employee well-being, i.e., gender, caste, habitat, marital status, stream of education and educational qualification, job status, job experience, residence, workplace–home distance, special training, promotion in job, job insecure, stressful environment, health, needs and non-standardised work schedules (Kossek, Kalliath, & Kalliath, 2012).

CONCLUSION:

EWB is an employee's overall physical, mental, emotional, and economic health. It helps an organisation create a positive image and healthy workplace culture. But age, physical weakness, family problems, job stress, huge workplace–home distance, stressful environment, non-standardised work schedules etc., influence employee well-being badly. So, supportive work environments, work-life balance and adequate levels of leisure are essential to maintaining the well-being of employees today, which will promote effective and efficient utilisation of the workforce. EWB is multidimensional and subjective. Employee well-being has become a critical and popular research topic for institutional and organisational managers, administrators, and researchers. Although there are many definitions, elements/ dimensions, and factors have not been agreed upon and accepted by all. Hopefully, this will help expand this fascinating and crucial EWB research area.

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Appendix- H

Photo Copy of Paper Presentation Certificate-1

2 - Days International Seminar on

Peace, Well-being & Education: A Pedagogical Discourse

Organised by

Department of Education, Jadavpur University

in collaboration with

Department of Education, Bhatter College, Dantan & National Service Scheme, Jadavpur University

(Partially sponsored by UGC & Ministry of Youth Affairs & Sports, Govt. of India)

Date: 28th & 29th December, 2018 Venue: Jadavpur University

This is to certify that Sri/Smt./Dr. Md. Sabuj Alam

of Dept. of Education, Jadavpur University

participated / presented the paper / ~~delivered the lecture~~/ chaired the session entitled as 'Work-place Well being of School Administrators' Issues and Challenges'

in the 2-Days International Seminar on 'Peace, Well-being & Education: A Pedagogical Discourse', organised by the Department of Education, Jadavpur University, in collaboration with Bhatter College, Dantan, Pachim Medinipur and National Service Scheme, Jadavpur University, on 28th and 29th December, 2018, at Jadavpur University Main Campus.

(Prof. Bishnupada Nanda)
Head, Department of Education
Jadavpur University

(Dr. Pulakesh Kumar Mishra)
Principal
Bhatter College

(Dr. Anupam Debsarkar)
Secretary, N.S.S.
Jadavpur University

(Dr. Lalit Lalitan Mahakud)
Jt. Coordinator
ISPWEPD, 2018

(Smt. Anamya Mukhopadhyay)
Jt. Coordinator
ISPWEPD, 2018

Photo Copy of Paper Presentation Certificate-2

GECE 2020

THE 1ST GLOBAL E-CONFERENCE ON EDUCATION-2020 | KOLKATA

Theme: "Human Cognition in Learning: An Educational Perspective"

CERTIFICATE OF PARTICIPATION

MD SAHANAJ ALAM

Ph.D. Scholar, Department of Education, Jadavpur University, Kolkata has participated and presented a paper entitled "**Exploring the Relationship Between Self-Efficacy and Employee Wellbeing: An Integrative Review**" in the 1st Global E-Conference on Education-2020, Kolkata, India, on the theme "Human Cognition in Learning: An Educational Perspective", organized by the Department of Education, Jadavpur University, Kolkata, India and the Department of Education, Dinabandhu Mahavidyalaya, Bongaon, North 24 Parganas, West Bengal, India on August 22-23, 2020.

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