The aim of the present investigation was to study Subjective Well Being and Mental Health of the University Teachers in relation to their Personality, Occupational Stress, Coping Strategies, Quality of Working Life and Teacher Efficacy.

For measuring different types of Personality dimensions the following tests were used. Eysenck’s Personality Questionnaire – Revised (EPQ-R) devised by Eysenck et al., (1985) was used to get scores on Extraversion/Introversion, Psychoticism, Neuroticism and Lie (Social Desirability) Scale. The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) devised by Spielberger et al., (1970) was used to measure the variables of State and Trait Anxiety. The Spielberger State-Trait Anger Expression Inventory (STAXI) devised by Spielberger (1988) was used to measure State Anger, Trait Anger and Total Anger Expressed. The four Motives, viz., need for achievement, need for affiliation, need for power and need for approval were measured by Motives Scale constructed by Mishra and Tripathi (1980).

To measure the efficacy levels, two scales were used. For assessing self efficacy, Generalized Self Efficacy Scale developed by Jerusalem and Schwarzer (1992) was used. Teacher’s efficacy level was measured by using Teachers’ Efficacy Scale developed by Gueskey and Passaro (1994).

To measure Stress, the Stress Symptom Rating Scale developed by Heilbrun and Pepe (1985) was used to measure Stress Symptoms. For determining Occupational Stress, Occupational Stress Index Scale (OSI), developed by Srivastava and Singh (1984) has been used. Daily Hassles and Daily Uplifts were assessed through Daily Hassles and Uplifts Scale devised by Delongis et al., (1982).
For the assessment of different coping strategies, the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WOC) devised by Folkman and Lazarus (1988) was used. It assesses 8 dimensions of coping strategies. They were (i) Confrontive coping, (ii) Distancing, (iii) Self-controlling, (iv) Seeking Social Support, (v) Accepting Responsibility, (vi) Escape-Avoidance coping, (vii) Planful Problem solving, and (viii) Positive Re-appraisal.

Perception of Quality of Working Life was measured with the help of Quality of Working Life Inventory (QWL) devised by Sinha and Sayeed (1980), having seventeen dimensions. Teachers Job Satisfaction was measured by Teachers’ Job Satisfaction Questionnaire developed by Kumar and Mutha (1985). Organizational Commitment Scale, developed by Cook and Wall (1980) was used to measure Organizational Commitment.

The WHO Measure of Mental Health adapted for use in India by Wig (1999) was used to assess Mental Health. The test yields three dimensions viz. Being Comfortable with Self, Being Comfortable with Others, and Perceived Ability to Meet Life Demands.

Satisfaction with Life Scale, developed by Diener et al., (1985) and Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS), developed by Watson et al., (1988) were used to measure the Subjective Well Being of teachers.

The sample comprised of 130 middle level Panjab University Teachers. They were in the age range of 35-50 years from various Arts, Science and Language departments.

Statistical Analysis of the data was done by computing Means, SD’s (Standard Deviations), t-ratios, intercorrelations and Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis.
The importance of education has been emphasized in a variety of ways by different scholars and intellectuals from the beginning of human history down to the present time. The reason is that it has been taken for granted as the most important factor for bringing change in every aspect of human behavior. While education develops the total personality of an individual it contributes also to the growth and development of society. Education is imparted through various programmes and the teacher is the principal agency for implementing all such programmes in educational institutions. It is incumbent upon the teachers to take the advantage of the programmes to guide, inspire and motivate the students for disciplined life and to inculcate values among them which are in consonance with our cultural heritage and our social objectives. The most important factor in educational reconstruction is the role of a teacher’s personal qualities, educational qualification, professional training and the place they occupy in the institution as well as the community (Khatoon and Hasan, 2000).

In an educational system the role of a teacher is very important for national development and to fulfill his/her obligations effectively towards the society, a teacher should be optimally satisfied and less stressful. Researchers in teacher’s stress and burnout revealed that stress experienced in the teaching profession may affect the organization, teachers’ performance, physical and emotional well being of the teacher and his family too. Some of the factors contributing to increased stress among teachers are viz. students’ misconduct and their negative attitude towards school (Turk et al., 1982; Mykletum 1984).

Teachers’ sense of Subjective Well Being and Mental Health are very important in this context. Teachers’ Subjective Well Being and Mental Health are very important for their effectiveness.
Diener (2000) said that Subjective Well Being refers to people’s evaluations of their lives—evaluations that are both affective and cognitive. People experience abundant Subjective Well Being when they feel many pleasant and few unpleasant emotions; when they are engaged in interesting activities, when they experience many pleasures and few pains, and when they are satisfied with their lives. There are additional features of a valuable life and of mental health, but the field of Subjective Well Being focuses on people’s own evaluations of their lives. Throughout the world, people are granting increasing importance to Subjective Well Being. Even in societies that are not fully westernized, students reported that happiness and life satisfaction were very important. As people throughout the world fulfill more of their basic material needs, it is likely that Subjective Well Being will become an even more valued goal. Thus although Subjective Well Being is not sufficient for the good life (Diener et al., 1998) it appears to be increasingly necessary for it.

Psychological well being or happiness is a multidimensional construct that includes both emotional and cognitive elements. The origin of this construct can be traced back to Bradburn (1969), who considered well being in terms of positive affect, as opposed to negative affect. In this sense, Bradburn stated that an individual who scored higher in positive affect than in negative affect would score high in psychological well being, and vice versa. Costa and McCrae (1980) pointed out that positive and negative affect are balanced by a person, achieving a global Subjective Well Being index. Thus, positive and negative affect contribute independently to Subjective Well Being.

Pavot et al., (1997) also pointed out that the experience of Subjective Well Being includes both the presence of positive affect and the absence of negative affect, as well as the cognitive element of Satisfaction with Life (Diener, 1984).
A. SUBJECTIVE WELL BEING, MENTAL HEALTH, PERSONALITY AND MOTIVES.

(i) It was hypothesized that Subjective Well Being and Mental Health of the Teachers were expected to be positively related with Extraversion and negatively with Neuroticism and Psychoticism.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Subjective Well Being was negatively related with Neuroticism among total sample of teachers (r=-0.21) and male teachers (r=-0.40). No significant relationship emerged in female teachers.

A glance at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that no significant relationship emerged between Positive Affect and Extraversion, Neuroticism and Psychoticism.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Negative Affect was positively related with Neuroticism among total sample of teachers (r=0.18) and male teachers (r=0.37). No significant relationship emerged in female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Satisfaction with Life was negatively related with Neuroticism among total sample of teachers (r=-0.18) and male teachers (r=-0.27). No significant relationship emerged in female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that no significant relationships emerged between Mental Health Dimension viz. Being Comfortable with Self, Perceived ability to Meet Life Demands and Total Mental Health and Extraversion, Neuroticism and Psychoticism among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.
A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Total Mental Health dimension viz. **Being Comfortable with Others** was positively related with Extraversion \((r=0.17)\), among total sample of teachers. No significant relationship emerged in male teachers and female teachers.

Table numbers 11, 12 and 13 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Negative Affect** for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. The tables revealed that only Neuroticism emerged as a significant predictor for Negative Affect \((\beta=0.30)\) among male sample of teachers only.

Table numbers 8, 9 and 10, showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Positive Affect** for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. Table numbers 14, 15 and 16 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Satisfaction with Life** for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. Table numbers 17, 18 and 19 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Subjective Well Being** for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. The tables revealed that Eysenckian’s dimensions of Personality viz. Extraversion, Neuroticism and Psychoticism did not emerge as significant predictors among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

Table numbers 20, 21 and 22 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Total Mental Health** for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. The tables revealed that Eysenckian’s dimension of Personality did not emerge as a significant predictor for Total Mental Health for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

One may infer that hypotheses were only partially upheld.

"A teacher affects eternity; he can never tell where his, influence stops". So observed the historian-philosopher, Henry Adams.
Good teachers are those who are skillful in developing understanding of the world in which man lives, insightful with respect to the ways and means of stimulating intellectual appetites, and capable of patience, understanding and sincere feelings for others—may pave the way for an enlightened and productive society.

Teaching is effective to the extent that the teacher acts in ways that are favorable to the development of basic skills, understanding, work habits, desirable attitudes, value judgments, and adequate personal adjustment of the pupil.

Undoubtedly there have been both good and poor teachers since the beginnings of man’s social life. Some of the really notable teachers have been memorialized by history, and the number of competent teachers in the schools today probably is sizable. But, since usually very little is known about such teachers or what makes them effective, professional education has not been able to take advantage of an understanding of their characteristics and modes of performance to the end of improving teacher training and teacher selection procedure (Mohan et al., 1993).

Teaching is complex and many-sided, demanding a variety of human traits and abilities. In general these may be grouped into two major categories; 1) those involving the teachers’ mental abilities and skills, their understanding of the psychological and educational principles, and their knowledge of general and specific subject matter to be taught; and 2) those qualities stemming from teachers’ personality, his interests, attitudes, and beliefs, his behavior in working relationships with pupils and other individuals and the like.

The intellectual characteristics of teachers can be measured with a considerable degree of success. Relatively little information is available about the second group of characteristics—those commonly classified in the composite as the “personality” of the teacher (Mohan et al., 1993).
Rotter (1966) postulated individual differences with respect to a belief in internal versus external control. Individuals who believed that certain events are a consequence of their own actions exemplify a belief in internal control; those who viewed the events as being beyond their control and due more to fate, luck, or other people—demonstrated a belief in external control. Evidence suggests that teachers who manifest external locus of control are more likely to suffer from burnout (McLaughlin et al., 1986).

Rosenshine and Furst (1973) reviewed a lot of studies, which had correlated teachers’ behaviour with students’ learning gains. Citing the importance of the teacher’s personality, Sorenson (1977) opined that it is a teacher’s personality which determines a student’s future attitude towards the entire subject.

Sorenson (1977) quoted a study regarding specific teacher behaviour that students respond favourably to. The study showed that students liked teachers who were courteous, friendly and approachable; possessed a sense of humor; showed interest in all the students; gave help kindly, sincerely and patiently and maintained good discipline. Personality characteristics which students disliked in teachers were being grouchy or irritable, having fits of temper; being overcritical and scolding sarcastically; having pets and disliking or picking on students; being unfair; being dull; and taking a negative approach to teaching and learning problems by maintaining poor discipline.

Jha (1973) reported that pupils like non-authoritarian teachers. Anand (1974) opined that job satisfaction, and Sharma (1974) reported that academic performances of teachers were very important determinants of classroom behaviour of teachers and their relationship with their students.

Teachers’ classroom behaviour thus plays a decisive role in shaping the classroom climate which may influence learning outcome
of student a measure of teacher effectiveness. In India, Pareek and Rao (1970) studied the classroom behaviour of Class five teachers of Delhi schools and reported that authoritarian teachers had a negative impact on pupil’s achievement.

Panda (1988) concluded that, “Teacher’s perception of the pupil and pupil’s perception of the teacher influence each other reciprocally.

The teacher’s personality and style of interaction with the students has been reported to be a very crucial variable in student’s achievement. Sharma and Santhanam (1972) reported that pupils like non-authoritarian teachers better, feel free in expressing their difficulties with them, and achieve higher results in their classes. Hsu (1983) found similar results. Teachers who are successful in creating a climate of warmth and support can extract greater pupil achievement. Adjustment in school, at home and with peers generates greater class-room trust (Mehta and Kanada, 1969; Jangira, 1975; and Patel, 1975). Wayne et al., (1979) reported that positive evaluation of teacher was associated with higher achievement in school children.

Murray and Staebler (1974) and Porter and Cohen (1977) reported that teachers’ score on Locus of control was directly related with student’s achievement. Stake and Noona (1985) reported that teacher attraction was positively associated with academic growth, confidence and motivation. But this was true only for students with same sex teacher models. Among students with opposite sex models, teacher attraction was not related to student growth. Marshall and Weinstein (1986) reported that teacher’s communication patterns, and his differential treatments to students as perceived by students were very important determiners of students’ achievement.

One theoretical approach emphasized temperament and personality as important underpinnings of whether people are happy. Costa and McCrae (1980) proposed that two major personality traits, Extraversion and Neuroticism, underlie people’s propensity to react
positively or negatively, respectively, to events. Confirming this hypothesis, researchers found that across cultures there is a tendency for Extraverts to report more positive emotions. Tellegen et al., (1988) concluded that genes account for 40% of the variance in positive emotionality and 55% of the variance in negative emotionality, whereas shared family environment accounts for 22% and 2% of the variance in positive emotionality and negative emotionality, respectively. Thus, a number of investigators have concluded that inborn temperament is a very important influence on people's long-term level of Subjective Well Being.

Subjective psychological well being is considered a stable trait and therefore, certain personality dimensions are related to this experience of happiness. Costa and McCrae (1980) believed that Satisfaction with Life is related to a high level of Extraversion and a low level of Neuroticism.

Eysenck and Eysenck (1985) reported that extraverts tend to vary between positive affect and what they called a neutral element, whereas neurotics displayed changes that go from negative affect to neutrality. Subsequent research has confirmed these relations (Chan and Joseph, 2000; Hills and Argyle, 2001a, 2001b). In fact, the personality traits of extraversion and neuroticism have been extensively investigated and are considered stable over time and observable in different situations and cultures (Kline, 1993).

As indicated by DeNeve and Cooper (1998), Neuroticism predisposes people to experience a low level of Subjective Well Being, and this is due to the fact that, statistically, Subjective Well Being is a bipolar measure where high scores are determined by high scores in Satisfaction with Life and in Positive Affect, and low scores are determined by low scores in Satisfaction with Life and high scores in Negative Affect. Therefore, extraversion seems to be fairly less
significant than neuroticism as a predictor of the variables of subjective well-being, satisfaction with life, and balance.

Libran (2006) revealed the personality variable of neuroticism is one of the most important correlates of subjective well being. Results showed that 44% of the variance of subjective well being was accounted for by neuroticism, whereas extraversion only explained 8% of the variance.

Heady and Wearing (1989) showed that very stable personality traits (neuroticism, extraversion, and openness to experience) predispose people to experience moderately stable levels of favorable and adverse life events and moderately stable levels of SWB. However, contrary to the implications of previous research (Costa and McCrae, 1980), life events influence SWB over and above the effects of personality.

Schimmack et al., (2002) proposed a causal model of the relations between personality (Extraversion and Neuroticism) and the two components of Subjective Well Being. The model assumed that personality is more strongly related to the affective component of Subjective Well Being than to the cognitive component of Subjective Well Being. The model regarded Extraversion and Neuroticism as affective dispositions that influence the amount of pleasant and unpleasant affect that people experience in their lives (Costa and McCrae, 1980; Diener and Lucas, 1999). The model also postulated that participants rely in part on their hedonic balance to form life-satisfaction judgments (Schimmack et al., 2002). That is, when respondents form a life-satisfaction judgment they retrieve past pleasant and unpleasant events from memory. The model implies that Neuroticism and Extraversion influence life satisfaction indirectly through their influence on hedonic balance. In other words, Schimmack et al., (2002) proposed a mediator model of the relation between personality traits and life satisfaction.
Ulrich et al., (2002) predicted that the influence of personality on life satisfaction was mediated by hedonic balance and that the relation between hedonic balance and life satisfaction was moderated by culture. Extraversion and Neuroticism influenced hedonic balance to the same degree in all cultures, and hedonic balance was a stronger predictor of life satisfaction in individualistic than in collectivistic cultures. The influence of Extraversion and Neuroticism on life satisfaction was largely mediated by hedonic balance. The results suggested that the influence of personality on the emotional component of Subjective Well Being was pancultural, whereas the influence of personality on the cognitive component of SWB was moderated by culture.

In a study, Robinson et al., (2003), demonstrated that extraversion is more reliable predictor of Subjective Well Being, among certain individuals than others. The study revealed that extraversion-Subjective Well Being relation was weaker among those quick to appreciate the distinction between neutral and positive events in a choice reaction time task. By contrast, it was stronger among those slow to recognize this distinction.

Heller et al., (2004) indicated that neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness were related to various domains of satisfaction and life satisfaction.

It is apparent that neurotic individuals should be associated with experiences of both job and marital failures and dissatisfaction. Neurotic individuals were more likely to make maladaptive attributions in their marriages and tended to use ineffective coping styles (Karney et al., 1994). Neurotic individuals were characterized by a tendency to select themselves into situations that foster negative affect. Job satisfactions of high Negative Affect people tend to be less influenced by positive events relative to those low on this trait (Brief et al., 1995).
Opdenakker and Damme (2006) examined the effects of teacher characteristics (gender, teacher education and certification, class management skills and job satisfaction) and teaching styles on indicators of good classroom practice in mathematical classes. It was found that teachers with a high level of job satisfaction gave more instructional support to their classes, especially to classes from a low-ability range, than teachers with a low level of job satisfaction.

Research on educational effectiveness often investigated the importance of what’s going on in the classroom with respect to cognitive and non-cognitive outcomes. Factors such as the quality of teaching (sometimes operationalised as structured or direct teaching), time on task, opportunity to learn (content covered), effective leaning time, classroom management, classroom climate, and relationships within the classroom have not only often been included as promising explanatory variables in models about learning and educational effectiveness, but their relevance has also regularly been proven in educational effectiveness research (Slavin, 1996; Scheerens and Bosker, 1997; Teddlie and Reynolds, 2000). Teachers’ personality plays an important role in these domains.

The importance of student and teacher interactions and of (other) aspects of classroom climate (a classroom atmosphere conducive to learning, an orderly and safe atmosphere) is also stressed in research on effective schools, in school climate research (Anderson, 1982, 1991), and in research concerning the effects of classes and schools on noncognitive outcomes (like well-being, work attitude, etc.) (Grisay, 1996; Opdenakker and Van Damme, 2000; Konu et al., 2002). Teacher’s Personality is an important factor in classroom learning.

Teaching styles (which often reflect teachers’ views on teaching and learning and their preferred behavior) have also received a considerable degree of attention within the educational literature over
thee past two decades. There is some evidence that teaching styles can help to interpret the influences of teachers on student achievement (Aitkin and Zovskya, 1994) and on attitudes towards subjects (Ebenezer and Zoller, 1993), and that teaching behavior and teaching styles can make an important difference to student learning (Wentzel, 2002).

Recent educational effectiveness research has shown that, besides individual background characteristics the student composition of classes can also affect the achievement of students and that student composition and classroom and school practices are to some degree related to each other (Opdenakker, 2004; Opdenakker et al., 2005). The interplay between students’ and teacher behaviour is also stressed in other educational research, e.g., in research on interpersonal teacher behaviour (Wubbels and Brekelmaes, 1998), and within the domain of the sociology of education (Thrupp, 1999).

The consideration of Personality factors in Mental Health has been well established. Using the three-factor models of personality (Costa and McCrae, 1992), suggested that, Neuroticism among clinical and non-clinical samples, was associated with poorer mental health; including negative affect (Bagby and Rector, 1998), anxiety (Maltby et al., 1998; Gershuny et al., 2000), a dispositional factor for depression (Saklofske et al., 1995), and severity of depression (Peterson et al., 2001). Further, within the three-factor model there was evidence to suggest that Extraversion is related to Subjective Well Being, Happiness, Positive Affect and Optimistic traits and Psychoticism in thought to represent emotional disturbance (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1975; Costa and McCrae, 1980).

Baggley et al., (2005) reported that individuals high on Neuroticism were prone to experiencing negative emotions such as depression, anxiety, or anger and were impulsive and self-conscious (McCrae, 1992). Neuroticism had been found to be related to the use
of coping strategies that are typically related to poorer outcomes (Maitlin et al., 1990) such as an increase in distress (Gunthert, et al., 1999) or increased anger and depression on subsequent days (Bolger and Zuckerman, 1995). Those higher on Neuroticism were found to use more passive or emotion focused strategies such as escape avoidance, self-blame, wishful thinking, and relaxation, as well as interpersonally antagonistic means of coping such as hostile reactions, catharsis (venting of negative emotions), confrontative coping (Gunthert, et al., 1999) or interpersonal withdrawal (O’Brien and DeLongis, 1996). They also reported lower levels of problem-focused coping (David and Suls, 1999) than those scoring lower on Neuroticism.

Baggley et al., (2005) also reported that Extraverts experience positive emotions and were sociable, warm, cheerful, energetic, and assertive (McCrae, 1992). Those higher on Extraversion engaged in higher levels of problem-focused coping (Hooker et al., 1994) and employed less maladaptive forms of emotion-focused coping such as self-blame, wishful thinking, and avoidance (Hooker et al., 1994). Individuals higher on Extraversion used more adaptive forms of emotion-focused coping (Hooker et al., 1994), such as support seeking (David and Suls, 1999), positive thinking or reinterpretation (Watson and Hubbard, 1996), and substitution and restraint (McCrae and Costa, 1986). Several investigators failed to find a significant relationship between Extraversion and problem focused coping (O’Brien and DeLongis, 1996) or generally adaptive forms of emotion-focused coping such as seeking support and accepting responsibility (David and Suls, 1999).

Baggley et al., (2005) reported that people who are high on Openness to experience (O) tend to be creative, imaginative, curious, psychologically minded, and flexible in their thinking (Costa and McCrae, 1992). They are likely to experience a diversity of emotions to have broad interests and a preference for variety, and to hold
unconventional values (McCrae, 1992). Evidence suggests those higher on O are more likely to employ humor in coping (McCrae and Costa, 1986) and to engage more in positive re-appraisal (Watson and Hubbard, 1996), and to think about or plan their coping (Watson and Hubbard, 1996).

Baggley et al., (2005) said that individuals high on Agreeableness tend to be altruistic, acquiescent, trusting and helpful (McCrae, 1992). Individuals higher on Agreeableness are more likely to cope in ways that engage or protect social relationships such as seeking support (Hooker et al., 1994) and avoiding confrontation (O’Brien and DeLongis, 1996). They appear to be less likely to employ emotion focused coping strategies such as self-blame, avoidance, wishful thinking (Hooker et al., 1994), or disengagement (Watson and Hubbard, 1996) as compared to those scoring lower on Agreeableness.

Individuals who are higher on Conscientiousness are organized, reliable, hard working, determined, and self-disciplined (McCrae, 1992). Conscientiousness has been found to be a strong predictor of coping styles. It has been found to be related to the use of more active, problem focused strategies (Hooker et al., 1994), such as planning, problem solving, positive reappraisal, and suppression of competing activities (Watson and Hubbard, 1996). Those people who are higher on Conscientiousness are less likely to engage in avoidant, emotion-focused coping strategies such as self-blame (Hooker et al., 1994) or distraction or disengagement (Watson and Hubbard, 1996). All these studies have clear implications for teachers’ Subjective Well Being.

Interpersonal factors plays major role in physical and psychological well-being (Feldman et al., 1999) as well as in the ability to successfully deal with stress (Kramer, 1993). Bolger et al., (1989) studied the impact of interpersonal stressors (conflicts or tensions in social relationships) with work overload stressors (household or job demands) on variations in mood, interpersonal stressors accounted for
more than 80% of the explained variance in daily mood. Additionally, the negative effects of interpersonal stressors persisted over several days. Bolger and Schilling (1991) found that interpersonal conflicts were the most important daily stressors in explaining the relationship between Neuroticism and distress.

High self-esteem is one of the strongest predictors of Subjective Well Being. Many studies have found a relationship between self-esteem and Subjective Well Being (Peterson, 1975; Anderson, 1977).

Another personality trait that has been consistently related to happiness is internality; a tendency to attribute outcomes to oneself rather than to external causes. This variable, usually assessed by Rotter's Locus of Control Scale, has been found to relate to SWB (Sundre, 1978). If the events happening to a person were negative (e.g., failure), it might be better to attribute them to outside forces. Similarly, if one lives in an environment in which there is little freedom, an external orientation may be related to happiness, and this conclusion is supported by the findings of Felton and Kahana (1974).

Extraversion and related constructs such as sensation seeking and sociability have been found to covary with Subjective Well Being (Gorman, 1972).

According to Maslach et al., (2001) several personality traits had been studied in an attempt to discover which types of people may be at greater risk for experiencing burnout. People who displayed low levels of hardiness (involvement in daily activities, a sense of control over events, and openness to change) have higher burnout scores, particularly on the exhaustion dimension. Burnout was higher among people who had an external locus of control (attributing events and achievements to powerful others or to chance) rather than an internal locus of control (attributions to one's own ability and effort). Similar results were reported on coping styles and burnout. Those who were burnedout coped with stressful events in a rather passive, defensive
way, whereas active and confrontive coping was associated with less burnout. Confrontive coping was associated with the dimension of efficacy. All three burnout dimensions have been related to lower self-esteem. It had been argued that low levels of hardiness, poor self-esteem, and external locus of control, and an avoidant coping style typically constitute the profile of a stress-prone individual (Semmer 1996). Research on the Big Five personality dimensions has found that burnout is linked to the dimension of neuroticism. Neuroticism includes trait anxiety, hostility, depression, self-consciousness, and vulnerability; neurotic individuals are emotionally unstable and prone to psychological distress, (Maslach et al., 2001).

The personality trait neuroticism plays a major role in determining individual differences in the intraindividual stress-affect association but other variables moderate the daily stress affect association.

Mroczek and Almeida (2004) in their study examined whether stress reactivity becomes stronger or weaker with age. The results showed that daily stress and neuroticism interacted in their effect on daily negative affect. There was a stronger association between daily stress and negative affect for persons high in neuroticism as compared to those low on the trait. In addition, daily stress and age interacted in their effect on daily negative affect. There was a stronger association between daily stress and negative affect for older as compared to younger adults.

(ii) It was hypothesized that Subjective Well Being and Mental Health were expected to be negatively related with State and Trait Anxiety.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Subjective Well Being was negatively related with State Anxiety among total sample of teachers ($r=-0.29$), male teachers ($r=-0.42$) and female teachers ($r=-0.28$). Tables also revealed that Trait
Anxiety was negatively related with Subjective Well Being among total sample of teachers ($r=-0.40$) and male teachers ($r=-0.52$). No significant relationship emerged in female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that **Positive Affect** was negatively related with State Anxiety among male teachers ($r=-0.30$). No significant relationship emerged in total sample of teachers and female teaches. The tables also revealed that Positive Affect was negatively related with Trait Anxiety among total sample of teachers ($r=-0.22$) and male teachers ($r=-0.34$). No significant relationship emerged in female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that **Negative Affect** was positively related with Trait Anxiety among total sample of teachers ($r=-0.20$). No significant relationship emerged in male teachers and female teachers. No significant relationship emerged between Negative Affect and State Anxiety among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that **Satisfaction with Life** was negatively related with State Anxiety among total sample of teachers ($r=-0.29$) and male teachers ($r=0.37$). No significant relationship emerged in Female Teachers. The tables revealed that Satisfaction with Life was negatively related with Trait Anxiety among total sample of teachers ($r=-0.35$) and male teachers ($r=-0.47$). No significant relationship emerged in female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that **Total Mental Health** was negatively related with State Anxiety among total sample of teachers ($r=-0.25$) and male teachers ($r=-0.31$). No significant relationship emerged in female teachers. The tables revealed that Total Mental Health was negatively related with Trait Anxiety among total sample of teachers ($r=-0.34$)
and male teachers ($r=-0.48$). No significant relationship emerged in female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Mental Health dimension viz. **Being Comfortable with Self** was negatively related with State Anxiety among total sample of teachers ($r=-0.22$) and male teachers ($r=-0.31$). No significant relationship emerged in female teachers. The tables revealed that Mental Health dimension viz. Being Comfortable with Self was negatively related with Trait Anxiety among total sample of teachers ($r=-0.27$) and male teachers ($r=-0.51$). No significant relationship emerged in female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Mental Health dimension viz. **Being Comfortable with Others** was negatively related with Trait Anxiety among total sample of teachers ($r=-0.25$). No significant relationship emerged in male teachers and female teachers. The tables also revealed that no significant relationship emerged between Mental Health dimension viz. Being Comfortable with Others and State Anxiety among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Mental Health dimension viz. **Perceived Ability to meet Life Demands** was negatively related with State Anxiety among total sample of teachers ($r=-0.18$) and male teachers ($r=-0.26$). No significant relationship emerged in female teachers. A glance at the tables further revealed that no significant relationship emerged between Mental Health dimension viz. Perceived ability to meet Life Demands and Trait Anxiety among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

Table numbers 8, 9 and 10 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Positive Affect** for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. Table numbers 11, 12
and 13 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Negative Affect** for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the Regression tables revealed that State and Trait Anxiety did not emerge as significant predictors among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

Table numbers 14, 15 and 16 revealed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Satisfaction with Life** for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the Regression tables revealed that Trait Anxiety emerged as a significant predictor for total sample of teachers ($\beta=-0.21$). State Anxiety did not emerge as significant predictors for Total Sample of Teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

Table numbers 17, 18 and 19 showed Multiple Regression Equation for the criterion variable **Subjective Well Being** for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the Regression tables revealed that Trait Anxiety emerged as a significant predictor for total sample of teachers ($\beta=-0.39$) and male teachers ($\beta=-0.52$). The tables revealed that State Anxiety did not emerge as significant predictors for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

Table numbers 20, 21 and 22 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Total Mental Health** for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the Regression tables revealed that Trait Anxiety emerged as significant predictors for Total Mental Health among male teachers ($\beta=-0.48$) and female teachers ($\beta=-0.22$). The tables revealed that State Anxiety did not emerge as a significant predictor among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.
It was hypothesized that Subjective Well Being and Mental Health were expected to be positively related with need for achievement and need for affiliation and negatively with need for approval and need for power.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Subjective Well Being was positively related with need for achievement among total sample of teachers ($r=0.24$) and female teachers ($r=0.34$). Need for affiliation was positively related with Subjective Well Being among total sample of teachers ($r=0.26$) and male teachers ($r=0.40$). No significant relationship emerged in female teachers. Subjective Well Being was positively related with need for approval among total sample of teachers ($r=0.31$), male teachers ($r=0.26$) and female teachers ($r=0.38$).

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Tables numbers, 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Positive Affect was positively related with need for achievement among total sample of teachers ($r=0.24$) and male teachers ($r=0.31$). No significant relationship emerged in female teachers. The tables also revealed that Positive Affect was positively related with need for affiliation among total sample of teachers ($r=0.26$) and male teachers ($r=0.36$). Positive Affect was positively related with need for approval among total sample of teachers ($r=0.36$), male teachers ($r=0.34$) and female teachers ($r=0.36$). Positive Affect was also positively related with need for power among total sample of teachers ($r=0.18$) and female teachers ($r=0.45$).

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Negative Affect was negatively related with need for achievement among total sample of teachers ($r=-0.20$) and female teachers ($r=-0.28$). No significant relationship emerged in male teachers. Negative Affect was positively related with need for power among male teachers ($r=0.30$).
A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that **Satisfaction with Life** was positively related with need for affiliation among total sample of teachers ($r=0.18$) and male teachers ($r=0.31$). Satisfaction with Life was negatively related with need for power among female teachers ($r=-0.25$).

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed **Total Mental Health** was positively related with need for achievement among total sample of teachers ($r=0.24$) and male teachers ($r=0.35$). Total Mental Health was also positively related with need for affiliation among total sample of teachers ($r=0.20$) and male teachers ($r=0.31$).

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Mental Health dimension viz. **Being Comfortable with Self** was positively related with need for achievement among total sample of teachers ($r=0.20$) and male teachers ($r=0.31$).

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Mental Health dimension viz. **Being Comfortable with Others** was positively related with need for affiliation among total sample of teachers ($r=0.20$). No significant relationship emerged in male teachers and female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Mental Health dimension viz. **Perceived ability to meet Life Demands** was positively related with need for achievement among total sample of teachers ($r=0.18$) and male teachers ($r=0.31$). Perceived ability to meet Life Demands was positively related with need for affiliation among total sample of teachers ($r=0.20$) and male teachers ($r=0.29$). Perceived ability to meet Life Demands was also positively correlated with need for approval among total sample of teachers ($r=0.17$). No significant relationship emerged in female teachers.
Table numbers 8, 9 and 10 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Positive Affect** for the total sample of teachers. A glance at the Regression tables revealed that need for achievement emerged as a significant predictor among total sample of teachers ($\beta=0.17$) and male teachers ($\beta=0.31$). Need for power emerged as a significant predictor for Positive Affect among female teachers ($\beta=0.44$).

Table numbers 11, 12 and 13 showed Multiple Regression Equation for the criterion variable **Negative Affect** for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that need for achievement emerged as a significant predictor among female teachers ($\beta=-0.24$). Need for power emerged as a significant predictor among male teachers ($\beta=0.26$). Need for approval emerged as a significant predictor among female teachers ($\beta=-0.20$) only.

Table numbers 14, 15 and 16 showed Multiple Regression Equation for the criterion variable **Satisfaction with Life** for the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. Table number 17, 18 and 19 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Subjective Well Being** for the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that none of the Motives viz. need for achievement, need for affiliation, need for approval and need for power did not emerge as significant predictors among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

Table numbers 20, 21 and 22 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Total Mental Health** for the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the Regression tables revealed that need for achievement emerged as a significant predictor among total sample of teachers ($\beta=0.16$) and male teachers ($\beta=0.22$). Need for power emerged as a significant predictor
among female teachers ($\beta=-0.33$) only. Hence the hypotheses were partially upheld.

According to Bryne (1993), most people have a strong need for social approval. Relatedly, persons low in self esteem are more threatened by rejection, and therefore more vulnerable to stress and burnout. Philip and Lee (1980) noted strong evidence of low self esteem among teachers as a consequence of some antecedent factor (lack of support from administrators), followed by experienced job stress.

At a more macro level, associations were found between the personalities of chief executive officers and the structure of their organizations (Miller and Droge, 1986). The need for achievement (a dimension of conscientiousness) of the CEO’s of the smaller and younger firms sampled was found to predict the degree of centralization, formalization, and integration in their companies. High scorers were more likely to centralize power and use instruments of formalization such as policies, procedures, and financial, performance, and quality controls. Miller and Droge (1986) argued that their findings were consistent with the need that high achievers have to directly monitor and control performance. The structure of the high achievers’ companies allowed them to gather the necessary information to monitor and exert direct control over performance. Hogan et al., (1994) suggested that the key to effective leadership is the ability to build a team—an ability predictably related to personality—fits with the finding that personality is more predictive of contextual rather than task performance.

Motivation implies that emotions and moods are reactions to the status of one’s goals during everyday encounters and life in general. The concept of motivation helps clarify what makes a particular encounter relevant, a source of harm, a source of benefit, and, thus, emotional (Wexler, 2002).
Cognitive theory implies that emotions involve some basic knowledge and an appraisal of what is happening during a particular encounter. Basic knowledge consists of situational and generalized beliefs about how things work, and it is apt to be rather cold than emotional. Appraisal involves an evaluation of the personal significance of what is happening during an encounter with the environment. In the case of a mature individual, the appraisal or a situation tends to be heavily influenced by social-cultural variables and personal development (Wexler, 2002). Within this relational, motivational, and cognitive theory of emotions, the following concepts are of particular relevance: the personal or self; the situational encounter or demands; and the appraisal process. The personality or self includes what is important to the individual—that is, the person’s goals, beliefs, and knowledge. With regard to teachers, Kelchermans (1993) defines the ‘professional self’ as the individual teachers’ personal conception of himself or herself as a teacher. The professional self, for most teachers is very personal: most teachers tend to invest heavily their own 'selves' in their work and their students. Such personal investment is almost inevitable: teaching involves intense personal interaction (Nias, 1996) and, according to Fenstermacher (1990), it requires personal involvement with the students. However, teachers’ perceptions of themselves as teachers are important sources not only of self-esteem and fulfillment but also of vulnerability.

According to Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004), Cypriot teachers are motivated to enter teaching by extrinsic rather than intrinsic motives, i.e. the salary, the hours and the holidays associated with this profession. This was in contrary to the findings in developed countries like the USA, the UK, Australia and New Zealand in which teachers seem to enter teaching for intrinsic rather than extrinsic reasons (Scott and Dinham, 2003).
Malmberg (2006) examined the relationship between goal orientations, intrinsic/extrinsic motivation for the teaching profession among teacher applicants. The results suggested that goal orientation was instrumental in long-term teacher motivation and teacher motivation in turn formed the basis of goal orientation.

Research demonstrated that students who perceived their teachers as supportive of learning, themselves enjoyed their studies, felt competent, set mastery goal-orientation and utilized adaptive study strategies (Roeser et al., 1996), and that teachers who experienced their actions as self-determined were intrinsically motivated, had a higher sense of well being, felt higher levels of collegial support, were less controlling and were more supportive of their students’ autonomy, than teachers who experienced that their actions were not self-determined i.e. extrinsically motivated (Pelletier et al., 2002).

Elliot (1999) defined achievement motivation as energization and direction of competence based affect, cognition and behaviour. While the organismic basis of achievement motivation distinguished between need of success and fear of failure (White, 1959; Atkinson, 1964). Goal theory and goal-orientation theory posits that humans set up goals, which are available at the level of consciousness, and are transformed into action, when the context is conducive towards need fulfillment (Elliot, 1999). Two major goal-orientations have been proposed. Approach and avoidance-goal-orientation, the former subdivided into mastery and performance goals (Elliot, 1999). Mastery approach goals depict the goal to learn, develop or acquire competence, which overlap conceptually and empirically with task goals (Middleton and Midgely, 1997).

Mastery goals have been clearly related to adaptive outcomes such as self efficacy, self-regulation, deep learning strategies, positive affects, interest, enjoyment and intrinsic motivation (Church et al.,
Performance approach goals depict the direction towards gaining favorable judgments of competence, and overlaps with relative ability goals (Roeser et al., 1996), or self-enhancing ego orientation (Skaalvik, 1997) and have been related to both adaptive outcomes such as perceived competence and graded performance, and maladaptive outcomes, such as surface learning strategies and downward comparisons (Midgely et al., 2001). Performance avoidance goals are defined as the orientation towards avoiding unfavorable judgments of lack of competence, overlapping with performance avoidance goal-orientation or a self-defeating ego orientation (Elliot, 1999).

Avoidance goals have been related to maladaptive outcomes such as lack of help seeking, self-handicapping strategies, negative affect and low graded performance (Elliot and Church, 1997; Middleton and Midgely, 1997), especially in contexts, which are competitive (Lehto and Elliot, 2000).

Malmberg, (2006) reported that teaching profession deals with facilitating knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes to their students, most part of which is stipulated by curricula, regulations, and evaluation boards. In the everyday working context, teachers meet the expectations of students, parents, community members and colleagues. Teaching subjects and their inherent logical structure and the ways these are prescribed in curricula, pose constraints on the order and content of the teachers work. The teaching profession could facilitate needs of competence, autonomy and relatedness via positive collegial support, positive relationships with the parents of students and choicefulness in day- to-day tasks. On the other hand, lack of social support, excessive parental expectations, reinforcement of norms and customs and rigid guidelines for day-to-day teaching would thwart these basic needs into feelings of incompetence, lack of choices and commitment and isolation (Firestone and Pennell 1993).
Being well integrated would fulfill the needs of belongingness, being skillful in interpersonal relationships would fulfill the need for competence, and experience the profession as self-determining and enjoyable would fulfill the basic needs of autonomy (Ryan and Deci, 2000).

From the point of view of teacher education it would be beneficial to enroll teachers' who have the potential to function autonomously, for three reasons. 1) Whether teachers are intrinsically or extrinsically motivated affected their teaching strategies and job satisfaction. Those teachers who felt external pressure like constrained by the curriculum, administration and colleagues tended to become more controlling of their students performance and results, 2) students taught by an intrinsically motivated teacher enjoyed their task more and were more interested in learning than those who were taught by an extrinsically motivated teachers (Reeve et al., 1999) and, 3) intrinsic motivation constitutes an important part of commitment and staying on the job (Makinen, 2000).

The ideas of personal virtues of teachers have changed over time. At the turn of the 20th century a person who was normal healthy and held virtuous and appropriate values and beliefs, could have been choosen for the position of ‘model citizen’. Later, the ideal teacher has been described as healthy, industrious, self-directed, creative and extraverted (Kivinen and Rinne, 1995).

B. SUBJECTIVE WELL BEING, MENTAL HEALTH, HAPPINESS AND PERCEIVED HEALTH STATUS.

(i) It was hypothesized that Subjective Well Being and Mental Health were expected to be positively related with Perceived Health Status and Perceived Happiness Status.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Subjective Well Being was positively related with
Perceived Health Status among total sample of teachers ($r=0.21$) and male teachers ($r=0.30$). Subjective Well Being also positively correlated with Perceived Happiness Status among male teachers ($r=0.37$). No significant relationship emerged in female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Positive Affect was positively related with Perceived Health Status among total sample of teachers ($r=0.20$) and female teachers ($r=0.27$).

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that no significant relationship emerged between Negative Affect, Perceived Health Status and Perceived Happiness Status among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Satisfaction with Life was positively related with Perceived Health Status among male teachers ($r=0.26$). Satisfaction with Life was also positively related with Perceived Happiness Status among total sample of teachers ($r=0.22$) and male teachers ($r=0.46$).

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Total Mental Health was positively related with Perceived Happiness Status among total sample of teacher ($r=0.22$) and male teachers ($r=0.29$). No significant relationship emerged in female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Mental Health dimension viz. Being Comfortable with Self was positively related with Perceived Happiness Status among total sample of teachers ($r=0.24$) and male teachers ($r=0.30$). No significant relationship emerged in female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that no significant relationships emerged between Mental
Health dimensions viz. **Being Comfortable with Others** and **Perceived Ability to meet Life Demands** with Perceived Health and Perceived Happiness Status among total sample of teachers, male teacher and female teachers.

Table numbers 8, 9 and 10 showed Multiple Regression Equation for the Criterion variable **Positive Affect** for Total Sample of Teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that Perceived Health Status emerged as a significant predictor among total sample of teacher ($\beta=0.15$).

Table numbers 11, 12 and 13 showed Multiple Regression Equation for the criterion Variable **Negative Affect** for the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that Perceived Health Status emerged as a significant predictor among Male Teachers ($\beta=-0.23$).

Table numbers 14, 15 and 16 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Satisfaction with Life** among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the Regression tables revealed that Perceived Happiness Status emerged as a significant predictor among male teachers ($\beta=0.27$).

Table numbers 17, 18 and 19 showed Multiple Regression Equation for the criterion variable **Subjective Well Being** for the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the Regression tables revealed that Perceived Health Status and Perceived Happiness Status did not emerge as significant predictors among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

Table numbers 20, 21 and 22 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Total Mental Health** for the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that Perceived Happiness Status emerged as a
significant predictor among female teachers ($\beta=0.21$) only. The proposed hypotheses were upheld.

A substantial number of studies show a relatively sizable relationship between self-rated Health, Happiness, Subjective Well Being and Mental Health.

Campbell et al., (1976) found that although health was rated by subjects as the most important factor in happiness, satisfaction with health was actually only the eighth strongest predictor of life satisfaction. Mancini and Orthner, (1980) found a strong zero-order correlation between health and SWB, they found that when other factors such as leisure activities were covaried, the effect was non significant. This indicates that part of the influence of health on Subjective Well Being is not simply the direct effect on how people feel physically, but also on what their health allows them to do (Miller, 1980).

Physical activities comprises a wide range of behaviors, including exercise, sport, and other activities such as walking and cycling. During physical activities, most individuals use other resources than those needed in work accomplishment processes, with the exception of individuals who work in the increasingly rare jobs with heavy physical demands. Active involvement in Physical leisure activities implies a cognitive distraction of job-related duties (Yeung, 1996) and enhance Subjective Well Being.

Passive leisure activities have a detrimental effect on individual’s health and well being because they were related to boredom and apathy (Iso-Ahola, 1997). Passive leisure have negative effects was derived from empirical findings that show the positive effects of active leisure (exercise and sports). Passive leisure might be consequence of stressful and low-control work situations (Karasek and Theorell, 1990). Such work situations were related to poor
individual health and well-being. Additionally, depression might be a third variable that accounts for the relationship between passive leisure and poor well-being: Depressive individuals engage more in passive leisure and at the same time suffer from poor well-being (Wells et al., 1989).

Empirical research showed that physical activities have a positive effect on individuals' mood and well-being, including both short-term and long-term benefits (Byrne and Byrne, 1993).

Sabine, (2001) examined the effects of short time leisure activities on situational well being. The study showed that leisure time activities and low stress work situations contribute independently to an individuals’ well being. Analysis showed that work related activities had a negative effect on individuals’ situational well being before going to sleep, whereas low effort activities, social activities and, physical activities had a positive effect.

Previous studies showed that physical activity was associated with higher Subjective Well Being (Arent et al., 2000; Stathi et al., 2002), lower depressive symptoms (Fukukawa et al., 2004) and lower anxiety (Watanabe et al., 2000), while a higher level of physical activity has a positive effect on meaning in life (Takkinen et al., 2001; Kahana et al., 2002) and self-rated mental vigour (Lutgendorf et al., 2001). Some studies have suggested that health positively contributes to meaning in life (Takkinen et al., 2001).

Lampinen et al., (2006) examined the roles of physical and leisure activity as predictors of mental well-being among older adults. Findings suggested that mental well-being in later life is associated with activity, better health and mobility status, which should become targets for preventive measures.

Researchers have accumulated evidence that many life circumstances correlated with Subjective Well Being at only modest
levels, supporting the idea of adaptation. Campbell et al., (1976) estimated that 10 resources, including income, number of friends, religious faith, intelligence, and education, together accounted for only 15% of the variance in happiness. Diener et al., (1995) found that a highly prized possession among college students, physical attractiveness, predicted only small amount of variance in respondents' reports of pleasant affect, unpleasant affect, and life satisfaction. Perhaps even more striking, a number of studies showed that objective physical health, even among the elderly, is barely correlated with Subjective Well Being (Okun and George, 1984). Suh et al., (1996) found that in less than three months, the effects of many major life events (e.g., being fired or promoted) lost their impact on Subjective Well Being.

Keyes (2006) supported that Subjective Well Being is a fundamental facet of the quality of life. The quality of an individual's life can be assessed externally and objectively or internally and subjectively. From an objective standpoint, other people measure and judge another's life according to criteria such as wealth or income, educational attainment, occupational prestige, and health status or longevity. Nations, communities, or individuals who are wealthier, have more education, and live longer are considered to have higher quality of life or personal well-being. The subjective standpoint emerged during the 1950's as an important alternative to the objective approach to measuring individual's well-being. Subjectively, individuals evaluate their own lives as evaluations made, in theory, after reviewing, summing, and weighing the substance of their lives. In short, subjective well-being is an evaluation or declaration that individuals make about the quality of their lives (Diener et al., 1999; Keyes et al., 2000).

According to Keyes (2006) Mental health has been conceived and diagnosed as a syndrome of positive feelings and functioning in
life that are measured by subjective emotional well-being (i.e. hedonia) and subjective psychological and social well-being (i.e. positive functioning). Specifically, flourishing is a state of mental health in which people are free of Diagnostic and Statistical Manual mental disorders such as major depression and filled with high levels of emotional, psychological, and social well-being. Human languishing is a state of emptiness in which individuals are devoid of emotional, psychological, and social well-being, but they are not mentally ill. Moderately mentally healthy adults are not depressed or languishing, but neither have they reached the level of flourishing in life. Mental health, which is a complete state of subjective well-being (i.e. hedonic and eudiamonic well-being) as well as the absence of common mental disorders, is unequivocally a valuable asset to both individual and society. However, there appears to be a shortage of it in the population (Keyes, 2006).

Keyes (2006) suggested that a third generation of research on subjective well-being has emerged that is focused on health and human development as the presence of well-being (health) and not merely the absence of illness, disease, and development deficiencies. New directions in subjective well-being are emerging such as the study of mental health as a complete state, which suggests the need for greater scientific attention to integration of hedonic and eudiamonic measures and theory.

A variety of concepts from personality, developmental, and clinical psychology have been synthesized as criteria of mental health (Jahoda, 1958) and psychological well-being. Elements of psychological well-being are descended from the Aristotelian theme of eudaimonia, which states that the highest of all goods achievable by human action is personified in concepts of self-actualization (Maslow, 1968), full functioning (Rogers, 1961), individuation (Jung, 1933) and maturity (Allport, 1961). Ryff (1989) integrated these writings into
psychometrically sound measures reflecting a multidimensional model of psychological well-being. Each of the six dimensions of psychological well-being indicates the challenges that individuals encounter as they strive to function fully and realize their unique talents (Ryff, 1989; Ryff and Keyes, 1995). The six dimensions encompass a breadth of well-being: Positive evaluation of oneself and one's past life, a sense of continued growth and development as a person, the belief that one's life is purposeful and meaningful, the possession of quality relations with others, the capacity to manage effectively one's life and surrounding world, and a sense of self-determination (Ryff and Keyes, 1995).

Previous research on respite from work (Westman and Eden, 1997) confirmed the findings which showed that leisure time activities are related to individuals' well-being (Stanton-Rich and Iso-Ahola, 1998). The positive effects of social and physical activities were in line with earlier findings (Byrne and Byrne, 1993; Hills and Argyle, 1998). Spending some time on activities that put overall low demands on the individual are experienced as helpful for arriving at a high level of well-being. This was true for individuals in stressful jobs such as the teachers (Schaufeli et al., 1994). Moreover, it became evident that both active (physical) and passive (low effort) activities have positive effects on well-being.

Diener and Fujita (1995) found that the resources that are most related to a person's Subjective Well Being are those resources that help with his or her particular goals. Kasser and Ryan (1996) suggested that certain goals will be more beneficial to happiness than other desires, and therefore they contend that not all goals are equally helpful in obtaining happiness. Diener et al., (1999) concluded that the happy person is blessed with a positive temperament, tends to look on the bright side of things and does not ruminate excessively about bad events, is living in an economically developed society, has

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social confidants (intimate friends), and possesses adequate resources for making progress toward valued goals.

C) **SUBJECTIVE WELL BEING, MENTAL HEALTH, ANGER EXPERIENCED AND ANGER EXPRESSION STYLES.**

(i) It was hypothesized that Subjective Well Being and Mental Health were expected to be negatively related with Anger Experienced i.e. State Anger and Trait Anger.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that **Subjective Well Being** was negatively related with State Anger among female teachers ($r=-0.28$) only. No significant relationship emerged between Subjective Well Being and Trait Anger among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that **Positive Affect** was negatively related with State Anger among female teachers ($r=-0.35$) only.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that **Negative Affect** was positively related to Trait Anger among total sample of teachers ($r=0.20$) and female teachers ($r=0.33$).

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that no significant relationship emerged between **Satisfaction with Life** and State Anger and Trait Anger among total sample of teachers, Male Teachers and Female Teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that **Total Mental Health** was negatively related with Trait Anger among total sample of teachers ($r=-0.25$) and female teachers ($r=-0.32$). The table also revealed that Total Mental Health was negatively related with State Anger among female teachers ($r=-0.27$) only.
A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Mental Health dimension viz. **Being Comfortable with Self** was negatively related with Trait Anger among total sample of teachers ($r=-0.40$), male teachers ($r=-0.41$) and female teachers ($r=-0.39$). The tables revealed that Being Comfortable with Self was negatively related with State Anger among total sample of teachers ($r=-0.22$) only.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that no significant relationships emerged between Mental Health dimensions viz. **Being Comfortable with Others** and **Perceived Ability to meet Life Demands** with State Anger and Trait Anger among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

Table numbers, 8, 9 and 10 showed Multiple Regression Equation for the criterion variable **Positive Affect** for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that State Anger emerged as a significant predictor among female teachers ($\beta=-0.27$) only. Trait Anger emerged as a significant predictors among total sample of teachers ($\beta=0.15$) only.

Table numbers 11, 12 and 13 showed Multiple Regression Equation for the criterion variable **Negative Affect** for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. Table number 14, 15 and 16 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Satisfaction with Life** for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that State Anger and Trait Anger did not emerge as a significant predictor for Satisfaction with Life among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

Table numbers 17, 18 and 19 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Subjective Well Being** for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at
the tables revealed that State Anger emerged as a significant predictor for Subjective Well Being among female teachers ($\beta=-0.26$) only.

Table numbers 20, 21 and 22 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Total Mental Health** for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that State anger emerged as a significant predictor among female teachers ($\beta=-0.27$). Trait Anger emerged as a significant predictor among total sample of teachers ($\beta=-0.17$) only.

The term "anger" usually refers to affective experience, ranging in intensity from mild annoyance to fury and outrage (Spielberger et al., 1983; Barefoot, 1992).

"Hostility" typically characterizes cognitive elements such as attitudes and beliefs; more specifically, the term "hostility" generally reflects a person's tendency to view the world in a negative, cynical fashion (Barefoot, 1992; Buss and Perry, 1992). Whereas anger is used to describe the experience of an emotional state that is primarily intrapersonal, hostility is distinctly "other-directed" and centers on the relational implications of trait anger. Finally, the term "aggression" consistently is used to describe behavior (Geen, 1990). Aggressive behavior may be precipitated by anger, but it may be motivated by many other factors as well.

The distinctions among anger, hostility, and aggression are critical in understanding three unique dimensions assessed by self-report measures of trait anger. Anger corresponds to affect, aggression to behavior, and hostility (or cynicism) to cognition. Together the three constructs form a three-factor "ABC" model of trait anger.

It is important to know which aspects of trait anger are strongly saturated with Neuroticism related variance. The best evidence was reported by Costa et al. (1989), who linked the affective, anger experience dimension of trait anger to Neuroticism, and further proposed that the behavioral component was related to Agreeableness.
versus Antagonism. At a conceptual level it seemed likely that the
cognitive component of trait anger should be related to both
Neuroticism and (low) Agreeableness, thereby leading to lower
Subjective Well Being.

(ii) It was hypothesized that Subjective Well Being and Mental
Health were expected to be negatively related with Anger
Expression dimensions viz. Anger In, Anger out and Total
Anger Expressed.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and
7) revealed that Subjective Well Being was negatively related with
Anger In among female teachers (r=-0.31) only.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and
7) revealed that Negative Affect was positively related with Anger Out
among total sample of teachers (r=0.17) and male teachers (r=0.32).
Negative Affect was positively related with Anger In among female
teachers (r=0.28) only.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and
7) revealed that no significant relationships emerged between Positive
Affect, Satisfaction with Life and Anger Expression dimensions viz.
Anger In, Anger Out and Total Anger Expressed among total sample of
teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and
7) revealed that no significant relationships emerged between Mental
Health dimensions viz. Being Comfortable with Self, Being
Comfortable with Others, Perceived Ability Meet Life Demands
and Total mental Health with Anger Expression dimensions viz.
Anger In, Anger Out and Total Anger Expressed among total sample of
teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

Table numbers 8, 9 and 10 showed Multiple Regression
equation for the criterion variable Positive Affect for total sample of
teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that Anger In emerged as a significant predictor among total sample of teachers ($\beta=-0.15$) and female teachers ($\beta=-0.19$).

Table numbers 11, 12 and 13 showed Multiple Regression Equation for the criterion variable **Negative Affect** for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that Anger In emerged as a significant predictor among female teachers ($\beta=0.26$) only. Anger Out emerged as a significant predictor among male teachers ($\beta=0.30$) only.

Table number 14, 15 and 16 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Satisfaction with Life** for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that none of the Anger Expression dimensions viz. Anger In, Anger Out and Total Anger Expressed emerged as significant predictors among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

Table numbers 17, 18 and 19 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Subjective Well Being** for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that Anger In emerged as a significant predictor among total sample of teachers ($\beta=-0.15$) and female teachers ($\beta=-0.21$).

Table numbers 20, 21 and 22 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Total Mental Health** for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that none of the Anger Expression dimensions viz. Anger In, Anger Out and Total Anger Expressed emerged as significant predictors among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.
Costa et al., (1989) related anger expression to Agreeableness and anger experience to Neuroticism.

Diong and Bishop (1999) examined the role of anger expression in the experience of stress, coping with stress and psychological and physical well-being. Based on a sample of 268 Singaporeans, the results indicated that anger expression was significantly related to reported stress, mechanisms for coping with stress and psychological well being. Higher levels of anger expression were associated with higher levels of stress as well as lower use of active coping. Active coping was in turn positively related to psychological well being. In addition, higher levels of anger expression showed a direct negative relationship with psychological well being as did higher levels of stress. In contrast, the only significant predictor of physical well being was reported stress, with higher levels of stress related to lower levels of physical well-being.

Martin et al., (2000), reported that affective, behavioural and cognitive factors showed strikingly different associations with the big five personality traits. The results showed that angry affect was most strongly related to neuroticism, whereas behavioural aggression was associated with low agreeableness. Cynical cognition represented a blend of neurotic and disagreeableness characteristics.

Based on norm violation theory, McPherson et al., (2003) examined students' reactions to teachers' normative and nonnormative expressions of anger. Students rated both types of aggressive expressions as highly intense and inappropriate (or nonnormative), but assertive displays as appropriate and less intense. Additionally, aggressive expressions were negatively related to students' affect, whereas assertive expressions were positively related to affect. The study illustrated that normative violations of anger are associated with negative evaluations of the teacher and course.
(iii) It was hypothesized that Subjective Well Being and Mental Health were expected to be positively related with Anger Control dimension of Anger Expression Styles.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that no significant relationships emerged between Subjective Well Being, Positive Affect and Negative Affect with Anger Control dimension of Anger Expression Style among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Satisfaction with Life was positively related with Anger Control dimension of Anger Expression Styles among male teachers (r=0.28) only.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Total Mental Health was positively related to Anger Control dimension of Anger Expression Style among total sample of teachers (r=0.23) and male teachers (r=0.28). No Significant relationship emerged in female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Mental Health dimension viz. Being Comfortable with Self was positively related with Anger Control dimension of Anger Expression Style among total sample of teachers (r=0.20) and male teachers (r=0.33). No significant relationship emerged in female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Mental Health dimension viz. Being Comfortable with Others showed no significant relationships with Anger Control dimension of Anger Expression Style among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.
A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Mental Health dimension viz. **Perceived ability to Meet Life Demands** was positively related with Anger Control dimension of Anger Expression Style among total sample of teachers \((r=0.23)\) and female teachers \((r=0.27)\). No significant relationship emerged in male teachers.

Table numbers 8, 9 and 10 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Positive Affect** for the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. Table numbers 11, 12 and 13 showed Multiple Regression Equation for the criterion variable **Negative Affect** for the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. Table numbers 14, 15 and 16 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Satisfaction with Life** for the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. Table numbers 17, 18 and 19 showed Multiple Regression Equation for the criterion variable **Subjective Well Being** for the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. Table numbers 20, 21 and 22 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Total Mental Health** for the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that Anger Control dimension of Anger Expression Style did not emerge as significant predictor among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

Golby (1996) described how teachers managed negative emotions in their work, in particular annoyance, irritation, and anger. Golby found that the teachers learned to control their anger, viewing professionalism as controlling one’s emotions to effectively work within the institution. Golby suggested that the need to be in control might result in a restricted set of emotional responses in the workplace.
D) SUBJECTIVE WELL BEING, MENTAL HEALTH, STRESS AND COPING.

(i) It was hypothesized that Subjective Well Being and Mental Health were expected to be negatively related with Stress Measures viz. Daily Hassles, Occupational Stress and Stress Symptoms and positively with Uplifts.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Subjective Well Being was negatively related with Stress Measures viz. Occupational Stress \((r=-0.30)\), Daily Hassles \((r=-0.22)\) and Stress Symptoms \((r=-0.19)\) among total sample of teachers. Subjective Well Being was negatively related with Occupational stress \((r=-0.43)\) and Stress Symptoms \((r=-0.27)\) among male teachers. Subjective Well Being was negatively related with Daily Hassles \((r=-0.29)\) among female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Positive Affect was negatively related with stress measures viz. Occupational Stress among total sample of teachers \((r=-0.22)\) and male teachers \((r=-0.28)\). No significant relationship emerged in female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Tables numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that there was no significant relationships emerged between Negative Affect and Stress Measures viz. Daily Hassles, Occupational Stress and Stress symptoms among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Satisfaction with Life was negatively related to Stress Measures viz. Occupational Stress \((r=-0.27)\) and Daily Hassles \((r=-0.22)\) among total sample of teachers. Satisfaction with Life was negatively related with Occupational Stress \((r=-0.36)\) among male teachers. No significant relationship emerged in female teachers.
A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Total Mental Health was negatively related with Occupational Stress ($r=-0.35$) and Stress Symptoms ($r=-0.19$) among total sample of teachers. The tables revealed that Total Mental Health was negatively related with Occupational Stress ($r=-0.45$) among male teachers. The tables revealed that Total Mental Health was positively related with Uplifts ($r=0.25$) among total sample of teachers. No significant relationship emerged in female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Mental Health dimension viz. Being Comfortable with Self was negatively related with Stress Measures viz. Occupational Stress among total sample of teachers ($r=-0.26$) and male teachers ($r=-0.46$). A positive correlation emerged between Being Comfortable with Self and Uplifts among total sample of teachers ($r=0.23$) and male teachers ($r=0.28$). No significance emerged in female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Mental Health dimension viz. Being Comfortable with Others was negatively related with Occupational Stress among total sample of teachers ($r=-0.25$) and female teachers ($r=-0.31$). Being Comfortable with Others was negatively related with Stress Symptoms ($r=-0.27$) among female teachers. No significance emerged in male teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Mental Health dimension viz. Perceived Ability to Meet Life Demands was negatively related with Occupational Stress among total sample of teachers ($r=-0.27$), male teachers ($r=-0.30$) and female teachers ($r=-0.26$). Perceived ability to meet Life Demands was positively related with Uplifts among total sample of teachers ($r=0.18$).

Table numbers 8, 9 and 10 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable Positive Affect for total sample of
teachers, male teachers and female teachers. Table numbers 11, 12 and 13 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Negative Affect** for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that Stress Measures viz. Daily Hassles, Occupational Stress and Stress Symptoms did not emerge as significant predictors among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

Table numbers 14, 15 and 16 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Satisfaction with Life** for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that Uplifts emerged as a significant predictor among male teachers ($\beta=-0.20$).

Table numbers 17, 18 and 19 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Subjective Well Being** for the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that Daily Hassles emerged as a significant predictor ($\beta=-0.16$) among total sample of teachers.

Table numbers 20, 21 and 22 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Total Mental Health** for the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teacher. A glance at the tables revealed that Occupational Stress ($\beta=-0.34$) and Uplifts ($\beta=0.19$) emerged as significant predictors among total sample of teachers. The proposed hypotheses were upheld.

In recent years, increasing attention has been given to understanding teacher stress and burnout. This has been recognized as a widespread problem in teachers and has received a great deal of research attention (van Dick and Wagner, 2001; Van-Der-Doef and Maes, 2002).

Most authors conceptualized burnout as a response to stress at work characterized by negative attitudes and feelings toward the people with whom one works (depersonalization attitudes) and toward
the profession itself (lack of personal fulfillment at work), together with a feeling of being emotionally exhausted (Maslach and Jackson, 1986).

Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) have defined burnout as a persistent and negative mental state that is essentially characterized by the emotional exhaustion that accompanies distress, a feeling of reduced competence, little motivation, and the development of dysfunctional attitudes at work. Studies suggest that stressors which cause teacher stress, and in turn burnout, are the result of external factors and individual dispositions, cognitive appraisal, and other personal and social resources (van Dick and Wagner, 2001).

It has also been established that occupational stress reported by teachers cuts across all cultures (Cooper and Kelly, 1993). In Ghana, a study showed that lack of accommodation for teachers, lack of free education for teachers' children and low salaries were identified by teachers as the three most stressful events experienced in their jobs (Schroeder et al., 2001). Among Arabs and Jewish teachers too, it has been reported that stressful situations and conditions are noticeable (Gaziel, 1993). In Nigeria, Duyilemi (1992) discovered that lack of resources for teaching, delay in promotion, students coming to classes without necessary writing materials, having to teach large classes and poor attitudes of students towards work, were perceived to be major sources of occupational stress among teachers in primary schools. Ijaiya (2000) also reported that factors considered by teachers as stressors are: poor conditions of service, with the consequence of an inability to fulfill their personal responsibilities and duties; lack of recognition by the society; lack of promotion; work overload in the school; poor facilities for teaching; and poor pupil academic achievement.

One model of teacher stress defined stress as a response syndrome mediated by an appraisal of threat to the teacher's self...
esteem of well-being. In that model the appraisal of threat to the well-being is the main mechanism for mediating the experience of stress. Coping mechanisms are subsequently activated to reduce the personal threat and mediate the stress-response syndrome. Therefore the experience of stress results from the perception of demands, the inability or difficulty in meeting such demands stemming from lack of effective coping resources, and the ultimate threat to teachers' mental and physical well-being. The model is related to the transactional model of stress offered by Lazarus (1966) and Lazarus and Folkman (1984).

According to the transactional model, stress depends on an individual's cognitive appraisal of events and circumstances and on the ability to cope, the environment. An individual's coping strategy is constantly changing to manage specific demands that are appraised as exceeding the person's resources (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). Coping with stress in the work environment can be less effective because many aspects of the work situation that are stressful tend to lie outside the individual's control (Kyriacou, 1981). The general level of alertness required by teachers in meeting potentially threatening and various demands may explain why the experience of stress is so prevalent (Kyriacou, 1987). Cox and Brockley (1984) concluded that "work appears as a major source of stress for working people, with teachers appearing to experience more stress through work than non-teachers."

The sources of teachers' stress are multidimensional (Borg and Riding, 1991; Boyle et al., 1995). Coates and Thorsen (1976) found that commonly reported sources of teacher stress include time demands, clerical duties, and difficulties with pupils, motivation and control of students, large classes, financial constraints and lack of educational supplies. Later studies reported that the numerous sources of stress could be grouped into the four major categories of pupil misbehavior, poor working conditions, time pressure and poor
school ethos-staff relations. Other studies cite students' poor attitude and workload (Blase, 1986) as additional primary sources of teacher stress. Finally, teacher stress appears more prevalent in larger school systems than in smaller school systems (Reese and Johnson, 1988; Green-Reese et al., 1991).

The literature on occupational stress has shown that all professions experience one form of stress or another (Onah, 1995). Empirical evidence showed that teaching is a highly stressful occupation (Chan, 1998). Stress among employees working in schools and educational settings is particularly high (Cox and Brokley, 1984; Pithers, 1995; Yagil, 1998). Proctor and Alexander (1992), found that when asked: 'How stressful do you find teaching?', 67% rated teaching as considerably or extremely stressful, 32% rated it as slightly stressful and just 2% rated it not at all stressful. Indeed, high stress among teachers, if not checked, could have many negative consequences, including higher levels of anxiety and mental depression (Beer and Beer, 1992; Travers and Cooper, 1994), and a desire to quit the profession or to use drugs (Watts and Short, 1990).

The teaching profession is generally regarded as one of the most stressful professions in the world. Teachers must not only function as pedagogues, but also as citizens of the country, parents, marriage partners, home-owners, etc., which means that they experience multiple stressors in their lives.

Bowen and Schuster (1985) identified the negative impact of stress on staff morale, reporting that many of the senior academics they interviewed were angry, embittered and felt devalued and abandoned. Armour et al., (1987) further reported that stress among academic and general staff of universities significantly affects the quality of both teaching and research, and results in feelings of detachment, low job satisfaction and low job commitment, which may be contagious for students and colleagues. They concluded that the
consequences of academic stress may be far more wide ranging than the occasional stress illness.

Bryne (1993) reported that teachers exhibit signs of emotional exhaustion when they perceive themselves as unable to give of themselves to students. They exhibit signs of depersonalization when they develop negative, cynical, and sometimes callous attitudes toward students, parents and colleagues; and tend to exhibit feelings of diminished personal accomplishment when they perceive themselves as ineffective in helping students to learn, and in fulfilling other school responsibilities. Overall, teachers who fall victim to burnout are less sympathetic towards students, have a lower tolerance for any classroom disruption, less apt to prepare adequately for class, less committed and dedicated to the work (Faber and Miller, 1981).

Boyd and Wylie (1994) reported that increasing workload and work-related stress resulted in less academic time spent on research, publishing and professional development, decreasing teaching and research standards, and increasing interpersonal conflict in academic staff relationships. They further reported that stress negatively impacted on the physical and emotional health, family relationships and leisure activities of both general and academic staff.

Relationships with pupils have been suggested as the most important source of stress for teachers (Tellenback et al., 1983). Several studies have indicated that disruptive pupil behavior is consistently a predictor, if not the best predictor, of teacher stress (Boyle et al., 1995).

Typically, the most dedicated teachers have the highest risk to sustain burnout. For teachers the most characteristic burnout dimension is emotional exhaustion (Van Horn et al., 1997). Because of the rising percentages of absences through illness and disablement,
causes of teacher burnout have received a lot of scientific attention (Byrne, 1994; Cooper, 1995; Taris et al., 1999).

Jarrett and Winefield (1995) surveyed all staff in a South Australian university and reported that the overall level of psychological distress was very high, particularly among academic staff, even though their overall level of job satisfaction was moderately high.

In a study based on Victorian University, Sharpley et al., (1996) reported that stress was a major problem for about 25% of staff, with these staff reporting higher levels of anxiety, days absent, doctors' visits, injuries, accidents, and illnesses, and lower self-reported physical health. Sharpley (1994) concluded that the university sampled 'is showing some real problems in terms of individual and organizational stress-related health. The findings were identical to those reported by Dua (1994) from a New South Wales University.

Results of the study carried out by Gillespie et al., (2001) showed that academic staff reported higher levels of stress than general staff. Five major sources of stress were identified including: insufficient funding and resources; work overload; poor management practice; job insecurity; and insufficient recognition and reward. The majority of groups in their study reported that job-related stress was having a deleterious impact on their professional work and personal welfare. Aspects of the work environment (support from co-workers and management, recognition and achievement, high morale, flexible working conditions), and personal coping strategies (stress management techniques, work/ non-work balance, tight role boundaries and lowering standards), were reported to help staff cope with stress.

University teaching has traditionally been regarded as a low stress occupation (Fisher, 1994). Although not highly paid in comparison to professionals in the commercial sector, academics have been envied for their tenure, light work loads, flexibility, 'perks' such
as overseas trips for study and/or conference purposes, and the freedom to pursue their own research interests. However, during the past two decades many of these advantages have been eroded.

Increasing numbers of academic positions are now untenured, workloads have increased and academics are under increasing pressure to attract external funds, and 'publish or perish' (Fisher, 1994).

Research on stress among academic and general staff of universities from across the globe indicated that phenomenon of occupational stress in universities is alarmingly widespread and increasing (Winefield, 2000). Seldin (1987) stated that the academic environment of the 1980s had imposed surprisingly high levels of job stress on academics, and that the level of stress would continue to increase in future decades. Boyd and Wylie (1994) reported that half of the academics in their sample of academics 'often or almost always' found their work to be stressful, and 80% believed that their workload had increased and become more stressful in recent years. The United Kingdom Association of University Teachers study (AUT, 1990) found that 49% of university employees reported that their jobs were stressful and 77% reported an increase in occupational stress over recent years.

University staff plays a vital role in the creation and development of knowledge and innovation, in addition to education and training. It is well documented that high levels of occupational stress, left unchecked and unmanaged, undermine the quality, productivity and creativity of employees' work, in addition to employees' health, well being, and morale (Terry et al., 1995). Research has also established that high levels of occupational stress result in substantial costs to organizations and the community through health care expenses, compensation payments, lost productivity and turnover (Cooper and Cartwright, 1994).
Some degree of stress is normal and inevitable part of daily living (Costa, and McCrae, 1992). The studies suggest that a significant proportion of university staff is experiencing maladaptive levels of stress, which is impacting on their individual physical and psychological health, their interpersonal relationships at work, the quality of their work, and workplace morale. Winefield (2000) provided evidence suggesting that academics experience higher levels of stress than do individuals in several other occupations, including engineering employees, prison officers, teachers, transport workers and general university staff.

Research has identified several key factors commonly associated with stress among academic and general staff. These include: work overload, time constraints, lack of promotion opportunities, inadequate recognition, inadequate salary, changing job role, inadequate management and/or participation in management, inadequate resources and funding, and student interaction (Boyd, and Wylie, 1994; Dua, 1994; Harrison and Horne, 1997). Other sources of stress, such as high self-expectations, job insecurity (Dua, 1994), lack of community and poor interactions with colleagues (Seldin, 1987), inequality in the system (Boyd, and Wylie, 1994), worries over amalgamations (Sharpley et al., 1996), and lack of regular performance feedback have been highlighted in few studies.

Gillespie at al. (2001) reported that occupational stress impacted professionally and personally. Professionally, staff reported that the current levels of occupational stress negatively impacted on their job performance, interpersonal work relations, their commitment to the university, and their extra-role performance. Common consequence of stress, particularly for general staff, was withdrawal from work in the form of absenteeism, leave due to stress, reduced working hours (dropping to a part-time load), exploring job opportunities outside the university, and resignation. Academic staff
reported the impact of stress on their extra-role performance, describing establishing tighter boundaries around their role.

At a personal level, staff reported that the current levels of occupational stress resulted in a range of physical and psychological health problems, and strained family and personal relations. They reported suffering physical health effects as a consequence of work-related stress. These health symptoms included: headaches and migraines; sleep disorders; back and neck pain; constant muscle tension; weight loss or gain; physical fatigue; lowered immunity to colds and viruses; hypertension; heart problems; and skin disorders (itches, psoriasis, rashes). A few staff reported increased work-related injuries during stressful periods, and four academic staff reported taking heart medication due to work-related stress. Stress impacted on them psychologically, describing feelings of anxiety, depression, burnout, anger, irritability, helplessness, and being overwhelmed, in addition to forgetfulness, an inability to switch off, and frustration towards oneself, other staff, and/or management (Gillespie et al., 2001).

Chan (2003) reported that stress, positive hardiness, and negative hardiness all had significant effect on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, where as only positive hardiness had significant effect on personal accomplishment.

Teacher stress and burnout has increasingly received recognition as a widespread problem and global concern in recent years’ (Kyriacou, 2001). Up to a third of the teachers surveyed in various studies have indicated that teaching as highly stressful (Borg, 1990). Teachers do show marked individual differences in their reactions to different stressors in the teaching profession (Milstein and Farkas, 1998), with some teachers developing more psychological symptoms than others, varying from mild frustration, anxiety and
irritability to emotional exhaustion as more severe-psychosomatic and depressive symptoms (Seidman and Zager, 1991).

William and Gnanadevan (2003) revealed that extraverts and introvert teachers differ in experiencing stress to various situations.

Harkness et al., (2005) explored the way in which employees understand work stress. The findings revealed that talking about being stress provides a socially acceptable way of expressing discomfort and regaining a sense of importance that is lost through feeling under-valued and underappreciated in the organization.

Sonnentag and Bayer (2005) found negative effects of chronic time pressure and the amount of daily work hours on psychological detachment from work during evening hours. High workload is not the only stressor encountered at the workplace. Role stress theory argues that role ambiguity and role conflict are also relevant stressors in work.

Research has shown that stressors encountered at the job have a negative effect on employees' mental and physical health (de Lange et al., 2003; Sonnentag and Frese, 2003).

Studies on recovery processes showed that employee well being improves during off-job time (Westman and Etzion, 2001). Recovery experiences were found to be positively related to subsequent on-the-job behaviour (Sonnentag, 2003). Studies illustrated that recovery issues are closely linked to features of the work situation. Particularly, employees who face highly stressful work situations express a high need for recovery (Sluiter et al., 2001). This high need for recovery is experienced as the desire for being-temporarily-relieved from demands in order to replenish one's resources.

Results showed that conflict was positively related to helplessness and flight behaviour, but also that these responses mediated between conflict and organizational stress. Finally, increases in experienced organizational stress reduced well-being.

Cropley et al., (2006) examined the association between job strains and sleep quality in secondary school teachers and assessed the relationship between individuals inability to switch off from work related issues during leisure time. Results showed that teachers demonstrated a degree of unwinding and disengagement from work issues over the evening. However, compared to the low job strain group, the high job strain teachers took longer to unwind and ruminated more about work-related issues, over the whole evening, including bedtime. There was no difference in total sleep time between the groups, but high job strain individuals reported poorer sleep quality compared to low job strain individuals.

Kokkinos (2007) investigated the association between burnout, personality characteristics and job stressors in primary school teachers from Cyprus. Results showed that both personality and work-related stressors were associated with burnout dimensions. Neuroticism was a common predictor of all dimensions. Neuroticism was a common predictor of all dimensions of burnout although in personal accomplishment had a different direction. Managing student misbehavior and time constraints were found to systematically predict dimensions of burnout. Teachers’ individual characteristics as well as job related stressors should be taken into consideration when studying the burnout phenomenon.

One cannot overemphasize the need to tackle occupational stress in teachers which is detrimental to teachers’ Subjective Well Being and Mental Health.
It was hypothesized that Subjective Well Being and Mental Health were expected to be positively related with Problem focused coping and negatively with Emotion focused coping.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that no significant relationship emerged between Subjective Well Being and Problem focused coping/Emotion focused coping strategies among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Positive Affect was positively related to Problem focused coping strategies viz. Planful Problem solving in total sample of teachers (r=0.22) and female teachers (r=0.29). The tables revealed that Positive Affect was positively related to Problem focused coping strategies viz. Accepting Responsibility among female teachers (r=0.36). Among female teachers, Positive Affect was positively related to Emotion focused coping strategies viz. Self controlling (r=0.34) only. No significant relation emerged in male teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Negative Affect was positively related to Emotion focused coping strategies among total sample of teachers viz. Distancing (r=0.29), Escape-Avoidance (r=0.28); and Male Teachers viz. Distancing (r=0.37), Escape Avoidance (r=0.33). The tables revealed that Negative Affect was positively related with Problem focused coping strategies viz. Confrontive coping (r=0.19) and Accepting Responsibility (r=0.20) among Total Sample of Teachers. Negative Affect was positively related with Problem focused coping strategies viz. Accepting Responsibility (r=0.28) and Planful problem solving (r=0.30) among male teachers. No significant relationship emerged in female teachers.

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A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that no significant relationship emerged between **Satisfaction with Life** and Problem focused coping/Emotion focused coping among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that no significant relationships emerged between Mental Health dimension viz. **Being Comfortable with Self, Being Comfortable with Others, Perceived Ability to Meet Life Demands and Total Mental Health** and Problem focused/Emotion focused coping strategies among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

Table numbers 8, 9 and 10 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Positive Affect** for Total sample of Teachers, male teachers and female teachers. Table numbers 14, 15 and 16 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Satisfaction with Life** for the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that Problem focused coping strategies/Emotion focused coping strategies did not emerge as significant predictors among total sample of teachers, male teacher and female teachers.

Table numbers 11, 12 and 13 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Negative Affect** for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that Emotion focused coping strategies viz. Distancing emerged a significant predictor among total sample of teachers (r=0.29), male teachers (r=0.37) and female teachers (r=0.23).

Table numbers 17, 18 and 19 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Subjective Well Being** for the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at
the tables revealed that Problem focused/Emotion focused coping strategies did not emerge as significant predictors among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

Table numbers 20, 21 and 22 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Total Mental Health** for the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that Problem focused/Emotion focused coping strategies did not emerge as significant predictors for Total Mental Health among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

The research in recent years on coping is indicative of the conviction that coping is increasingly recognized as a major factor in the relation between stress and ill health and psychopathology (Coyne and Downey, 1991). Investigators seemed to agree that coping is best conceptualized as a complex multidimensional phenomenon that needs to be assessed reliably in order to detect existing relationships between psychological factors and health, and validity, to allow meaningful interpretations of findings.

Coping responses are known to affect the relationship between stress and well-being (Steptoe, 1991) and rumination have also been conceptualized as a maladaptive coping response (Papageorgiou and Wells, 2004; Thomsen et al., 2004). According to Lazarus and Folkman (1984), coping can be divided into two broad categories: problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping. In response to a stressor, a problem focused approach involves taking direct action, the goal being to reduce either the stressor or enhance resources necessary to deal with it effectively. On the other hand, emotion-focused coping aims to regulate or reduce the emotional consequence of the stressor. In response to a stressor, an individual using an emotion-focusing approach might try to control their feelings by
distracting attention away from the stressor, using wishful thinking, or they might cognitively reevaluate their situation.

Sleep is one of the most important recovery mechanisms available to humans, allowing for recovery from daily strains, and therefore a prerequisite for optimal daily functioning and health. The literature suggests that sleep must be continuous for it to be restorative (Walsh and Lindblom, 2000), and sleep loss and sleep disturbance lead to performance decrements, fatigue, mood changes, and immune function impairment (Harrison and Horne, 1999; Rogers et al., 2001). Even moderate sleep loss is associated with deficits in alertness and performance (Dinges et al., 1997; Jewett et al., 1999).

Happy people are likely to experience positive events. People with high Subjective Well Being are also more likely to perceive "neutral" events as positive. Thus, people with high Subjective Well Being may not only experience objectively more positive events, but they also seem to perceive events more positively than do people who are low in Subjective Well Being.

Theories of coping are based on the idea that in order to cope with problems, happy people initiate thoughts and behaviors that are adaptive and helpful, whereas on an average unhappy people cope in more destructive ways. For example, happy people are more likely to see the bright side of affairs. They pray, directly struggle with problems, and seek help from others, whereas unhappy people are more likely to engage in fantasy, blame others and themselves, and avoid working on problems (McCrae and Costa, 1986).

Another way to study teachers’ responses to daily problems in the classroom is by investigating coping behavior inside and outside the classroom (Blase, 1986; Brophy and McCaslin, 1992). In some studies, teacher coping behavior was characterized as either problem-focused or emotion-focused. Blase (1986) found that in coping with
pupil-related stressors, teachers relied primarily on confrontational strategies or teacher behavior was designed to reduce or eliminate perceived external sources of stress (problem-focused coping).

The relationship between social support and stress in the teaching profession has indicated that teachers with high levels of social support enjoyed better physical and mental health (Greenglass et al., 1994; Burke et al., 1996).

Salo (1995) concluded that teachers in dealing with stressful situations related to the content of their work, work conditions or school organizations were more inclined to use problem solving and extra effort. On the other hand, wishful thinking (emotion focused coping behavior) was used more often by teachers confronted with stressful situations involving pupils).

Salo (1995) found that the teachers' frequent use of problem-oriented ways of coping behavior and social support did not affect the frequency of stressors and feelings of distress. So, coping with stress in the teaching profession is generally quite ineffective, Salo (1995). In contrast, Chan (1994); Green and Ross, (1996) recorded positive effects of problem focused coping strategies.

Admiraal et al., (2000) examined the functional relationship between student teachers’ coping behavior and immediate outcomes resulting from stressful encounters in the classroom. The results revealed that in situations where pupil misbehavior had been appraised as problematic, student teachers demonstrated effective coping behavior when they consistently raised tension in the interaction with the pupils and varied the intensity of activities. The relation between coping behavior and pupils’ time-on-task was less strong in other classroom events (instruction or classroom organization).
Studies have shown that teachers manage stress in several ways. Attridge and Lapp (2000) found that worksite intervention strategies, such as humour, breathing exercises, back and neck exercises, as well as relaxation and relieving pressure points, are some of the strategies that have been found to be useful in reducing stress among teachers.

Arikewuyo (2004) opined that four major coping strategies have been suggested by researchers for teachers. These are: inactive behavioural strategies; active behavioural strategies; inactive cognitive strategies; and active cognitive strategies.

Inactive behavioural strategies involve behaviours of escape and avoidance of the source of stress.

Active behavioural strategies involve confronting or attempting to change the sources of stress.

Inactive cognitive strategies involve conforming with superiors expectations, perceiving one’s helplessness and expressing resentment.

Active cognitive strategies involve problem appraisal, talking about the sources of stress and seeking more information.

Findings of Maltby et al., (2004) suggested that problem focused coping was associated with better mental health, where as neuroticism was related to poorer mental health. The findings were consistent with wider personality, coping and mental health literature (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1985; Carver et al., 1989).

Kozak et al., (2005) attempted to study the genetic determinants of individual differences in coping styles. Results revealed that environmental correlations were lower as compared to genetic correlations which were considerably higher.
Rothschild and Brassard (2006) reported that constructive conflict management strategies are important in maintaining a positive classroom environment yet little is known about interpersonal or school variables associated with teachers’ use of such strategies with students. Teachers high in self-reported Classroom Management Efficacy (CMEFF) and security of attachment (low on avoidance, anxiety) were predicted to endorse use of positive classroom management strategies (integrating, compromising) more than insecure teachers and those low in Classroom Management Efficacy. Results revealed that Classroom Management Efficacy and years of teaching had positive significant effects of intriguing and compromising strategies, while avoidance had negative effects.

One experience that is important for recovery to occur is psychological detachment from work during off-job time. Etzion et al., (1998) referred to psychological detachment as "sense of detachment from work routine" and defined it as "the individual's sense of being away from the work situation". Psychological detachment is more than just being physically away from the workplace. Psychological detachment implies that one is not occupied by work-related duties. For example, being at home, but making job-related phone calls or completing other job-related tasks, will make psychological detachment impossible. For psychological detachment to occur it is necessary to disengage oneself psychologically from work.

Researchers suggested that psychological detachment from work during off job time is highly relevant for recovery to occur (Sonnentag and Bayer, 2005). Individual well being benefits more from off-job time when individuals are able to mentally "switch off". Studies suggested that job stressors and high job strain situations make it difficult to detach from work during off-job time (Cropley et al., 2003; Grebner et al., 2005)
It was hypothesized that Subjective Well Being and Mental Health were expected to be positively related with positive perception of Quality of Work Life, Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Subjective Well Being was positively related to Organizational Commitment among total sample of teachers ($r=0.34$), male teachers ($r=0.34$) and female teachers ($r=0.26$). Subjective Well Being was positively related with Teacher Job Satisfaction among total sample of teachers ($r=0.30$) and male teachers ($r=0.38$). The tables also revealed that Subjective Well Being was positively related to positive perception of Quality of Working Life dimensions viz. Economic Conditions ($r=0.28$), Physical Working Conditions ($r=0.33$), Career Orientation ($r=0.20$), Advancement on Merit ($r=0.34$), Effect on Personal Life ($r=0.38$), Self Respect ($r=0.38$), Supervisory Relationships ($r=0.28$), Intra-Group Relationship ($r=0.34$), Sense of Achievement is Apathy ($r=0.24$), Meaningful Development ($r=0.35$), Control, Influence and Participation ($r=0.24$), Employee Commitment ($r=0.19$), General Life Satisfaction ($r=0.34$) and Organizational Commitment ($r=0.18$) among total sample of teachers. Subjective Well Being was positively related to positive perception of Quality of Working Life dimensions viz. Economic Benefits ($r=0.31$), Physical Working conditions ($r=0.36$), Career Orientation ($r=0.27$), Advancement On Merit ($r=0.34$), Effect on Personal Life ($r=0.30$), Union Management Relations ($r=0.27$), Self Respect ($r=0.29$), Supervisory Relationships ($r=0.30$), Intra Group Relations ($r=0.42$), Meaningful Development ($r=0.32$), Control Influence and Participation ($r=0.33$), General Life Satisfaction ($r=0.29$)
and Organizational Climate (r=0.29) among male teachers. Subjective Well Being was positively related with positive perception of Quality of working Life dimensions viz. Advancement on Merit (r=0.26), Effect on Personal Life (r=0.47), Self Respect (r=0.43), Sense of Achievement is Apathy (r=0.29), Meaningful Development (r=0.39), Employee commitment (r=0.41) and General Life Satisfaction (r=0.35) among female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Positive Affect was positively related with Organizational Commitment among total sample of teachers (r=0.23) and male teachers (r=0.25). The tables also revealed that Positive Affect was positively related with Teacher Job Satisfaction among total sample of teachers (r=0.18) only. No significance emerged in female teachers. The table revealed that Positive Affect was positively related with positive perception of Quality of Working Life dimensions viz. Economic Benefits (r=0.20), Physical Working Conditions (r=0.21), Career Orientation (r=0.22), Advancement on Merit (r=0.33), Effect on Personal Life (r=0.31), Self Respect (r=0.29), Supervisory Relationships (r=0.27), Sense of Achievement Vs Apathy (r=0.23), Confidence is Management (r=0.20), Meaningful Development (r=0.34), Control Influence and Participation (r=0.27), General Life Satisfaction (r=0.24), Organizational Climate (r=0.21), among total sample of teachers. Positive Affect was positively related to Positive Perception of Quality of Working Life dimensions viz. Career Orientation (r=0.26), Advancement on Merit (r=0.36), Self Respect (r=0.28), Supervisory Relationships (r=0.32), Intra-Group Relations (r=0.43), Sense of Achievement vs Apathy (r=0.26), Meaningful Development (r=0.40), Control Influence and Participation (r=0.34), General Life Satisfaction (r=0.27), Organizational Climate (r=0.28) among male teachers. Positive Affect was positively related to positive perception of Quality of Working Life dimensions viz. Effects on Personal Life (r=0.39),
Meaningful Development ($r=0.25$) and Employee Commitment ($r=0.27$) among female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Tables numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that **Negative Affect** was negatively related to Organizational Commitment among total sample of teachers ($r=-0.27$), male teachers ($r=-0.35$) and female teachers ($r=-0.19$). The table revealed that Negative Affect was negatively related to Quality of Working Life dimensions viz. Effect on Personal Life ($r=-0.17$), Self Respect ($r=-0.20$) and Employee commitment ($r=-0.21$) among total sample of teachers. Negative Affect was negatively related to Quality of Working Life dimensions viz. Effect on Personal Life ($r=-0.32$), Self Respect ($r=-0.42$), Meaningful Development ($r=-0.42$), Employee Commitment ($r=-0.31$) and General Life Satisfaction ($r=-0.30$) among female teachers. No significant relationship emerged in male teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation table (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that **Satisfaction with Life** was positively related with Job Satisfaction among total sample of teachers ($r=0.34$) and male teachers ($r=0.45$). The tables also revealed that Satisfaction with Life was positively related with positive perception of Quality of Working Life dimensions viz. Economic Benefit ($r=-0.27$), Physical Working Conditions ($r=0.36$), Career Orientation ($r=0.22$), Advancement on Merit ($r=0.21$), Effect On Personal Life ($r=0.21$), Self Respect ($r=0.24$), Intra-Group Relations ($r=0.24$), Meaningful Development ($r=0.21$), General Life Satisfaction ($r=0.26$) among total sample of teachers. Satisfaction with Life was positively related with positive perception of Quality of Working Life dimensions viz. Economic Benefits ($r=0.31$), Career Orientation ($r=0.28$), Effect on Personal Life ($r=0.25$), Intra-Group Relations ($r=0.26$) and Meaningful Development ($r=0.27$) among male teachers. Satisfaction with Life was positively related to positive perception of quality of working Life dimensions viz. General Life Satisfaction ($r=0.25$) among female teachers. No significance emerged
between Organizational Commitment and Satisfaction with Life among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Total Mental Health was positively related to Organizational Commitment among total sample of teachers \( (r=0.32) \), male teachers \( (r=0.27) \), and female teacher \( (r=0.32) \). Total Mental Health was positively related to Teacher Job Satisfaction among total sample of teachers \( (r=0.22) \) only. Total mental health was positively related to positive perception of Quality of Working Life dimension viz. Advancement on Merit \( (r=0.17) \), Intra Group Relations \( (r=0.27) \), Control, Influence and Participation \( (r=0.20) \) among total sample of teachers. Total mental health was positively related to positive perception of quality of working Life dimensions viz. Intra Group Relations \( (r=0.29) \) among female teachers. No significant relationship emerged in male teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Total Mental Health dimension viz. Being Comfortable With Self was positively related with Organizational Commitment among total sample of teachers \( (r=0.32) \) and male teachers \( (r=0.39) \). Being Comfortable with self was positively related to Teacher Job Satisfaction among male teachers \( (r=0.28) \). Mental Health dimensions viz. Being Comfortable with self was positively related with positive perception of Quality of Working Life dimensions viz. Intra Group Relations among total sample of teachers \( (r=0.23) \) and female teachers \( (r=0.35) \). No significance emerged in male teachers.

The perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Mental Health dimension viz. Being Comfortable with Other was positively related with Organizational Commitment \( (r=0.35) \) among female teachers. No significance emerged in total sample of teachers and male teachers. Mental Health dimensions viz. Being Comfortable with Others was positively related to positive
perception of Quality of working Life dimension viz. Advancement on Merit ($r=0.17$) among total sample of teachers. No significant relationship emerged in male teachers and female teachers.

A perusal at the inter correlation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed than Mental Health dimension viz. Perceived Ability to Meet Life Demands was positively related with Organizational Commitment ($r=0.24$) among total sample of teachers. The tables also revealed that Total Mental Health dimension viz. Perceived ability to meet Life Demands was positively related to Job Satisfaction ($r=0.17$) among total sample of teachers. Perceived ability to meet Life Demands was positively related with positive perception of Quality of Working Life dimensions viz. Advancement on Merit ($r=0.21$), Intra Group Relations ($r=0.21$), Meaningful Development ($r=0.18$) and Control, Influence and Participation ($r=0.23$) among total sample of teachers. No significant relationship emerged in male teachers and female teachers.

Table numbers 8, 9 and 10 revealed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable Positive Affect for the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that Quality of Working Life dimensions viz. Meaningful development ($\beta=0.24$) emerged as a significant predictor among total sample of teachers. Intra Group Relations ($\beta=0.42$) emerged as a significant predictor among male teachers and Effect on Personal Life ($\beta=0.31$) among female teachers.

Table numbers 11, 12 and 13 showed Multiple Regression equations for the criterion variable Negative Affect for the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables showed that Organizational Commitment ($\beta=-0.23$) and Employee Commitment ($\beta=-0.19$) among total sample of teachers and Sense of Achievement vs Apathy ($\beta=-0.50$) among female teachers emerged as significant predictors for Negative Affect.
Table numbers 14, 15 and 16 showed Multiple Regression equations for the criterion variable **Satisfaction with Life** for the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables showed that Physical Working Conditions ($\beta=0.36$) and Teacher Job Satisfaction ($\beta=0.23$) among total sample of teachers, Teacher Job Satisfaction ($\beta=0.33$), Physical Working Conditions ($\beta=0.31$) and Sense of Achievement vs Apathy ($\beta=-0.21$) among male teachers, and General Life Satisfaction ($\beta=0.25$) for female teachers emerged as significant predictors for Satisfaction with Life.

Table numbers 17, 18 and 19 showed Multiple Regression Equation for the criterion variable **Subjective Well Being** for the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that Self Respect ($\beta=0.31$) and Supervisory Relationships ($\beta=0.17$) among total sample of teachers, Intra Group Relations ($\beta=0.30$) among male teachers, Effect on Personal Life ($\beta=0.46$), and Organizational Commitment ($\beta=0.25$) among female teachers emerged as significant predictors for Subjective Well Being.

Table numbers 20, 21 and 22 showed Multiple Regression equation for the criterion variable **Total Mental Health** for total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that Organizational Commitment ($\beta=0.32$), Intra Group Relations ($\beta=0.25$), Physical Working Conditions ($\beta=-0.30$) and Control, Influence and Participation ($\beta=0.37$) emerged as significant predictors among female teachers. The hypotheses which were proposed have been upheld.

Commitment to work had been a topic of interest to researchers for some time, as reflected by the many reviews of commitment theory and research (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990).

Understanding the occupational commitment construct is important for several reasons. First, occupations represent a
meaningful focus in the lives of many people. This has become increasingly the case as educational levels rise and work becomes more specialized (Burris, 1983) and as employees deal with extensive organizational change. Second, occupational commitment is important because of its potential link to retention—in terms of both occupational and organizational membership. Whether the concern is society’s need to retain people in particular occupations or an organization’s need to maintain the optimal level of turnover (Colarelli, 1998), a link between occupational commitment and retention would have important human resources management implications. Third, occupational commitment is important because of its potential links to work performance. Researchers have demonstrated that the development of expertise necessary for consistent high-level performance requires individuals to engage regularly in the relevant activities for long periods of time (Ericsson and Lehmann, 1996). Thus, to the extent that it influences continued involvement in the occupation, occupational commitment might be an important precursor of exemplary work performance. Finally, the occupational commitment construct is important because it contributes to our understanding of how people develop, make sense of, and integrate their multiple work-related commitments, including those that go beyond organizational boundaries (Meyer et al., 1998).

Bogler and Somech (2004) studied the relationship between teacher empowerment and teachers’ organizational commitment, Professional Commitment (PC) and Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB). Professional growth, status and self-efficacy were significant predictors of organizational and professional commitment, while decision making, self-efficacy, and status were significant predictors of organizational citizenship behaviour.

Teachers’ commitment to the organization or the school has been found to predict school effectiveness (Howell and Dorfman, 1986; Rosenholtz, 1991). A positive relationship has been found between
organization commitment and regular employee attendance, and an inverse relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention (Balfour and Wechsler, 1996). Employees who are highly committed to both the profession and the organization were found to perform better than the less commitment ones, a behavior which results in improved overall effectiveness of the organization (Aranya and Ferris, 1984).

Evers (1990) suggested that teachers’ successful participation in decision-making could be explained by the feeling of ownership that comes from initiating ideas rather than responding to others proposals. Gaziel and Weiss (1990) claimed that teachers' participation based on establishing a strong voice in decisions and policies was a characteristic of "professional orientation" and fostered better working relations among staff members. With regard to self-efficacy, teachers with a greater sense of efficacy are more enthusiastic about commitment to teaching (Guskey, 1994), report higher level of commitment to teaching (Coladarci, 1992), and are more likely to remain in teaching (Glickman and Tamashiro, 1982).

Job involvement is a specific belief about one's present job and refers to the degree to which one's job can satisfy one's needs (Kanungo, 1982). Individuals with high job involvement identify more with their jobs and regard their job as highly important for their lives.

Job involvement has been found to be positively related to effort, various facets of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and low turnover intention (Brown, 1996). However, job involvement may also have negative side effects. For example, individuals with high job involvement were found to react more negatively to job stressors (Frone et al., 1995).

Hoy and Miskel (1991) stated that "In educational settings, jobs satisfaction is a present and past oriented affective state of like of dislike that result when an educator evaluates her of his work role".
Teachers use descriptors for job satisfaction that revolve around how they feel about coming to work each day and the sense of success, of lack of it, that they have for their performance when dealing with students (Taylor and Tashakkori, 1995).

Professional commitment is the key contributor to job satisfaction: for teachers, this can be expressed in three ways. The first way can be described as a belief by teachers that they have prerequisite subject content knowledge and skills in sufficient detail to be able to teach the particular course effectively and with confidence (Little, 1995).

Posamentier and Stepelman (1995) stated that "the teacher must always be fully prepared and knowledge in the lesson for the day and must at the same time maintain effective discipline as well perform clerical chores satisfactorily"

Teachers who were satisfied with jobs stated that they felt positive about what they knew and that how they taught, it does matter in the education of their students (Albert and Levine, 1988). Those teaches also recognize the importance of ongoing professional development (Beck and Murphy, 1966). Without a sense of professional competence, let alone growth, some degree of professional unease may result in feelings of dissatisfaction with teacher's instructional success over the short term and if such sentiments persist, with their jobs.

Evidence suggested that increased "administrivia" such as paperwork and other tasks perceived by teachers to be non substantive contributors to student academic achievement can result in withdrawal from participation, or in extreme cases, exit from the profession (Albert and Levine, 1988). The key factor in maintain teacher's commitment to the school appears to be their perception of meaningful, organizational involvement.
Lortie's (1975) research on commitment demonstrated involvement and activity in work beyond the immediate demands of the post. It was through reference to levels of 'commitment', that the teachers distinguished between those who were seen to 'care about the children' and 'take the job seriously' and those who did not, between those who were 'real teachers' and those interests were elsewhere, between those who are 'professionals' and those who are not (Nias, 1989).

Anderman et al., (1991) found that a school culture that emphasized accomplishment, recognition, and affiliation is related to teacher satisfaction and commitment and that principals action create distinct working environments within schools that are highly predictive of teacher satisfaction and commitment. Similarly, Firestone et al., (1987) reported that teacher commitment to the education enterprise and school climate were closely interrelated factors that can be affected by programmatic and administrative actions at the district and school levels.

Teacher satisfaction is a pivotal link in the chain of education reform. Teacher satisfaction influences job performance, attrition, and ultimately student performance. Most effective teachers place significant emphasis on student-teacher relationships and demonstrate this in a variety of ways (Gay, 1995).

A major stressor for teachers is their lack of involvement in decision that bears directly on their quality of work life (Bacharach et al., 1986). Participation in the organization decision-making process has been shown to be a critical factor in maintaining worker morale, motivation, enthusiasm, self-esteem and overall job satisfaction (French and Caplan, 1973), and it minimizes role conflict and role ambiguity.

Research on teacher burnout- has been marked by frequent reference to the lack of support by administrators (Blase and
Evidence of a strong relation between supervisory support and teacher stress had been empirically supported. There is considerable evidence that peer as well as supervisory support plays a major role in reducing job stress (Cunningham, 1982; Maslach and Jackson, 1984).

Spady (1973) and Barnes (1987) had also found teacher with fewer years of experience to have more favorable attitudes than more experienced teachers. On various quality of working life dimensions, however, results revealed that more experienced teachers perceived Quality of Working Life significantly more positively than teachers with lesser number of teaching experience viz. On Economic Benefits, Physical working Conditions, Meaningful Development (Kaur, 1993). This could be because younger teachers may want more infrastructure facilities and financial benefits than what they get and hence perceive the existing organizational environmental negatively. Singh (1986) in his study had also found younger and less experienced teachers to be most alienated. Taylor (1986) also found that teachers with most years of teaching experience tended to have more members that perceived job factors as contributing to their job satisfaction than subjects with lesser years of teaching experience.

Gyanani (1998) reported that the organizational climate of the institutions played a significant role in creating stress and a strain in teachers. Teachers working in close and controlled type of organizational climate remained tensed and developed physiological as well as psychological deformities in their bodies. In contrast, teachers working in autonomous type of organizational set up remained mentally happy and healthy.

Weiss (1999) examined the relationship between work place conditions and morale, career choice commitment and planned retention among teachers. Results revealed that a school culture that supports collaboration and teacher participation in decision-making
was most strongly related to higher morale, stronger commitment to teaching and intention to remain in the profession.

Collegial and supportive social organizational conditions can encourage teachers to work together, to support each other, and to use and develop a common knowledge base (Little and McLaughlin, 1993). Moreover, teachers who are formally initiated into the profession stand a better chance of developing norms encouraging self-perpetuating growth and are more likely to develop greater commitment to teaching (Rosenholtz, 1989a).

Workplace conditions appear to play a key role in keeping teachers in the field. Yee (1990) found that teachers highly involved in their work attributed their decision to stay in teaching more to supportive workplace conditions than to pay; other highly involved teachers reported unsupportive workplace conditions as the main reason they left the field. Supportive workplace conditions included appropriate workload, opportunities for collegial interaction, professional development, participation in decision making and support for student discipline.

Without adequate instructional supplies and opportunities for professional development, teachers cannot teach. Poor workplace conditions make teaching difficult and are likely to accelerate the attrition of new teachers (Metropolitan Life, 1990). These factors tend to undermine respect for teachers, who are left with few incentives to try harder or even to stay in teaching (Metropolitan Life, 1991). Many teachers do not experience professional autonomy in the workplace (Carnegie Foundation, 1990) even though it is believed to contribute to a better match between programs and the needs of teachers and students as well as teacher satisfaction (Tyack, 1990; Perie et al., 1997).

A greater reduction in employee stress could possibly be achieved by use of interventions geared towards changing the
organizational or system-level factors that have seemed to cause much of the stress (Orioli, 1996).

A supportive departmental climate also can act as a source of coping assistance (Klein, 1996). West and Smith, (1998) showed in their study on the departmental climate in universities in Great Britain that academic staff perceived departments as becoming more formalized and less supportive. Applied to the academic context, it is also argued that female academic staff may experience a rather 'chilly' climate, which easily can result in discomfort and stress (Acker and Feuerverger, 1996). For instance, female academic staff can be confronted with the consequences of stereotyping (Cejka and Eagly, 1999), gender discrimination in the workplace (Roxburgh, 1999), and tokenship (Gardiner and Tiggemann, 1999).

Woods et al., (1997) found that the culture of the school, its internal dynamics and organization, enabled or constrained the achievement of 'satisfaction', 'commitment' and 'motivation' and impact upon teachers' constructions of their teacher identities and the acceptance or rejection of the identity 'teacher' as an aspect of self. They suggested that teachers have high stability in their careers 'when they have a good relationship with pupils and when they function well in the school organization' and that a change to one of these aspects resulted in a period of instability within the teacher's career.

Abel and Sewell (1999) stress from pupil misbehavior and time pressures was significantly greater than stress from poor working conditions and poor staff relations for both rural and urban school teachers. Poor working conditions and time pressures predicted burnout for rural school teachers; pupil misbehavior and poor working conditions predicted burnout for urban school teachers. Support from co-workers and management, recognition and achievement, high morale, and flexible working conditions, helped them to cope with work-related stress. This included talking to co-
workers about work and 'having a whinge' and a laugh together, sharing one's workload with co-workers, being able to ask for help, and being able to rely on support staff and support services. Attending training and development programs also helped to reduce occupational stress. Personal strategies for coping with work-related stress included: practicing stress management techniques, maintaining a work/non-work balance, establishing tight role boundaries, lowering standards and self-expectations, and relying on personal sources of social support (Gillespie et al., 2001).

Martin et al., (2005) showed that employees whose perceptions of the organization and environment in which they were working (that is, psychological climate) was positive, were more likely to appraise change favourably and report better adjustment in terms of higher job satisfaction, psychological well-being, and organizational commitment, and lower absenteeism and turnover intentions.

Effective management of the psychological transition of employees is integral in the achievement of successful organizational change (Bennett and Durkin, 2000). Successful adjustment to change can result in higher levels of enthusiasm for future change, providing opportunities for learning and growth. Alternatively, poor adjustment to change is characterized by feelings of threat, uncertainty, frustration, alienation, and anxiety, particularly in relation to issues of job security, status, work tasks, co-worker relations, and reporting relationships (Ashford, 1988).

Thoms et al., (1996) related to the subject of people's preference for adopting particular roles when working with others. The big five dimensions of neuroticism, extraversion and conscientiousness accounted for significant variance in manufacturing employees' self efficacy for working in self-managed work groups. A motivational explanation, that autonomy encourages extra effort, is often implicitly assumed. More recent explanatory approaches concern the
opportunity that autonomy provides for increasing performance-related job knowledge, and for the development of broader and more proactive role orientations amongst employees. Role orientations are people’s understanding of their job roles, such as whether they feel included in wider team and customer goals and whether or not they feel they should actively engage in finding and solving problems. As with the other types of contextual performance discussed, dispositional factors may partly explain individuals’ job role orientations. Including individual difference variables, such as personality traits, in models of the mechanisms by which job design factors affect performance may increase the predictiveness of the models. These findings can be used by employers in the universities.

Barkat et al., (1999) attempted to study the role of organizational stress among bank managers and university teachers. The results revealed that female bank managers scored significantly higher than female university teachers on all the dimensions of organizational role stress namely: inter-role distance, role stagnation, role expectation conflict, role erosion, role overload, role isolation, personal inadequacy, self-role distance, role ambiguity and resource inadequacy.

Kudva (2000) attempted to study the relationship between professional aspects and teacher burnout. Results found (a) significant nonlinear relationship was found between depersonalization, emotional exhaustion and lack of personal achievement and professional qualification. (b) The level of teaching exhibited a significant positive relationship with depersonalization and lack of personal achievement. (c) There was a significant negative relationship between emotional exhaustion and level of teaching. (d) the professional growth showed a significant non-linear relationship with depersonalization and lack of personal accomplishment. (e) There was no significant relationship between emotional exhaustion and professional growth, (6) the professional commitment has a significant
negative relationship with depersonalization and personal achievement. (f) There was no significant relationship between emotional exhaustion and professional commitment. (g) The role efficacy had a negative relationship with depersonalization, emotional exhaustion and lack of personal achievement.

Munthe (2003) examined the relations between the aspects of workplace and teachers’ professional certainty. Results revealed a negative relationship between role ambiguity and teachers perceived certainty.

Teaching as a profession is characterized by inherent uncertainty, and learning to cope with uncertainty is a major part of developing professionally. Eraut (1994) described professional conduct as performing wise judgments under conditions of considerable uncertainty whereas Schon (1999) argued that an important component of professional education curriculum was how practitioners learned to deal with situations of uncertainty, instability, uniqueness and value conflict.

Teachers, who were able to deal with this uncertainty in a reflective or professional way, were believed to be more certain about the decisions they make and actions they carry out. Professional certainty is not understood as being 100% certain. Researchers such as Rosenholtz (1989) and Lortie (1975) have showed that more uncertain teachers are more prone to working in a routine way, avoiding risks, whereas more certain teachers are more flexible in their approaches.

The new demands both concerning teacher role and learning methods, may be expected to increase role ambiguity. Role ambiguity, not knowing clearly what one’s job is nor how it is assessed, has been found to correlate with reduced personal accomplishment and increased emotional exhaustion (Starnaman and Miller, 1992). It has been found to correlate negatively with job satisfaction and job
performance variables (Rizzo et al., 1970). In a study of teachers and burnout conducted among Norwegian teachers (Mykletun, 2002) changes in role expectations were found to be among the stronger organizational predictors of burnout. Time pressure during the transition phase to new takes and work methods was a part of this change concept.

Miranda and Christel, (2005), found that a combination of high work demands and low autonomy was predicted to lead to burnout for teachers low in time management and not for teachers high in time management. The results of their study revealed that emotional exhaustion was the most predictive dimension of teacher burnout. Teachers who experienced high levels of autonomy felt less emotionally exhausted and more personally accomplished, irrespective of their time management behavior. If experienced levels of autonomy was low, which in practice increasingly seemed to be the case, teachers who engaged more in time management experienced less emotional exhaustion and more personal accomplishment than teachers who engaged less in time management. Thus, time management compensates for low levels of autonomy (Miranda and Christel, 2005).

Miller and Travers (2005) investigated mental health and job satisfaction of minority ethnic teachers in UK. Results revealed that the teachers of minority ethnic group were experiencing poorer mental health and lower job satisfaction as compared to other group teachers. Hierarchy and culture of the school, workload, cultural barriers and lack of status and promotion were the four reliable factors regarding the sources of stress, these minority ethnic teachers were experiencing. They also discovered that total stress, total self-esteem, working conditions, job satisfaction and total discrimination were the major predictors of mental ill health among these teachers. Job dissatisfaction was predicted by total discrimination, workload, total
general health, resolution strategy and the lack of status and promotion.

Special emphasis should be given to those aspects of work places and the work process itself which promote mental health. Eight areas of action have been identified: increasing an employer's awareness of mental health issues; identifying common goals and positive aspects of the work process; creating a balance between job demands and occupational skills; training in social skills; developing the psycho-social climate of the workplace; provision of counseling; enhancement of working capacity, and early rehabilitation strategies, create jobs, provide vocational training, and social and job seeking skills, (World Health Organization, 2007).

Most individual differences in teacher satisfaction appeared to be largely independent of workplace conditions. Although workplace conditions were important contributors to professional satisfaction, they cannot account adequately for the difference in satisfaction among teachers with different background characteristics (Ma and McMillan, 1999).

In an extensive study, strong relationships among high job demands, low levels of job control, and emotional exhaustion were shown (De Jonge et al., 2000). The positive relationships between work demands and emotional exhaustion were also shown for public service lawyers (Jackson et al., 1987), health care professionals (Kalliath et al., 2000), and firefighters (McCall, 2002). It appeared that in other contactual occupational groups, low autonomy and high work demands lead to burnout as well, and especially to emotional exhaustion. So the relationship among autonomy, work demands, and emotional exhaustion for teachers were also found within those professions. It was therefore likely that time management may be generalized to these groups as well. Reid et al. (1999) showed that mental health care professionals mention time management
techniques as an important way of coping with the demanding aspects of their work.

The teaching profession is regarded as the most important profession as its social values lies in its significant contribution to the development in the quality of life and betterment of the society at large. Teachers’ attitudes, motivations and job satisfaction are clearly very important factors to any educational organization. The success of any educational system and its effectiveness depends largely on the job satisfaction of the teachers (Choudhary, 2003).

Numerous studies have shown that teachers’ personal factors influence his job satisfaction. Varrom (1964) and Rohilla (1966) concluded that any explanation of job satisfaction required both work role and personality variables. These two sets of variables were recognized as interacting with each other, thereby influencing and determining one’s job satisfaction. Harrel (1964) classified the determining factors of job satisfaction into three categories viz, personal factors, inherent factors and factors controlled by management.

Patel (1974), Darji (1975), Franklin (1975), Mehare (1976), Pengna (1976) and Mehta (1977) have all reported that teacher morale was positively and significantly related to the school organizational climate.

Wangberg et al., (1982) investigated factors influencing job satisfaction of female teachers. They found that two factors led to job dissatisfaction. One was physical working conditions, and the second factor involved perceptions of women’s roles in professions.

A few earlier studies also reported that job satisfaction and proper working environment were essential for teachers to be effective. Chopra (1986) conducted a study to find relationship between Teacher Effectiveness and job satisfaction. The study conducted in the Government Boys’ schools of Delhi which provided similar
emoluments, avenues for promotion, security of service, working conditions, etc. to the teachers. The schools also followed norms with respect to institutional facilities. So they were similar in this respect as well. Inspite of these similarities, the schools with different types of climate differed in respect of the overall job-satisfaction of the teachers.

Popkewitz and Myrdal (1991) found that teacher collaboration leads to increased feelings of teacher effectiveness and satisfaction, and Guyton and Hidalgo (1995) advocated having teacher mentors in urban schools.

Heller et al., (1992) reported that 28% of variance in teacher satisfaction could be accounted for by satisfaction in meeting students achievement needs. Yee (1990) cited interactions with colleagues as teachers "most valued form of professional stimulation.

Kim and Loadman (1994) cited seven statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction: interactions with students, interactions with colleagues, professional challenges, professional autonomy, working conditions, salary, and opportunities for advancement. Dinham (1994) differentiated several sources of teacher satisfaction that are "human and affective in nature", especially pupil achievement from sources of dissatisfaction that tend to be related more to school structure or administration such as large class sizes, lack of resources and educational policies and procedures.

Dinham also found that the sources of teacher satisfaction varied with gender, experience, and position. Other researchers reported different patterns in job satisfaction according to a host of factors including socioeconomic status and marital status (Betancourt-Smith et al., 1994); gender and level, high school versus elementary (Konanc, 1996); race (Culver et al., 1990); teacher experience (Conley and Levinson, 1993); teacher subject matter (Dvorak, 1993); teacher clientele - gifted versus learning disabled
students (Lobosco and Newman, 1992); and teacher district suburban and rural versus urban.

Beegam (1994) opined that job satisfaction was related to socio-demographic variables such as faculty, locale, religion, caste and community, education of spouse and mode of conveyance. Certain personality variables like self-esteem, materialism-spiritualism orientation, gregariousness and thoughtfulness were found to be related to job satisfaction.

Gupta (1995) found that overall dimension of job satisfaction of teachers were significantly related with teacher effectiveness while on these dimensions viz. salary and other benefits, community aspect supervision, family life, policies and practices, and growth and practices were found to be non-significant.

Kukreti (1994) studied the relationship between job-motivation and teacher competency. The findings revealed that competent teachers joined teaching profession because they regarded teaching as a prestigious job, believe that teaching provided them with a reasonable salary, security, opportunity of social service, to establish human relations and that teaching enhances their knowledge. They choose the profession because they had interest in teaching and so that they could cultivate their creativity and punctuality. On the other hand incompetent teachers joined teaching because through this profession they would get their personal freedom, influencing opportunity and enough leisure time with little burden of work. They believed that it was an easy entrance, greater opportunity of leadership and association with students and self expression.

Shann (1998) reported that teacher job satisfaction is a multifaceted construct that is critical to teacher retention, teacher commitment and school effectiveness. Teacher-pupil relationships ranked highest overall in terms of importance and satisfaction. Teachers in the lower achieving schools were more dissatisfied with
teacher-teacher relationships and their schools curriculum than those in higher achieving schools, and they reported a greater discrepancy in student achievement.

Teacher job satisfaction had been shown to be a predictor of teacher retention, a determinant of teacher commitment. Job satisfaction holds great import for teacher retention. Getting and keeping good teachers is a difficult challenge for many urban school systems. According to some estimates, 50% of beginning teachers leave the profession within 5 years (Colbert and Wolff, 1992; Odell and Ferrano, 1992).

According to Weiss et al., (1999), job satisfaction is independently caused by affective experiences (mood and emotions) and cognitions. Apart from affective personality, affective events at work were considered to have an impact on job satisfaction, too. Weiss and Cropanzano’s (1996) Affective Events Theory (AET) proposed every current work event being appraised as important by the individual to arouse affective reactions. Because of the perceived importance the same work event (an out of order sign on a photocopier or an elevator) can arouse high emotions in one person (anger, fury), whereas the feelings of another do not change at all. These affective reactions represented “direct influences on job satisfaction” (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996) and subsequent behavioural consequences.

Panda et al., (1996) reported that mentally healthy teachers were more satisfied with their jobs as compared to mentally unhealthy teachers. Mental health and age have a significant interaction on teachers’ jobs satisfaction.

Williamson and Baylor (2006) explored the relationship between job satisfaction of teachers and teachers’ sense of self efficacy and social interest. He also tried to explore the relation between job satisfaction and job conditions, age and years of experience, gender and size of school. He found significant relationships between job
satisfaction and teacher efficacy, social interest, and job conditions. Age and years of experience were not found to possess significant relationships with job satisfaction, and differences were found between male and female teachers as well as between teachers in large and small schools.

In the Indian context, Khatoon and Hasan (2000) believed that the job satisfaction was different for males and females, while both may have the same social position and getting the same salary. A man’s job was more closely tied up with his personal and family needs than the female’s job. It was his sacred duty and social binding to earn and fulfill the requirements of the family. Therefore, a job plays a more significant role in the lives, of male than the female. The male was very often the sole source of income of the family. Females on the other hand, generally considered a job as of secondary importance, home and family being her prime interest. Females most often made it only to supplement the income of the family or to spend time out of the home. Further Indian social conditions are conducive for the female to opt for a teaching profession as compared to other services. On the other hand males were a little more ambitious and teaching profession is not high on their priority. Perhaps these are the factors responsible for more job satisfaction in females than their counterparts. Hence it may be concluded that sex of the teacher influences his/her job satisfaction.

Dissatisfaction grew with experience (Khatoon and Hasan 2000). Khatoon and Verma (1982) found that fresher teachers were more inclined towards their job. It was generally seen that in the beginning years of service the teacher is full of idealism, enthusiasm, vigour and devotion, and puts his heart and soul into his work to the maximum for the growth of his pupil, but gradually it declined when teachers’ felt that teaching had little openings and promotional avenues and were not according to their expectations. Further social and family
environments compels teacher to face the truth of life. In the long run ambitions were not fulfilled and it starts playing havoc on the attitude of the teachers towards their profession. On the other hand Gupta (1983), Siddiqui (1999) and Khan (2000) found that experience did not affect the teacher's satisfaction in their job.

Perennial factors, such as student achievement, helping students, positive relationships with colleagues and self growth have been associated with teacher job satisfaction, while other factors such as perceived low status, low pay, lack of professional autonomy and deprofessionalisation have been linked to teacher dissatisfaction (Osborn et al., 2000; McNess et al., 2003). However, research exploring the sources and impact of teacher job satisfaction in developing countries was relatively limited (Hean and Garrett, 2001).

Results of the study by DeNeve and Cooper (1998) revealed that emotional stability (low neuroticism) and Extraversion were key aspects of the "happy personality"; one would expect that the factors that cause emotionally stable and extraverted individuals to be happy in life would also lead them to be happy in their jobs. Tokar et al., (1998) noted that, "Greater job satisfaction is related to lower neuroticism and its variants, as well as to higher extraversion and related traits'.

Somech and Zahavy (2000) examined the relationships between extra role behavior and three factors: job satisfaction, self- efficacy and collective efficacy. Results demonstrated positive relations between job satisfaction and extra role behavior; self-efficacy was positively related to extra role behavior.

Niklas and Dormann (2005) stated that job satisfaction was strongly correlated with trait job satisfaction. The relationship between state affect and state job satisfaction is not spurious: State affect impacts on state job satisfaction even if trait affect and trait job

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satisfaction are controlled. Third, the effect of state affect on job satisfaction is stronger than the effect of state affect on job satisfaction measured.

Sonnentag and Kruel’s (2006) study showed a negative relationship between job involvement and psychological detachment from work during off-job time. Individuals who were highly involved were less able or less willing to psychologically detach from work during off-job time. The finding added to other researches that pointed to a potential dark side of high job involvement. For example, studies have shown a stronger relationship between job stressors and poor psychological health in highly job-involved than in low job-involved individuals (Frone et al., 1995).

Porto et al., (2006) investigated the association between work related psychological factors and the prevalence of mental disorders among pre-school and elementary school teachers. Results revealed that there was a 44% prevalence of mental disorders among teachers. Evidence suggested that these were associated with work-related demand and control issues, after controlling for confounding variables such as gender, geographic region and social support. The prevalence of mental disorders among high strain teachers was 1.5 times greater than that among low-strain teachers. Evidence suggests that this was associated with job demands.

Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2006) described the sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among teachers. Results showed that teachers emphasized their satisfaction with interactions with students, relationships held with colleagues, and opportunities to contribute to the growth of individuals and the development of society. Sources of dissatisfaction were social problems and their impact on teachers work, students lack of interest and bad behavior, the
centralized educational system and the lack of professional autonomy in schools, and teacher evaluation and promotion prospects.

F) **SUBJECTIVE WELL BEING, MENTAL HEALTH AND EFFICACY DIMENSIONS.**

(i) It was hypothesized that Subjective Well Being and Mental Health were expected to be positively related with Generalized Self Efficacy and Teachers Efficacy.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that **Subjective Well Being** was positively related with Generalized Self Efficacy ($r=0.25$) among female teachers. No significant relationship emerged in total sample of teachers and male teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that no significant relationships emerged between **Positive Affect**, Generalized Self Efficacy and Teacher Efficacy among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that **Negative Affect** was positively related to Generalized Self Efficacy ($r=0.26$) among male teachers. No significance emerged in total sample of teachers and female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that no significant relationship emerged between **Satisfaction with Life** and Generalized Self Efficacy and Teacher Efficacy among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that **Total Mental Health** was positively related to Generalized Self Efficacy ($r=0.17$) among total sample of teachers and teachers efficacy ($r=0.28$) among female teachers.
A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that no significant relationships emerged between Total Mental Health dimension viz. Being Comfortable with Self and Generalized Self Efficacy and Teacher Efficacy among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Total Mental Health dimension viz. Being Comfortable with Others was positively related to Teacher Efficacy \( (r=0.17) \) among total sample of teachers and Generalized Self Efficacy \( (r=0.33) \) among female teachers. No significant relationship emerged in male teachers.

A perusal at the intercorrelation tables (Table numbers 5, 6 and 7) revealed that Total Mental Health dimension viz. Perceived Ability to Meet Life Demands was positively related to Generalized Self Efficacy \( (r=0.21) \) among total sample of teachers, and Teacher Efficacy \( (r=0.29) \) among male teachers. No significant relationship emerged in female teachers.

Table numbers 8, 9 and 10 showed Multiple Regression equations for the criterion variable Positive Affect for the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. Table numbers 11, 12 and 13 showed Multiple Regression equations for the criterion variable Negative Affect for the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. Table numbers 14, 15 and 16 showed Multiple Regression equations for the criterion variable Satisfaction with Life for the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. Table numbers 17, 18 and 19 showed Multiple Regression equations for the criterion variable Subjective Well Being or the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that Generalized Self Efficacy and Teachers Efficacy did not emerge as a significant predictor among total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers.
Table numbers 20, 21 and 22 showed Multiple Regression equations for the criterion variable **Total Mental Health** for the total sample of teachers, male teachers and female teachers. A glance at the tables revealed that teacher efficacy emerged as a significant predictor ($\beta=0.29$) among female teachers only. Many earlier studies have shown important role of efficacy in teaching.

Teacher efficacy is one of the most commonly researched constructs in education, and for nearly three decades it has been shown to have a positive relationship with student academic achievement (Armor et al., 1976; Gibson and Dembo, 1984; Tschannen et al., 1998).

Bandura proposed that the strongest predictors of human motivation and behavior were self-efficacy beliefs, which comprised of "people's beliefs about their capabilities to exercise control over events that affect their lives" (1989) and individuals' estimations of their competence to execute given tasks (1986). The self-efficacy mechanism was a central determinant of person's ability to exert power, action, and influence and was the result of a complex process of self-persuasion that resulted from the processing of efficacy information conveyed enactively, vicariously, socially, and physiologically.

Teachers' self efficacy was positively related to their performance (Gibson and Dembo, 1984), their optimism in the classroom (Woolfolk et al., 1990), and their commitment to teaching (Coladarci, 1992). Researchers showed that teachers' self-efficacy has been related to humanistic orientations towards classroom management, to a perceived effectiveness in teaching science (Enochs et al, 1995), to extra-role behaviour (Somech and Zahavy, 2000), and to the effectiveness of student teachers in presenting lessons, classroom management, and questioning pupils (Saklofske et al., 1988). Therefore, teachers' self-efficacy is negatively related to their stress.
(Yoon, 2002) or burnout (Evers et al., 2002) and positively related to openness to implementation of instructional innovations (Guskey, 1988).

Gibson and Dembo (1984) examined the relationship between teacher self-efficacy beliefs, academic focus, and teacher feedback behaviors. They found that teachers with high self-efficacy beliefs engaged in practices that were associated with high achievement gains. Compared with teachers who had low self-efficacy beliefs, high-efficacy teachers conducted more large-group and/or whole-class instruction, were better able to keep other students engaged while instructing small groups, assisted low-achieving students during failure situations, and praise low-achieving students more and criticize them less than teachers with low self-efficacy beliefs. Glassberg (1979) reported a positive correlation between self-efficacy beliefs, teachers’ level of cognitive functioning, and effective teaching strategies.

Guskey (1988) explored the relationship between selected teacher perceptions known to be shared by highly effective teachers, and teacher attitudes toward the implementation of new instructional practices. Efficacy was positively and significantly related to both teaching attitudes and teaching self-concept, suggesting efficacious teachers generally liked teaching more and expressed greater confidence in their teaching abilities. More efficacious teachers rated mastery learning as more important and more congruent with current teaching practices, and less difficult to unimplement than did the less efficacious teachers; they were also more receptive to the implementation of new practices.

Soodak and Podell (1993) found that general educators with a greater sense of personal efficacy as compared with teachers with a lesser sense of efficacy were more likely to perceive the regular
education placement as more appropriate for students with learning and behavior problems.

For novice teachers, Chester and Beaudin (1996) reported that age and prior teaching experience were associated with changes in self-efficacy beliefs during the first year of teaching. For older novices (those without previous experience), there was an increase in their self-efficacy beliefs, and for younger novices, there was a decrease. In contrast, the self-efficacy beliefs of all experienced teachers (i.e., teachers who had taught in other districts or had returned to teach) tended to decline, with older teachers having slightly larger decreases than their younger counterparts.

Neuroticism comprises among other things lack of emotional stability, of steadiness, and of confidence. It should therefore be negatively correlated to self efficacy (Judge et al., 2000) as persons with high self-efficacy probably tend to be emotionally stable. Thoms et al., (1996) found a medium negative correlation (-0.37) between specific self-efficacy and neuroticism.

Yeung and Watkins (2000) indicated that teaching efficacy was viewed in terms of the dimensions of concern for instructional participation and learning needs of pupils, communication and relationships with pupils, academic knowledge and teaching skills, lesson preparation, management of class discipline, teaching success, teaching commitment, and a sense of self-confidence. Experiences of teaching practice, electives, pupils, and teaching practice supervisors were the major sources for the development of a sense of teaching efficacy.

Locus of control concerns the belief of what is to be made responsible for the consequences of one's behaviour. Internal locus of control means that the consequences of one's own behaviour are assigned to oneself. External locus of control in contrast means that others are made responsible for these consequences. Those persons
with high self-efficacy tend to attribute success to internal reasons (which will in turn enhance their self-efficacy). The correlation between self-efficacy and locus of control was found to be positive (Judge et al., 1998).

Teacher efficacy was found to be associated with many powerful forces in teaching and learning, including, but not limited to, the following; a sense of personal accomplishment, where teachers view their work as important; a willingness to try innovative practices; personal responsibility for student learning in that area; strategies for achieving objectives for their students; more persistence with students who struggle or have special needs; greater job satisfaction, which correlates with greater retention; a sense of control in the classroom or a belief that the teacher can influence student learning; a sense of common teacher/student goals and democratic decision making (Woolfolk, 2001).

Evers et al., (2002) revealed that self-efficacy beliefs were significantly and negatively related to the depersonalisation and emotional exhaustion dimensions of burnout, and significantly positively related to the personal accomplishment dimension.

Research demonstrates that teachers responded differently to various student characteristics (Tournaki, 2003). Gerber (1988) theorized that teachers could optimally address only a limited range of student characteristics given finite resources, of which personnel and internal teacher characteristics, such as knowledge and expertise, are the primary elements.

Dussalt et al., (2004) investigated the relationships between teacher's instructional efficacy and their efficacy toward integration of technologies in the classroom. Results showed a positive and significant correlation between the two types of self-efficacy beliefs.

Tournaki and Podell (2005) reported that (1) teachers with high efficacy made less negative predictions about students, and adjusted
their predictions when student characteristics changed, while low efficacy teachers paid attention to a single characteristic when making their predictions. (2) All teachers responded similarly to students who exhibited a combination of aggressive and inattentive behaviors, that is, if students were friendly, inattentiveness is tolerated more than if they are aggressive. (3) Teachers made higher predictions of academic success for students reading on grade level even when they are aggressive, than for students reading below grade level even when they are friendly.

G. IT WAS HYPOTHESIZED THAT SUBJECTIVE WELL BEING COMPONENTS AND MENTAL HEALTH COMPONENTS WOULD BE POSITIVELY RELATED.

Correlations among dimensions of Subjective Well Being and Mental Health were computed. Table number 5 revealed that in the Total Sample of Teachers, **Total Subjective Well Being** was positively related to its sub components viz: Positive Affect ($r=0.71$), Negative Affect ($r=0.58$), Satisfaction with Life ($r=0.61$). Total Subjective Well Being was positively related to Total Mental Health ($r=0.31$) and its two components viz. Being Comfortable with Self ($r=0.22$) and Being Comfortable with Others ($r=0.32$). **Positive Affect** was positively related with Perceived Ability to Meet Life Demands ($r=0.34$). **Satisfaction with Life** was positively related with Being Comfortable with Self ($r=0.31$), Perceived Ability to Meet Life Demands ($r=0.24$) and Total Mental Health ($r=0.34$).

**Total Mental Health** as already stated was positively related with Total Subjective Well Being, Satisfaction with Life and its sub components namely Being Comfortable with Self ($r=0.84$), Being Comfortable with Others ($r=0.59$) and Perceived Ability to Meet Life Demands ($r=0.79$).

Table number 6 revealed that in the male teachers, **Total Subjective Well Being** was positively related to its sub components
viz. Positive Affect (r=0.71) and Satisfaction with Life (r=0.71). **Positive Affect** was positively related with Perceived Ability to Meet Life Demands (r=0.35) and Total Mental Health (r=0.28). **Satisfaction with Life** was positively related with Total Mental Health (r=0.36).

**Total Mental Health** as already stated was positively related with Total Subjective Well Being, Positive Affect, Satisfaction with Life and its components viz. Being Comfortable with Self (r=0.36), Being Comfortable with Others (r=0.81) and Perceived Ability to Meet Life Demands (r=0.53).

Table number 7 revealed that in the female teachers, **Total Subjective Well Being** was positively related to its sub components viz. Positive Affect (r=0.70) and Satisfaction with Life (r=0.42). **Positive Affect** was positively related with Perceived Ability to Meet Life Demands (r=0.26).

**Total Mental Health** was positively related with its components viz. Being Comfortable with Self (r=0.85), Being Comfortable with Others (r=0.66) and Perceived Ability to Meet Life Demands (r=0.69).

H. SUBJECTIVE WELL BEING, MENTAL HEALTH AND GENDER DIFFERENCES.

(i) Gender Differences between Male Teachers and Female Teachers on Subjective Well Being and Mental Health and its correlates were explored.

One major aim of the present study was to find out gender differences between Subjective Well Being and Mental Health and its correlates. For this purpose t-tests were computed.

On Subjective Well Being, t-tests emerged significant (t=.01, F>M). On Positive Affect, t-tests emerged significant (t=.05, F>M). On Satisfaction with Life, t-tests emerged significant (t=.05, F>M).
On WHO measures of Mental Health dimensions, t-tests emerged significant for Total Mental Health (t=.05, F>M). t-tests, emerged significant for Mental Health dimensions viz. Perceived Ability to meet Life Demands (t=.01, F>M).

On Personality dimensions, t-tests were significant on Psychoticism (t=.01, M>F) and Lie (Social Durability) (t=.01, F>M). Among Motives, t-tests emerged significant for need for power (t=.01, M>F) only.

No significant differences emerged on Happiness and Perceived Health status.

On anger experienced and anger expression styles, t-tests emerged significant for State Anger (t=.01, M>F).

On Stress and Coping dimensions t-tests emerged significant for Escape Avoidance Coping (t=.05, F>M).

On Organizational Commitment, Quality of Working Life and Teacher Job Satisfaction, t-tests emerged significant for Organizational Commitment (t=.05, F>M). Among various dimensions of Quality of Working Life, t-tests emerged significant for Economic Benefits (t=.01, M>F), Physical Working conditions (t=.01, M>F), Advancement on Merit (t=.05, M>F), Self-Respect (t=.01, F>M), Supervisory Relationships (t=.05, F>M), Intra-Group Relations (t=.01, F>M), Intra-Group Relations (t=.01, F>M), Sense of Achievement vs Apathy (t=.01, F>M), Confidence in Management (t=.01, F>M), and General Life Satisfaction (t=.01, F>M).

No significant differences emerged on Efficacy dimensions viz. Generalized Self Efficacy and Teacher Efficacy.

Many earlier studies also reported gender differences in teachers on various dimensions/factors related to teaching.
Nearly all the early research on achievement motivation was done on men. When women took the TAT their answers were so odd (to the researchers) that the results were simply ignored. Horner (1972) came up with a theory of female achievement motivation. In women, Horner argued, achievement is considered aggressive and unlady like so many bright women develop a motive to avoid success. At the time of Horner's study, women were only a small percentage of all medical students. The women in Horner's study could have been responding not to Anne's success but to her nonconformity. Sure enough, in later studies, when women told stories about women who were first in a class that was 50 percent women, "fear of success" virtually vanished. This finding suggests that Horner's women feared social rejection more than they feared achievement. Indeed, both men and women "fear success" in occupations that are not traditional for their gender (Cherry and Deaux, 1975). Further, in the 1970s, many men began to wonder about the wisdom of striving for success at the expense of relationships and health. Soon, studies were finding that men showed as much "fear of success" imagery as women had (Robbins and Robbins, 1973). In a study of real physicians, 382 women and 866 men, it was the men who showed higher fear-of-success imagery (Pyke and Kahill, 1983).

Many studies showed gender differences in beliefs about self-efficacy. Vollmer (1986) found men had higher perceived self-efficacy. Cavers (1988) found women to be more efficacious than men. Very few studies have specifically addressed beliefs about self-efficacy with respect to science teaching (Czerniak, 1989; Enochs and Riggs, 1990; Riggs, 1991) although these investigators reported higher efficacy scores among men than women. Greenwood et al., (1990) reported women's scores on both personal and general teaching efficacy were higher. Enochs et al., (1993) found no significant sex difference in self-efficacy among teachers.
Gupta (1993) found that male teachers experienced high role conflict than female teachers. Middle aged teachers perceived and experienced significantly more conflict than younger and older teachers. Teachers in schools perceived more role conflict than teachers in colleges and universities.

Singh (1993) examined teacher effectiveness in relation to their sex, area and adjustment. Findings suggested that there was a significant difference between male and female teachers in relation to their adjustment.

A difference in focus exists between men and women throughout their teaching careers (Ben-Peretz, 1996). Huberman (1993) found that women more than men, would select teaching again if given the opportunity; on the other hand, men often saw teaching as an alternative rather than as the main focus of their career aspirations. If we extrapolate, female teachers achieved more satisfaction from teaching than male teachers because they purposefully choose teaching as a career. Male teachers who had been unable to achieve their early career goals may be looking beyond the classroom for satisfaction in such areas as school administration.

Ibarra (1995) argued that female academic staff had fewer opportunities to benefit from supervisory and co-worker support because of their under representation in academia and some studies have reported that men indeed are more likely to benefit from support in the workplace than women (Cianni and Romberger, 1995). However, other studies (Greenglass et al., 1998; Nelson and Quick, 1991) reported stronger effects of support from the supervisor and co-workers for women than for men.

Mishra and Panda (1996), in their study on B.Ed and C.T. training of teachers observed significant differences in teacher's personality, emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment with
reference to their sex. They reported that C.T. trained male teachers perceived the events in their own lives as being largely the consequence of their own action. They have confidence over the situation and had faith to control or handle the situation which was comparatively low in untrained teachers and B.Ed trained male teachers. The B.Ed. trained female teachers who had faith on external powers, i.e. faith, luck, chance thought that situations were beyond their control and if they succeed, the credit went to the outer agencies.

Several studies indicated that coping assistance that was effective for women was not necessarily effective for men and vice versa (Cianni and Romberger, 1995). Moreover, within the University context, it had been suggested that women are confronted with more stress than are men, coupled with access to less resources to cope with stressors (Acker and Feuerverger, 1996; Gardiner and Tiggemann, 1999).

Ma and McMillan (1999) reviewed how teacher professional satisfaction was related to work place conditions. The results showed that female teachers were more satisfied with their professional role as a teacher than were their male counterparts. Teachers who stayed in the profession longer were less satisfied with their professional role. Workplace conditions positively affected teacher satisfaction; administration control was the most important factor, followed by teaching competence and organizational culture. There were significant interactions between teacher background characteristics and workplace conditions. The gender gap in professional grew with increased teaching competence. The results of their study showed that there were significant gender differences in professional satisfaction. Female teachers appeared to be more satisfied with their professional role than their male colleagues. The gap between male and female teachers’ expression of satisfaction increased as beliefs in teaching
A big chunk and volume of the educated female-work-force in India are teachers who have opted for 'teaching' as their profession not because this is what they had always wanted, aspired and aimed for, but more so because of other social, cultural, economic and family considerations. Choice of 'teaching' as a profession by females is likely to meet least resistance from family, husbands and important others. There is a general, common perception that teaching is the most noble and suitable profession for women because it not only helps satisfy their need for employment, occupation and job satisfaction; for acquiring a respectable enough social status and pay-package, but also for providing sufficient time, space and freedom to do justice to all her roles viz. a viz. that of teacher mother, housekeeper, wife etc. all together with ease and equanimity. It is not seen as a work area threatening the harmony and peace of our normal, conventional family-life and hence, a permissible ground for women to tread upon if she so desires.