

Article

Predictors of Well-Being Among Special Education Teachers

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Abstract: This study investigates the well-being of teachers across multiple domains, including life satisfaction, job satisfaction, self-compassion, and perceived salaries and benefits, alongside identified well-beings such as emotional, social, and psychological well-being. Utilizing quantitative measures, the study reveals that teachers generally report positive life satisfaction, job satisfaction, and high levels of self-compassion, but express dissatisfaction with salaries and benefits. Further analysis on the demographic correlations with well-being indicates significant impacts of age, gender, civil status, and educational attainment on various aspects of well-being. Interestingly, the field of specialization shows a positive correlation with self-compassion, suggesting it plays a crucial role in teachers' mental health. However, years in teaching and the number of trainings attended largely do not correlate with the well-being measures, except for a notable association between trainings attended and perceived salaries and benefits. These findings highlight the complex factors contributing to teachers' well-being and underscore the need for targeted interventions that address the diverse needs of the teaching population, especially in terms of improving perceptions of compensation and support systems.

Keywords: Teacher well-being, life satisfaction, job satisfaction, self-satisfaction,

Introduction

Well-being encompasses various dimensions, including emotional, psychological, and social aspects, reflecting an individual's overall perception of their life satisfaction and happiness (Das et al., 2020). Empirical findings by Patnaik (2021) emphasized that well-being extends beyond the absence of mental health conditions, encompassing positive feelings, fulfillment, and the ability to overcome stress and bounce back from adversity (Ruggeri et al., 2020). Well-being is influenced by a complex interplay of factors, including personal relationships, health, financial stability, work satisfaction, and engagement in meaningful activities (Hasan et al., 2020).

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According to Viac (2020) in the context of education, well-being plays a critical role in shaping the effectiveness and quality of teaching and learning environments. Kamboj & Garg (2021) noted that educators who experience high levels of well-being are more likely to be engaged, motivated, and resilient, contributing to positive educational outcomes. For students, having teachers who are well and emotionally present enhances the learning experience, fostering a supportive and inclusive educational environment (Mahoney et al., 2021; Pozas et al., 2021). This connection highlights the importance of prioritizing well-being within educational settings, not only for the benefit of educators but also for the overall quality of education delivered to students (Fitzgerald et al., 2022).

Moreover, teachers, particularly those in special education, face unique challenges that can impact their well-being (Hester et al., 2020). Special education teachers work closely with students who have diverse learning needs and disabilities, requiring a high level of patience, empathy, and adaptability (Azwar et al., 2021). This demanding work environment can lead to emotional exhaustion and stress, making well-being an even more critical consideration for these educators. According to Fox et al. (2020) the well-being of special education teachers directly affects their ability to create positive learning environments, manage classroom behaviors effectively, and provide the individualized support their students need.

Empirical research shed light on the predictors of well-being among special education teachers. Studies have examined various factors, including work environment, social support, and professional development opportunities. For example, a study by Dicke et al. (2020) found that supportive leadership and positive school climate were significantly related to higher levels of job satisfaction among special education teachers. Another study by Skaalvik (2021) highlighted the importance of autonomy and positive student relationships in predicting teachers' job satisfaction and sense of accomplishment. These findings underscore the multifaceted nature of well-being and the need for comprehensive support systems within educational settings.

Despite the growing body of research, there remain significant gaps in our understanding of well-being among special education teachers. Specifically, there is a need for more research on the impact of life satisfaction, job satisfaction, self-compassion, and the effects of salaries and benefits on their well-being. Additionally, the emotional, social, and psychological dimensions of well-being in this group require further exploration. Addressing these research gaps is crucial for developing targeted interventions and policies that support the well-being of special education teachers, ultimately benefiting them and their students.

Future research should focus on comprehensive approaches to evaluating and enhancing the well-being of special education teachers.

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This includes investigating the efficacy of well-being interventions, the role of professional communities, and the impact of policy changes on educators' satisfaction and mental health. Understanding these factors is vital for creating supportive environments that promote the well-being of special education teachers, thereby enhancing their effectiveness and resilience. The importance of this research cannot be overstated, as it has the potential to inform best practices and policies that support the well-being of educators, leading to improved educational outcomes for students with special educational needs.

Methodology

The study employed a quantitative method approach. To carry out this study, the Mixed Method was employed using both quantitative and qualitative techniques. The researcher employed a descriptive correlational-predictive design for the quantitative portion. Descriptive study aims to accurately and methodically describe a population, situation, or phenomenon. Those about what, where, when, and how can be answered, but questions about why cannot. Using a variety of research methods, a descriptive research strategy can examine one or more variables. In contrast to experimental research, the researcher does not change or otherwise alter any of the variables; they only watch and quantify them (McCombes, 2019). Predictive correlational studies are those that make predictions about the variance of one or more variables based on the variance of another variable (s). Similar to experimental designs, the study variables are separated into independent (predictor) and dependent categories (outcome). However, these factors occur naturally and are not produced in a synthetic manner (Sousa et al., 2007). In applying the design to the study, the researcher identified Special education teachers who gave information through a survey about their life satisfaction, job satisfaction, self-compassion, salaries & benefits, and well-being (composed of emotional, social, and psychological well-being). This was done descriptively. Following that, the researcher determined whether the variables would predict the overall well-being of the special education teachers.

Results and Discussion

Table 1. Age

Age Range	Frequency	Percentage (%)
50 and above	2	7.41
45-49	6	22.22
40-44	8	29.63
35-39	6	22.22
30-34	4	14.81
25-29	1	3.70
Total	27	100.0

The data presented in Table 1 shows the teachers age distribution of a sample group, which consists of 27 individuals in total, categorized into different age ranges. The largest age group represented in the sample is the 40-44 age range, accounting for 29.63% of the total population, with 8 individuals falling within this category. This is followed closely by those aged 45-49 and 35-39, each constituting 22.22% of the population, with 6 individuals in each age group. The 30-34 age range represents a smaller portion, comprising 14.81% of the sample with 4 individuals. The data shows a decrease in representation as the age decreases further, with those aged 50 and above making up 7.41% of the population with 2 individuals, and the 25-29 age range being the least represented at only 3.70%, which equates to 1 individual. Overall, the sample suggests a higher frequency of participation among individuals in their mid-30s to late 40s, with a notable decline in both younger (25-29) and older (50 and above) age groups.

Table 2. Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male	4	14.81
Female	22	81.48
No Response	1	3.70
Total	27	100.00

Table 2 presents the gender distribution within a sample size of 27 individuals, highlighting a significant disparity between male and female participants. Females represent the overwhelming majority of the sample, accounting for 81.48% with a total of 22 individuals identifying as female. In stark contrast, males constitute only 14.81% of the sample, which equates to 4 individuals. Additionally, there is a small fraction, 3.70% of the sample, equivalent to 1 individual, who opted not to disclose their gender, classified under "No Response".

Table 3. Marital Status

Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Married	10	37.04
Single	8	29.63
Divorced	9	33.33
Total	27	100.0

Table 3 outlines the marital status distribution among a group of 27 individuals, revealing a diverse set of circumstances. Married participants constitute the largest single group, representing 37.04% of the total with 10 individuals. This is closely followed by those who are divorced, making up a significant portion of the sample at 33.33%, which translates to 9 individuals. Single individuals, those not currently married and not having been married before, account for

29.63% of the population, numbering 8 individuals. The distribution indicates a relatively balanced spread across different marital statuses, with a slight predominance of married individuals. The substantial representation of divorced individuals at over a third of the sample is notable, suggesting that a significant fraction of the population has experienced marriage and its subsequent dissolution. This diverse marital landscape highlights the varied life experiences within the sample group, suggesting that factors related to marital status could have meaningful implications for the context or outcomes of the study from which this data was derived.

Table 4. Highest Educational Attainment

Highest Educational Attainment	Frequency	Percentage (%)
With Doctorate units	4	14.81
Master's Degree	12	44.44
Master's Units	6	22.22
Baccalaureate degree	5	18.52
Total	27	100.00

Table 4 illustrates the educational attainment levels within a sample of 27 individuals, highlighting a notably high level of academic achievement among the participants. The most common educational attainment is a Master's Degree, held by 12 individuals, accounting for 44.44% of the sample. This indicates a significant portion of the group has completed graduate-level education. Following this, individuals who have some graduate-level education but have not completed a degree, denoted as having Master's Units, represent 22.22% of the population, with 6 individuals falling into this category. Baccalaureate degrees are held by 5 individuals, making up 18.52% of the sample, suggesting that a smaller but still substantial portion of the group has completed undergraduate education. Additionally, there are 4 individuals (14.81%) with Doctorate units, signifying advanced study beyond a Master's degree, though not necessarily culminating in a Doctorate degree. This data points to a highly educated sample group, with a strong emphasis on graduate education. The high percentages of individuals with Master's degrees and beyond reflect a population that values and has invested in higher education, possibly indicating the sample is from a context where advanced educational qualifications are prevalent or required.

Table 5. Specialization

Specialization	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Special Education	17	62.96
Early Childhood Education	5	18.52
Science	1	3.70
Others	3	11.11
No Response	1	3.70
Total	27	100.0

Table 5 provides an overview of the specialization areas within a sample of 27 individuals, showcasing a significant emphasis on education-related fields. The most prominent specialization is Special Education, which encompasses a substantial majority of the sample, with 17 individuals or 62.96% dedicating their focus to this area. commitment to inclusivity and tailored educational strategies. Following Special Education, Early Childhood Education is the second most common specialization, represented by 5 individuals or 18.52% of the sample. A single individual, accounting for 3.70% of the population, specializes in science, indicating a minimal representation of this subject area within the sample. The category labeled "Others" comprises 3 individuals or 11.11% of the sample, indicating a small variety of additional specializations that are not specified but differ from the primary categories listed. Lastly, there is 1 individual, making up 3.70% of the sample, who did not respond to the question about their specialization. This non-response rate is low, indicating that most participants were willing and able to identify their area of specialization.

Table 6. Number of Years in Teaching SPED

Years in Teaching SPED	Frequency	Percentage (%)
30 years and above	5	18.52
25-29 years	9	33.33
20-24 years	2	7.41
15-19 years	5	18.52
10-14 years	4	14.81
9 years and below	2	7.41
Total	27	100.0

Table 6 offers a detailed view of the experience levels in teaching Special Education (SPED) among a group of 27 individuals. The data demonstrates a broad range of experience, highlighting both seasoned veterans and relatively newer educators within the field. A significant portion of the sample, 9 individuals or 33.33%, falls within the 25-29 years of experience bracket, indicating a strong presence of highly experienced professionals within this group. Equally noteworthy is the group with 30 years and above in SPED, comprising 5 individuals or 18.52%. The distribution also includes 5 individuals (18.52%) with 15-19 years of experience, showing a solid mid-career level expertise in SPED. This is closely followed by those with 10-14 years of experience, accounting for 4 individuals or 14.81%, indicating a robust engagement with the field that is likely informed by both foundational theories and contemporary practices. Interestingly, the group with the least experience, 9 years and below, includes 2 individuals or 7.41%, mirroring the segment with 20-24 years of experience, which also consists of 2 individuals. This diversity enriches the field, blending long-standing expertise with fresh perspectives, thereby contributing

to the ongoing evolution and effectiveness of special education practices.

Table 7. Hours of Training Attended

Hours of Training	Frequency	Percentage (%)
50 hours and above	5	18.52
40-49 hours	5	18.52
30-39 hours	8	29.63
20-29 hours	4	14.81
10-19 hours	2	7.41
9 hours and below	2	7.41
No response	1	3.70
Total	27	100.0

Table 7 showcases the distribution of training hours attended by a group of 27 individuals, reflecting a commitment to professional development across different intensities of engagement. The largest group, constituting 8 individuals or 29.63%, attended 30-39 hours of training. Equally represented are the groups that have committed to higher and slightly lower training intensities: both those who have attended 50 hours and above and those within the 40-49 hours range each make up 5 individuals or 18.52% of the sample. On the lower end of the spectrum, 4 individuals or 14.81% have attended 20-29 hours of training. While this represents a smaller proportion of training hours compared to other groups, it still signifies a noteworthy dedication to professional development, providing a foundational enhancement of skills and knowledge. Overall, the data from Table 7 reflects a diverse range of engagement in professional development among the participants. The spread across different training hours suggests a collective recognition of the importance of ongoing learning and skill enhancement.

Table 8. Level of Well-being of the Teacher Respondents

Domains	Mean	SD	Verbal Description
Life Satisfaction	3.19	0.55	Agree
Job Satisfaction	2.56	0.70	Agree
Self-Compassion	3.55	0.50	Strongly Agree
Salaries and Benefits	2.36	0.67	Disagree
AWM	2.81	0.60	Agree

Table 8 provides insights into the self-reported well-being of teacher respondents across various domains, employing a mean score system complemented by standard deviations (SD) to indicate variability among responses. The highest mean score observed is in the domain of Self-Compassion, with a mean of 3.55 and a relatively low standard deviation of 0.50, leading to a verbal description of "Strongly Agree." Life Satisfaction also receives a positive verbal description of "Agree,"

with a mean score of 3.19 and a standard deviation of 0.55. Job Satisfaction and Academic Work Motivation are both within the "Agree" category, with mean scores of 2.56 (SD=0.70) and 2.81 (SD=0.60), respectively. Conversely, Salaries and Benefits received a mean score of 2.36 with a standard deviation of 0.67, leading to a verbal description of "Disagree." This is the only domain in which the collective response trends towards dissatisfaction, indicating concerns or discontent among the respondents regarding their compensation and the benefits they receive. The variation in scores, as shown by the standard deviations, also suggests diversity in experiences and perceptions among the teachers, underscoring the complexity of factors that contribute to overall well-being in the teaching profession.

Table 9. Identified Well-beings as Felt by the Teacher Respondents

Well-beings	Mean	SD	Verbal Description
Emotional Well-Being	3.12	0.52	Agree
Social Well-being	3.12	0.53	Agree
Psychological Well-being	3.41	0.57	Strongly Agree
AWM	3.22	0.54	Agree

Table 9 presents the perceived well-being of teacher respondents. The domain of Psychological Well-being stands out with the highest mean score of 3.41 and an SD of 0.57, receiving a verbal description of "Strongly Agree." This indicates that the respondents feel a high level of personal growth, purpose in life, and self-acceptance, reflecting a strong sense of psychological fulfillment and resilience. Emotional Well-Being and Social Well-being both recorded mean scores of 3.12, with SDs of 0.52 and 0.53, respectively, leading to verbal descriptions of "Agree" for both domains. These scores suggest that the respondents generally experience positive emotions and have satisfying relationships with others. Academic Work Motivation (AWM) received a mean score of 3.22 and an SD of 0.54, also described with a verbal agreement of "Agree." This score suggests a positive alignment and engagement with their academic work and goals, indicating that the teachers are generally motivated and find purpose in their work. Overall, the data from Table 9 reveals a group of teachers who perceive themselves as having a high level of psychological well-being, complemented by strong emotional and social well-being and a good level of motivation towards their work. The relatively low standard deviations across all domains suggest that these feelings are fairly consistent among the respondents, although slight variations exist. This collective sense of well-being and motivation is crucial for the sustainability of their profession, indicating a positive outlook that could potentially translate into effective teaching practices and a supportive learning environment for students.

Table 10. Demographic Profile and Life Satisfaction

Demographic Variable	Pearson Correlation (r)	p-value	Decision	Interpretation
Age	-0.0911	$p < 0.001$	Reject H0	Significant Negative
Gender	0.1091	$p < 0.001$	Reject H0	Significant Negative
Civil Status	-0.1273	$p < 0.001$	Reject H0	Significant Negative
Highest Edu. Attainment	0.0509	0.2166	Accept H0	Not Significant
Field of Specialization	0.0348	0.0085	Reject H0	Significant Positive
Years in Teaching Sped	0.1687	0.5527	Accept H0	Not Significant
Trainings Attended	0.2645	0.8057	Accept H0	Not Significant

Table 10 explores the relationship between various demographic variables of teachers and their life satisfaction. The analysis reveals a significant negative correlation between age and life satisfaction ($r = -0.0911$, $p < 0.001$), indicating that as age increases, life satisfaction tends to decrease slightly among the respondents. This could suggest that factors related to aging, perhaps challenges in personal or professional life, may impact overall life satisfaction. Similarly, a significant negative correlation is found with gender ($r = 0.1091$, $p < 0.001$), though the direction of correlation appears to be labeled inconsistently with the interpretation provided. Typically, a positive 'r' value indicates a positive relationship; however, the interpretation mentions it as negative. If adhering to standard interpretation, this would imply that one gender might report higher life satisfaction than the other, but the detail on which gender experiences higher satisfaction is not provided. Civil status also shows a significant negative correlation with life satisfaction ($r = -0.1273$, $p < 0.001$), suggesting that changes or differences in civil status could be associated with varying levels of life satisfaction among the teachers, potentially reflecting the impact of personal life circumstances on overall well-being. Interestingly, the highest educational attainment does not significantly correlate with life satisfaction ($r = 0.0509$, $p = 0.2166$), indicating that the level of academic achievement among these respondents does not play a significant role in determining their satisfaction with life.

Field of Specialization presents a significant positive correlation ($r = 0.0348$, $p = 0.0085$), albeit with a very low correlation coefficient. This suggests a very slight tendency that those more aligned or satisfied with their field of specialization might also experience slightly higher life satisfaction, though the effect appears to be minimal.

Years in teaching SPED and the number of trainings attended both show no significant correlation with life satisfaction ($r = 0.1687$, $p = 0.5527$ and $r = 0.2645$, $p = 0.8057$, respectively), indicating that neither the duration of teaching in special education nor the amount of professional training attended significantly influences life satisfaction levels among the respondents. Overall, finding illustrates that certain demographic and professional variables like age, gender, and civil status significantly correlate with life satisfaction among teachers, albeit the effects might be modest. In contrast, variables related to professional development and achievement, such as educational attainment, years in teaching SPED, and training attendance, do not significantly impact their life satisfaction, suggesting that factors outside professional achievements and credentials may play a more critical role in influencing overall well-being.

Table 11. Demographic Profile and Job Satisfaction

Demographic Variable	Pearson Correlation (r)	p-value	Decision	Interpretation
Age	0.1091	< 0.001	Reject H0	Significant Positive
Gender	-0.0724	< 0.001	Reject H0	Significant Negative
Civil Status	0.0758	0.0023	Reject H0	Significant Positive
Highest Edu. Attainment	0.0100	0.0001	Reject H0	Significant Positive
Field of Specialization	0.2337	0.2493	Accept H0	Not Significant
Years in Teaching Sped	0.2448	0.1846	Accept H0	Not Significant
Trainings Attended	-0.0917	0.1049	Accept H0	Not Significant

Table 11 examines the relationship between various demographic variables and job satisfaction. The data shows a significant positive correlation between age and job satisfaction ($r = 0.1091$, $p < 0.001$), suggesting that as teachers age, their satisfaction with their job tends to increase. This could imply that with time, teachers become more accustomed to or appreciative of their roles, possibly due to increased experience, stability, or acceptance of their career paths. A significant negative correlation is observed with gender ($r = -0.0724$, $p < 0.001$), indicating that there is a difference in job satisfaction between genders, with one gender being less satisfied compared to the other. The negative correlation suggests that as one moves from male to female (assuming gender is coded in this binary way), job satisfaction decreases, or vice versa, depending on the coding scheme used. Civil status shows a significant positive correlation with job satisfaction ($r = 0.0758$, $p = 0.0023$), indicating that changes or differences in civil status are associated with variations in job satisfaction. This could mean that certain civil statuses (e.g., being married, single, or divorced) may

influence how individuals perceive their job satisfaction, possibly due to the interplay between personal life and work life.

Highest Educational Attainment also displays a significant but very small positive correlation with job satisfaction ($r = 0.0100$, $p = 0.0001$), suggesting that higher educational achievements might be slightly correlated with increased job satisfaction. Although significant, the correlation is weak, indicating that while there is a relationship, it might not be practically meaningful. Field of Specialization, Years in Teaching SPED, and Trainings Attended do not show significant correlations with job satisfaction ($r = 0.2337$, $p = 0.2493$; $r = 0.2448$, $p = 0.1846$; and $r = -0.0917$, $p = 0.1049$, respectively). This suggests that these factors—what teachers specialize in, how long they have been teaching special education, and the amount of professional development training they have received do not significantly impact their job satisfaction.

Overall, the analysis indicates that demographic factors like age, gender, and civil status have a measurable impact on job satisfaction among teachers, with age and civil status positively correlating with higher job satisfaction and gender showing a negative correlation.

Table 12. Demographic Profile and Self-Compassion

Demographic Variable	Pearson Correlation (r)	p-value	Decision	Interpretation
Age	-0.2058	< 0.001	Reject H_0	Significant Negative
Gender	0.0712	< 0.001	Reject H_0	Significant Positive
Civil Status	0.0155	< 0.001	Reject H_0	Significant Positive
Highest Edu. Attainment	0.1322	0.5837	Accept H_0	Not Significant
Field of Specialization	0.3736	< 0.001	Reject H_0	Significant Positive
Years in Teaching Sped	0.1752	0.0925	Accept H_0	Not Significant
Trainings Attended	0.2555	0.1824	Accept H_0	Not Significant

Table 12 investigates the relationships between various demographic variables and the level of self-compassion. The data reveals a significant negative correlation between age and self-compassion ($r = -0.2058$, $p < 0.001$), suggesting that as respondents age, their levels of self-compassion tend to decrease. This could indicate that older individuals might be harder on themselves or find it more challenging to practice self-kindness and understanding, possibly due to ingrained self-critical habits or societal expectations. A significant positive correlation is noted with gender ($r = 0.0712$, $p < 0.001$), indicating a difference in self-compassion levels between genders, with one gender exhibiting higher self-compassion than the other. This positive correlation might suggest

that females, who are often socialized to be more nurturing, could potentially score higher on self-compassion, assuming the coding for gender is aligned with traditional binary distinctions. Civil status also shows a significant positive correlation with self-compassion ($r = 0.0155$, $p < 0.001$), albeit very small, suggesting that certain civil statuses may slightly influence one's ability to be self-compassionate, possibly reflecting the support systems or emotional states associated with marital or relationship status. Interestingly, the highest educational attainment does not significantly correlate with self-compassion ($r = 0.1322$, $p = 0.5837$), indicating that the level of education achieved by the respondents does not play a meaningful role in their ability to practice self-compassion. Field of Specialization presents a significant positive correlation ($r = 0.3736$, $p < 0.001$) with self-compassion, suggesting a strong relationship where those specialized in certain fields might have higher levels of self-compassion. This could reflect the nature of the work or the values emphasized within certain specializations that promote self-care and understanding.

Years in teaching SPED and trainings attended show no significant correlation with self-compassion ($r = 0.1752$, $p = 0.0925$ and $r = 0.2555$, $p = 0.1824$, respectively), indicating that neither the length of time teaching in special education nor the amount of professional development training significantly impacts the teachers' levels of self-compassion. Moreover, the strong positive correlation with field of specialization indicates a notable exception, suggesting that certain professional contexts or cultures may foster greater self-compassion.

Table 13. Demographic Profile and Perceived Salaries and Benefits

Demographic Variable	Pearson Correlation (r)	p-value	Decision	Interpretation
Age	-0.2554	< 0.001	Reject H_0	Significant Negative
Gender	-0.0946	< 0.001	Reject H_0	Significant Negative
Civil Status	0.0620	0.0433	Reject H_0	Significant Positive
Highest Edu. Attainment	-0.3873	< 0.001	Reject H_0	Significant Negative
Field of Specialization	-0.1018	0.5206	Accept H_0	Not Significant
Years in Teaching Sped	0.2916	0.0604	Accept H_0	Not Significant
Trainings Attended	0.1320	0.0318	Accept H_0	Significant Positive

Table 13 provides an analysis of the correlation between various demographic variables and the perception of salaries and benefits among respondents. Age shows a significant negative correlation with the perception of salaries and benefits ($r = -0.2554$, $p < 0.001$), indicating that older respondents tend to have a more negative view of their

salaries and benefits. This could suggest that expectations regarding compensation increase with age or experience, or perhaps that older teachers feel their compensation does not adequately reflect their years of service or the cost-of-living increases over time.

Gender also displays a significant negative correlation ($r = -0.0946$, $p < 0.001$), suggesting that one gender perceives salaries and benefits less favorably than the other. While the correlation is relatively weak, it highlights a potential disparity in how salaries and benefits are viewed between genders, possibly reflecting broader issues of equity or differences in expectations.

Civil status is significantly positively correlated with the perception of salaries and benefits ($r = 0.0620$, $p = 0.0433$). This positive correlation indicates that changes or differences in civil status (e.g., being single, married, divorced) are associated with slightly more positive perceptions of salaries and benefits, although the effect is relatively modest. A notable significant negative correlation is found with the highest educational attainment ($r = -0.3873$, $p < 0.001$), indicating that individuals with higher educational levels tend to view their salaries and benefits more negatively. This could reflect higher expectations linked to educational achievement not being met in terms of compensation, or possibly a greater awareness of market rates and comparative salaries.

Field of specialization does not show a significant correlation ($r = -0.1018$, $p = 0.5206$), suggesting that the specific area of teaching does not markedly influence perceptions of salaries and benefits among the respondents. While, years in teaching SPED shows no significant correlation ($r = 0.2916$, $p = 0.0604$), indicating that the length of time teaching in special education does not significantly affect how salaries and benefits are perceived, despite the positive direction of the correlation suggesting a trend that more years might lead to slightly more positive perceptions. Lastly, trainings attended are significantly positively correlated ($r = 0.1320$, $p = 0.0318$), albeit weakly. This suggests that attending more trainings is associated with slightly more positive perceptions of salaries and benefits, possibly indicating that those who invest more in professional development feel slightly more positive about their compensation, or that opportunities for training are perceived as part of their overall benefits package. Moreover, the findings suggest a mix of personal and professional factors play into these perceptions, with implications for policy and practice aimed at improving teacher satisfaction and retention.

Conclusion

The data presents an insightful look into the well-being of teacher respondents across various domains and demographic profiles. The respondents generally agreed with their life, job satisfaction and self-

compassion, indicating a positive outlook in these areas. However, there was a general disagreement regarding salaries and benefits, highlighting an area of discontent. The analysis of well-being facets such as emotional, social, and psychological well-being shows an overall agreement, with psychological well-being receiving the highest endorsement, suggesting a strong sense of personal growth, purpose, and autonomy among the respondents. The findings reflect a complex interplay between various aspects of well-being and demographic factors among teachers. While there are areas of strength, particularly in self-compassion and psychological well-being, concerns about compensation highlight critical areas for improvement. The significant relationship between demographic variables and different well-being measures suggest targeted interventions might be necessary to address the unique needs and perceptions of diverse teacher populations.

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