“Review of literature not only helps in discovery of important variables locating the comparative data and discussion of results, but provides insight regarding strong points and limitation of the previous studies. Thus, it helps in improvement and more valuable of the present research. In other words reviewing of the literature with a high level of professional skills is demanding but a rewarding experience that provides the aspiration for understanding a study and lays a sound foundation for entire investigation. The related study helps to gains an insight in the area in which work has been done and where work is needed to be done. Keeping this in mind a thorough search of literature”.

Related literature to present study has been done and brief account of the same is presented below.

(1) Self-esteem
(2) Emotional intelligence
(3) Role-conflict
(4) Life satisfaction

STUDIES RELATED TO SELF-ESTEEM:

“A research done by Mullis and Chapman (2000) on association among gender, age, self-esteem and found that adolescents having high self-esteem focused on problem solving and emotion focused strategy was used by those adolescents having low self-esteem”.

“Judge, Timothy and Joyce (2001) examined the relationship among self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability with job satisfaction and job performance. With respect to job satisfaction, the estimated true score correlations were .26 for self-esteem, .45
for generalized self-efficacy, .32 for internal locus of control, and .24 for emotional stability. With respect to job performance, the correlations were .26 for self-esteem, .23 for generalized self-efficacy, .22 for internal locus of control, and .19 for emotional stability. In total, the results based on 274 correlations suggest that these traits are among the best dispositional predictors of job satisfaction and job performance”.

“Valentine (2001) studied how acculturation affects self-esteem cultural identity and generation statuses. 110 teachers were selected as a sample. For analysis the hierarchical regression analysis was used. Results showed there was positive effect on self-esteem and generation status on acculturation. But there was negative impact of acculturation on Hispanic cultural identity”.

“Michelle (2005) examined the relations among executive self, self-esteem and negative affectivity. A cross-sectional and longitudinal study established that self-esteem mediated the relation between executive self and negative affectivity. The study replicated this pattern and examined genetic environmental influences underlying all 3 phenotypes. Co variation among the 3 phenotypes reflected largely common genetic influences, although unique genetic effects explained variability in both executive self and negative affectivity. Executive self was influenced by shared environmental influences unique from those affecting self-esteem and negative affectivity. Non shared environmental influences accounted for the majority of variance in each construct and were primarily unique to each. The unique environmental influences support
the proposition that the executive self, self-esteem and negative affectivity capture distinct and important difference between people”.

“Kent (2005) studied on the association between collective self-esteem and burnout was done by 533 school counselors were taken as sample for research. Geographic location of work setting, length of job and Sex were studied. He also explored whether above variables were significantly related to burnout. Results show that having high collective self-esteem did not face the situation of burnout. Further findings of research showed that high level of burnout was found in those counselors who were working in urban settings in comparison to other counselor who were working in school environment.”

“Zyoudi (2005) investigated whether there were differences in self-esteem among adolescents with low vision due to gender. The sample population consisted of (23) adolescents, (10 males and 13 females) aged 12-17 years in the first year of secondary school. The researcher used the Tennessee Self-esteem Scale (TSCS) for the evaluation of self-concept. The results of the study showed that there were some differences in the adolescent self-esteem and self-behavior due to gender. Female students scored lower on social self-esteem, family self-behavior, and moral self-behavior dimensions than male students, but higher on physical self-esteem”.

“Anne (2006) took high school teachers as a sample to study their self-esteem. The main aim of the study was to find what were factor affecting life satisfaction of the teachers. To find out the best predictor of self-esteem multiple regression analysis was done. Results show that 80% of teacher was curbed due to
self-esteem. There was no difference in level of self-esteem between younger and old teachers”.

“Azar (2006) studied on the association among quality of life, hardiness, self efficacy and self-esteem on working and non-working married women. 500 women were taken as a sample. Among 500 women 250 were employed and 250 were unemployed. The main control for the research were age-range (24-41),status(low, middle and high). To analysis the result pearson r value was used. Results showed the positive relation among quality of life, hardiness, self efficacy and self-esteem on working and non-working married women”.

“Anozie (2007) studied skills and other factors among African-American student (Black men vs. Black women) enrolled at historically Black colleges and universities in North Carolina. Data collection and analysis for the study utilized both qualitative and quantitative methods. A web- based questionnaire was used as survey instrument. Finding revealed that African-American women consistently outperform African-American men in study skills self-esteem and self-efficacy”.

“Kevin (2007) studied on association on psychological gender, role conflict, self-esteem, loneliness and biological gender. Gay men and Lesbian women were included as sample. MANOVA was used as statistical model of choice. The results show that there was no significant interaction between psychological gender and biological gender on role conflict, self-esteem and loneliness”.

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“David (2008) examined the constructs of self-esteem and theatre arts. The experimental research utilized a Solomon four-group design, which included four groups of public high school freshmen. The study investigated whether or not self-esteem would increase after studying theatre arts, and if cause and effect relationship existed between theatre arts and self-esteem. The study independent variable was a theater arts treatment of ten lessons, Rosenberg self-esteem scale (1965), a self reporting and numerically measurable self-esteem survey. The scale was administered in a pretest and posttest format. The self-esteem survey was used to ascertain the cause and effect relationship between the constructs of theatre arts and self-esteem. The survey was a series of statement about the construct of self-esteem developed by Rosenberg (1965). A one way ANOVA showed that the treatment of theatre arts did have an effect on self-esteem. A paired t test was conducted between the experimental group pretest and post test scores showed that there was a cause and effect relationship between theatre arts and self-esteem”.

“Hyojeong (2008) investigated the relationship between self-esteem scores measured by the culture-free self-esteem inventories and the scores of the selected predictor variables as measured by the children version of the family environment scale (CVFES) in fourth, fifth and sixth grade children attending Korean Baptist churches. The variables were cohesion, expressiveness, conflict, control and moral religious emphasis. The combined scales of CFSEI and CVFES were administered to 133 fourth, fifth and sixth grade children attending Korean Baptist churches in the Dallas Fort Worth area. The multiple regression analyses
indicated that cohesion and conflict was statistical significant predictor of children self-esteem. Cohesion was positive predictor and conflict was negative predictor. Expressiveness, control and moral religious emphasis were not statistically significant predictor”.

“Sud and Sethi (2008) examined the interrelationship between state anxiety, trait anxiety, test anxiety, stress, negative mood regulation, achievement motivation and self-esteem of adolescent female students. The result reveals that there was a significant interrelationship between the state anxiety, trait anxiety, test anxiety, stress, negative mood regulation and self-esteem. However no interrelationship was seen between the achievement motivation and the other variables”.

“Tawneya (2008) examined relationship with parent gender and self esteem associated with internalizing problem. Archival method was used for collecting scores. The result indicated that the degree of internalizing problem was related to quality of parent relationship and self esteem. Children who reported better relationship with their parents and high self esteem reported less internalizing problem but children having low self-esteem reported higher internalizing problem”.

“Arslan, Hamarta and Uslu (2010) studied relationship between life satisfaction, self-esteem and conflict communication. The sample consists of 306 university students. The results of the study show that self-esteem was positively correlated with confrontation, emotional expression, self-disclosure
and life satisfaction. The results also show that life satisfaction was positively correlated with confrontation, emotional expression and self-disclosure”.

“Bhattacharjee (2010) investigated the self-esteem of tribal and non tribal college students. It also attempted to find out the self-esteem of male and female college students. The sample of study consisted of 100 college students. Among them 50 were tribal students and the rests were non-tribal college students. Again among them 50 were male students and the rests were female students. Result showed that self-esteem of college students differed significantly in relation to their community and gender. This further indicated that tribal college students possessed low self-esteem in comparison to non-tribal college students. Again, male college students possessed high self-esteem in comparison to female college students”.

“Hasnain, Ansari and Sethi (2011) studied the difference between married and unmarried, working and non-working women on life satisfaction and self-esteem. For this purpose a total 80 were taken on incidental basis. Among them 40 were working and 40 non-working. Among each group there were 20 married and 20 unmarried women making a 2x2 factorial design. ANOVA showed significantly greater life satisfaction and lower self-esteem for working women than for non-working women. However, non-significant difference was found between married and unmarried women on both life satisfaction and self-esteem. The interactional effects of working status and marital status were found non-significant for both life satisfaction and self-esteem”.

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“Divya and Manikandan (2012) studied the influence of family environment and self-esteem on hostility of adolescents. Four hundred participants were selected, which includes 138 males and 262 females. The variables were family environment; self-esteem and hostility were assessed by using family environment scale, self-esteem inventory and multiphase hostility inventory. Data were processed by ANOVA (2x3) followed by Scheffe test. The results revealed that family environment and self-esteem play important role in development of hostility among adolescents”.

“Bhardwaj and Agrawal (2013) studied the self-esteem of the pre-adolescent children and to see the gender differences between males and females in that early age. One hundred students (50 males and 50 females), with ages between 9 and 12 years were selected. All of them were students who were studying in fifth to seven standard in a school in the North India. Data of male and female students was compared by unpaired t-test. Significant differences were not found in social, academic and parental self-esteem, but when data of male participants were compared with the female participants the general self-esteem of females was found to be higher than males (p<0.05). In conclusion, there was not any gender differences found in the overall self-esteem in the pre-adolescence period”.

**Studies related to Emotional Intelligence:**

“Sethi and Patel (1985) found that teachers with high scores on creativity, intelligence and emotional maturity were more effective than those with low scores on these variables”.

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“Mayer and Geher (1996) studied emotional intelligence and the identification of emotion found that participants who agreed more highly with the group consensus and with the target also scored higher than the other participants on scales of empathy and self-reported SAT scores and low on emotional defensiveness. Such results are interpreted to mean that some forms of emotional problem solving require emotional openness as well as general intelligence”.

“Martinz (1997) studied about the relation of emotional intelligence with selected areas of personal functioning, it revealed that emotional intelligence is positively related with an adaptive form of goal-orientation, life satisfaction and negatively influences on depression”.

“Abraham and Rebecca (2000) studied the role of job control as a moderator of emotional dissonance and emotional intelligence outcome relationship. In the study job control and self-efficiency were theorized to jointly affect emotional dissonance. Individual with high self-efficiency were found to be more satisfied under conditions of little job control. Emotional intelligence and job control explained significant amounts of the variance in both job satisfaction and organizational commitment”.

“Ciarrochi, Chan and Bajgar (2001) examined the concept of emotional intelligence in adolescents. It was found that emotional intelligence in adolescents was higher for females than males and was positively associated with the skill of identifying emotional expressions, amount of social support, extent of satisfaction with social support and mood management behavior”.
“Ciarrochi, Deane and Anderson (2001) hypothesized that emotional intelligence would make a unique contribution to understanding the relationship between stress and three important mental health variables, depression, hopelessness, and suicidal ideation. University students (n=302) participated in a cross-sectional study that involved measuring life stress, objective and self-reported emotional intelligence, and mental health. Regression analyses revealed that stress was associated with greater reported depression, hopelessness, and suicidal ideation among people high in emotional perception (EP) compared to others; and greater suicidal ideation among those low in managing others' emotions (MOE). Both emotional perception and managing others' emotions were shown to be statistically different from other relevant measures, suggesting that emotional intelligence is a distinctive construct as well as being important in understanding the link between stress and mental health”.

“Pradhan, Mishra and Mathur (2001) reported that emotional literacy is positively related to general health and quality of life. People high on emotional literacy skills maintain better health and have a positive quality of life”.

“Saklofske, Austin and Minski (2002) investigated a short self-report emotional intelligence measure was completed by a sample of 354 students, who also completed a range of affective and personality measures. A subset of the group also completed an intelligence measure. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis of the emotional intelligence scale suggested a hierarchical factor structure with a super-ordinate emotional intelligence factor and four lower-level factors. Emotional intelligence was found to be negatively and significantly
correlated with Neuroticism, and positively and significantly correlated with extraversion, openness, agreeableness and conscientiousness. Correlations of emotional intelligence with the other measures were in accordance with theoretical expectations; for example, positive with life satisfaction and negative with depression-proneness. Most of these correlations remained significant when the effects of personality were controlled for. These results and regression modeling show that emotional intelligence accounts for variance in these measures not accounted for by personality. Emotional intelligence was found not to be significantly correlated with cognitive ability. The relationship between emotional intelligence and alexithymia was investigated using structural equation modeling and factor analysis. The results indicated that the two constructs are distinct, although strongly correlated”.

“Slaski and Cartwright (2002) studied health performance and emotional intelligence of retail managers and found that managers who scored higher in emotional quotient suffered less subjective stress, experienced better health and well being and demonstrated better management performance”.

“Egan (2005), investigated emotional intelligence personality, alexithymia, life satisfaction, social support and health related measures were assessed in Canadian (N=500) and Scottish (N=204) groups. Emotional intelligence was found to be negatively associated with alexithymia and alcohol consumption and positively associated with life satisfaction and social network size and quality. The relative strengths of emotional intelligence and personality as regression predictors of health-related outcomes were investigated
for a subgroup of Scots. The results of the analyses show that emotional intelligence was more strongly associated than personality with social network size, but social network quality, life satisfaction, alcohol consumption; number of doctor consultations and health status were more strongly related to personality”.

“Gerits, Derksen, Verbruggen and Katzko (2005), reported a two-year longitudinal study on the emotional intelligence profiles of 380 nurses caring for clients with highly frequent and extremely severe behavior problems. The aim of the study was to identify emotional intelligence cluster types for those nurses reporting the fewest symptoms of burnout, the least absenteeism due to illness, and the least job turnover. A repeated measure ANOVA was undertaken using a 0.05 level of significance. The fewest symptoms of burnout were reported by female nurses with relatively high emotional intelligence profiles and relatively low social skills. Males with higher problem-solving and stress-tolerance skills also showed less burnout. No specific cluster types with a significant relation to absenteeism due to illness or job turnover could be identified”.

“Pradhan, Bansal and Biswal (2005) studied on 50 postgraduates (25 male and 25 female) from various departments of Delhi University. The study reported that there exists a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and personal effectiveness”.

“Zeidner, Zinovich and Roberts (2005) examined academically gifted (N = 83) and non-gifted (N = 125) high school students from Israel to compare mean emotional intelligence scores, various assessment procedures, and relations between emotional intelligence and ability, across different populations.
Participants completed the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), the Schutte Self-Report Inventory (SSRI), and the Vocabulary subtest of the Hebrew version of the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-Revised (WISC-R-95). Gifted students scored higher on the MSCEIT, but lower on the SSRI. Findings suggest that individual differences are measure dependent, with the profile of scores variable across emotional intelligence assessment procedures. Concepts assessed by the MSCEIT resemble a type of intelligence, whereas findings with the SSRI are problematic from this perspective”.

“Moss and Ritossa (2006) investigated the principle of regulatory fit implies that managers should demonstrate more transformational leadership and refrain from critical or detached behavior, if their subordinates exhibit a promotion focus or extraverted personality. Furthermore, emotional intelligence should enhance the capacity of managers to adapt their leadership style and accommodate these characteristics of employees. To assess these propositions, 263 pairs of managers and subordinates completed questionnaires that assess the emotional intelligence and leadership style of the manager as well as the regulatory focus and organizational commitment of the subordinate. Critical, detached leadership was especially likely to be inversely related to the commitment of subordinates who demonstrated a promotion focus. Nevertheless, relative to other managers, individuals who reported emotional intelligence were not more likely to demonstrate transformational leadership, or abstain from critical, detached behavior, when their subordinates focused on promotion. A second study, in which 166 pairs of nurses and their supervisors participated,
revealed that managers who claimed to understand the emotions of other individuals seemed to curb their critical, detached behavior when their subordinates were extraverted. Taken together, these findings suggest that emotional intelligence might enhance the capacity of managers to adapt their leadership style appropriately, but only in some contexts”.

“Mikołajczak and Luminet (2008) explored whether trait emotional intelligence also influences the anticipation of stressful events. The results indicate that high trait emotional intelligence individuals exhibit greater self-efficacy to cope and appraise the situation as a challenge rather than a threat”.

“Rajendran and Arunmozhi (2008) studied the influence of age, marital status, and type of family, community and family status on the emotional intelligence of self-help group member. Emotional intelligence scale was administered on a random sample 305 women self-help group members. The self-help group members do not differ in their emotional intelligence based on their age, marital status, type of family, community and family status”.

“David and Roy (2010) examined the effect of emotional intelligence on teacher competencies at secondary school level of education. The sample consists of 80 secondary school teachers of Secunderabad city. The analysis revealed a moderate relationship between emotional intelligence on teacher competencies at secondary school level”.

“Herodotou, Kambouri and Winters (2011) examined the role of trait emotional intelligence in gamers preferences for play and frequency of gaming in a sample of 1051 young adult US/European gamers, who play frequently the
online massively multiplayer game, World of War craft (Wow). Trait emotional intelligence was shown to predict social and achievement preferences for play as well as frequency of gaming. In particular, trait emotional intelligence was positively correlated to a preference for social practices and negatively correlated to a preference for achievement-oriented, instrumental practices. These findings advocate that gamers preferences for play are in accordance with their emotion-related personality characteristics. Trait emotional intelligence was also negatively associated with frequency of gaming suggesting that lower scorers on trait emotional intelligence is more likely associated with more frequent game use”.

“Lane and Wilson (2011) investigated relationships between trait emotional intelligence and emotional state changes over the course of an ultra-endurance foot race covering a route of approximately 175 miles (282 km) and held in set stages over six days. A repeated measures field design that sought to maintain ecological validity was used. Trait emotional intelligence was defined as a relatively stable concept that should predict adaptive emotional states experienced over the duration of the race and therefore associate with pleasant emotions during a 6-stage endurance event. Thirty-four runners completed a self-report measure of trait emotional intelligence before the event started. Participants reported emotional states before and after each of the six races. Repeated measures ANOVA results showed significant variations in emotions over time and a main effect for trait emotional intelligence. Runners high in self-
report trait emotional intelligence also reported higher pleasant and lower unpleasant emotions than runners low in trait emotional intelligence”.

“Khanifar, Maleki, Nazari and Emami (2012) studied the relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout. Sample size of 84 was selected that answered to two standard questionnaires of Mayer and Salovey emotional intelligence and Maslesh burnout inventory. For analyzing of data and determining the type of relationship between the study variables average tests of a statistical society, Spearman correlation coefficient and Freedman test were applied. The results show that in the statistical society of the study, there was a negative meaningful relationship between self-controlling and social skills and reducing of success feeling, that with due attention to theories and review of literatures but contrary to what was expected analyzing of data shows that in the statistical society, there was a positive relationship between self-controlling, sympathy, social skills, emotional exhaustion and being emptied from personality characteristics. Findings show that in the statistical society, emotional intelligence and burnout were in bad states; also all of the emotional intelligence components except self controlling that were in an average state, have bad state. From the burnout components, emotional exhaustion and reducing success feeling had bad conditions and being emptied from personality characteristics had good conditions”.

“Rahgozar and Fazlallah (2012) studied the relationship between emotional intelligence and decision making styles for the higher school principals in Shiraz. The main hypothesis of the research was that, is there any relationship
between emotional intelligence and decision making styles? So, emotional intelligence as independent variable (predictor) and decision making styles as dependent variable (criterion) had been studied. The method of research was descriptive as correlation type. The statistical population was 800 higher school teachers and 60 principals in Shiraz, 260 teachers and 52 principals of whom were randomly sampled. Two questionnaires (Shering and Decision making questionnaires) were used to determine the emotional intelligence and decision making styles. The validity was measured according to the attitudes of previous researches, practitioners and experts. Reliability was measured based on cronbach’s Alpha coefficient. Data include: statistical indexes (drafting the tables, amplitude, amplitude percentage, diagrams and graphs), deductive statistics (one-sided variance analysis test, KHI2 test). The first hypothesis was confirmed with 95% reliability, indicating that there was a relationship between emotional intelligence and decision making styles. It was shown that there was a significant correlation among following parameters of emotional intelligence with 95% reliability: self excitement, self control, social intelligence. There was not a significant relationship between two parameters (social skills and self awareness) and decision making style with 95% reliability”.

“Emdady and Bagheri (2013) studied relation between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction of men and women employees. 56 people were chosen random stratified and their data were collected. To analyze the data, Pearson correlation, regression analyzes and independent t was used. Results showed that there was a relation between emotional intelligence and job
satisfaction. The relation between job satisfaction and each of the emotional intelligence criteria (self-awareness, self-control, and social skills) were upheld and it became clear that there was no significant difference between men and women emotional intelligence and job satisfaction”.

“Gondal and Husain (2013) studied the cognitive and emotional aspects of intelligence and its related behavioral and psychological outcomes on employees performance. The study reveals interesting findings about the nature of the relationship between individual intelligence quotient level and their respective performance. Indicating a new line of research that intelligence quotient was found to be insignificantly related with employee performance revealing that intelligence quotient alone was not sufficient for the success of employees. Whereas, emotional intelligence was found to have significant relationship with employee performance signifying that emotional intelligence was more important than intelligence quotient at workplace”.

“Goswami and Talukdar (2013) studied the relation between emotional intelligence and job stress among engineer at public sector organization. It was hypothesized that there will be significant influence of emotional intelligence on stress level among engineers. Data was collected from a sample of N=30 from engineers working a public sector organization at managerial level at Assam. The mean and SD values were calculated and found to be moderate in case of stress level and higher in case emotional intelligence level. Regression analysis showed that influence of emotional intelligence was significant in occupational stress level among engineers at managerial level”.

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“Umadevi (2013) studied the relationship between emotional intelligence of adolescents with selected personal social variables. The sample consisted of 200 adolescents in the age range of 16 to 18 year. Results of the study revealed that majority of the adolescents came under above average and average in emotional intelligence levels. It was surprising to note that adolescents who were hailing from joint families were highly emotionally intelligent possessing the qualities like self-regard, independence, interpersonal skills, being empathetic, flexible and adaptable with high stress tolerance. It was also evident from the results that adolescents who were from large families were good at adaptability and stress management than adolescents of small families”.

STUDIES RELATED TO ROLE-CONFLICT:

“Boles, Johnston and Joseph (1997) studied the inter-relationships of role conflict, role ambiguity, work family conflict, emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction and propensity to leave in a sales environment. Results indicate that: role conflict was significantly related to emotional exhaustion, work-family conflict was significantly related to both emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction; and that emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction were related to salesperson propensity to leave”.

“Martin (2002) investigated the interrelationships among burnout, role conflict and job satisfaction in a sample of Hungarian health care staff. The study also investigated how these indicators of psychosocial work climate influence respondents’ frequency of psychosomatic symptoms. Findings show that
emotional exhaustion and depersonalization scores were higher, while scores on personal accomplishment was lower as compared to Canadian, Norwegian or US samples. Burnout, particularly emotional exhaustion (p<.001), was found to be strongly related to job dissatisfaction. Schooling was inversely related to satisfaction with the job (p<.05). While job satisfaction was a negative predictor of each type of burnout subscale (p<.001), role conflict was a factor contributing positively to emotional exhaustion (p<.001) and depersonalization scores (p<.001)

“Aziz (2004) studied organizational stress originates in organizational demands that are experienced by the individual. Organizational role stress scale was used on a sample of 264 to explore the level of role stress. Resource inadequacy had emerged as the most potent role stressor, followed by role overload and personal inadequacy. The study found differences in the level of stress between married and unmarried employees on several role stressors. However, level of education did not emerge as a significant differentiator of stressors”.

“Hsieh (2004) studied the implications and influence of role conflict between teachers and part-time administrators at elementary schools, inquires into the differences in degree of role conflict between teachers and part-time administrators coming from different backgrounds Six hundred forty-one teachers with part-time administrators were chosen from public elementary schools in Taipei city as a sample for this survey and were given self-design role conflict
questionnaires. In the analysis of the data, methods such as Factor Analysis, t test, and Analysis of Variance procedure were used to analyses or generalize the related information and data. The conclusions were as following: First, about the current situation of role conflict. The role conflict of teachers with part-time administrators at elementary schools was below moderate level. Second, about the relation between the background variable and role conflict. The role conflict of unmarried male teachers with no children with part-time administrators was higher than married female teachers having children with part-time administrators. The role conflict of teachers below 30 years old was higher than for others. Teachers who have less than five years as part-time administrators had higher role conflict of whole, society, and administrators. Teachers who graduated from normal schools or junior normal colleges had higher conflict of whole, administrative role, and social role. Teachers in the office of general affairs and the office of students had higher conflict between administrative roles and professional roles. Also, the role conflict among teachers with part-time administrators from schools of different scale revealed no significant differences”.

“Koustelios (2004) examined role conflict, role ambiguity, and job satisfaction among Greek physical education teachers, and the extent to which role conflict and role ambiguity predict job satisfaction. All members of the sample of 61 physical education teachers were employed in Greek Sport for all programs. The standard multiple regression analysis showed that role conflict and role ambiguity were significant predictor of job satisfaction”.

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“Abraham (2005) studied that includes two samples, university professors including all women associate or full professors in Israel's three main universities, and secondary school teachers drawn from the same cities. The sample includes 40 professors and 72 teachers. Role conflict was measured as the dependent variable revealing three distinct factors; the impact of children on the functioning of workers, generalized perception of home-work role conflict, and the positive aspect of role combination. The independent variables included the perception of home burden (divided into three domains: burden of home-making, burden of dependents, and burden of outside tasks, the time allotted to domestic roles, work burden, work time, and perceptions of relative importance of gender roles. Those conducting the study hypothesized that women who work in male-typed occupations do not report stronger role conflict than women who work in female-typed occupations. Domestic work seems less burdensome for women who work in male-typed occupations. The findings did in fact support the hypothesis. Results show that professors spend less time on house work and on their dependents and they work longer hours outside their homes than teachers. (Because of demographic characteristics the job of professor was considered the male-type job and the secondary teacher was considered the female-type job.) Teachers were found to attribute more importance to women's family roles and less importance to their work roles, thus they spend more time on domestic activities and less time at work than professors”.

“Donald (2005) investigated that people assume muscular men were more masculine. This assumption was tested quantitatively in 2 studies. In study 1 men
and women completed measures of gender role traits and behaviors, whereas in study 2 men completed of gender role conflict and traditional attitudes about men. Study 1 revealed a correlation between self-rated male-typed traits and behaviors with a need to be more muscular for both men and women. In study 2, men with more traditional attitudes about men also wanted to be muscular; men who wanted to be more muscular were experiencing conflict with regards to society expectations that they were successful, powerful and competitive, and they reported that finding a balance between work and leisure was difficult”.

“Johanna (2005) investigated the rank-order stability and cross-lagged relations between work-to-family conflicts, family-to-work conflict, and psychological well-being were examined in two longitudinal studies with full two-wave panel designs. In Study 1 (n = 365), the time lag was one year, and in Study 2 (n = 153), six years. The structural equation modeling showed that the stability for work-to-family conflicts was .69 over one and .73 over six years. The respective stabilities for family-to-work conflict were .57 and .48. Cross-lagged relations were not detected between work-to-family conflicts/family-to-work and low psychological well-being (job exhaustion, marital adjustment, parental stress, and psychological distress), expected to exist on the basis of the integrative model of work–family interface. Instead, high job exhaustion preceded high psychological distress, both within one- and six-year time lags, and within a one-year time lag: low marital adjustment preceded high psychological distress, and high psychological distress preceded high parental stress. These findings
supported the spillover perspective on work-family interface mechanisms linking work and family: clarifying the relationship between work and family constructs”.

“Kristina (2005) aimed to get a better understanding of the nature of social worker adjustment to their new work environment. The main purpose was to identify tactics that human service organizations use for socializing newly hired social workers, to assess the relationship between various socialization tactics, and the outcomes of role conflict and ambiguity. A survey was administered to 210 Masters of social work students from two successive annual graduating classes of a major southern university. The questionnaire included measures of socialization tactics and role conflict. Among the tactics used to socialize social worker into human service organizations were serial, investiture, collective, random and informal. Results indicate that socialization tactics affect role conflict. Specifically, individual, investiture and fixed tactics lead to lower role conflict”.

“Ming (2005) investigated the relationship between real and ideal gender role conflict with psychological distress. 142 men evaluated their current level of gender role conflict, their ideal levels of gender role conflict and a measure of psychological distress. Result showed that real and ideal gender role conflicts were positively correlated and participants expressed a desire for less gender role conflict in their lives. Distress was most highly related to a pattern of high real and high ideal gender role conflict which was termed consistency”.

“Robin (2005) studied on multiple roles such as parent, spouse, and worker for each gender and how mental health is affected by these roles. In-depth
interviews were conducted with 40 employed married parents who had previously participated in a community panel study of mental health. The survey data made it possible to assess sex differences in distress. Belief questions were included in the follow-up interview to determine what each person saw as the meaning of roles as worker, spouse, and parent. The results of the study showed that women receive fewer health advantages of combining multiple roles than men because of the perceived relationship between work and family roles in respect to gender differences. Women seem to be more distressed by the acquisition of multiple roles because of their perspective on the affect of multiple roles. Most women in the study felt that employment was a negative thing because it prevented them from adequately fulfilling their primary role as spouse and caregiver. Men on the other hand felt less distress because they saw their jobs as a foundation of their family roles. Men and women were found to have different aspects on role conflict which led to different levels of distress”.

“Wade (2005) examined the impact of gender role conflict on the perceived social support in a sample of older men aged 40-86 men completed a survey measuring gender role conflict and multi dimensional social support. Canonical correlation was used to explore possible dimension between four gender role conflict factors and differing dimension of social support only one canonical variate was interpretable and indicated that all four sub scales of gender role conflict scale appeared inversely and significantly related to emotional support, affective support and positive social interaction. These findings suggest that gender role conflict in older men may limit their perception of the availability
of social support by restricting men ability to appreciate the beneficial effects of supporting relationship”.

“Acosta (2006) investigated gender role conflict was a psychological state where an individual gender role identity had negative effect on person and that person relationship with others. The construct of gender role conflict was explored and its impact on psychological distress was assessed in the study. Psychological distress was defined by characteristics of depression, aggression, lack of emotional expression and lack of emotional experience. In the study males were assigned into one of two group high gender role conflicted males and low gender role conflicted males based on Gender Role Conflict Scale. The multivariate analysis of variance was performed to explore whether gender role conflict males significantly differ across the depression, aggression, lack of emotional expression and lack of emotional experience. Findings indicate that men who were highly gender role conflicted experience more psychological distress, as defined by depression, aggression, lack of emotional expression and lack of emotional experience than low gender role conflicted males”.

“Anisa (2006) studied on gender constructs of married couples and how it affects decisions concerning work and family. In the study there were 61 married couples who encountered important work and family decisions in the last 6 months. The staff determined which couples were eligible for the study based on specific criteria which would place the participants in a group that could be used for comparison. It was a longitudinal study with the first part of the study done in 1990 and the second part of the study a year and a half later. In the first part of the
study husbands and wives were asked to separately complete a mailed questionnaire including quantitative measures such as marital satisfaction, decision satisfaction, work satisfaction, gender ideology, and stress, and qualitative measures where they were asked to briefly describe outcomes to previous decisions. Forty-four of the 61 couples were located and participated in the second part of the study. The study included open-ended telephone interviews concerning their previous work and family decision. He took each couple information through a systematic process of analysis, focusing on perceived decisions, actual decision, and statements made about gender roles. Results showed that the basis for perceptions of work and family decision depends on their beliefs about gender in marriage. A part of this gendered experience pointed to the expectations each person had for the other person in the relationship. In the study husbands and wives had different views on wives abilities as economic providers. Much variability was found in the way couples constructed the meaning of men's and women's roles at home and at work. This leads toward high life satisfaction. Interpersonal processes were also found as a factor in beliefs and attitudes of gender and work patterns within marriages”.

“Cinnamon (2006) investigated work–family conflict among 187 Israeli women teachers to better understand relationships between teacher professional and family lives. The research examined perceived importance of work and family roles and effects of stress and support variables on work-family and family-work conflict. Additionally, effects of teachers years of experience and school level (primary, junior and senior high) on work-family conflict were
examined. Cluster analysis revealed that many teachers attributed high importance to both roles and had higher work-family than family-work conflict. Relations between teacher stress and support variables and work-family conflict diverged from patterns found in other occupations. School level and teachers experience contributed to explaining the conflict”.

“Shahrenaz (2006) examined the extent of role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload reported by middle managers from 21 nations was related to national scores on power distance, individualism, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity. Role stresses varied more by country than by personal and organizational characteristics. Power distance and collectivism were negatively related to role ambiguity and positively related to role over”.

“William (2006) examined Asian cultural and psychological factors related to gender role conflict for Asian American men. In the web based study, 192 Asian American men completed Gender Role Conflict Scale, Asian Value Scale and Rosenberg Self-Esteem Inventory. Correlation results suggest endorsement of Asian cultural values was related to higher scores on gender role conflict; self-esteem was negatively related to psychological distress and psychological distress was positively related to gender role conflict scale subscale. A simultaneously regression gender role-conflict scale subscales as criterion suggest endorsing Asian cultural value was related to all gender role conflict scales expect conflict between work and family”.

“Pandya (2007) studied on a sample of medical representatives representing a cross-section of pharmaceutical companies, the study had two
major objectives: identification of the significant determinants of role-conflict, role clarity, quality of supervision, job tension and job satisfaction, investigation of the strength and direction of relationships between role conflict, job tension, job satisfaction and their correlations with role conflict, role clarity and satisfaction with clarity of supervision, as perceived by the salesmen. The study set out to test a number of hypotheses on these relationships, all of which were confirmed”.

“Douglas (2008) explored the potent sources of stress for a sample of teachers, investigated the differences in stress predictors for men and women, and examined the consequences of stress for men and women. Twenty-five public school teachers participated; sixteen of these were women and nine were men. The study was conducted through interviews with the teachers. Stressors were categorized under three broad categories: job-related factors, interpersonal factors, and general organizational factors. The interviews sought to determine the perceived role demands that an individual was unable to satisfy and the extent of symptoms of strain. Results indicated that quantitative role overload was the stress most frequently experienced by the subjects, followed by role ambiguity and role conflict. Stressors generally tended to be more potent for women than for men. Job variety, job responsibility, and interpersonal characteristics were found to be salient stressors for women. No stressor appeared to be salient for men. Organizational stressors were minimally potent among both men and women. While women were experienced to role, stress in comparison to men, stress resulted in the experience of psychological strain for human.
Stress had predictable on men. For lady, however, role stress was inversely related to physiological and behavioral strain symptoms”.

“Karen (2008) investigated a sub sample of 599 women and 753 men were used in the study to examine the differential exposure hypothesis which claims that roles were sources of stressors with respect to gender that impact well-being, and the differential vulnerability hypothesis which claims that gender differences in well-being are sources of social roles in men and women. It focuses specifically the effects of work on well-being. The variables considered include: statuses and roles, social and psychological resources (self-esteem, job satisfaction, and social integration), and well-being. Two work characteristics were considered. Work complexity was an assessment by the workers of whether or not their job was interesting and provides them with opportunities to do what they were good at. Control is the degree to which the workers feel the job allows decision-making and gives them control. Well-being was measured by analyzing psychological distress and happiness. Role and status variables were included as controls in the analysis. Some subtle gender differences were found in the consequences of employment characteristics and this tends to support the differential vulnerability perspective. But at the same time, when the variables were controlled, there were differences in exposure which may account for gender differences in well-being. Men's jobs were seen to be more complex than women's who increases the happiness of both men and women. Men benefit more from control in jobs and women benefit more from substantive complexity. But the
general conclusion was that both control and substantive complexity enhance well-being”.

“Dasgupta and Das (2010) investigated the organizational role stress among married and unmarried working women involved in masculine (police), feminine (nurse) and neutral (teacher) type jobs. The sample consisted of 120 working women (60 married and 60 unmarried women); 20 of each group were involved in occupation of police; 40 were (20 married and 20 unmarried) included from teachers profession and 40 were (20 married and 20 unmarried) included from nurse profession. The subjects were selected on the basis of inclusion criteria. General Health Questionnaire was administered for screening purpose. Organizational Role Stress was administered on the final sample. Results revealed that irrespective of their marital status teachers suffered from organizational role stress much more than any other group. Furthermore, the results revealed that married working women suffered much more from organizational role stress than unmarried working women, irrespective of their sex-typing of job”.

“Jain, Kausik and Behmani (2010) examined the different problem of working women facing in present scenario. Result show that there was a positive relation between self-efficacy and personal accomplishment”.

“Khokhar and Chatterjee (2010) studied the role stress of working women. High role stress leads towards suicide ideation in general but neurotics and introverts are more prone to the effects of high stress in relation to suicide ideation”.
“Idris (2011) studied the over time effects of three role stressors (role overload, role ambiguity, role conflict) on psychological strain among Malaysian public university academics. Based on transactional model of stress it was hypothesized that the three role stressors would predict changes in psychological strain over time. The study used hierarchical regression analyses to obtain the result. The results revealed that role overload and role ambiguity predict strain over time but not role conflict”.

“Brown and Sumner (2013) studied utility of role conflict and expansionist theories in explaining the work-family interface using psychometrically sound instruments. Results indicated that the quality of the life roles was a better predictor of both work-family conflict and work-related stress than was the number of life roles. For both, results indicated that as quality of the work role increased, work–family conflict and work-related stress decreased”.

**STUDIES RELATED TO LIFE SATISFACTION:**

“Burke (2001) examined the relationship of managerial and professional women perception of organizational values supportive of work-personal life balance in their workplace and their work experiences, work and non-work satisfactions and psychological well-being. Data were collected from 251 women using anonymous questionnaires. Managerial women reporting organizational values more supportive of work-personal life balance also reported greater job and career satisfaction, less work stress, less intention to quit, greater family satisfaction, fewer psychosomatic symptoms and more positive emotional well-
being. Interestingly, perceptions of organizational values supportive of work-personal life balance were unrelated to hours and extra-hours worked and job involvement”.

“Mannheim (2004) investigated the work-role centrality in Israel women. The results show that these women generally were highly work-centered, autonomous and rewarded and experience little work overload. Employment status, job scope, job autonomy and career anchorage, as well as job rewards, especially intrinsic, were strongly related to work role centrality. Family characteristics were not related to work role centrality. Despite their demanding jobs, those women still perform the traditionally feminine tasks in the family, even when husbands were supportive. Employment status was an important intervening variable in the relationship of work role centrality and jobs characteristics”.

“Chow (2005) investigated a questionnaire survey of university students life satisfaction in Regina. The results showed that a significant proportion of the 315 respondents were satisfied with their lives (N = 240, 76.2%). With regard to degree of satisfaction with different aspects of life, respondents expressed that they were most satisfied with relationship with mother, living environment, relationships with close friends, relationships with siblings, and living arrangement. Multiple ordinary least-squares regression analyses revealed that respondents who indicated a higher socio-economic status, achieved a higher grade point average, and were more satisfied with their academic experience,
self-esteem, relationship with significant other, and living conditions, expressed a markedly higher level of satisfaction with life”.

“Debra (2005) studied the impact of staff commitment on the outcomes of quality of care in residential care. The significant predictors of family satisfaction and life satisfaction were family member age and relationship to elder. The findings suggest that both these variables were tied to belief that family members have their own responsibility for care which may in turn influence their life satisfaction with care”.

“Dush (2005) examined the links among the relationship status, relationship happiness, and latent measure of life satisfaction. Using the study of marital instability over life course the he found that married individuals reported the higher level of life satisfaction followed by the individual in cohabiting relationship, causal dating relationship and individual who dated infrequently or not at all. Individuals in happy relationship reported a higher level of life satisfaction than did individual who did individual in unhappy relationship irrespective relationship status. Even with this relationship happiness controlled, however relationship status was associated with life satisfaction”.

“Kimberly (2005) investigated professional and non-professional women were compared on traits desired in partner, relationship satisfaction and attachment style and career motivation. Participants were between 21 and 61 years of age and of various ethnic and socioeconomic statuses. Contrary to expectations, Professional and Non-Professional women did not differ on traits
desired in a partner, relationship satisfaction and attachment style. Consistent with
the hypothesis, Professional and Non-Professional women differed in term of
career motivation. Professional status traits desired in partner, relationship
satisfaction, attachment style and career motivation together explained a
significant portion of variability in relationship satisfaction (12%). Traits desired
in partner were not related to career motivation and relationship satisfaction”.

“Leung, Grioanni and Catherine (2005) studied on a sample of Chinese
elderly living in Hong Kong. The sample completed scales measuring life
satisfaction, optimism, self-esteem, relationship harmony, self construal and
expected health and financial status. Modeling revealed that life satisfaction was
predicted by independent and interdependent self construal respectively. In
addition, optimism predicted life satisfaction, directly and indirectly through self-
esteeem and relationship harmony. Financial status mediated entirely the effect of
optimism on life satisfaction. Heath status was predicted life satisfaction.
Optimism was a key contributor to subjective wellbeing because it fosters self
esteem, relationship harmony and positive perception of financial conditions”.

“Sonja (2005) found happy individuals are successful across multiple life
domains, including marriage, friendship, income, work performance and health.
He suggested a conceptual model to account for these findings, arguing that the
happiness- success link exists not only because success makes people happy, but
also because positive affect engenders success. Three classes of evidence- cross
sectional, longitudinal and experimental are documented to test their model. The
results revealed that happiness was associated with and precedes numerous successful outcomes, as well as behaviors parelling success and it leads to life satisfaction”.

“Verne (2005) explored associations among relationship harmony, perceived family conflicts, relational self concept and life satisfaction in a sample of 169 African American and Asian American college women. As hypothesized higher relational self concept or the extent to which individual include the close relationship in their self-concept and relationship harmony scores were predictive of greater life satisfaction, whereas perceived with lower life satisfaction”.

“Landa, Lopez-Zafra, Martínez and Pulido (2006) studied the relationship between perceived emotional intelligence and life satisfaction in university teachers. To assess the nature of these relationships and to predict the factors implied on life satisfaction, positive and negative effects, work satisfaction and alexithymia measures were used. The sample consisted of 52 university teachers (30 men and 22 women) completed the Spanish version of the Trait Meta-Mood Scale for emotional intelligence, alexithymia was measured by the spanish version of the TAS-20 and life satisfaction was measured by SWLS. Also, work satisfaction scale was used JWS, results yield a strong correlation between life satisfaction and TMMS subscales (emotional Clarity and emotional Repair), TAS- 20 subscales (difficulty to describe emotions and external oriented thinking), and work satisfaction scale. Further analyses show that the life satisfaction most significant predictors were positive and negative affect and emotional clarity”.

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“Noor and Naraini (2006) examined the determinants of Malaysian women wellbeing. Specifically, they proposed a theoretical model of women roles and wellbeing made up of roles negatively affectively, conflict and health and statistically validated it in a group of women occupying both work and family roles using life courses approach to roles and wellbeing they further examined the model in women of 3 different age group (age group 20-29 year), (age group 30-39), (age group 40-49). The results also indicated that the predictors of women wellbeing and life satisfaction differ according to their respective age groups”.

“Singh (2006) reported working women bearing dual role responsibility one in family and other at job, when cannot discharge their duties equally efficiently feels tense and continuous tension creates stress which in turn may affect their mental health status and life satisfaction. During middle age some biological changes like menopause, aging coupled with psychosocial factors and work-family conflict may generate irritation, frustration, anxiety, depression etc. in those women. There was a need to assess the mental health status of working middle-aged women so that some programmed interventions may be planned for maintaining and improving the quality of their life. To assess the psychosocial stress, work-family conflict and the level of anxiety, depression, somatic symptoms and social dysfunction of middle-aged female school teachers. A sample of 50 middle-aged female school teachers was selected randomly from 15 government recognized girl's schools of Varanasi city in the year 2001-2002. An interview schedule and two questionnaires namely General Health Questionnaire and Psycho Social Stress Scale were administered simultaneously. Psycho Social
Stress Scale score showed moderate to high level of stress in 54% subjects whereas, 18% cases had low scores while, 28% cases were in between low to moderate level of stress. Anxiety level was observed low in 64% cases and moderate in 32% cases. Depression level was low in 92% cases. Somatic symptom score was moderate in 44% cases while, social dysfunction score had been observed moderate in 80% cases. The overall assessment revealed that though the subjects are normal in general, but a substantial proportion is at risk of developing psychosocial stress generated problems that may affect their mental health”.

“Tremblay et al. (2006) examined the role of subjective vitality and the perception of stress as mediators between general life satisfaction and post-traumatic physiological and psychological health. They found that satisfaction with life positively predicted subjective vitality and negatively predicted perceived stress. There is evidence to show the indirect effect of perceived stress on life satisfaction. For instance, studies show the adverse effects of stress on health, social ties and other related variables which can diminish life satisfaction”.

“Bishay (2007) examined level of job satisfaction (life satisfaction) and motivation was measured by survey in a sample of 50 teachers. A sample of 12 teachers was studied using the Experience Sampling Method (ESM). Teachers were randomly beeped by special pagers 5 times a day for 5 days and completed surveys on mood and activity for each beep, resulting in 190 reports of teachers’ daily experiences. The results show that teachers who work in a school with a selective student body, overall motivation and job satisfaction levels were high.
Based upon the findings, it appears that gratification of higher order needs is most important for job satisfaction”.

“Herold (2007) explored the relationship between the predictability of demographic variables hope, self-esteem, self efficacy and social support on life satisfaction. The size of the sample was 300 age ranging from 18 to 35. Results indicated the factors of hope self-esteem, self efficacy and social support were the predictive variable of life satisfaction of 18-35 year. Self-esteem and self efficacy were found to be most predictive variables of life satisfaction of 27-35 year. Moreover the data indicate that participant between ages 18 to 26 year tended to higher life satisfactions than member of older age”.

“Peter (2007) investigated potential relationship among playfulness, perception of daily hassles and life satisfaction in a population of college teachers. Additionally, the variables of gender, nationality, full-time or part-time teacher status and grade point average were considered relative to key variable of playfulness and life satisfaction. No correlation was demonstrated among playfulness and the secondary variable gender, nationality, full-time or part-time teachers status and grade point average. Regression analysis demonstrated that playfulness and life satisfaction were significantly predictive of each other but perception of daily hassles, gender, nationality, full-time or part-time teacher status and grade point average were not significantly predictive”.

“Ercan and Mehmet (2009) examined life satisfaction of teachers working at primary education in terms of such variables as their gender, whether they do social activities together out of school, status of education, the type of school they
work, whether they were a member of a union, the type of location they work, the region they work. The study consisted of 2116 teachers working at primary schools within the Ministry of Education in Turkey. Life satisfaction scale was used to collect data in the study. Depending on the findings of the study, it was found that life satisfaction of teachers differed significantly in terms of such variables as their gender, whether they were a member of a union, the type of location they live, the region and whether they do social activities together out of school. No significant difference was found at life satisfaction of teachers in terms of the variable of status of education”.

“Janice (2009) explored the association between the leisure satisfactions, work stress and psychological well-being. The sample was taken from secondary school from U.K. Result showed that overall teacher stress arose from 5 main areas role related issues. General health questionnaire was used as tool to measure life satisfaction and stress. A positive relation was come between the amount of work stress and poor psychological health”.

“Jyotsana (2010) studied on 120 young executives between the age of 21 to 26 years working in private sector whose life satisfaction and well-being were low despite of the materialistic success achieved by them. These young executives were trained in mindfulness meditation for a couple of months. The pre and post test design revealed the significant improvement in the life satisfaction and general wellbeing of the participants; hence the significant positive effect of mindfulness had been found”.
“Altınoğlu (2011) studied the academic staff job satisfaction and life satisfaction levels of differentiation were formed by their own working conditions between the different variables to determine whether or not the academic staff working conditions had affected their job satisfaction levels, and in what direction has the effect of life satisfaction been revealed. The sample comprised academic staff in public universities in Ankara Province. The results indicated that there was a relationship between job and life satisfactions. Academic staff in terms of job satisfaction shows no difference with regards to gender and task areas, but differences were found between career and marital status. Thus, single staff and professors had higher levels of job satisfaction. Also, the same variables examined in terms of life satisfaction, sex, marital status, career status and responsibilities among the differences in women and the health of employees in the life satisfaction levels were higher”.

“Telef (2011) investigated the relationship between the self-efficacy, job satisfactions, life satisfactions and burnout of teachers. The sample consists of both male and female teachers. Results indicated that self-efficacy (efficacy for students engagement, efficacy for instructional strategies, and the efficacy for class management) had statistically significant positive relationship with teachers job and life satisfactions, and has a negative relationship with their burnout”.

“Ahan, Tekin and Yarar (2012) examined the self-efficacy and life satisfaction levels of students receiving education in schools of physical education and sports. The population of the study consisted of 263 students, among which
154 were male and 109 were female. For analyzing and interpreting data Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, t-test and one way ANOVA test were used, while for determining the difference between the groups. Tukey test and Multiple Linear Regression test were employed and significance was accepted at p<.05. The findings of the study were that female students have higher life satisfaction levels than male students, while students attending to the second grade had higher life satisfaction levels than fourth grade students. On the other hand, general self-efficacy levels of male students were found to be higher than that of female students. It was also determined that students attending to the fourth grade had higher general self-efficacy levels than those receiving education in the first grade. Availability of a significant relation was determined between life satisfaction levels and self-efficacy levels”.

“Akbari (2012) investigated the existence of stress as well as life satisfaction among working and nonworking women and for that purpose; the sample consists of 80 working women and 80 non-working women as respondents. t test was used. The results show that there was significant difference was observed in physical and family stress among the women. But the role stress was significantly higher among working women than non working women as well as life satisfaction was better among working women than non working women”.

“Kaur and Singh (2013) studied the relationship among emotional intelligence, social intelligence, spiritual intelligence and life satisfaction of teacher trainees. The research was carried out on random sample of 60 teacher trainees of Abohar tehsil (Punjab). The conclusion was that social intelligence and
spiritual intelligence are highly related to each other if emotional intelligence and life satisfaction are having constant. If spiritual intelligence is held constant it has some effect on correlation between other measures. If spiritual intelligence is held constant the relationship between other measures is considerably affected. If both social intelligence and spiritual intelligence are held constant the effect of both the variables can be observed to be considerable”.

“A brief account of preceding studies leads to the conclusion that study of life satisfaction is general and relation to other variables in particular, seems to be developing very fast, touching new areas. Some such new areas include variables viz., self-esteem, emotional intelligence and role-conflict which have not been able to draw adequate attention of educational researchers, especially in India. Thus the investigator planned to conduct the present study in the area which is still least explored”. 