REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A number of personal and familial characteristics were known to affect the job involvement and psychological well-being. A review of the relevant research literature is presented in this chapter under following sub-headings namely:

2.1 Personal and familial characteristics.
2.2 Personal characteristics and job involvement.
2.3 Personal characteristics and psychological well-being.
2.4 Familial characteristics and job involvement.
2.5 Familial characteristics and psychological well-being.
2.6 Job involvement and psychological well-being.

2.1 Personal and Familial Characteristics

One's personal development depended to a great extent upon the familial characteristics, making it difficult to separate the effect of two, and this was reflected in most researches. Family was the most crucial social unit, which provided an environment for emotional, social, economic and mental support in one's life. A report prepared by National Council of Education Research and Training (1978) revealed that "sufficient help, personal hope and good quality of optimism about the family factors required for the overall development of the child, and socio-economic status play a
major role among which home variables play a vital role". The studies on the effects of various child rearing practices indicated that a firm and consistent discipline at home promoted mature behaviour patterns, cognitive and social competence among school age children (Sharma, Saraswati and Gir, 1980, 1981).

Some of the relevant personal characteristics were of gender, age, experience and stress levels. A brief review of the related literature is included below.

Of the many familial variables, the family size, family structure and relationship with other family members were found important personality determinants (Say, 1986). In a study on school going children ranging between 11 to 14 years of age, Srivastav (1992) pointed out that family is such a socio-biological unit which exerted great influence on the development and perpetuation of child behaviour. Research on some of the family variables has been reviewed below, although many of these are meaningful for adult lives only by extrapolation.

a. Gender, Age and Experience

Figure (1952) and Lincoln (1966) found gender to be a contributing factor to differences between the high and low achievers on the self-concept score. Sharma (1969) reported that the girls in general had a significantly
higher self-concept than boys. Agarwal and Brijbhusan (1967) noted no difference between the self-concept of boys and girls. Smith (1978) found no sex differences on the Coopersmith self-esteem inventory.

Burns (1979) found the self-attitudes and perceptions of younger female and older male teachers as less positive than the older female and younger male teachers. The younger males and older females showed more positive attitudes.

Gomtimani and Gonsalver (1980) found that the more experienced teachers had better self-concepts than the less experienced teachers. Joseph (1983) found no differences among groups of elementary school teachers having different teaching experience, professional education and gender. Pinnell (1989) investigated the relationship among teacher personality typologies and the perceptions of organizational climate in secondary schools. Findings indicated that the personality scores were significantly related to the demographic variables. Hung, Bianca and Bollington (1993) noted higher self-esteem among men as against women, and among older people as against the younger ones. Lee (1993) examined the relationship between teachers' self-esteem and their classroom interactions to determine if these varied by age, years of teaching experience and the total enrollment. The findings
indicated that the teachers with higher self-esteem interacted more with their classes than those with low self-esteem. No significant relationships between teacher's self-esteem and their age, years of teaching experience and total enrollment were noted.

b. Stress Profiles

Welch (1988) found that in public schools the characteristics of classroom teachers were related to the job areas, perceived as most stressful. They had common perceptions of events associated with teaching that produced greatest degree of stress, regardless of grade level taught, gender, age, race, number of years of teaching experience and level of education. Cole (1989) in a study of 150 teachers of elementary, middle and higher schools indicated that teachers with 5 to 10 years of experience reported higher level of stress. The elementary teachers found teaching less stressful than the high school teachers. The teachers having master's degree and 5 to 10 years of experience perceived their supervisors as less considerate and more directive. Byungock (1993) indicated that the junior college faculty members had higher levels of stress than their four year senior college counterparts. Both the junior and senior faculty found the area of student interaction as highly stressful. They also found the age, gender, professional rank, teaching experience and
the size of classes significantly related to stress.

Researchers also focussed on the relationship of self-esteem and stress. Guindon (1993) pointed out that the global self-esteem contributed a small but significant amount of variance in psychological and interpersonal strains. The self-esteem was found to moderate the relationship between occupational stressors and the strain measures. Black (1993) found that the employees at work, who report lower perceived stress have higher self-esteem.

c. Family Size

The size of the family as a sociological variable played an important role in the development of the individual's personality. Sears (1970) reported that the larger the family size, the lower was the self-esteem of the child although Coopersmith (1967) found no relationship between these two variables. Lone and Ahmed (1991) examined the family size of 140 Post graduate students of which 80 came from the rural background. The results pointed out that the large family size was associated with stress amongst the rural as well as the urban background students.

d. Family type

An examination of the family type was relevant, as the family has undergone many changes in Indian context. The
different types of the family set-ups caused diverse
behaviours, because of the different substructures of
power, kinship extensions, support system and the emotional
commitments. The family type contributed to psycho-social
functioning of the members (Beavers, 1977, 1981; Lewis,
1979). The nuclear family type was known to lead to various
advantages (Gore, 1968) as well as problems for its members
(Sussman, 1951; Parsons, 1959; Bhatti, Mahal and Shariff,
1974). Gore noted that a higher percentage of women
reported difficulties in joint family living against a
smaller percentage not having difficulties. Sampurna,
Ansari, Agarwal and Udupa (1979) studied a sample of 300
individuals suffering from stress disorders and concluded
that the joint family type gave rise to stress disorders
more often than the nuclear family system.

e. Family Interaction Patterns

The family interaction patterns were found to have
impact on the personality of the individual (Chopra, 1984;
Wig, Mangalwedhe, Bedi and Murthy, 1982) The interaction
patterns differed from family to family. There were
families having warm relations that provided for emotional
integration transcending the cultivation of individuals
goals. While some other families had cold relations having
difficulties in emotional integration as they did not
emphasize the cultivation of family goals. In some families
an increasingly fragile parent-child link constituted an ongoing source of strain for the functioning of the family, which conditioned children's personality and social development in important ways (Srivastav, 1992).

Numerous studies showed that the differences in styles of parental involvement in families were casually linked to children's self-esteem (Rosenberg, 1965; Buelher et al, 1974; Moos, 1974; Gossett and Philips, 1976; Olson, Bell and Portner, 1978 and Beavers, 1981). Olson, Sprenkle and Russell (1979) conceptualized models of the family as a system which governed the health of individual members. These models defined family in terms of various psycho-social characteristics. When individuals were found poor on these characteristics, they were highly susceptible to have poor individual and family health. Matteson (1974) reported that if children acquired inadequate communication patterns in their family, their level of self-esteem remained low. Roland (1978) observed that the family relationships were based on mutual interdependence, consideration, a greater sensitivity to others feelings and narcissistic hurt. His study implied that the goal of individual's well-being was not separate from that of the family.

Duvall (1977) was of view that the family and its members must be viewed in a developing perspective. The
needs of children were satisfied in the family, which enhanced the level of their psycho-social health and adjustment (Bell and Erickson, 1976). Scanlan (1982) investigated the relationship between three aspects of family environment (such as support, emotional independence and behaviour control) and adolescent functioning. The subjects included fifty 8th graders, of which 18 were males and 32 females. The results indicated that if the effects of race, sex and socio-economic status were controlled, the age contributed significantly to the variance in self-esteem. Slaugh (1983) studied the family interaction patterns in the household context and gathered data on intact families having pre-school and school age children. The families were observed for 77.5 hours on family interactions and the results indicated that the family interactions in the context of house work affected human resource development of the family members.

Cooper, Holman and Braithwaite (1983) examined the relationship between children's self-esteem and their perception of family cohesion. The result indicated that the family cohesion, measured through children's perceptions of family relationships, had an important influence on the development of self-concept. If children perceived conflict between parents or between themselves and their parents, it lowered their self-esteem. An adequate functioning of the family was conducive for the
healthy personality development of the members (Roelofse, 1981, Roelofse and Middleton, 1985). Else, the members felt frustrated and tilted toward maladjustment, crime and anti-social behaviour (Parsons and Bales, 1955; Colelan, 1974; Olson, Russell and Sprenkle, 1980; Bell and Bell, 1984). Also the relationship of self-esteem and self-image to the adolescent-parent relationship has been well established, the adolescent self-esteem increased with parental support, parental appraisal (Openshaw, Thomas and Rollins, 1984), and parent-adolescent communications (Demo, Small and Savin William, 1987). Goldsmith (1989) examined if the psycho-social resources served as the intervening link between family processes and the individual patterns of bonding. Data were collected from 230 respondents at two different universities. Results confirmed the positive relationship between self-esteem and bonding, and with family cohesion, adaptability and parent-adolescent communications and psycho-social resources. The family environment influenced the development of individual traits and behaviours.

Chubb and Fertman (1992) investigated the sense of belonging to the family among 236 adolescents, those who had it and those who did not. The study revealed a positive relationship between subjects' sense of belongingness and self-esteem. Desselle (1993) examined the relationship among self-esteem, family climate and
communication patterns of deaf children. Results revealed a positive relationship between family's communication method and the deaf childrens' self-esteem. The childrens' and adolescents' perceptions of parental involvement, support, interest and participation in their lives were found consistently correlated with adolescents' self-esteem, suggesting a similar outcome in case of adults.

2.2 Personal Characteristics and Job Involvement

Lodahl and Kejner (1965) reported the relationship of personal variables of age, education, marital status, sex, locus of control, length of service, higher order need strength with job involvement. Hander and Simon (1969) found that the personal qualities of a teacher significantly influenced his/her teaching. Garner (1973) reported that the basic personality traits of individuals interacted with the kind of education received and produced certain teaching styles. The teacher's personality in the attitudinal sense remained a significant factor in the teaching behaviour. Better personality adjustment among teachers was also found leading to favourable attitudes towards their job (Chhaya, 1974).

Anantharaman (1982) observed that the personality factors were positively related to job involvement, and that one's personality influenced the job performance. Ahmed (1986) reported similar findings on a sample of 200
under-graduate college teachers. Day and Silverman (1989) in a study of 43 accountants investigated the relationship between specific personality variables and job performance. The results indicated that the personality variables were significantly related to the important aspects of job performance and willingness to work for long hours. Similar findings were reported by Guion and Gibson (1988). Murray and Michael (1991) in a meta-analysis showed consistent relations of the big five personality dimensions with job performance criteria in all occupational groups.

Some of the demographic and personal variables were frequently used by researchers which are briefly reviewed below:

a. Age

Sharma and Sharma (1978) examined the job involvement among engineers in relation to certain demographic variables. They reported that the job involvement increased with age and a rise in job level. An increase in the job involvement was found as the individual got older (Hall and Mansfield, 1975), Sharma and Kapoor,(1978). Anantharaman (1980) revealed that age was positively related with job involvement among nurses. Wera (1982) investigated the attitudes of secondary school teachers towards teaching profession. The findings indicated that the favourable attitude towards teaching became even more
favourable with increase in age. Pathak (1982) reported that age was significantly related to job performance and job involvement. Kulsum (1985) investigated the job involvement of 586 secondary school teachers, and found age to be positively related to teachers' job involvement. Khandelwal (1986) pointed out that job involvement was positively related with age.

In contrast to the above findings, Lorence and Mortimer (1985) revealed that in three different age groups such as (16-29, 30-34 and 44+ years of age), the youngest group had higher job involvement than the older ones. Hantom (1986) used a multivariate framework and found that age had little independent effect on work commitment.

Also, some researchers found no relationship between age and job involvement. A study by Chadha and Kaur (1987) showed no significant correlation between job involvement and age of the white collar workers. Happali and Mallapa (1988) conducted a study on 40 bank clerks and reported age and job involvement were not related. Babu and Reddy (1990) concluded that the personal variables such as age did not affect the job involvement of low, medium and high scorers. Dharendriah and Aminavi (1990) found that age was not significantly related to job involvement in the two samples of P.G. teachers they studied. In another study, Dyer and Linda (1992) examined the job satisfaction,
personal values and personal characteristics of teachers in relation to absenteeism. The results indicated that the variable of age did not show a relationship to work attendance of teachers.

b. Education

Levels and areas of education were found significantly related to job involvement by some researchers only. Siegel and Ruh (1973) reported that workers with higher level of education showed a stronger participation involvement relationship than workers with lower level of education. Mannheim (1975) found a positive relationship between education and job involvement among the occupational groups in Israel. Baba (1979) reported on the basis of the 16 studies investigating the relationship between education and job-involvement, that six reported a positive relationship (Gurin, Veroff and Feld, 1960; Mannheim, 1975; Cleland, Bass, Mchugh and Montano, 1976; Pathak, 1982) Abu-Ismael and Isralowitz (1992) reported on 373 teachers that the higher the level of education, the higher will be the level of work satisfaction. Several other studies did not show any link between education and job involvement. (Jones, James and Bruni, 1975; Ruh, White and Wood, 1975; Rabinowitz, Hall and Goodale, 1977, Ivancevich and McMoham, 1977; Chadha and Kaur, 1987; Babu and Reddy, 1990). Alkdaq and Brief (1975); Baba and Jamal
(1976); Koch and Steers (1978); Saal (1978) showed negative relationship between education and job involvement. Jagdish (1984) examined the job involvement of first level supervisors and reported that the least educated group showed high job involvement, whereas the highly educated group showed lower job involvement. Happali and Mallapa (1988) found negative relationship between education and job involvement in a sample of bank clerks.

Some researchers suggested that education may not co-vary with job involvement, but may moderate the relationship of job involvement with other variables (Siegel and Ruh 1973). In a study of secondary school teachers, Wera (1982) reported that teachers holding a degree and those holding a certificate did not differ in their attitudes towards the teaching profession.

c. Marital Status

The relationship between marital status and job involvement had been investigated by several researchers. Kanungo, Mishra and Dayal (1975) found married workers to be more involved in their jobs than the single ones. Pathak (1982) revealed that marital status as a demographic factor was significantly related to the job involvement of bank officers in India. Wera (1982) examined the attitude of Secondary School teachers towards teaching and revealed the married teachers had more favourable attitudes towards the
teaching profession than those who were unmarried. Happali and Mallapa (1988) found the job involvement of married employees to be significantly higher than those of unmarried employees. Some studies, however, found no relationship between marital status and job involvement (Lodahl and Kejner, 1965; Saal, 1978).

d. Income

Income was found related to job involvement. Sharma and Kapoor (1978) found in their studies on job involvement that salary was positively related to the job involvement of white collar workers. The studies by Anand and Sohal (1981), and Anantharaman and Kalliapan (1982) also pointed out positive relationships between income and job involvement. Kulsum (1985) in his study of 586 secondary school teachers revealed that teachers' salary was positively related to their job involvement level. Shin and Seoks (1993) concluded that the teachers who received higher initial salaries tended to stay in teaching longer than those who received lower salaries.

However, some researchers reported different results. On a study of bank employees, Happali and Mallappa (1988) found no relationship between their income and job involvement. Malone (1993) reported that salary was not a primary contributor to job satisfaction of school teachers. Cheseborough (1993) observed that the
teachers' commitment to teach was high regardless of the difficulties they faced owing to the lack of money.

e. Experience

A positive relationship between work experience and job involvement had been reported by many researchers (Aldag and Brief 1975; Kanungo, Mishra, and Dayal 1975; Newman 1975; Jones, James and Bruni 1975; Robinowitz, Hall and Goodale, 1977; Ivancevich and McMahon, 1977). Sharma and Sharma (1978) examined the job involvement among engineers and reported that the more experienced groups showed higher job involvement than the less experienced groups. Similarly, Koch and Steers (1978) found that more senior employees were found more attached to their jobs. Anantharaman and Kalliapan (1982) and Pathak (1982) reported positive relationship between length of service and job involvement.

Wera (1982) indicated that the more experienced secondary school teachers showed more favourable attitudes towards teaching than the less experienced teachers. Lorence and Mortimer (1985) utilised the panel data from the 1972-73 and 1977 quality of employment surveys, and examined the relation between work experience and subjective job involvement in three age groups at three different career stages. Results indicated that job involvement was volatile in the initial stage of the work
career and became more stable as the workers grew older and experienced. Khandelwal (1986) in a study of supervisors and managers found the job involvement to be positively related to the length of service. Chadha and Kaur (1987) noted that an increase in job tenure showed an increase in the job involvement of employees.

In contrast to the above findings, Davis (1966) reported a negative relationship between length of service and job involvement of executives. Schneider, Hall and Nygren (1971) Schwyhart and Smith (1972) and Hall and Mansfield (1975); found no significant relationship between job tenure and job involvement of middle managers, development scientists and engineers. Similar findings were reported by Gechman and Weiner, 1975; Mitchell, Baba and Epps, 1975; Baba and Jamal, 1976 and Babu and Reddy, 1990.

f. Self-esteem

Teacher's self-esteem was found crucial in the creation of overall learning environment and thus in the development of self-esteem of students. Self-esteem as an aspect of personality, was an important factor in the success of a teacher. Bridle (1984) reported that self-esteem was the product of the evaluation process, that involved judgments about the self. A good number of studies had examined the relationships between different
traits of teachers' personality and effectiveness in teaching, using varied approaches. The effect of self-esteem of teachers on their job involvement was yet little explored.

Broota and Broota (1968) found that when the self-concept did not match with the job, dissatisfaction ensued. The relation of the teachers' positive self-concept to their effective teaching was found by Rosenshine and Trust (1971). They reported that the job involvement of teachers differed to the extent to which their ego was involved in their job. For some, their work was simply the means of earning a living, others were deeply involved in their task and took special pride in their work.

Gupta (1975) used a personality test to predict the effectiveness of 300 high school teachers having 5 to 6 years of teaching experience. The results indicated that the highly effective teachers were more emotionally stable and had higher self-esteem. In another study by Singh (1989), the self concept was found significantly related to the job involvement of college teachers.

Parikh and Patel (1980) conducted a study on the self-esteem of tribal and non-tribals in Gujarat, and found self-esteem to be significantly related to culture and education. It was inferred that the non-tribal students had higher self-esteem and their ego-strength acted as a
significant moderator of the relationship between performance and satisfaction, and job involvement. McDonald and Siegall (1992) in a study of 205 technicians revealed that self-efficacy was positively related to commitment, work quality and quantity. Colodorci (1992) examined the extent to which teachers' sense of efficacy influenced their commitment to teaching. The results indicated that the teachers' personal efficacy emerged as the strongest predictor of teaching commitment. Greater teaching commitment was expressed by teachers who were high both on general and personal efficacy. Results indicated that highly effective teachers had more ego-strength, positive self-concept and were more emotionally stable.

g. Stress

Teaching was considered a stressful situation by many researchers, because of stress emerged as a focal variable in work organization having far reaching consequences for organisational health, and teachers' well-being. Hanmer and Tosi (1974) investigated the relationship between role conflict and role ambiguity and measures of job involvement of high level managers and noted negative correlations. The stress was found to affect the smooth functioning of the organisations negatively (French and Caplan, 1972, House, 1974). Beehr, Walsh and Taber (1976) examined the effects of role stress on individually and organizationally
valued states. The results indicated that role overload was positively correlated with job involvement and the other organisationally valued outcomes. Two other job stressors (i.e. role conflict and ambiguity) were found to have adverse effect on both individually and organisationally valued outcomes and also with job involvement. The relationship between role stress and individually valued outcomes was found moderated by higher order need strength.

Madhu and Harigopal (1976) in an investigation of role conflict and role ambiguity in relation to job involvement indicated significant negative relationship of role stress with job involvement. Harigopal (1980) further examined the moderating effect of personality variables (i.e. ego strength, submissiveness and dominance) on role stress and job involvement. The results again indicated that role stress negatively correlated with job involvement for higher ego strength group of employees, but not for the low ego strength group. Also the role conflict and role ambiguity negatively correlated with job involvement for the employees of dominant nature, but the relationship was positive for the submissive group of employees. In another study of non-technical supervisors, Harigopal (1980) confirmed a negative relationship among role ambiguity and job involvement and performance. Abdel-Halim (1978) observed that negative relationship between role ambiguity
and work outcomes. Abdel-Halim and Ahmed (1982) investigated the moderating effect of social support on the relation of role stress with intrinsic job satisfaction and job involvement. The results showed negative relationship between role stress and job involvement.

Srivastava and Sinha (1983) examined the effects of employees' ego-strength and job involvement on their experience of role stress. The results of the study indicated that a high level of ego strength and job involvement minimised the employees' experience of role stress. It was also noted that the ego strength and job involvement interacted to affect the perceptions of role stress. Job involvement was found to be significantly correlated with role overload and role ambiguity, but not with role conflict.

Singh and Singh (1985) examined the relations among occupational stress, security-insecurity and job involvement of first level supervisors. The results showed significant positive relationship between occupational stress and job involvement, and a negative relationship was observed between security-insecurity and job involvement. Litt and Turk (1985) in study of high school teachers (N=291), revealed that the roles of teachers as perceived by themselves and the school climate, particularly the relationship with administrators, were important in
predicting job stress. Hendrix (1985) found the perceived stress possible to be predicted by a combination of individual and job related characteristics. Stress affected individual and organisational health and effectiveness, by causing an increase in psychosomatic symptoms and decrease in job satisfaction, and thus had an indirect effect on job involvement.

Payne and Furnham (1987) explored the dimensions of occupational stress among West Indian secondary school teachers. The results revealed that the classroom instruction and management related demands were perceived by the majority of teachers as the most stressful aspects of their work. Hayon and Goldstein's (1990) study on the work centrality, job satisfaction and stress among Israeli Secondary school teachers indicated that for the older and more senior teachers, the work centrality and stress were related. Singh and Nath (1991) examined the effects of organisational climate, role stress and locus of control on job involvement of banking personnel and concluded that the organisational role stress was the most powerful predictor of the variations in job involvement. Ahmed and Khanna (1992) examined the job stress of 50 middle managers in relation to their job satisfaction and job involvement. Their findings yielded that occupational stress was negatively related to job involvement. The highly job involved group was found more satisfied than the less
involved group of employees.

McCormik and Salmon (1992) investigated the externalised nature of teachers’ occupational stress, and its association with job satisfaction, dissatisfaction and stress. They surveyed 111 teachers and isolated four stress factors in personal, student, school and external (to school) domains. These factors were consistent with the hypothesis that teachers generally externalise the blame for their stress. The main contributors to the correlation between stress and satisfaction factors were (1) the personal domain (stress), and income (satisfaction) and (2) the school (stress) and school culture (satisfaction). Decker and Borgen's (1993) study on the stress, strain and coping, job satisfaction and negative affectivity dimensions of work appraisal among 249 adults in 75 occupations, revealed that higher stress predicted lower job involvement.

The above review of research showed that personal variables played an important role in job involvement, although there were marked differences among subjects and organisational settings. There were hardly any studies which focussed on teachers in different cultural contexts, in different school types, and having different experience level etc.
2.3 Personal Characteristics and Psychological Well-being

Psychological well-being had been conceptualised by many researchers as a function of satisfaction in more specific life domains. The satisfaction in specific life domains has also been shown to affect overall satisfaction (Campbell, Dunette and Lawler, 1970; Andrews and Withey, 1973; Bhardwaj and Welkening, 1980). It has been asserted that the personal factors which contributed to the psychological well-being must be considered in relation to employee's demographic characteristics. Selected studies on the relationship of factors of age, income, educational qualifications, marital status, self-esteem and stress to psychological well-being are reviewed below:

a. Age

Studies related to the relation of age on psychological well-being showed that the younger individuals experienced lower level of satisfaction than the older people. Gechman and Weiner (1975) studied data on 54 female elementary school teachers and showed that age correlated significantly with their mental health and increased age was associated with improved patterns of life adjustment, and more positive feelings about the job.

Small but positive correlations between age and subjective well-being had been reported by Larson (1978).
Some other reviews also found near zero correlations between age and subjective well-being (Witt, Lowe, Peek and Curry, 1980; Stock, Okun, Harring and Witter, 1983; Usui, 1985). Some other researchers revealed that age could relate differently to different measures of subjective well-being. Herzog and Rodgers (1981) found an average relationship between age and life satisfaction. Diener (1984) reported that young people tend to experience more intense emotions such as happiness, whereas older people experience less intense emotions.

Clark (1987) examined the experience of stress among 2107 black Americans and their psychological well-being. The results indicated a positive relationship between age and psychological well-being. Little impact of age on the well-being was reported by Greenberger and O'Neil (1993). Dixon and Stovalt (1993) indicated that age was positively related to life satisfaction.

Sung and Effy (1994) examined the effect of age on life satisfaction of 1749 adult Australians by using Diener, Emmons, Larson and Griffin's satisfaction with life scale (1985), administered to 17 to 22, 23 to 29 and 30 to 40 year olds. The results indicated that age was a significant variable as the higher life satisfaction characterised the older subjects.
b. Gender

Gender differences were reported as considerable in some and not significant in other researchers. Medley (1976) found gender differences in the relationship of satisfaction with standard of living and global measures of life satisfaction. Gender differences in life satisfaction were also reported by Markides and Martin (1979). Wood, Rhodes and Whelan (1989) reported greater happiness and life satisfaction among women than men. Morganti, Milton, Hulicka and Jerry (1989) reported the significant effect of gender on life satisfaction. Sung and Effy (1994) examined differences between male and female on life satisfaction and reported no significant differences by gender.

c. Education

Only few researchers investigated the relation of education and the psychological well-being of the teacher. This could be due to the common practice of including education in socio-economic status (Larson, 1979; Liang, 1982), although society placed much emphasis on education as a personal resource (Campbell, Converse and Rodgers, 1976; Campbell, 1981) warranting a separate consideration.

The researches on the influence of education on subjective well-being indicated that while education had a
significant correlation (Edward and Klemmack, 1973), it became significant only when the effect of other factors was controlled (Edward and Klemmack, 1973; Spreitzer and Synder, 1974, Plamore, 1979; Toseland & Rasch, 1979). Wilkening and McGranahan (1977) in their study on correlates of subjective well-being pointed out that education explained very little of life satisfaction and that it was negatively associated with psychological well-being of adults, when other variables were controlled. Similar results were found by Otto and Featherman (1975). Bryant and Marquez (1986) pointed out that educational status affected the psychological well-being of the individual.

d. Income

A large number of studies found a positive correlation between personal income and subjective well-being (Easterline 1974, Diener 1984; Diener 1985). Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976) pointed out that income was positively associated with the well-being of the individuals. Kushman and Lane (1980) in their multivariate analysis revealed that income was positively associated with the various measures of life satisfaction and well-being. Income was found to be the largest predictor of subjective well-being as compared to a variety of other predictors by Usui, Keil and Donig (1985). Riddick (1985)
noted income to be a meaningful predictor of life satisfaction.

Wilkening and McGranahan (1977) found income had little relation with life satisfaction. Larson (1978) found the relationship between income and subjective well-being significant, but explaining only a small proportion variance in subjective well-being (i.e. 1 to 9 percent).

Veenohoven (1991) argued that income helped in the fulfillment of the individual's needs and therefore caused subjective well-being and the relationship was absolute. Diener, Sandvik, Seidlitz and Diener (1993) did a 10 year longitudinal study of 4942 American college students in 39 countries and concluded that income was related to well-being both within and across countries.

e. Marital status

The marriage had consistently been found positively related to the subjective well-being in all age groups (Larson, 1978, Diener 1984). According to Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976) marriage could be regarded as asset-enhancing subjective well-being, as the marriage was one of the 15 major domain predictors of global well-being. McGranahan (1977) found the married people more satisfied than the unmarried ones. In another study Vredenburgh and
Sheridan (1979) investigated the relative importance and patterns of interactions among individual, job and community predictors of life satisfaction. The analysis indicated marital status as the only important predictor of life satisfaction. In both the samples the married employees reported higher life satisfaction than the single employees.

Hidore (1985) synthesized the results from 58 empirical sources and indicated that being married was positively associated with subjective well-being. Zollar and William (1987) studied the effect of marriage on the general life satisfaction of 228 black adults. Their findings indicated that married blacks, regardless of gender tended to be happier than the unmarried blacks. Mookherjee (1992) examined the perceptions of well-being with various aspects of life among 2529 adults (aged 18-89 years) and found marital status to be an important factor in an individuals' well-being.

There were only a few studies, which found either the relationship between the marital status and subjective well-being small, or often not significant. Married individuals reported lower rates of psychological symptoms than did the unmarried ones. (Gore, 1972; Saver, 1977; Toseland and Rasch, 1979-80). Edward and Klemmack, (1973); found zero order correlation between marital status and
life satisfaction for a group of elderly individuals.

f. Socio-economic status

A number of researches have documented the relationship of socio-economic status to life satisfaction (Streib, 1956; Inkles, 1960; Phillip, 1967; Bradburn, 1969; Alston and Dudly, 1973). A few years ago, Abraham and Prasanna (1986) studied the relationship between socio-economic status and mental health level of 351 male and 249 female secondary school students. The results revealed a significant positive correlation between their socio-economic status and mental health level. Prasad (1987) in his study on socio-economic status and adjustment patterns reported that high socio-economic group differed significantly from the low socio-economic group in the areas of emotional and overall adjustment. Simon (1990) in a study of 73 adults aged 55 years indicated that the socio-demographic variables correlated significantly with the life satisfaction of the individual. A study by Walter (1993) on Canadian women revealed that subjects experienced mental health problems differently depending on their socio-economic status and ethnicity.

However, Wilkening and McGranahan (1977) reported little impact of socio-economic status on the life satisfaction of 1423 adults, they examined. Andrews and Inglehart (1978) found that people of higher socio-economic
status experienced only slightly greater well-being than the people of lower status.

g. Self-esteem:

Self-esteem as an important dimension of mental health emerged during early adolescence (Peterson, Cocket and Tobin, 1982) and Costa and McCrae (1980) presented evidence which indicated that neuroticism was related to the life quality. Peterson (1975) investigated the effects of self-esteem, need motivation and locus of control on the life satisfaction of older black adults. The results revealed that self-esteem and locus of control affected the life satisfaction of elderly black adults. These were also found to be strong predictors of subjective well-being (Campbell, Converse and Rodgers, 1976). Carp (1974) found her measure of self-esteem accounting for 9 percent of the variance in well-being. Wolk and Tellen (1976) found their measure of self-esteem accounted for 1.64 percent of the variance in life satisfaction. Similarly Reid and Ziegler (1980) found a high correlation between life satisfaction and their measure of self-esteem, but Diener (1984) did not find this strong relationship always there. It has been considerably reported that self-esteem is positively related to life satisfaction (Schmitt and Bedeian, 1982; Sekaran, 1983; Parkerson, Broadhead and Tse, 1990). Where life satisfaction can be viewed as individuals global
subjective judgement of their overall satisfaction with life (Diener, Emmons, Larsen and Griffin, 1985), Schmitt and Bedeians (1982) conceptual model of life and job satisfaction indicated self-esteem as one of the determinants of life satisfaction.

Low self-esteem was recognised as a clinical component of several psychiatric conditions, such as anxiety (Ingham, Kneitman, McMiller, Sashidharan, and Surtees, 1986) and depression (Lancet, 1988). Brown, Andrews, Harries, Adler and Bridge (1986) reported that low self-esteem was the final common pathway of factors causing vulnerability to depression. MacLachlan (1985) indicated that self-esteem was strongly related to depression among male and female volunteers. Headey, Holmstorm and Wearing (1984) noted the relationship of self-esteem with domains of satisfaction, well-being and ill-being. The study reported that self-esteem related strongly to the positive than to the negative components and the vice versa.

Ladewig (1986) investigated the occupational commitment, self-esteem and personal well-being of 92 working couples and found no relationship between the occupational commitment and self-esteem among men classified in the low occupational commitment group. However, a negative relationship between occupational commitment and self-esteem and well-being was found among
husbands scoring high and wives scoring low on occupational commitment. Morganti, Milton, Hulicka and Jerry (1988) found the self concept and life satisfaction positively related for older, rather than the younger people. Leung and Leung (1992) noted a strong correlation between general self-concept and life satisfaction. In another study, Quantchi (1993) on a sample of Vietnamese adolescents reported that the psychological well-being was characterized by the presence of positive self-esteem.

h. Stress

Work experience provided an individual with the deepest satisfaction, but also the most excruciating suffering like stress in life. Teachers' stress at work continued to receive attention of researchers in many countries and disciplines.

Aldridge (1970), French and Caplan (1970), Kahn and Quinn (1970), Ferguson (1978), Rosenthal (1978) and House (1979) and a number of others revealed that occupational stress was a causal factor in the mental health of the employees. Brief and Aldag (1976) reported that role stress was positively related to tension, threat and anxiety. The study by Orpen (1982) on middle managers reported a positive correlation between role conflict and psychological strains. Srivastava (1983) examined the effect of perceived role stress on mental health of 200
employees, and indicated that the mental health and stress were positively associated with various criteria of mental ill-health. Similarly, Singh (1983) noted positive correlation between occupational stress and mental ill health of managers. Chatters (1983) examined among older blacks the relationships among demographic factors, health concern, stress and two measures of subjective well-being of 55 years and above. The results indicated that subjective well-being was largely affected by stress. Furnham and Schaeffer (1984) noted that employees who experienced stress, also experienced higher level of mental distress.

Galloway (1984) in a study of the relationship between stress and mental health of primary school teachers noted a high correlation. O'Neil and Zeichner, (1985) examined the relationships among job involvement, job stress and health outcomes of 230 employed women. The findings indicated that the stress in the work environment had a negative impact on the physical and mental health of working women. Kottkamp and Travels (1986) investigated the relationship between four perceived role related stressors and two effective reactions to work among high school principals and found all four stressors significantly correlated. Srivastava and Srivastava (1986) noted positive correlation between role-stress and mental ill-health. Clark (1987) investigated the responses of 2107 black Americans, and
reported strong negative correlation between stress and psychological well-being.

Srivastava and Singh (1988) found the perceived role stress and mental ill-health significantly related. Banerjea (1989) examined the relationship between perceived organizational role stress and mental health of employees in manufacturing and non-manufacturing organizations, and found the role stress to be negatively related to various dimensions of mental health. Orpen (1990) examined the effect of work stress on physical and psychological well-being of 42 Australian nurses. The results indicated significant correlations.

Repetti (1993) noted that an increase in job stressors was associated with the deterioration in physical and psychological well-being. The subjects having stress reported more health complaints and negative moods.

2.4 Familial Characteristics and Job Involvement

Family was an institution which tied individuals together and to the work and larger society. This section reports on review of some researches related to job involvement and family variables.

a. Family Size

Pathak (1982) found over a group of clerical employees
that the number of dependents was significantly related to job involvement. Gould and Werbel (1983) reported the presence of children to be related to a higher job involvement and organisational identification.

In contrast, Walker, Tausky and Oliver (1982) who compared the national survey data regarding the work related values of 1455 male and female labour force participants, with the family responsibilities and the work values of 470 regularly employed women, indicated that the presence of children in the home (preschool age, school age or a combination) was negatively related to most work values of women, and thus reduced work involvement. Annantharaman and Shamshad (1982), Gill (1985) and Bala (1986) did not find the size of the family related to job involvement.

Chaddha and Kaur (1987) found the number of dependents of the white collar workers positively related to job involvement. The higher the number of dependents, the lower was the job involvement.

b. Family type

Family type had also been reported relevant to the job involvement of employees. Donald (1989) investigated the relationship between selected circumstances of family extension agent, their personal lives and job performance.
The results indicated that family circumstances and job performance were not related. The sense of personal accomplishment and family type were found positively related to work performance.

c. Family interaction patterns

Among other family factors, family interaction pattern was found important but least researched effectiveness of families, but also for better work performance. Giskcombe (1983) examined the relationship between family and subjective job involvement of 549 full time working, married parents, and found no relationship. Brown (1989) found support for the multiple roles interpretations of the association between family status and work satisfaction. Chubb and Fertman (1992) argued that the adolescents have a stronger sense of belongingness to their families and spend more time with them, showed a higher level of involvement in schools and communities.

Over the last decade, researches on family relations have increasingly taken multi-dimensional approach but studies on teachers were missing.

2.5 Familial Characteristics and Psychological Well-being

The influence of familial variables like the family size, family type and family support system etc., on psychological well-being had been studied by various
researchers. Several Indian studies reported an association between the pattern of family structure and prevalence of various psychiatric illnesses. Sethi, Gupta and Kumar (1967) in a survey of 300 urban families observed a higher prevalence of neurotic illnesses in the nuclear families. The emotionally disturbed women were found more often to belong to nuclear families (Menon, 1975). Verghese and Beig (1974) observed that the individuals belonging to nuclear families showed a higher prevalence rate of neurotic disturbances. Agarwal, Mehta and Gupta (1978) pointed out that the wives living in the nuclear families had significantly more psychiatric illnesses. The study by Wilkening and McGranahan (1977) on a baseline survey of 1423 adults in America revealed that life satisfaction was affected by family status. The support system implicit in the family roles was found to moderate the impact of work-related stressors (La Rocco, House and French, 1980) or directly reduced the strain experienced by the individuals (Thoits, 1982).

The researches on role conflicts indicated that tension between family and work roles led to poor marital adjustment, inadequate role performance and other negative outcomes. (Staines et al, 1978; Jones and Butter, 1980).

Cooke and Rousseau (1984) reviewed the findings on stress and strain arising from family roles and work role
expectations. They concluded that the research on work and non-work produced contradictory findings concerning the effect of family roles on the well-being of workers. Kandel Davies and Ravies (1985) noted that the family stress was more strongly related to negative mental health outcomes, especially depression. Particularly among women, the family role stressors were strongly tied to psychological distress and physical illness outcomes of work related stressors whereas among men, the work stressors were strongly related to the symptoms of psychological distress (Dytell et al, 1985). Pleck (1985) reported that men's adjustment in their family roles (using measures of happiness or satisfaction) had consistently greater positive impact on their psychological well-being. Family satisfaction was the best predictor of well-being (Headey, Holmstrong and Wearings, 1985).

The constant conflict between family and job responsibilities led to higher incidence of irritation, anxiety and depression (Greenglass et al, 1986, Bloom 1989 and Ellison, 1990). Rosalind and Nancy (1992) observed that the quality of the family and work roles contributed equally to psychological health. Sahoo and Vidyadhar (1992) found that family support to be a highly significant indicator of the psychological well-being of college teachers.
Leung and Leung (1992) noted the relationship with parents, the best predictor of life satisfaction among high school students. In a study of 356 Canadian women, Walter (1993) pointed out that the experience of mental health problems varied with family structure and quality of family relationships. Crafts (1993) studied the effect of social structure, family dynamics, and personal characteristics on material well-being and found positive support.

To sum up, the findings of various investigators confirmed that family factors significantly determined one's global psychological well-being.

2.6 Job Involvement and Psychological Well-being:

Higher job involvement resulted from positive psychological well-being. Iris and Baret (1972) measured four dimensions of life satisfaction such as, life in general, family, leisure and job. The result indicated positive correlation between job and life dimensions. Kasl (1973) noted a positive correlation between employees job involvement and mental health. The study pointed out that employees who were not involved in their jobs, were found maladjusted. Gardell (1975) pointed out that the workers whose job involvement were severely circumscribed the degree of direction given to the individual by job to determine pace and working methods and the possibility of using a variety of human resources in the performance at
work, reacted with strain and showed symptoms of impaired mental health.

Srivastava (1982) examined a sample of industrial supervisors and concluded that job anxiety of employees consistently went up with increasing level of their job involvement. Srivastava and Sinha (1983) reported significant positive relationship between job involvement and job anxiety among the managerial personnel. The results further suggested that employees' job involvement caused noticeable variance in their job anxiety. Innes and Clarke (1985) hypothesised that the relationship between life events (stress) and symptoms of psychological and physical illness was moderated by one's job involvement. The results revealed a positive relationship among life events, the distress experienced, and the number of reported symptoms, but only among the job involved.

Brief and Hollenback (1985) suggested that the relationship between job and life satisfaction was greatest for subjects in complex and high status occupations. Sinha (1986) compared the quality of life of railway officers, bank managers and university teachers, and reported that bank officers had better quality of life than the university teachers. Dejong and Verhase (1985) suggested that the satisfaction with quality of life at work was positively related to quality of life in general and
negatively to depression. Later on, Dejong (1986) investigated the relationship between various indicators of quality of life, depression and work load of 40 Dutch entrepreneurs. Results indicated that the perceived quality of work contributed significantly to general life satisfaction and depression. The subjects with high work load had the lowest depression.

Sekaran (1984) examined the impact of five work related variables i.e., (career salience, job involvement, self-esteem derived from the job, time spent on work activities and income) on job and life satisfaction. The findings indicated more influence on the job and life satisfaction for males than the females. Effraty and Sirgy (1990) reported the quality of work life of workers as positively related to organisational identification, job satisfaction, job involvement, job effort and job performance. Srivastava and Krishna (1992) compared the levels of job involvement and mental health of the employees in the manufacturing organisations of public and private sectors. They indicated significant differences in job involvement and mental health of the employees in the two sectors.

Khaleque, Hussain and Hoque (1992) indicated over 100 industrial workers a significant influence of job satisfaction on mental health, fatigue and performance.
The subjects having greater commitment to an occupational goal reported greater life satisfaction (Bloor and Diana, 1993). Wright, Bonnet and Sweeny (1993) examined the mental health and work performance of supervisory personnel in a two year longitudinal field study and revealed a positive relationship between mental health and subsequent work performance.

Mishra (1992) observed 720 men for engagement in various activities and life satisfaction. The results indicated significant association between life satisfaction and occupational involvement. Greenberger and O'Neil (1993) on 102 men and 194 women, pointed out that the high commitment to roles was not uniformly associated with greater well-being, but a component of work commitment was linked to a higher role strain in men. Job involvement moderated the relationship between work satisfaction and well-being, as reported by Weiner, and Harry (1992) and Judge and Watanabe (1994).

However, there were some studies which provided contradictory evidence. Gechman and Weiner (1975) studied the job involvement and mental health of 54 elementary school teachers. The results revealed a low positive and insignificant correlation between job involvement on mental health of the school teachers.
The above review made it clear that job involvement was related to a family size (Pathak, 1982, Gould and Werbel, 1983, Chadha and Kaur, 1987) although some researchers (Anantharaman and Shamshed, 1982; Gill, 1975; and Bala, 1986) reported that the family size did not affect the job involvement of an individual. Several studies reported association between the family structure and prevalence of various psychiatric illnesses (Sethi, Gupta and Kumar 1967; Menon 1975; Verghese and Beig 1974) and proved the importance of family in positive psychological well-being (Sahoo and Vididhar, 1992; Leung and Leung, 1992; Crafts and Duvall, 1993). Among the personal and familial variables, the familial factors of family size (Sears, 1970; Say, 1986) family structure (Beavers, 1977, 1981; Lewis, 1979) family type (Sussman 1951; Parsons and Fox 1952; Bhatt 1974; Bhagadia 1974) communication (Epstein 1978, 1979; Beaver, 1981) contributed to healthy psycho-social functioning of the family.

Studies also indicated that job involvement was related to personal factors of age (Dodge, 1983; Anantharaman and Kalliapan, 1982; Pathak, 1982 and Kulsum, 1985), gender (Burke, 1966; Siegel, 1969; Ziemba and Taveggia 1978; Manheim 1993), length of experience (Schneider, Hall and Nygren, 1971; Jones et. al, 1975; Hall


The previous researches have revealed a positive correlation between job involvement and psychological well-being (Kasl, 1973, Gardell, 1975, Sinha, 1979, Srivastava, 1982) but some other researchers have provided the contradictory evidence (Gechman and Weiner 1975, Bajaj, 1978, Pathak 1982).

The review of researches on the personal and familial variables of job involvement and psychological well-being
showed inconsistent findings which could be attributed to the use of divergent type and small samples. As such the socio-psychological researches on job involvement and mental health of teachers were scanty. There were no studies that even conceptualised the types of school settings and teachers from different socio-cultural groups. Further, family interaction patterns as a major variable in relation to work and psychological well-being had not been given adequate attention in past researches. This was more important in India as the family still functioned as a close knit unit. The present study was a venture in this direction to fill up some of the existing gaps.

****