

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

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

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Preface

This study intends to measure the effects of various socio-demographic variables on job stress, self-efficacy and well-being of school education administrators of West Bengal, India. It also explored the total, direct, and indirect effects of job stress on employee well-being, and the mediating role of self-efficacy between job stress and employee well-being. 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. In this present synopsis the key points of the entire thesis have been mentioned.

1.0 Chapter-I: Introduction

Any education system is run successfully by proper education administration and good education administrators. The effectiveness of school education also largely depends on its administrators. School Education Administrators (SEA) 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 programs 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. So, the smooth flow of school education in a state depends on the effective management 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. 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.

2.0 Chapter-II: Review of Related Literature

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.

2.1 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.

Table 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

3.0 Chapter-III: Context of the Study

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 chapters. The specific methodology of the study has

been presented in 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.

3.1 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.

3.2 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 management activities improve the mental wellbeing of employers (Mensah, 2021 and 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. Numerous 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.

3.3 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”**.

3.4 Operational Definition of the Major Terms Used

Job Stress (JS): 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 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): 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): However, in the present study 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) were considered as the school education administrators.

3.5 Objectives of the Study

The major objectives of the present study were:

1. To measure the rate of prevalence of JS, SE, and EW among the SEAs;
2. To compare JS, SE and EW among SEAs concerning their gender, highest educational qualification, present residence, marital status, spouse's job engagement status, previous job status, working hours in a week, special training status, preferences in other job opportunities, stream of education, and present designation;
3. To explore the relationship of age, distance of the workplace from home, and year of service experience, with JS, SE, and EW among SEAs;
4. To find out the inter-relationship between overall and dimension wise JS, SE, and EW among SEAs;
5. To measure the direct effects/impacts of JS on SE among SEAs;
6. To measure the direct and total effects/impacts of JS on EW among SEAs;
7. To measure the direct effects/impacts of SE on EW among SEAs;
8. To measure the indirect/mediating effects/impacts of JS through SE on EW among SEAs.

3.5 Hypotheses of the Study

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

- There is no significant difference in JS, SE and EW and their dimensions among SEAs concerning their gender, highest educational qualification, present residence, marital status, spouse's job engagement status, previous job status, working hours in a week, special training status, preferences in other job opportunities, stream of education, and present designation.

- Age, distance of the workplace from home, and year of service experience of the SEAs are not significantly related to their JS, SE, and EW.
- There is no significant relationship exist between overall and dimension wise JS, SE, and EW among SEAs.
- There is no significant direct impact of JS on SE among SEAs.
- There is no significant direct impact of SE on EW among SEAs.
- There is no significant direct impact of JS on EW among SEAs.
- JS of the SEAs does not indirectly influences/impacts their EW through SE.
- SE of the SEAs does not significantly mediate the relationship between their JS and EW.

3.6 Delimitations of the Study

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. state were considered as SEAs;
2. The study sample was restricted to 316 SEAs of West Bengal;
3. 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;
4. Only the English version of the questionnaires were administered to collect data form the representatives;
5. 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.

3.7 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.

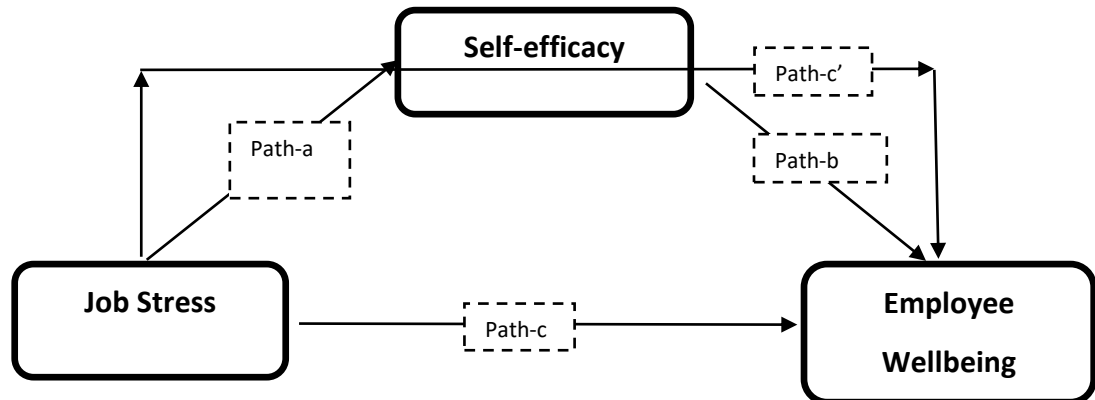


Fig. 3.1 Conceptual Framework of the study

4.0 Chapter-IV: Methodology of the Study

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.

4.1 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.

4.2 The Population of the Study

The SEAs currently working under the Government of West Bengal constitute the target population for the present study. The present hierarchical structure of school education administration in West Bengal 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 SEAs, 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.

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 SEAs 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

4.3 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.

4.3.1 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.

4.3.2 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 school educational administrators. The detailed sample distribution is given in table no. 4.2. and socio-demographic profile is given in table no. 4.3.

Table No. 4.2: 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. 4.3: 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%

4.4.0 Key Variables of the Study

The variables included in the present study were divided into two broad heads, i.e., Socio-Demographic Variables and Measured Variables. Detail description of the variables has been given below.

4.4.1 Socio-demographic Variables

In the present study, the following Socio-demographic or independent variables have been considered- 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 experience.

4.4.2 Measured Variables

In the present study, job stress, self-efficacy, and employee wellbeing 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:** 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, Anxiety Stress, Role Expectation Conflict, Co-Worker Support, and Work-Life Balance.
- 2. Self-Efficacy:** 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, Efficacy Expectation, Positive Attitude, and Outcome Expectation.
- 3. Employee Wellbeing:** 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, Social Wellbeing, Workplace Wellbeing, and Subjective Wellbeing.

4.5.0 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 job stress, self-efficacy, and employee wellbeing. All participants were requested to give their responses to each item of the instruments. Detail description of each instrument has been given below:

4.5.1 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.

4.5.2 Participants' 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), 6. 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).

4.5.3 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 Likert 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), (iii) 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.

4.5.4 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), (ii) 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. **4.5.5 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.

4.6.0 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. 4.4: 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

4.6.1 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. 4.5: 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.

4.6.2 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.

4.6.3 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.

4.7.0 Storage and Protection of Data

4.7.1. 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.

4.7.2 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.

4.8.0 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 data sheet. Then all types of statistical analyses were performed through this software with the help of the research supervisor.

4.8.1 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, 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.

4.8.2 Descriptive Data Analyses

Specific descriptions for the socio-demographic profile of SEA 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 Experience reported through the major descriptive statistical techniques were Frequency, Percentage Analysis, Mean, Standard Deviation etc. Descriptions about the distribution of job stress, self-efficacy, and employee wellbeing and its dimensions scored for school educational administrators were also generated, which have been provided in Chapter V.

4.8.3 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 a 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), and Simple and Regression Analysis in SPSS-20. Pearson Correlation analysis was run for hypotheses testing that addressed the relationship between job stress, employee wellbeing, and self-efficacy of school educational administrators. To test the significant mean difference in the dependent variables among the SEA concerning their demographics, the researcher applied statistical techniques like t-test and One-way ANOVA. Finally, based on the correlation analysis, the simple and multiple linear regression analysis was performed to examine the mediating effects, direction, and intensity of the effect of Job Stress and Self-efficacy on employee Wellbeing.

4.8.4 Analysis Design

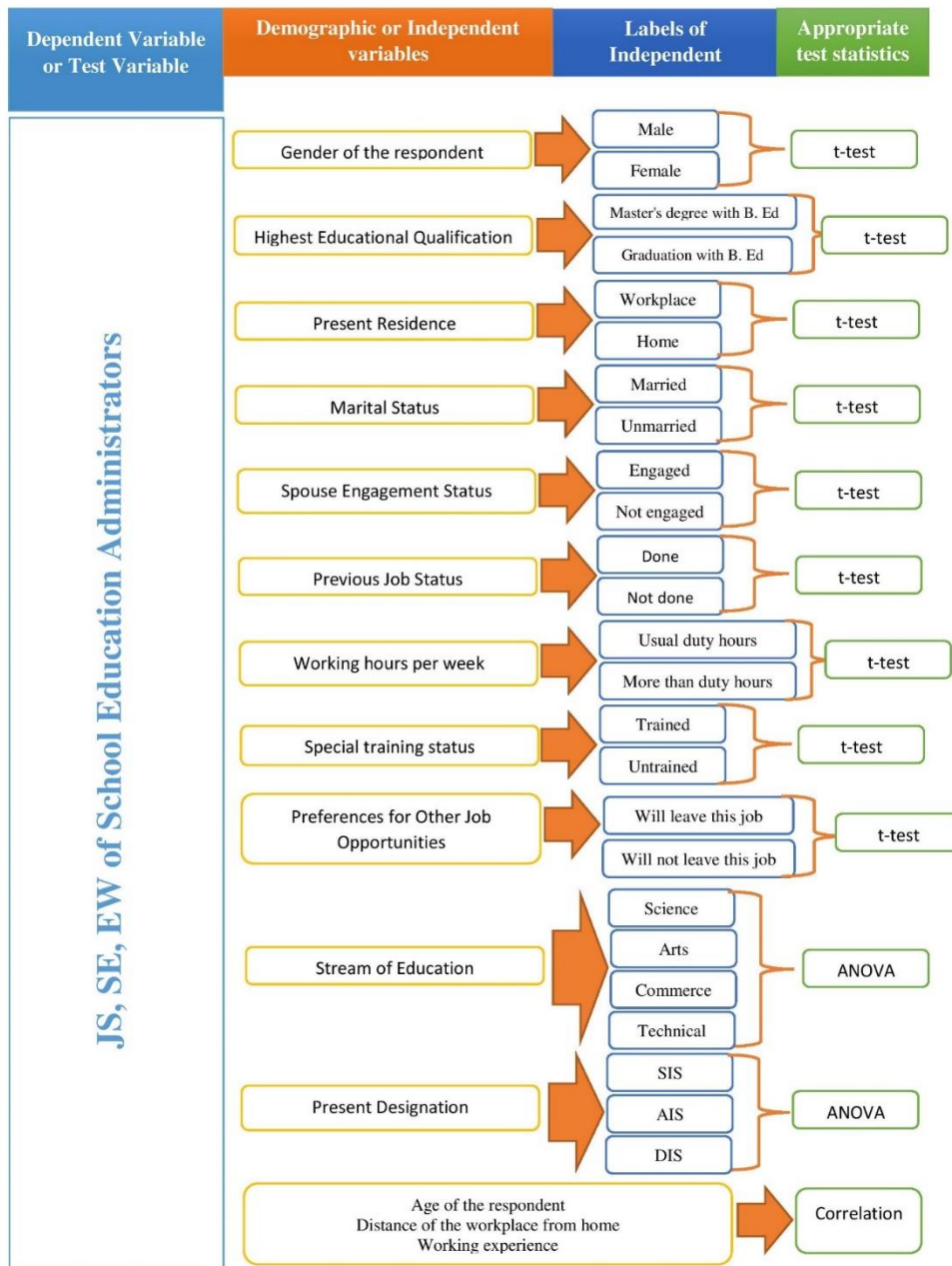


Fig. 4.1: Represents Analysis Designs

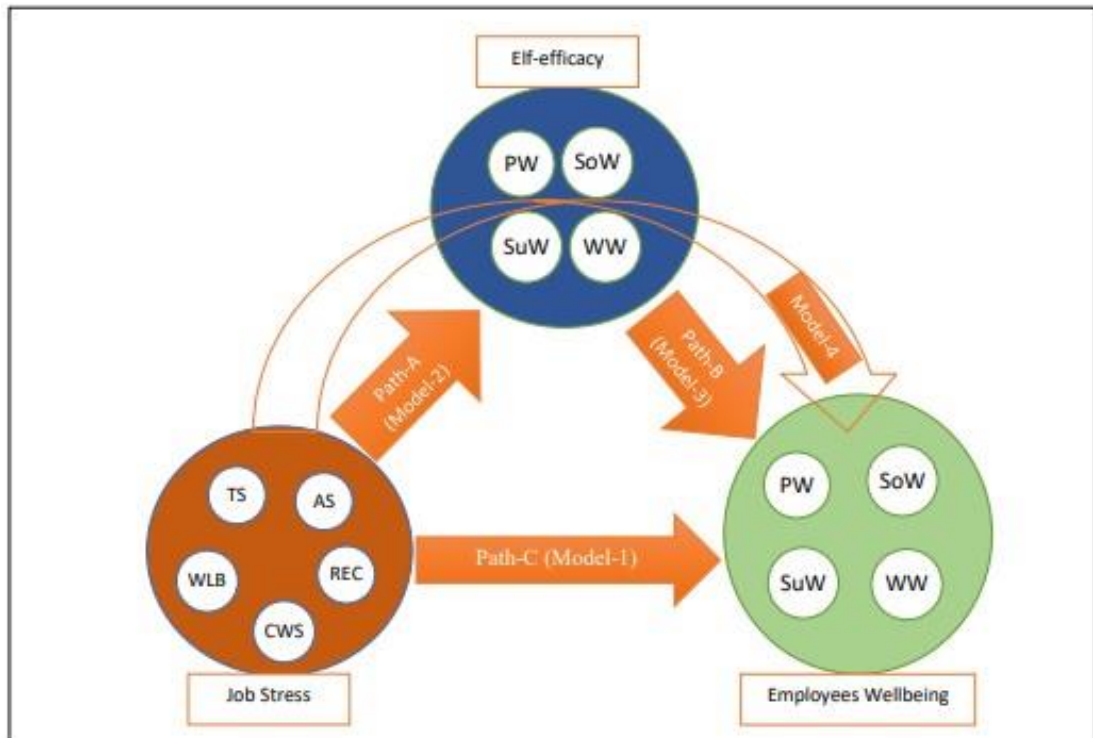


Fig. 4.2: Represents Path Analysis Design

5.0. Chapter-V: Analysis and Interpretation

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.

5.1. Analysis and Interpretation

5.1.1 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 job stress, self-efficacy, and employee well-being.

6.0 Chapter-VI: Major Findings and Conclusion

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.

6.1.0 Major Findings of the Study

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

6.1.1 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.

6.1.2 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).

6.1.3 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.

6.1.4 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.

6.1.5 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 influenced 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.

6.1.6 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.

6.1.7 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.

6.1.8 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.

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

1. Special training did not significantly affected 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.

6.1.10 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.

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

1. The stream of education did not significantly influenced 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.

6.1.12 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.

6.1.13 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.

6.1.14 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 was 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 was 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.

6.1.14 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 was 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.

6.1.15 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 was found between TS and OE among SEAs.
9. A low negative and insignificant relationship between TS and SE was 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 was found between AS and the SC of SEAs.
19. A low negative and insignificant relationship was 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 was found between AS and SE among SEAs.
23. A low negative and insignificant relationship was found between AS and PW among SEAs.
24. A low negative and insignificant relationship was 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 exists between REC and the work-life balance among SEAs.
30. A low negative and insignificant relationship was found between REC and SC among SEAs.
31. A low negative and insignificant relationship was 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 was 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 social wellbeing among SEAs.
77. SC was positively but significantly related to workplace wellbeing 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 employees wellbeing among SEAs.
80. It was found that an average positive but significant relationship existed between EE and the PA among SEAs.
81. The efficacy expectation was positive but 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 positive but significant relationship was present between EE and PW among SEAs.
84. The efficacy expectation was positive but significantly related to the social wellbeing among SEAs.
85. A low but significant positive relationship was found between EE and workplace wellbeing among SEAs.
86. A low positive but significant relationship was found between EE and subjective wellbeing among SEAs.
87. The efficacy expectation was positively and significantly related to EW among SEAs.
88. An average positive but significant relationship existed between PA and outcome expectations among SEAs.
89. A highly positive and significant relationship was found between PA and SE among SEAs.
90. An average positive but significant relationship existed between PA and PW among SEAs.
91. The result revealed a significant positive relationship between the PA dimension and social wellbeing among SEAs.
92. There is a low positive but significant relationship between PA and workplace wellbeing among SEAs.
93. An average positive but significant relationship existed between PA and subjective wellbeing 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 social wellbeing among SEAs.
98. There was a low positive but significant relationship between OE and the workplace wellbeing of SEAs.
99. A low positive but significant relationship existed between OE and the subjective wellbeing 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 social wellbeing among SEAs.
103. A low positive but significant relationship existed between SE and workplace wellbeing of SEAs.
104. An average positive but significant relationship was 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 social wellbeing of SEAs.
107. The relationship was found positive and significant between PW and workplace wellbeing of SEAs.
108. A low but significant positive relationship existed between the psychological and subjective wellbeing among SEAs.
109. A positive and significant relationship was observed between psychological and EW among SEAs.
110. A significant average positive relationship prevailed between social and workplace wellbeing among SEAs.
111. The relationship was found positive and significant between social wellbeing and subjective wellbeing of SEAs.
112. A highly positive and significant relationship prevailed between social and EW among SEAs.

113. There was an average positive but significant relationship between workplace wellbeing and the subjective wellbeing of SEAs.

114. Workplace wellbeing was positively and significantly related to EW among SEAs.

115. The relationship between subjective wellbeing and EW of SEAs was positive and significant.

6.1.16 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 wellbeing 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.

6.2 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 were 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 SEA 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 SEA 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 administration, 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 possess 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 have 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 to possess higher psychological, workplace, subjective, and overall wellbeing than their counterparts. On the other hand, post-graduate with B. Ed. qualified administrators have higher social wellbeing than their counter group. That means undergraduates with B. Ed qualified administrators have 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 presently reside with their family at home, and the administrators at the workplace. However, those residing with the family have time, anxiety, and overall job stress. On the other hand, the counter group has 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 have 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 have 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 face 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 face less stress than unmarried administrators. And again, married administrators have overall and dimension-wise higher self-efficacy than unmarried administrators, but except positive attitude dimension, no significant difference is present between them. Finally, in the case of employee wellbeing, married administrators have higher psychological wellbeing, social wellbeing, and overall employee wellbeing. On the other hand, unmarried administrators have 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 are doing some job have 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' lower self-efficacy level (overall and dimension-wise) than the latter group of administrators. But a significant difference was found only in overall self-efficacy. Finally, again in the case of employee wellbeing, the first group of administrators has 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 have done any job before (having job experience) and those who have not done any job before (without previous job experience). However, the former group of administrators faces more time stress, role expectation conflict, and overall job stress but less work-life balance. On the other hand, the second group of administrators face 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' have 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 is 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 faces 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 has 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 has higher wellbeing than the other group. That means administrators who do their usual scheduled duty have higher job stress and lower self-efficacy but higher wellbeing. This finding needs to be clarified because empirical evidence says 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 have 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 have 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) have higher self-efficacy (overall and dimension-wise) than the other group. However, a significant difference is 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 face more or less of those factors. Study findings showed that administrators from the Arts stream have the highest, the Science stream has the second highest, and Commerce has 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 possess the highest self-efficacy and employee wellbeing. While having an arts background have 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 have 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 SEA 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. has 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 has 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 is 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 SEA are 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 is 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 reduces the adverse effects of job stress and helps increase the wellbeing of SEA. A similar kind of study by Klassen et al. (2012) reported that self-efficacy partially reduces the effect of stress from the workload and changes how work stress influences the commitment to continue work. The study by Jimmieson (2010) also stated that self-efficacy weakens the adverse effects of work stress and helps 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 affects 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 mediates but does 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 decreases job stress's adverse effects and helps increase employee wellbeing. School administrative jobs are 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 are not significantly influenced by their highest educational qualification. Staying with family shall increase employee wellbeing; however, present residence (place of staying) will not influence job stress or self-efficacy. Marital status is not influential in job stress, self-efficacy, or employee wellbeing. Both married and unmarried administrators face similar kinds of job stress; they also have the same level of self-efficacy and employee wellbeing.

Spouses' engagement in any job/service is an influential factor for job stress, self-efficacy, and wellbeing. Those whose spouses are 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 increases self-efficacy and employee wellbeing; however, the job stress factor will also be present there. The present study also revealed that extra Workload that is 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.

SEAs with low self-efficacy face 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 SEA' self-efficacy levels.

Administrators with a commerce or technical background face 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 face higher job stress and less wellbeing. However, in higher-level administrative jobs, higher self-efficacy is also required. Age and working experience of the SEA are positively and significantly related to job stress, self-efficacy, and wellbeing. But, again, a low honeymoon effect is present among the newly recruited SEA. 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 SEA is low and negative but significantly related to their self-efficacy and employee wellbeing.

However, their self-efficacy and employee wellbeing are moderately, positively, and significantly related. Job stress of the SEA causes minimal variation in self-efficacy and employee wellbeing. Again, self-efficacy predicts employee wellbeing significantly, and the prediction rate is higher than job stress. Finally, it is concluded that job stress, directly and indirectly through self-efficacy, impacts/influences the wellbeing of the SEA of West Bengal. And again, their self-efficacy partially and complementarily mediates between job stress and employee wellbeing.

6.3 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 SEA.
2. By identifying the influential factors in JS, SE, and EW, SEA 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 SEA.
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 SEA 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 SEA.
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 SEA.
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.

6.4 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 SEA. 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.

6.5 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 SEA on significant variables through different techniques, i.e., experimental, observation, case study, mixed-method, etc.
2. Studies may be conducted covering different levels of SEA in West Bengal.

3. Studies may be conducted on other SEA like secretaries, directors, headmasters, etc.
4. Studies may be conducted covering different levels of school education administrators 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 SEA.
7. Studies can be conducted using deterrents constructed standardized scale for measuring the SEA' 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 and with other demographic variables.

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