REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND HYPOTHESES

Review of research literature is an important pre-requisite to actual planning and for the execution of any research work before embarking on making a fresh study.

According to Scott and Wertheiner (1932), “Review of related literature may serve to avoid unnecessary duplication and may help to make progress towards the solution of new problems.” Good, Bar and Scates (1941) have stated that survey of related literature helps us to know whether the evidence already available, solves problems adequately without further investigation and thus may save duplication. It may contribute to the general scholarship of investigator by providing ideas, theories and explanations valuable in formulating the problem and also suggest the appropriate method of research.

Realizing the importance of review, Best (1993) says, “a familiarity with the literature in any problem area helps the students to discover what is already known, what others have attempted to find out, what methods have been promising and disappointing and what problems remained to be solved.

In the above context it was thought appropriate to review the relevant facts regarding the variables under consideration. The studies cited, have direct or indirect relation with the variables of well being, emotional intelligence, stress and self-esteem. The review of related literature has been grouped under sub categories:

2.1 Well Being (Research Studies Related to General Areas)
2.2 Well Being and Emotional Intelligence.
2.3 Well Being and Stress.
2.4 Well Being and Self-Esteem.
2.1 WELL BEING (RESEARCH STUDIES RELATED TO GENERAL AREAS)

A basic proposition concerning the determinants of psychological well being was advanced by Jodhoda (1958) who suggested that the existence of overall well being is a function of experience in all important aspects of life such as family, community, vocation and work.

Davies (1984) found that some recreational exercises are proved beneficial to the well being.

Andrews and Parks (1985) proved that psychological and physical well being is complementary to each other. If one gets deteriorated, other cannot remain unaffected. Sound psychological well being is a pre-requisite for good physical well being and vice-versa.

Goode (1985) studied general well being, specifically a health behavioural data base among students in selected predominantly black colleges and universities. The results indicated that there was no significant relationship of age with well being and health behaviour.

McGloshen (1985) conducted a study to assess the factors related to the psychological well being of elderly recent widows. The results revealed that widows who were healthy and active, especially in religious activities, had not worked outside the home during marriage, were not good with previous encounters with grief, and had husbands who died close to home experienced higher psychological well being than other widows.

Turbow (1985) attempted a study to find out the relationship of exercise to academic achievement and sense of well being among college students at California State University. He observed that exercise was not, however, significantly related to satisfaction with various aspects of life to overall sense of well being. But students
who were engaged in aerobic exercises (e.g. jogging and swimming) were significantly more likely than others to be highly satisfied with themselves and their lives and have a higher overall sense of well being.

Hayers and Ross (1986) found that good physical health improved psychological well being. They studied the effect of exercise, overweight and physical health on psychological well being in a telephone survey of 401 subjects. Results revealed that good physical health improved psychological well being.

Koonce (1986) analyzed the effects of a structured wellness programme on physical and mental well being of public teachers and staff members. He observed that there were no significant differences for any mental well being measure.

Scheidt (1986) measured the subjective well being of 989 residents of small towns and found that subjects generally expressed satisfaction with living conditions, social relations and functional health.

O'Rurke (1986) observed no significant relationships between psychological well being, age, ethnicity, marital status or sex of a person in a household.

Archer et al. (1987) found that physical dimension of health was regarded as having the most important effect on overall wellness.

Hamminger (1987) found that aerobic exercise had a more positive sense of well being.

Levitt et al. (1987) carried on a study on social support, perceived control and well being. They concluded that social support was considered simultaneously with health and personal control beliefs in relation to well being. Results suggested that one close support figure may be sufficient to promote well being.

Wetzler and Ursano (1988) found the relationship between
psychological well being and seven physical practices (sleep, physical exercise, breakfast, snacking, relative body weight, smoking and alcohol consumption). Psychological well being was measured as an overall score, with positive and negative feelings as sub-scores. Psychological well being measures were related to favourable health practices and was noted to improve with age.

Wu (1988) studied the relationship between imaginary audience egocentrism and spiritual well being among church-going American-born-Chinese adolescents. Results indicated that for the whole samples, the religious well being dimension of spiritual well being did not correlate significantly with imaginary audience scale and its subscales-transient self and abiding self. This indicated that sense of close relationship with God was not strongly related with the feelings of self-consciousness. Christians were significantly different in religious well being scores.

Stenson (1989) assessed the effect of social support on the well being of single-mothers enrolled in a rural community college. The results indicated that single-mother student, employed part-time, scored lowest on total well being, problems and isolation. There was significant effect on problem from those enrolled in a degree programme for seven or more credits and receiving financial aid. Simple linear and multiple stepwise regressions between components of support and well being showed that: (i) total support had an effect upon problems, loneliness, happiness and total well being; (ii) personal conservation influenced all measures of well being; (iii) relatives influenced isolation, loneliness, happiness and total well being; and (iv) neighbourers influenced total well being.

Wood et al. (1989) reported that men and women differ in emotional/affective measures of subjective well being; women reporting more intensity of emotions.

Dytell et al. (1991) studied a causal analysis of inter-
relationships among exercise, physical fitness, and well being in U.S. Navy personnel. Results revealed that physical fitness was better predictor than exercise of outcomes in women. Fitness tend to mediate the relationship between exercise and well being in females, which both exercise and fitness lead directly to positive health consequences in males.

Landrevilla and Vezina (1992) conducted a comparative study between daily hassles and major life events as correlates of well being in older adults. Results indicated that self-rated health, limitation in daily activities as a result of chronic illness and frequency of daily hassles were related with physical well being.

Harri (1993) examined the mental well being of nurse educators at work. He used a self assessment questionnaire to measure the mental well being of 83 female nurses. 68% of subjects claimed that they were valued very much or moderately at work. Age, marital status, type and length of education and professional experience were not related to mental well being assessment.

Mookerjee (1994) examined the effect of religiosity, social participation and selected demographic variables on perception of well being. The results of his study found that perception of well being was positively related and significantly influenced by perceived financial status, marital status, church membership, frequency of church attendance, social participation and education.

Burke and Mckeen (1995) studied a research model, developed to understand emotional well being among managerial and professional women. Four groups of predictor variables were considered, including personal demographic variables, organizational and situational characteristics, work experience, and work outcomes were fairly consistently and significantly related to self reported emotional well being.
Edward and Roy (1995) found that teachers who have a positive sense of self and healthy psychological well being are more willing to attend to work.

Hart et al. (1995) examined personal and work related factors which contribute to a police officer’s psychological well being within a perceived quality of life framework that integrates personality, coping process and police officers’ positive (beneficial to well being) and negative (harmful to well being) work experiences. Model showed that positive and negative work experience independently contribute to an officers’ perceived quality of life and the organizations.

Singh (1999) conducted a study on well being of Navodaya Vidyalya teachers in relation to their job burnout. Results indicated that male married teachers have a good sense of mental well being than female married teachers. On the basis of tenure of service it was found that female teachers with service tenure from (0-5) years have higher sense of physical, social and emotional well being than female teachers with teaching experience of 10 years and above. On the other hand female teachers having 10 years and above experience had good sense of mental well being but are emotionally exhausted than male teachers after some service tenure. But there is no significant difference between low and high burnout and anxiety of teachers in respect of well being.

Holley (2000) conducted a study on the relationship between caregivers’ stress, social support and well being. The results revealed that the caregivers’ gender was significantly influenced by their perception of stress. Both male and female caregivers reported high level of stress. Male caregivers also reported having a significantly higher perception of tangible support and a more positive self-esteem than female caregivers. The strongest path was between social support and well being.
Taylor (2001) conducted a study to find out the relationship between mattering and psychological well being. Cross-sectional and longitudinal results support the hypothesis that mattering is positively associated with psychological well being.

Aggarwal (2004) observed significant differences in mental, emotional and total well being of male and female teacher trainees. But urban and rural teacher trainees does not differ significantly in physical, mental, social, emotional spiritual and total well being.

Mohan (2004) studied work specific locus of control as a moderator of the relationship between organizational stressors and job related well being and found that men had higher job well being than women.

Moorjani and Geryani (2004) conducted a study on college students of different faculties as science, commerce and arts. Results revealed that students of different faculties have significant difference in their life satisfaction and general well being, but there is no significant gender difference regarding life satisfaction and general well being.

Euince (2005) studied “good life” among older Korean Americans and reported that ageing and immigration have a distressing effect on happiness and only those elderly persons were happy who continuously strive to establish harmony with others coupled with hard work. It was viewed that it was collaboration effort and environment that contribute to well being and role individual efforts was significantly more than that of environmental forces.

Alterman et al. (2007) in their study has looked directly at the factors affecting teacher well being. By using a reliable and validated questionnaire on a representative sample of 2000 teachers in Belgium found that lower pressure of work was related to higher levels of well being. They also found that elementary
school level female teachers had higher well being than men. The research also found years of experience was an important predictor of well being: older teachers had a lower sense of well being than younger teachers.

Kaur (2007) found that university students have moderate level of well being and there is no significant gender difference in their well being.

David et al. (2008) investigated the association of psychological well being and levels of cognitive function in a sample of 11,234 non institutionalized adults. The result revealed that a higher level of psychological well being were associated with better cognitive function.

Sharma (2008) conducted a study of well being among university students in relation to certain personal variables. A sample of 164 postgraduate students was undertaken. The result indicated that the university student have above average level of well being. It also found that female students in art faculty have significantly better in well being than their counterpart male students. But in science stream the male students are significantly better in their well being than university female student. But there is no significant difference in well being of university students belonging to rural and urban areas. As a whole the female university students has a tendency to be having better well being than university male student.

Steptoe et al. (2008) examined that both positive affect and enharmonic well being are directly associated with good sleep and may buffer the impact of psychological risk factor. The relationship are likely to be bidirectional with disturbed sleep engendering lower positive affect and reduced psychological well being and positive psychological states promoting better sleep.

McFarquhar and Bowling (2009) examined the relationship
between psychological well being and measures of active aging in British older people. The results revealed a strong relationship between psychological health and ageing actively. Good psychological health may be allow the elderly to maintain an active and fulfilling lifestyle and reduce isolation and dependence, which in turn may protect against some aspects of poor mental health.

Prentsa (2009) found the relationship between adolescent’s perceptions of their physical qualities and their psychological well being and un-wellness. It is seen that, taking into account physical self identity, male adolescent’s present higher scoring for psychological well being than their female counterpart’s presents. This same relationship was established between 12-14 years old adolescents on the other and between those who do not.

Ramesh (2009) in a study working and non working women explored that non working women are more adjusted than working women-emotionally, socially and health wise. Non working women have more life satisfaction than working women.

Kalia and Sahoo (2010) revealed in study of general well being in relation to gender, birth order and academic achievement of postgraduate students that the main effect of birth order and achievement on general well being is significant; later born students are higher on general well being than first born students; high achieving students are higher in their general well being than low achievement students. They also found that interaction between gender and birth order, gender and academic achievement and birth order and academic achievement does not affect general well being and interaction among birth order, gender and academic achievement of the students does not affect general well being.

Tali (2010) studied the impact of well being on prospective teachers in relation to their learning and decision making styles. A sample of 200 prospective teachers was selected. The result
indicated that prospective teachers having high, average and low level of well being exhibited similar magnitude of preference for activist, reflective, theorist and pragmatist style of learning. Well being of prospective teachers was significantly related with learning styles and decision making styles of prospective teachers.

Kaur (2011) conducted a study on well being of school going adolescent in relation to gender and moral judgment. A representative sample of 250 school adolescents selected. The results found that the adolescents have an above average level of well being and no significant gender difference in well being of adolescents. It also indicated that there is a positive significant relationship between well being and moral judgment among school going adolescents.

The Economic Survey (2010-11) dealing with all as aspects of national development puts a priority to well being in human development process. It encompasses both economic and non-economic dimensions. It is also stated that pro-social behavior promotes development and it is possible through humane approach to development.

2.2 WELL BEING AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Mayer and Salovey (1990) studied the emotional intelligence of more than 3000 men and women of ages varying from teens to 50’s. They found that emotional intelligence showed small but steady and significant increase with age and reaches its peak value at the age of 40.

Lazarus (1991) observed that understanding and being able to apply emotional intelligence, is essential to success in teaching.

Goleman (1995) have theorized that high emotional intelligence would lead to greater feelings of emotional well being.

Martinez-Pons (1997) have stated that there is some
empirical evidence suggest that emotional intelligence is associated with emotional well being and higher emotional intelligence is associated with less depression.

Yate (1997) found that high EQ individuals are on the higher level of success and satisfaction and it is significantly and highly correlated with job performance.

Goleman (1998) explained that an individual’s emotional intelligence can effect one’s work situation.

Menges (1999) reported significant relationship between interactional justice perceptions, organizational commitment, satisfaction and emotional intelligence.

Sehgel (1999) conducted a study on adolescents and reported that psychological well being showed high significant positive correlation with emotional intelligence quotient.

Campbell (2000) concluded that emotional intelligence was positively correlated with responsible risk-taking behaviour, innovation tendency and intuition.

Ciarrochi et al. (2000) found that emotional intelligence may protect people from stress and lead to better adaptation.

Lamanna (2000) reported significant relationships among emotional intelligence, locus of control and depression.

Malek (2000) found a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management style.

Murensky (2000) suggested that emotional intelligence is independent of the cognitive abilities of critical thinking and overlaps with the five personality domains.

Diaz (2001) reported that there was a relationship between individual performance and emotional intelligence.

Encinas, Carlos (2001) found that in terms of ethnicity, the white category people showed a higher level of emotional intelligence than the non-white category.
Palmer et al. (2001) noted that emotional intelligence was moderately correlated with psychological well being and significantly explained some of the variance in psychological well being.

Ahuja (2002) reported no significant interaction between strategies of teaching and emotional intelligence.

Bar-on (2003) found that there was a moderate yet significant relationship of emotional and social intelligence with psychological health.

Brackett et al. (2004) found that emotional intelligence related to positive life experiences, in which life experiences was an amalgamated variable.

Baljit (2004) reported no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement.

De Souza (2004) discussed that in the field of education it becomes essential that teachers should possess a high degree of emotional intelligence so that they are able to become better educators.

Donaldson–fielder and Bond (2004) compared psychological acceptance and emotional intelligence in terms of their ability to predict various well being outcomes (i.e. general mental health, physical well being and job satisfaction). Results indicated that acceptance has a greater association with general mental health and physical well being. Emotional intelligence does not significantly predict any of the well being outcomes, after accounting for acceptance and job control. The results also indicated that neither emotional intelligence nor acceptance is associated with job satisfaction.

Engelberg and Sjoberg (2004) found that emotional intelligence was related quite strongly to social adjustment. Emotionally intelligent adults make better decisions, they live with
integrity, and they use their emotions as a source of energy and direction. They are more effective at solving problems, they collaborate better, are more effective leaders, better spouses and more conscious parents. Interestingly they are not always, “happier” – they are less depressed, but more aware of both comfortable and uncomfortable feelings.

Parker et al. (2004) found some support for emotional intelligence factors and academic performance.

Pathan and Bansibihari (2004) studied the level of emotional intelligence in secondary teachers in relation to gender and age, ranging from 24 to 56 years of age. The results revealed that 98.4% teachers fall under ‘low’ category of emotional intelligence. There is no significant difference between the emotional intelligence of male and female teachers and emotional intelligence is independent of age.

Sinha and Jain (2004) conducted a study on emotional intelligence and its influence on relevant outcomes. They reported that dimensions of emotional intelligence was meaningfully related with job satisfaction, personal effectiveness, organizational commitment, reputation effectiveness, general health, trust, organizational effectiveness and organizational effectively.

Spence et al. (2004) examined the influence of goal self-integration and trait emotional intelligence on students well being and the results revealed that emotional intelligence and goal self-integration are both related to emotional well being.

Van Rooy and Viswevaran (2004) in a recent meta-analysis focusing on emotional intelligence found that emotional intelligence correlated positively with general mental ability, agreeableness, openness to experiences and extraversion. All of these traits have an important impact on academic achievement and the ability to have success in the work place.
Adeyemo and Ogunyemi (2005) identified emotional intelligence and teacher efficacy as critical behavioural factors of teachers to be effective in school environment or classroom.

Austin et al. (2005) in a study on personality, well being and health correlates of trait emotional intelligence found that emotional intelligence is positively associated with life satisfaction and social network size.

Boyd (2005) conducted a study on the emotional intelligence of teachers and students’ perceptions of their teachers’ behaviour in the classroom. The results indicated that teachers’ emotional intelligence levels did not readily align with students’ perceptions of the behaviours associated with emotional intelligence in the classroom. In other words, a teacher who scored well on the EQ test was not necessarily perceived by students as one who displayed emotionally intelligent behaviour in the classroom.

Kaufhold (2005) revealed that teachers who fall under high category of emotional intelligence emphasize the value of positive individual difference, promote the learning of teamwork and problem solving skills and empower children to gain positive social skills and also such social skills boost students’ relation, mutual respect and engagement in classroom learning.

Latha and Ananthasayanam (2005) examined the emotional intelligence and its effect on teacher effectiveness among government aided school teachers. The study concluded that emotional intelligence does not influence the teacher effectiveness in general. Emotional intelligence does affect certain aspects of effective teaching like teachers sense of human and mastery in the subject.

Lyons and Tamera (2005) examined the relationship of ability based emotional intelligence facets with performance under stress of undergraduates. A sample of 126 students was taken. Results
revealed that emotional intelligence differed somewhat for males and females.

Nelson et al. (2005) indicated that an emotionally intelligent teacher learns and applies emotional intelligence skills to improve: stress management, self-esteem and confidence, positive personal change, decision making, leadership, assertion, comfort and commitment which would raise quality of teacher and consequently quality of education.

Upadhyaya (2006) conducted a study on 78 student-teachers to examine the difference in the personality traits of high and low emotional intelligence. The result revealed that student-teachers with low emotional intelligence are more uneasy and worried about future unhappy feeling and failures: are less cautious, irregular and like to take more rest, restrain others, have lack of energy and feel tired and uninterested and conform to the opinion or accepted path taken by most people. Student-teachers with high emotional intelligence are more competent and have more self-confidence, hard working help others, more motivated and energetic.

Usha and Sen (2006) conducted a study on subjective well being in relation to emotional intelligence and locus of control among executives. The result indicated the significant positive correlation between emotional intelligence and subjective well being. The person with high emotional intelligence are happier and more successful in their relation, are capable of striking a balance between emotion and reason.

Darsana (2007) conducted a study to find out relationship between emotional intelligence and certain achievement facilitating variables of higher secondary school students. The results revealed that there is no significant difference between rural and urban students’ emotional intelligence but means of emotional intelligence is high for private school students when compared with that of
government school students. The results also indicated that there is a significant difference between emotional intelligence of girls and boys.

Lordanoglan (2007) examined the relationship among emotional intelligence, leadership effectiveness, professional commitment and job satisfaction. 332 primary school teachers participated in the study which was conducted in Greece. Results showed that emotional intelligence especially the interpersonal and intrapersonal dimensions have positive effect on teachers’ commitment and effectiveness.

Neelkandan (2007) conducted a study to understand the emotional competence of primary school teachers. The primary school teachers have average level of emotional competence. The teachers having higher qualifications are found to have better emotional competence than teachers having essential qualifications only. Also the result showed that there is no significant difference between two categories of sub samples of teachers belonging in respect of their emotional competence.

Schutte et al. (2007) in a meta-analysis of 44 effects sizes based on the responses of 7898 participants found that higher emotional intelligence was associated with better health. Emotional intelligence had a weighted average association of $r=0.29$ with mental health, $r=0.31$ psycho-somatic health and $r=0.22$ with physical health.

Elizabeth (2008) studied the relationship among lifelong learning, emotional intelligence and life satisfaction of older adults. Regression analysis was used. Results indicated that emotional intelligence was most significant with life satisfaction.

Singh and Woods (2008) predicting general well being from emotional intelligence and three broad personality traits examined the joint predictive effects of trait emotional intelligence,
extroversion, conscientiousness and neuroticism on two facets of general well being and job satisfaction. An employed community sample of 123 individuals from the Indian subcontinents participated in the study and completed measures of the five factor model of personality, emotional intelligence, job satisfaction and general well being facets worn-out and up-tight. Trait emotional intelligence demonstrated the strongest correlation with job satisfaction, but predicted general well being no better than neuroticism. In regression analyses emotional intelligence predicted between 6% and 9% additional variance in the well being criteria, beyond the three personality traits. It was concluded that trait emotional intelligence may be useful in examining dispositional influences on psychological well being.

Carmeli et al. (2009) revealed the relationship between emotional intelligence and psychological well being (self-acceptance, life satisfaction, somatic complaints self-esteem). The results of four hierarchical regression model provide in general, support for the positive association between emotional intelligence psychological well being components: self-esteem, life satisfaction and self-acceptance. Only marginal significant support was found for the negative relationship between emotional intelligence and somatic complaints.

Choubey et al. (2009) studied the role of emotional intelligence in predicting stress and health. A heterogeneous sample of 209 adults belonging to different occupational groups in the age of 21 to 50 years were assessed on the self report measures of emotional intelligence, psychological stress, and physical and mental health. The results indicated that emotional intelligence and its various component abilities, in general, are associated with better health outcomes. The result also revealed that emotional intelligence is associated with lower levels of stress. However,
among the four dimensions of emotional intelligence, examined in the present research, the ability to manage best predictor of stress as well as health.

Garg and Rastogi (2009) studied the relationship between emotional intelligence and stress resiliency among students. The study has been conducted on a sample of 140 students having technical backgrounds. The findings suggested that students being emotionally intelligent can lead them to be resilient to stress, which determine their success at personal and professional front. The paper specifies aspects for building resiliency among student from the physiological and psychological point of view.

Indu (2009) conducted a study on emotional intelligence of secondary teacher trainees. The findings revealed that majority of the sample possessed average emotional intelligence. The result indicated that male and female teacher trainees did not differ in their emotional intelligence. The result also showed that there is no significant difference between the emotional intelligence of teacher trainees based on the sub scales type of family and type of institution.

Khokhar and Kush (2009) studied 220 male executives having graduation and post graduation degree. Results showed significant positive correlation between emotional intelligence and commitment to profession in terms of quality of work performance, speed on job, capacity to work, attendance and punctuality.

Sahaya and Samuel (2010) evaluated the influence of emotional intelligence on attitude towards teaching of student-teachers. The sample consists of 87 males and 104 females from two government colleges of education. The findings of the study revealed that there is a significant difference between qualification, community, influence to be a teacher and attitude towards teaching of student-teachers. There is no significant difference between
gender, subject, community, influence of others, previous teaching experience and the emotional intelligence of the student teachers. There is a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and attitude towards teaching profession of student-teachers.

Extremera et al. (2011) replicated and extended previous findings by examining the relationship between emotional intelligence abilities and levels of hedonic and eudemonic well being in a 12-week follow up study. Participants were 349 undergraduate students who completed an ability measure of emotional intelligence, personality questionnaires and hedonic and eudemonic well being measures at time. After 12 week, participants repeated the well being measures at time. Focusing first on cross-sectional analysis, emotional intelligence scores found to be moderately and significantly related to hedonic and eudemonic well being measures.

Por et al. (2011) examined the emotional intelligence and its relationship to perceived stress, coping strategies, subjective well being, perceived nursing competency and academic performance of nursing students in United Kingdom. A prospective correlational survey design was adopted. Three methods of data collection were used: (i) A self-report questionnaire (ii) an audits of student’s academic performance; and (iii) mapping of emotional intelligence teaching in the curricula. Emotional intelligence was positively significantly related to well being, problem-focused coping, perceived nursing competency and negatively related to perceived stress. The finding suggested that increased feeling of control and emotional competence assist nursing students to adopt active and effective coping strategies when dealing with stress, which in turn enhances their subjective well being.

Sharma (2011) revealed in a study of emotional intelligence of school students in relation to mental health that there is no
significant difference in emotional intelligence among male and female students.

Singla (2011) reviewed a study of well being of working and non-working women in relation to their emotional intelligence and stress. A random sample of 200 women was taken. The result indicated that well being of working women is higher than non-working women, but the difference is not significant. It also shows a significant difference in emotional intelligence of both. The working women have more positive stress and less negative stress than non-working women. There is a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and well being of working women but negative and non-significant relationship between emotional intelligence and well being of non-working women. Though the well being of total sample is not significantly related with stress, but the relationship of working and non-working women separately related positively with positive stress and negatively with negative stress, which indicated that higher the well being of women, lower will be the level of negative stress a vice-versa.

2.3 WELL BEING AND STRESS

Mathur (1972) found that the main cause of frustration, mental conflicts which affect the mental health of private aided school teachers are: inadequate salaries; no interest in work; no security of tenure; autocratic management; autocratic supervision; bad family conditions and too many restrictions on their activities.

Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978) found 25% of the teachers’ sampled rating being a teacher as very or extremely stressful.

Dunham’s (1980) results on stress experienced by both English and German teachers showed that they perceived poor staff communication and disruptive pupil behaviour as major source of
Portner (1982) examined that although older teachers reported more physical complaints and recent stressful life events, overall well being was superior to that of the younger teachers.

Hawkes and Dedrick (1983) reported that 90% of the teachers they surveyed indicated some level of stress in their work.

Belcasto and Gold (1984) studied teacher stress and burnout implications for school health personnel and concluded that occupational stress proved to be a serious health risk to teachers.

Harris et al. (1984) indicated that teachers with a humanistic orientation have fewer problems with classroom discipline and are less subject to stress than are those with an authoritarian approach.

Balaston (1985) found a highly stressed teacher as the one working in a rural setting. This finding cannot be generalized to the Indian population as rural setting in U.S.A. and India is vastly different.

Buehler and Hogan (1985) investigated divorce related stressors and well being. Results indicated that parents’ divorce transition was characterised by major role-shifts. For custodial mothers, economic well being correlated negatively with legal stressors.

Delongie (1985) studied the relationship of everyday stress to mental health and well being. He observed that everyday stress was linked with depression, somatic symptoms and health problems. Results indicated that those who received low emotional support from family, friend, co-workers were about twice as likely to develop mental health problems as compared to those who received high emotional support.

Gasser (1985) found no sex differences in teachers’ stress.

Morgan (1985) examined the social and psychological well-
being, pain, functional ability and choice of coping strategies in patients with rheumatoid arthritis. He found that increased use of problem-focused coping was significantly predictor for decreased pain, depression and anxiety.

Chance (1985) on Inner-city rural female teachers found (20 out of 40 factors, such as lack of administrative support, target of verbal abuse, drug and alcohol problems and the like) significantly more stressful than affluent urban teachers. Overall, Inner-city teachers reported higher level of stress than their colleague teaching in affluent suburban schools.

Green (1986) studied psychological well being and coping responses of 197 male officers. The results indicated that the stressful events produced in the narratives in rank order were supervisory conflicts, frustrations with the promotional system, exposure to the brutalities and miseries of life, internal affairs investigations and problems with partners. Self reports of irrational beliefs, years with the department, and the choice of the challenge appraisal were significant predictors of number of days off the job for illness.

Siegal (1986) revealed medicine, psychosomatic medicine and psycho-neuro-immunology have established a relationship between thoughts, feelings and illness. When negative emotions become chronic or are suppressed, they can become destruction to our well being.

Misra (1986) conducted a study on secondary school teachers and found that stress had become a basic characteristic with teachers and burnout becomes their apparent reaction. It was further found that age difference was significant with respect to stress of teachers. Stress was positively related to burnout with respect to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization.

Murphy (1986) found female teachers experiencing more
stress than males in the area of time management and even reported high scores of physical symptoms of stress in teacher relations.

Stephan et al. (1986) conducted a study on staff nurses and found that events related to workload, uncooperative patients, criticism, negligent co-workers, lack of support from supervisors and difficulties with physicians are associated with the feeling of stress for nurses and feelings of job related stress lead to feelings of depression, which ultimately affects their overall well being.

Wallace et al. (1986) in a study on two different groups of elementary teachers found that there are some differences in occupational stress between regular and special education group of elementary teachers.

Martin and Ickovics (1987) studied the effects of stress on the psychological well being of army wives. The data supported the view that both military life stress have important independent relationship to the general psychological well being of army wives.

Porterfield (1987) tried to explore whether sense of humor moderates the impact of life stress on psychological and physical well being. No evidence was found that humor moderates the impact of negative life events on either depression or physical illness. Sense of humor directly mitigates depression only, independent of the effect of life stress.

Burke and Deszea (1988) conducted a study to assess career orientation, satisfaction and health among police officers. Results indicated the self-investors reported greater burnout, greater stress and least satisfying work-setting. They also exhibited poorer individual well being.

Busser (1988) studied the relationship between stress and wellness. Findings indicated that higher stress managers had significant lower wellness levels than low stress managers. The
finding suggested that behaviour pattern may influence wellness levels.

Craddock (1988) studied occupational stress, support at work and psychological well being. Results revealed that supervisors and co-workers’ support directly influence subsequent job stresses, but only supervisor support influence later job strain. Co-workers’ support, job stress and job strain directly affected subsequent psychological well being. Both sources of support as well as job stress and strain have indirect effects on well being. Job stress had a stronger effect on well being than does support.

Emmons and King (1988) investigated the influence of goal conflict and ambivalence on psychological and physical well being through the personal striving frame work. Results indicated that conflict and ambivalence were associated with high levels of negative effect, depression, neuroticism and psychosomatic complaints.

Grant et al. (1988) found the relationship of social support to physical and psychological well being in 118 elderly. The results revealed that subjects with more symptoms of depression reported having fewer emotionally satisfying consistent supports from relatives, but those who had physical illness reported more support from relatives.

Landeweard and Boumans (1988) studied the work satisfaction and feeling of health and stress. Results of the study revealed that subject in cardiac care unit had most positive satisfaction scores and subjects in general surgery work had the most positive scores on the health and stress variables.

Manthei and Solamn (1988) studied the occupational stress of teachers in New Zealand and found the factors which cause occupational stress among teachers were; pupil relations, poor remuneration, curriculum elements, work load curriculum, low
professional recognition, poor working conditions and role ambiguity.

Srivastava and Jagdish (1988) in a study on technical supervisors indicated that supervisors’ perceived occupational stress arising from most of the job components negatively correlates with their job satisfaction and psychological well being.

Borg and Falzon (1989) conducted a study on 844 primary school teachers in Malta. The direct relationship between occupational stress and length of teaching experience was studied. Results indicated that the teachers with 11-20 years of teaching experience were under more stress as compared to teacher with lesser experience.

Verma and Verma (1989) studied that well being showed some degree of positive correlation with quality of life, job satisfaction/general satisfaction levels, sense of achievement etc. and negatively related to neuroticism, psychotics and other such variables.

Heiden (1989) examined occupational stress and activities of school counselors. The results revealed a significant relationship between the overall stress score and providing service to groups of students, lack of decision-making power, lack of financial security, performing non professional duties, job over load and counselor principal relationship. Working in a large secondary school was found to be significantly stressful and women had higher stress scores than men.

Kyraicou (1989) pointed out seven major sources of stress for teachers: poor pupil motivation in school performance, undisciplined behaviour of the pupil, poor career opportunities, low income and shortage of teaching equipment, poor facilities and large classes, low societal recognition of the profession, conflicts with colleagues and supervisors, rapid changes in curricular
demands and adaptation of scholastic programs to change in a rapidly changing society.

Okebukola and Jegede (1989) in a study of 1029 teachers representing urban and rural, new and old schools and single sex and co-educational schools concluded that female teachers were under high level of stress as compared to male teachers. They also concluded that inexperienced teachers were under greater stress than the experienced ones.

The United Kingdom Association of University Teachers study (1990) found that 49% of university employees reported that their jobs were very stressful and 77% reported an increase in occupational stress over recent years.

Borg (1990) reported that up to one third of teachers perceived their occupation as highly stressful.

Punch and Tuettman (1990) undertook a study on Australian secondary school teachers and studied their job related factors that were directly and indirectly related to occupational stress. The factors which caused stress were: lack of efficiency, inadequate access to facilities, lack of colleague’s support, excessive expectations of the society, lack of influence, students’ misbehaviour and lack of recognition.

Malik et al. (1991) found that teaching experience did not account for a significant portion of the variance in the dependent variables of teacher stress.

Friedman (1991) found that women who have more family support from husband, have low stress and emotionally satisfied, are more positively appropriate in psychological well being than others.

Travers and Copper (1991) found teachers to be significantly poorer in mental health in comparison to other highly stressed occupational graphs.
Brown and Ralph (1992) did a major study with British Teacher Union. The study showed that most common sources of teacher stress were: structural change, classroom discipline, heavy workload, lack of resources and poor school management. They further concluded that 70 percent of the teachers experienced occupational stress during the working hours of the job.

Kamau (1992) conducted a study on burnout, locus of control and mental health of teachers in the eastern province of Kenya. The results revealed that urban teachers were less emotionally over tended, less satisfied, more internally controlled, anxious and had a low level of mental health. Government school teachers trained, married and with internal locus of control, more concerned with well being were less anxious, less emotionally overextended and more competent than their counter parts.

Aditya and Sen (1993) examined that when the working women add the so called masculine role to their identity, they add internal conflict which brings in stress leading to decreased efficiency perhaps as a result they experience greater amount of job stress than man leading to reduced well being.

Kaiser et al. (1993) surveyed 235 randomly selected teachers to investigate their sense of well-being in the context of 10 child care activities. Results indicated that child related education, experience and interaction did not influence the overall well-being of teachers. Nurturing children and working with parents were found to be their most enjoyable and least stressful tasks.

Blix and Mitchell (1994) examined the occupational stress of secondary school teachers. The results revealed that: female teachers experienced more stress as compared to their male counterparts; teachers experienced stress related to their work at least half of the time they worked in the institution; faculty having less than 10 years of experience had higher stress than faculty with
more than 20 years of experience.

Krause (1994) examined stressors in salient social roles and well being in later life. A study was conducted on 1077 old subjects and results indicated that stressors arising in highly salient social roles exerted an especially noxious impact on feeling of well being in later life. Salient role stressors affect well being in part by eroding feeling of personal control over the same roles in which the stressors have arisen.

Boyd and While (1994) found that half of the academics in their sample indicated that their work is stressful ‘often or almost always’. In addition, 80% believed that their workload had increased and become more stressful in recent years. Finally 46% expected further increases in workload in the future.

Lai (1995) investigated the relationship of work and family stress with psychological well being. Results indicated the link between work and family psychological distress. Due to centrality of the work roles for the Chinese, work stress exerted a stronger relationship on psychological well being than did family stress.

Wedrich (1995) found that subjects with higher well being have less stress and strain than subjects with lower well being.

Wheeler (1995) examined that teachers with 11-25 years of experience, 6-10 years of experience and more than 25 years of experience as perceived by the pupil perception and support of education, were found to be significantly more stressful than teachers with only one years of experience.

Bingham (1996) assesses teachers’ perceptions of job satisfaction. The most satisfying aspects included work with students and the least satisfying aspect was stress.

Marcy (1996) reported that untenured faculty had higher levels of stress than tenured faculty.

Ryhal and Singh (1996) found higher ranks in teaching
profession experienced maximum stress.

Sultana (1996) found that there was a significant effect of job conditions, working hours, job satisfaction on the psychological well-being of the working women.

Trade Union Congress (1996) conducted a survey and concluded that people working in the voluntary sector and in education were most affected by occupational stress.

Davis (1997) studied that occupational stress among school teachers. The study concluded that private school teachers experienced higher level of stress as compared to government school teachers, public school teachers differed significantly from the private school teachers on the basis of occupational stress. It was further concluded that teachers teaching in bigger size schools had shown more occupational stress as compared to small and middle sized school teachers.

A study in U.K. for Time Educational Supplement (1997) found that 37% of secondary vacancies and 19% of primary vacancies were due to ill-health, as compared to 9% of Nursing vacancies and 5% in Banking.

Chan (1998) examined stress and coping among teachers in Hong-Kong. He found that the type of coping strategies teachers used mediated the effects of stress on their emotional well being.

Gyanani (1998) conducted a study on graduate and postgraduate level educational institution teachers. Results indicated that teachers working in a closed or controlled type of organizational climate experienced more stress and strain than their counterparts working in an autonomous or open type of organizational climate.

Pither and Soden (1998) in a study compared the stress of Australian and Scottish teachers and found that in both groups of teachers, the impact of over work load appeared to be a strong
source of occupational stress. The stress level was found to be average.

Bhatt (1999) investigated the correlation between job stress, job involvement and job satisfaction among public and private primary school teachers of Jamnagar. Results indicated that the primary school teachers’ job stress was highly significantly negatively associated with job involvement and job satisfaction.

Dussault et al. (1999) assessed isolation and stress in 1110 Canadian teachers and found a strong positive correlation between isolation and stress.

Van Dick et al. (1999) questioned 424 teachers from across all German sectors about their work stress, social support and physical illness. It was found that social support had both a direct positive effect on health and a buffering effect in respect of work stress.

Adams (2000) studied the occupational stress and internal characteristics among vocational teachers. The results indicated that illness symptoms and role preparedness were the main factors which caused stress among teachers.

Kaur (2000) made an attempt to study the occupational stress of high and higher secondary school teachers in relation to mental health and coping resources. Teachers were found to be average in occupational stress level. Female teachers found to be more sensitive towards physical stressors as compared to male teachers. Private school teachers were more occupationally stressed as compared to government school teachers. There was no significant difference in rural and urban teacher occupational stress.

In a survey of head teachers by the National Association of Head Teachers (NAHT) (2000), 40% of respondents reported having visited their doctor with a stress-related problem in the previous
year, 20% considered that they drank too much and 15% believed they were alcoholics, 25% suffering from hypertension, insomnia, depression and gastrointestinal disorders.

Alvarado (2001) revealed in a study on pediatric professionals’ psychological well being that increased occupational stress predicted greater emotional exhaustion. Increased self-concept, however, predicted lower levels of emotional exhaustion.

Berg-Weger et al. (2001) studied the relationship of caregiver’s well being and depression among 142 caregivers (age 61 years). They found depression as a mediator between stress and well being.

Catherine et al. (2001) also revealed that teachers in the course of their careers, experience a great deal of stress that may have obvious implication for their physical and mental health status.

Moramble (2001) studied the impact of stress at work places on the well being of the pregnant employees. The result indicated that if employee is pregnant, the tremendous stress affect the well being of the mother and unborn child. The employee who experienced these stressful inconveniences, gave birth to low weight body.

Pandey (2001) found that teaching is a stressful occupation and teachers are at risk for developing burnout syndrome.

Rao and Parthasarathy (2001) investigated the causes and coping resources of occupational stress among teachers. It was concluded from the study that the teachers who were under stress showed various stress reactions like: disturbance in sleep, lack of concentration, irritability, feeling of helplessness, tiredness and worthlessness etc.

Srivastava (2001) concluded in an empirical study of stress among in-service teachers and student teachers. Findings indicated that in-service teachers experienced more stress in comparison to
student teachers.

Tripathi and Singh (2001) concluded that contrary to popular belief, the teaching profession is susceptible to variety of stresses. The results indicated that male and female teachers shared similar patterns of stress in coping with students, colleagues, administration, governments, society and family.

Upadhyay and Singh (2001) examined the occupational stress among college and school teachers. A sample of college and school teachers was selected from the 40 government colleges and secondary schools of Bhopal. The findings of the study showed that the secondary school teachers showed significantly higher level of occupational stress than the college teachers. Poor peer relations were found to be the important cause of occupational stress. School teachers felt the work overload as an important cause of occupational stress than college teachers. The significant difference school and college teachers were on the basis of factors such as powerlessness and strenuous working conditioning.

Akinboye et al. (2002) reported that over 70% of employees world-wide describe their jobs as stressful with more than one in five reporting high levels of stress at work on daily basis.

Bharathi and Reddy (2002) studied the sources of job stress among primary school teachers. It was found from the study that: private school teachers experienced job stress in the domain of time demand and job security, whereas government school teachers experienced job stress in the areas of heavy workload, time demand and work environment. Age, income, teaching experience had insignificant effect on job stress of teachers. Administrative problems, workload and depersonalization were found to be the main sources of occupational stress for both private and government school teachers.

Larchick and Chance (2002) examined that stress affect the
health, well being and performance of teachers.

Phillip et al. (2002) concluded that the interpersonal stressors at workplace have an influence on the well being. Results prove that psychological environment of the workplace has unique effects on well being. Interpersonal conflicts experienced in the workplace also predict diseases and well being declines.

Najma and Ghazala (2003) in a study explored the effects of occupational role stress on the psychological well being and work motivation of medical professionals. Results showed highly significant correlation between role stress scale and well being. However, there was no significant difference in the scores of public and private sector medical professionals on occupational role stress and psychological well being.

Hammond and Sykes (2004) investigated the occupational stress among school teacher. The results indicated that greater accountability of the teachers and high expectations by the parents and authorities increased the pressure on teachers. Work overload and constraints of time were found to be the main causes of occupational stress among teachers.

Sabu and Jangaiah (2005) studied the stress level of adjustment of secondary school teachers in Kerala. The results of the study showed that teachers with high adjustment, experienced low level of stress and the teachers with high level of stress, had low adjustment. Female teachers were under high stress as compared to their male counterparts. Teachers who were above forty five years, experienced more stress. Teachers having postgraduate degree experienced less stress than teachers not having postgraduate degree. The length of experience had no effect on stress among teachers.

Sheena (2005) in a research that compares the experience of occupational stress across a large number of occupations, six
occupations reported worse than average scores on each of the factors, namely, physical health, psychological well being and job satisfaction. These occupations include ambulance workers, teachers, social services, and customer service-call centers, prison officers and police.

Singh (2005) conducted a study on secondary school female teachers to find out the relationship between stress and their work values. The results indicated that work values such as economic return, social service, power, independence and adventure were found to be negatively and significantly correlated with stress. No significant relationship was found between stress and the work values.

Chan (2006) conducted a study on teacher stress, perceived self-efficacy and the three components of burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal achievement) on 156 Chinese secondary school teachers in Hong Kong. The results indicated that teacher stress had a direct, independent and significant effect on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization.

Detert et al. (2006) conducted a research on reducing stress and enhancing the general well being of teachers using T’ai chi chih® Movements: A pilot study. The 23 teachers who completed pre-post tests showed significant improvement of their general well being and reduction in perceived stress symptoms.

Bindu (2007) conducted a study on 500 primary school teachers to study the relationship between job satisfaction and stress coping skills. The result found a positive correlation between job satisfaction and stress coping skill among primary school teachers.

Dev (2007) studied that unmanaged stress has a debilitating impact on employee’s productivity. Stressful working conditions have a direct negative impact on the mental and physical well being
of the work force.

Finalyson (2007) in one of his articles highlighted that levels of stress within the teaching profession are unacceptably high and level of well being is low. The adoption of the most effective practice in support is likely to improve the health and well being of individual teachers.

Latha and Panchanthan (2007) conducted a study on job stress related problems and coping strategies. The results indicated that 73.5% of software professionals have medium level of stress. Job security, job satisfaction and workload are found to impact stress of software professionals.

Milbourne (2007) examined a direct relationship between teacher stress management, ambient working environment and wellness. The observed child teacher showed an improvement after ambient condition than a facility, which showed that child care institutions are better managed when ambient conditions are created.

Piar Chand and Monga (2007) conducted a study to examine the correlates of job stress among university faculty. The overall findings of the study suggested that respondents with internal locus of control, high social support, high job involvement experience less stress. Results also indicated that maximum job stress was reported by professors and minimum by assistant professors.

Tiesha (2007) reported that daily stress and anxiety not only wreaks havoc with our well being but also shortens our liver by contributing to heart diseases, diabetes and cognitive impairment.

Verma (2007) found no significant difference between high and low negative stress groups of female and male senior secondary school teachers of Punjab in relation to their total well being. The study also indicated that male senior secondary school teachers
exhibit higher level of well being than female teachers and there is no significant difference found in well being of teachers across the location of school.

Murray et al. (2008) studied the stressful life events on rural African American women’s relationship well being, psychological functioning and parenting included 361 married or long-term cohabiting women. Association among stressful events, socioeconomic status, perceived racial discrimination, coping strategies, psychological functioning, relationship well being and parenting were tested. Results indicated that stressful events were related directly to diminished relationship well being and heightened psychological.

Yousafzia et al. (2009) studied psychological well being and substances abuse among medical students in Pakistan. Result indicated that majority of the medical students reported a negative impact of heavy workload on their psychological well being. Significant number of medical students thinks substance misuse is a coping strategy for stress. Teaching on addition/addictive substances is poor at undergraduate level in Pakistan medical college and well being has been affected by stress.

Kaur (2009) evaluated a study of well being of school teachers in Punjab in relation to stress and anxiety. A sample of 100 secondary school teachers was taken. The result revealed that there is no significant difference between male and female school teachers in respect of well being, but there is a significant difference between their stress level. There exists a negative but non-significant correlation between well being and stress of teachers.
2.4 WELL BEING AND SELF-ESTEEM

Prince (1958) reported that self-esteem in a certain amount is necessary for the daily transactions with other people.

Rosenberg (1965) found that those low in self-esteem isolate themselves from other more often, tend to be more self conscious and are also more likely to be depressed than those with high self-esteem.

Raina (1970) in an attempt to predict the successful teachers, concluded that self-concept, intelligence, patience are the important ingredients.

Aronson (1980) says that low self-esteem people tend to be more easily persuaded and prone to conformity.

Campbell (1981) indicated the fact that self-esteem is closely connected with feelings of life-satisfaction.

GeCas (1982) is in the view that a person with high self-esteem is both a happier and a more effective person.

Diener’s (1984) reviewed well being studies and found a positive association between self-esteem and well being.

Baumeister and Tice (1989) studied that high self-esteem individuals are more motivated and better able to enhance their self worth in comparison to low self-esteem individual.

Greenberg et al. (1992) reported that self-esteem had been found to function as a buffer which protects against the negative impact of stress and reduces anxiety.

Marciano and Tripola (1991) concluded that the self-esteem building programme lead to significant improvement in self-esteem; that extroversion is strongly linked to higher social participation and self-esteem, more so than introversion.

Gagnon (1993) investigated the influence of perception of family of origin health on individual self-esteem, spiritual well being, marital satisfaction and current family strengths. He found
that self-esteem and spiritual well being can be used together with an accuracy rate of 15% of the known variance in the prediction of perception of family of origin health. Results also revealed that there is a significant gender difference in spiritual well being as females scoring higher in spiritual well being than males.

Given et al. (1993) found not only does optimism have a positive effect on the psychological well being of people dealing with medical conditions, but it also influences the psychological well being of all the people who are acting as caregivers to patients. Optimism was also found to relate to lower symptoms of depression, caregivers’ optimism, thus predicted caregivers’ reactions to the burdens of caring for a family member with cancer.

Kamya (1994) conducted a study to explore the interrelationship of stress, self-esteem, spiritual well being and coping resources among African immigrants to the United States. The results of the co-relational analysis confirmed the hypothesis that there is a significant correlation between spiritual well being and hardiness, spiritual well being and self-esteem, spiritual well being and coping resources. It also accepts that there is significant negative relationship between stress and self-esteem.

Frankel and Hewitt (1994) compared the health status of Canadian university students, who were not involved in campus religious groups. Variables assessed included stress-level, physical health, use of health services, personal values and psychological well being as reflected by affect, mastery and self-esteem. Results indicated a positive relationship between active religiosity and aspects of both mental and physical well being.

Diener and Diener (1995) found that self-esteem was a much stronger predictor of life satisfaction for women in the USA than it was for women in India.

Smith and Petty (1995) found that high self-esteem was
related to positive thinking in an unpleasant situation.

Baumeister et al. (1996) have also found that in some individuals excessively high self-esteem may have negative correlation with aggression.

Chopra et al. (1997) measured neuroticism, well being and self-esteem of high and low procrastinators and found no significant effect on general well being and self-esteem.

Corsun (1999) finally indicated that self-esteem is significantly associated with normative commitment and that self-efficacy is related to performance.

Jagdish and Bhargwa (1999) conducted a study on male clerk-cum-cashiers of various nationalized banks to find out the relationship of occupational stress to self-esteem and achievement motivation. Results revealed that the high occupational stress group scored significantly lower on the measure of self-esteem and achievement motivation in comparison to the low occupational stress group, which indicated that occupational stress had a deleterious effect on the self-esteem and achievement motivation of employees.

Sanyal and Basu-Ghosh (1999) examine professional differences in job satisfaction, adjustment pattern and self-esteem between doctors and engineers. Results indicate no significant difference between the groups in self-esteem and job satisfaction.


Furnham and Cheng (2000) found self-esteem to be the most dominant and powerful predictor of young people’s self reported happiness.
Macfarlane (2000) studied the relationship between stress and psychological well being among American and Russian elders. Cross cultural research with elders indicated that stressful life events may generate psychological distress by eroding their sense of personal control and by decreasing their feelings of self-esteem. Results indicated that personal control and self-esteem did not perform a mediating role between the stressful life events and depression in American sample. However, personal control and self-esteem approached significance as a mediator between the stressful life events and depression in Russian sample.


Samar (2001) conducted a study to find out the relationship among emotional intelligence, self management and glycemic control in individuals with type I diabetes. The results indicated that emotional intelligence is significantly related to self-management practices.

Sharma (2001) found that all the variables of personal growth dimensions were positively and significantly related to self-esteem.

Schutte et al. (2002) conducted three studies on the topic-characteristic, related to emotional intelligence and emotional well being (positive mood and high self esteem). Two studies investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and mood, and between emotional intelligence and self-esteem. The results of these studies indicated that higher emotional intelligence was associated with more characteristically positive mood and higher self-esteem. The third study also investigated the role of emotional intelligence in mood and self-esteem regulation and found that individuals with higher emotional intelligence showed less of a decrease in positive mood and self-esteem after a negative state induction using the Velton method and showed more of an
increase in positive mood, but not in self-esteem, after a positive state induction. The results also indicated that individuals with higher emotional intelligence were better able to maintain positive mood and self-esteem.

Shyam and Yadav (2002) conducted a study on depression, self-esteem and social support amongst institutionalized and non-institutionalized aged people. Keeping the problems of the aged in mind, the study assessed and compared depression and self-esteem of subjects. Non institutionalized aged have been reported to have higher self-esteem than institutionalized aged subjects.

Katyal and Eliza (2004) studied gender differences in emotional intelligence and its correlates. The findings indicated that the girls were higher on emotional intelligence and self-esteem than that of boys.

Psyczynski et al. (2004) revealed that people with high self-esteem experience more happiness, optimism and motivation than those with low self-esteem.

Karatzias et al. (2006) investigated the association between the personality constructs of self-esteem/affectivity and general well being in Scottish adolescents. Home self-esteem was found the strongest predictor of mood/affect and self/others well being domains as well as well being total. School self-esteem was the strongest predictor of physical well being. Age and gender were not significantly associated with general well being-total or specific domain.

Mohan (2007) revealed in a study on the role of person and perceived situation variables leading to job well being of international school teachers that self-efficacy and self-esteem has a positive but non significant correlation with job well being. It also indicated that work overload, interpersonal conflict, role stress and career security has significant negative correlation with job well being.
being. The perception of stress from work situation does have a negative and significant direct effect on job well being. But the international school teachers’ different demographic groups as age, gender, nationality and marital status does not differ significantly in their job well being.

Salami (2010) conducted a study on emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, psychological well being and students attitudes: Implications for quality education. 242 students of education college responded a set of questionnaires. Hierarchical regression analysis conducted for each dependent variable showed that emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, happiness and life satisfaction over and above depression predicted students behavior and attitudes. The results indicated that the need emphasis positive psychology in improving the positive elements in students proactively rather than retroactively trying to solve problems that emerge in order to improve the quality of higher education.

Stewert et al. (2010) in a study on social work students who undertaking part-time work such as practice teacher having low self-esteem and emotional exhaustion had negatively correlated to well being.

Thus individuals with high self-esteem appear to be more independent, self-directed and autonomous than their counterparts. Finally, individuals with high self-esteem appear to know themselves better than to those with low self-esteem, although this is not always the case.

2.5 OVERVIEW

The perusal of related literature provides a picture reflecting on well being, emotional intelligence, stress and self-esteem. The review of related literature pertaining to psychological variables, under investigations that may be briefly summed up as under:
1. Physical well being is related to psychological well being (Andrews and Parks, 1985; Hayers and Ross, 1986; Archer et al., 1987; Dytell et al., 1991) and mental well being (David et al., 2008; McFarquhar and Bowling, 2009).

2. Well being is also reported to be affected by recreational exercise (Davies, 1984; Turbo, 1985; Hamminger, 1987) daily experiences (Jodhoda, 1978; Landrevilla and Vezina, 1992), work experience (Larson, 1990; Burke and Mckeen, 1995; Edward and Roy, 1995; Hart et al., 1995; Singh, 1999; Ramesh, 2009), emotional exhaustion (Alvardo, 2001), age (Wetzleran Ursano, 1988; Macfarlane, 2000; Eunice, 2005), social support (Scheidt, 1986; Levitt et al., 1987; Stenson, 1989; Holley, 2002), decision making (Tali, 2010), mattering (Taylor, 2011), birth order (Kalia and Sahoo, 2010), financial status (Mookerjee, 1994; The Economic Survey, 2010-2011).


4. Kaiser et al. (1993) found no effect of experience but Singh (1999) and Altermann et al. (2007) found that work experience effects well being.


6. Ramesh (2009) studied significant difference in well being of working and non-working woman.

7. Success in personal life as well as in professional life, especially in teaching is associated to emotional intelligence.

8. Emotional intelligence is positively related to well being (Goleman, 1995; Menges, 1999; Sehgel, 1999; Campbell, 2000; Malek, 2000; Palmer et al. 2001; Bar-on, 2003; Brackett et al., 2004; Engelberg and Sjoyberg, 2004; Sinha and Jain, 2004; Spence et al. 2004; Van Rooy and Viswevaran, 2004; Upadhaya, 2006; Schutte et al., 2007; Elizabeth, 2008; Singh and Woods, 2008; Carmeli et al, 2009; Extremera et al., 2011; Por et al., 2011), but Donaldson-Fielder and Bond (2004) studied no relationship among emotional intelligence and well being.

9. Emotional intelligence is negatively related to stress (Ciarrochi et al. 2000; Lamana, 2000; Garg and Rastogi, 2009) and also well being had a positive relationship with emotional intelligence and negative relationship with stress (Choubey et al. 2009; Por et al., 2011 and Singla, 2011).

10. It is observed that male and female differ significantly in their emotional intelligence (Lyon and Tamera, 2005; Darsana, 2007) but Pathan and Bansibihari (2004), Sahaya and Samuel (2010) and Sharma (2011) found no gender difference.

11. Another fact found from the studies is that emotional intelligence is affected by age (Mayer and Salovey, 1990), race (Encinas Carlos, 2001) but type of family (Indu, 2009) and academic achievement (Baljit, 2004) has not any
12. To sum up the studies related to stress it is concluded that teaching is very stressful (Kyriacou and Stctcliffe, 1978; Hawkes and Dedrick, 1983; Balcasto and Gold, 1984; Mishra, 1986; Wallace et al., 1986; AUT, 1990; Borg, 1990; Travers Cooper, 1991; Boyd and While, 1994; Bingham, 1996; Trade Union Congress, 1996; Davis, 1997; Times Educational Supplement, 1997; Gyanani, 1998; Pither and Soden, 1998; NAHT, 2000; Panday, 2001; Srivastava, 2001; Tripathi and Singh, 2001; Piar Chand and Monga, 2007).

13. The studies also found many reasons of teacher stress as inadequate salaries, no security of tenure, autocratic management, autocratic supervision, bad family conditions, bad working conditions, powerlessness, too many restrictions, disruptive pupil behavior, poor staff communications, frustration with promotional system, workload curriculum, performing non professional duties, shortage of teaching equipment etc. (Mathur, 1972; Dunham, 1980; Green, 1986; Manthei and Solamn, 1988; Kyraicou, 1989; Punch and Tuteman, 1990; Brown and Ralph, 1992; Rao and Parthasarathy, 2001; Upadhay and Singh, 2001; Bharathi and Reddy, 2002; Hammand and Sykes, 2004; Singh, 2005; Latha and Panchanthan, 2007).

14. It is observed that occupational stress is negatively related to well being (Harris et al, 1984; Buehler and Hogan, 1985; Delongie, 1985; Morgan, 1985; Siegal, 1986; Stephan et al., 1986; Martin and Deszca, 1988; Porterfield, 1987; Burke and Deszca, 1988; Busser, 1988; Craddock, 1988; Emmons and King, 1988; Grant et al., 1988; Landewoard and Boumans, 1988; Srivastava and Jagdish, 1988; Verma and
Verma, 1989; Friedman, 1991; Kamau, 1992; Aditya and Sen, 1993; Kaiser et al., 1993; Krause, 1994; Lia, 1995; Wedrich, 1995; Sultana, 1996; Chan, 1998; Bhatt, 1999; Adams, 2000; Alvarado, 2001; Berg-Weger et al., 2001; Catherine et al., 2001; Morable, 2001; Larchick and Chance, 2002; Phillip et al., 2002; Najma and Gahazla, 2003; Sheena, 2005; Detert et al., 2006; Bindu, 2007; Dev, 2007; Finalyson, 2007; Tiesha, 2007; Murray et al., 2008; Yousafzai et al., 2009; Kaur, 2009). But Verma (2007) found no difference in well being at high and low level stress.


16. Rural teachers are more stressed than urban (Balaston, 1985; Chance, 1985).

17. More experienced teachers are more stressed (Borg and Falzon, 1989; Wheeler, 1995) but Okebukola and Jegede (1989) and Marcy (1996) found that less experienced teachers are more stressed. The studies of Malik et al., 1991; Sabu and Jangaiah, 2005) studied that teaching experience does not correlated to stress.

18. Another fact is that self-esteem is strongly correlated to well being (Prince, 1958; Rosenberg, 1965; Raina, 1970; Aronson, 1980; Campbell, 1981; GeCas, 1982; Diener, 1984; Baumeister and Tice, 1989; Gagan, 1993; Given et al., 1993; Frankel and Hewitt, 1994; Diner and Diner, 1995; Smith and Petty, 1995; Baumeister et al., 1996; Corsun, 1999; Furnham and Cheng, 2000; Sharma, 2001; Pyszczynski et al., 2004; Kartzias et al., 2006; Mohan,
2007; Stewert et al., 2010) but Chopra et al. (1997) and Sanyal and Basu-Ghosh (1999) studied no difference in well being at high and low level of self-esteem.

19. The results also indicated that self-esteem and stress has a negative relationship (Greenberg et al., 1997; Anand, 2000; Shyam and Yadav, 2007) and both effected the well being (Kamya, 1994; Jagdish and Bhargwa, 1999; Macfarlane, 2000; Mohan, 2007).

20. It is also observed that emotional intelligence is positively related to self-esteem (Gandhi, 2001; Samar, 2001; Schutte et al., 2002; Katyal and Eliza, 2004) as well as self-esteem and emotional intelligence has a positive but stress has a negative relationship with well being (Salami, 2010; Stewert et al., 2010).

2.6 HYPOTHESES

1. The scores on the measures of well being, emotional intelligence, stress and self-esteem among elementary school teachers are normally distributed.

2. There will be a significant positive relationship between well being and emotional intelligence of elementary school teachers.

3. There will be a significant negative relationship between well being and stress of elementary school teachers.

4. There will be a significant positive relationship between well being and self-esteem of elementary school teachers.

5. (i) There will be a significant interrelationship among well being, emotional intelligence, stress and self-esteem of elementary school teachers in a total sample.

(ii) There will be a significant interrelationship among well being, emotional intelligence, stress and self-esteem of elementary school teachers.
school teachers having teaching experience more than 15 years.

(iii) There will be a significant interrelationship among well being, emotional intelligence, stress and self-esteem of elementary school teachers having teaching experience less than 10 years.

(iv) There will be a significant interrelationship among well being, emotional intelligence, stress and self-esteem of elementary school teachers working in urban area.

(v) There will be a significant interrelationship among well being, emotional intelligence, stress and self-esteem of elementary school teachers working in rural area.

(vi) There will be a significant interrelationship among well being, emotional intelligence, stress and self-esteem of male elementary school teachers.

(vii) There will be a significant interrelationship among well being, emotional intelligence, stress and self-esteem of female elementary school teachers.

(viii) There will be a significant interrelationship among well being, emotional intelligence, stress and self-esteem of elementary school teachers working in government elementary schools on regular basis.

(ix) There will be a significant interrelationship among well being, emotional intelligence, stress and self-esteem of elementary school teachers working on contract basis under panchyati raj institutions.

6.(i) There will be no significant difference between two ‘r_s’ of emotional intelligence with measures of well being among elementary school teachers across the level of teaching experience (i.e. more than 15 years and less than 10 years).

(ii) There will be no significant difference between two ‘r_s’ of
occupational stress with measure of well being among elementary school teachers across the level of teaching experience (i.e. more than 15 years and less than 10 years).

(iii) There will be no significant difference between two ‘r_s’ of self-esteem with measures of well being among elementary school teachers across level (i.e. more than 15 years and less than 10 years).

7. (i) There will be no significant difference between two ‘r_s’ of emotional intelligence with measures of well being among elementary school teachers across the location of school (i.e. urban and rural schools).

(ii) There will be no significant difference between two ‘r_s’ of occupational stress with measures of well being among elementary school teachers across the location (i.e. urban and rural schools).

(iii) There will be no significant difference between two ‘r_s’ of self-esteem with measure of well being among elementary school teachers across the location (i.e. urban and rural schools).

8. (i) There will be no significant difference between two ‘r_s’ of emotional intelligence with measures of well being among elementary school teachers across gender (i.e. males and females).

(ii) There will be no significant difference between two ‘r_s’ of occupational stress with measures of well being among elementary school teachers across gender (i.e. males and females).

(iii) There will be no significant difference between two ‘r_s’ of self-esteem with measure of well being among elementary school teachers across gender (i.e. males and females).

9. (i) There will be no significant difference between two ‘r_s’ of emotional intelligence with measures of well being among
elementary school teachers across the level of type of recruitment (i.e. on regular basis and contract basis).

(ii) There will be no significant difference between two ‘r_s’ of occupational stress with measure well being among elementary school teachers across the level of type of recruitment (i.e. on regular basis and contract basis).

(iii) There will be no significant difference between two ‘r_s’ of self-esteem with measure of well being among elementary school teachers across the level of type of recruitment (i.e. on regular basis and contract basis).

10. Emotional intelligence, stress and self-esteem will be conjointly significantly predictors of measures of well being.

11. There will be a significant difference in well being of elementary school teachers having teaching experience more than 15 years and less than 10 years.

12. There will be a significant difference in well being of elementary school teachers in relation to locale.

13. There will be a significant difference in well being of elementary school teacher of Punjab in relation to gender.

14. There will be a significant difference in well being of elementary school teachers in relation to type of recruitment.

15. There will be a significant interactive effect of emotional intelligence, stress and self-esteem on well being of elementary school teachers.