Anxiety in Working Women in Delhi: A Survey

Dr Sudhinder Chowhan, Dr Srirang Jha and Mrs Vandana Malviya

Abstract

The economic pressures of inflation, influence of the women’s movement and the psychological need to develop one’s self identity are encouraging the women to take a more active role outside the home to pursue full time career. This shift from private to public domain gives an impression that woman that finally liberated from shackles of patriarchal norms. However, closer look at the scenario makes us realize that working women face new set of problems involving both job and family.

This paper explores the incidence of anxiety among working women in Delhi. The result surprisingly reveals a high incidence of work-life imbalance among working women in Delhi. It can be used as an eye-opener for both the employees and employers who need to see this issue as a seriously and take corrective action.

Introductions:

The role of work has changed throughout the world due to economic conditions and social demands. Originally, work was a matter of necessity and survival. Throughout the years, the role of “work” has evolved and the composition of the workforce has changed. Today, work still is a necessity but it should be a source of personal satisfaction as well. Traditionally the salient role of women was viewed as wife and mother and their identity in the society was viewed in terms of their relationships with their husbands and children.

Certain roles in the family like cooking, cleaning, housekeeping, laundry, baby sitting, etc. are considered as women’s job only. This worsens the situation of working women who are overworked at office due to increased standards and expectations at their respective offices. After having a hectic day at office still women comes back home and does the cooking, cleaning, teaching children, looking after old parents, etc. Traditional gender roles and an unequal division of domestic labour still prevail in our country leaving women, particularly the mothers of young children, with higher levels of anxiety and stress.
Typical Indian socio-cultural milieu assigns very specific gender roles where women have to look after the household and male have to earn the livelihood. Even though a large number of women have joined the labour force and are working in different firms from last two decades, the perception of gender roles have not changed yet. Hence while women are adding income to the family they are not spared from handling household tasks.

**Anxiety:**

The term “Anxiety”, a translation from Freud's (1936) “angst”, describes the effect of combined negative affect (emotion), and physiological arousal. This basically refers to anxiety as an “evolved defense system that has served through eons of time to protect organisms from survival threats” (Ohman, 2000 p. 227). Anxiety is a psychological and physiological state characterized by cognitive, somatic, emotional, and behavioural components. These components combine to create an unpleasant feeling that is typically associated with uneasiness, fear, or worry. Anxiety is considered to be a normal reaction to stress. Anxiety can be accompanied by physical effects such as heart palpitations, fatigue, nausea, chest pain, shortness of breath, stomach aches, or headaches. Anxiety does not only consist of physical symptoms. There are many emotional symptoms involved as well. Some of them include: "Feelings of apprehension or dread, trouble concentrating, feeling tense or jumpy, anticipating the worst, irritability, restlessness, watching (and waiting) for signs (and occurrences) or danger, and, feeling like your mind's gone blank."

Prolonged anxiety can lead to hypersensitivity and chronic worrying, which influences many areas of function (Kennerley, 1995).

**State-Trait anxiety**

Anxiety can be either a short term "state" or a long term "trait." Trait anxiety reflects a stable tendency to respond with state anxiety in the anticipation of threatening situations. It is closely related to the personality trait of neuroticism. State anxiety reflects a "transitory emotional state or condition of the human organism that is characterized by subjective, consciously perceived feelings of tension and apprehension, and heightened autonomic nervous system activity."
"Trait anxiety denotes relatively stable individual differences in anxiety proneness and refers to a general tendency to respond with anxiety to perceived threats in the environment."

It means that 'state' anxiety is the anxiety state we experience when something causes us to feel appropriately and temporarily anxious and this anxiety then retreats until we feel 'normal' again.

Trait anxiety is the 'preset' level of anxiety experienced by an individual who has a tendency to be more anxious; to react less appropriately to anxiety provoking stimuli.

So, state anxiety is what we experience when a dog runs out in front of the car; an intense anxiety reaction that produces a number of strong anxiety symptoms associated with the respiratory, digestive and circulatory systems. After the 'threat' has subsided, the anxiety state retreats and we feel 'normal' again. This is how most people feel most of the time.

**Work-Family Conflict:**

Work and family role conflict is a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressure from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect and demand of participation in one role makes participation in the other role almost difficult.

Lack of balance between work and non work activities are related to reduce psychological and physical well being (Sparks et al., 1999; Frone et al., 1997; Thomas and Ganster, 1995; Martens et al., 1999; Felstead et al., 2002).

Role conflict is a conflict among the roles corresponding to two or more statuses. Conflict between two roles, that is, work role and family role, may arise in two situations: when demands of work role interfere with family role performance, and when demands of family role interfere with work role performance. This definition implies a multi-directional relationship where work can affect family and vice versa (Frone, 2002). A number of literatures establish relationship between work and family as two separate domains competing for the time and energy of individuals (Byron 2005; Eby et al., 2005).
Though the rate of working women in our country is increasing but they are not spared from doing the household activities like child care, looking after elderly parents, etc. Earlier researches show that women workers face higher levels of job-family role conflict as compared to their male counterparts. The subjects are working 55.8 hours in a week and most of them work for 6 days in a week. After working 9 ½ hours at office they still do household chores at home like cooking food and household chores, looking after children, elderly care, etc. On average the subjects are working 3 hours daily at home. And the conditions in worsened by Delhi traffic; they spend 2 hours daily on travelling to office and coming back home. So in 24 hours: 9 ½ hours are spent at office; 3 hours at household chores; 2 hours at travelling and they are left with 9 ½ hours in a day. One needs to have at least 7-8 hours sleep daily for a healthy life as said by the doctors. Most of the respondents reveal that they have no time for self and family.

Woodward D. (2007) women reported high workloads, requiring long working hours, which consumed time and energy otherwise available for other relationships and commitments and their own leisure. The situation is worst for women having children as they have to make arrangement for their children when they have to go to work and also have to have to help them in doing the home work when they are back home. Posig M and Kickul J (2004) found family-work conflict as a key contributor to work-family conflict and emotional exhaustion. Azia S and Cunningham J (2008) found that work stress and work-life imbalance is correlated with workaholism.

“Most of the respondents reveal that they have more to do than they can comfortably handle”.

Fuelled by the relentless pressures of the 24/7 work schedule, globalization, large-scale initiatives and scarce resources, employees today are experiencing more and more stress, fatigue and total burnout. Stress is a mentally or emotionally disruptive or upsetting condition occurring in response to adverse external influences and capable of affecting physical and psychological health. It comes with symptoms like weight gain or loss, easiness to anger, sleeplessness, frequency headaches, strained relationships, fatigue and low productivity (Hanes, 2002).

**Psychological Description of the Anxiety Dimensions**
Dimension Tn (Tension)

The person who scores high on Tn tends to be very tense, excitable, frustrated, driven, restless, fretful and impatient. He is often fatigued, but unable to remain inactive. In groups he takes poor view of the degree of unity, orderliness and leadership. His frustration represents an excess of stimulated but undischarged drive.

The person who scores low on TN tends to be sedate, relaxed, tranquil, composed and satisfied (not frustrated at all). In some situations, however, his over-satisfaction can lead to laziness and result in low performance, in the sense that low motivation produces little trial and error behaviour. Conversely, high tension level may disrupt school and work performance. Occupationally, news media persons, journalists, and persons in jobs which may give less opportunity for self-expression, but which releases an onslaught of environmental demands score high on Tn. Whereas, pilots, air hostesses, nurses and surgeons etc score low on TN.

Dimension Gp (Guilt Proneness)

The person who scores high on dimension Gp tends to be depressed, apprehensive, troubled, moody, a worrier, full of foreboding and brooding. He has a childlike tendency to anxiety in difficulties. He does not feel accepted or free to participate in groups. High Gp score is common in clinical groups of all types. They are considered ineffective speakers, remain rigidly task oriented in their remarks and have few peers as friends.

The person who scores low on Gp tends to be self assured, confident, serene, placid, with unshakable nerve. He has a mature, unanxious confidence in himself and his capacity to deal with things. He is resilient and secure but to the point of being insensitive of when a group is not going along with him, so that he may evoke antipathies and distrust. High scores generally belong to religious groups, artists, farmers etc. however, Gp is low in electricians, professional athletics and sales personnel.

Dimension Ma (Maturity)
The person who scores high on dimension Ma is easily affected by feelings and tends to be low in frustration tolerance, changeable and plastic. He evades necessarily reality demands, and is neurotically fatigued. He tends to be fretful, easily emotional and annoyed, active in dissatisfaction, having neurotic symptoms like phobias, sleep disturbances, psychosomatic complaints etc. Low Ma score is common to almost all forms of neurotic and some psychotic disorders.

The person who scores low on Ma is emotionally stable, faces reality, and calm. He tends to be emotionally mature, stable, realistic about life, unruffled, possessing ego strength, better able to maintain solid group morale. Sometimes he maybe a person marking a resigned adjustment to unsolved emotional problems. Occupational data suggests that low scoring individuals belong to these occupations in which the individual can set his own pace and does not require sudden adjustments, such as clerks, writers, postmen etc.

**Dimension Su (Suspiciousness)**

The person who scores high on Su tends to be suspicious, mistrusting, doubtful and hard to fool. He is often involved in his own ego, is self opinionated, and interested in internal, mental life. He is usually deliberate in his actions, unconcerned about other people, a poor team member.

The person who scores low on dimension Su tends to be trusting, free of jealous tendencies, adaptable, cheerful, uncompetitive, concerned about other people, a good team worker and easy to get on with. High scorers usually belong to scientific or engineering professions. Even accountants tend to score above average on this dimension.

**Dimension Sc (Self Control)**

The person who scores high on dimension Sc will not be bothered with will control and regard for social demands. He is careless of protocol and follows own urges. He is not overly considerate, careful, or painstaking. He may feel maladjusted and may also show affective maladjustments.
The person who scores low on dimension Sc tends to have strong control of his emotions and general behaviour. He is inclined to be socially aware and careful and gives evidence of what is commonly termed “self-respect” and regard for social reputation. He tends to be socially very precise and follows self-image.

As a general personality dimension, Sc appears to represent the level of development of the conscious, behaviour integrating self-sentiment (i.e., the extent to which the person has crystallized for himself a clear, consistent, admired pattern of socially approved behaviour to which he makes definite efforts to conform). In terms of anxiety, one can briefly capulate it’s meaning as a lowered sense of personal worth or self-esteem.

Low scoring individuals generally belong to the occupational group of administrators, electricians and technicians; in all of whom objectivity, balance and decisiveness are essential.

**Hypothesis: It is assumed that working women score higher than working male on anxiety.**

**OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

Main Objectives:

1. To study the anxiety level of females and males.

2. To understand the significant difference of females and males on anxiety.

Sub-Objectives of the Study:

1. To study the level of anxiety of female as compared to male in regard to Guilt Proneness.

2. To study the level of anxiety of female as compared to male in regard to Maturity.

3. To study the level of anxiety of female as compared to male in regard to self Control.
4. To study the level of anxiety of female as compared to male in regard to Maturity.

5. To study the level of anxiety of female as compared to male in regard to Suspiciousness.

Research Methodology

Sample Unit: Females and Males working in different organizations.

Sample Size: 100

Male: 50

Female: 50

Procedure for Data Collection: A structured questionnaire- studying 5 dimensions like Maturity, Tension, Self Control, Guilt Proneness, and Suspiciousness was used.

Data Analysis: Data analysis done by using SPSS.

Results and findings.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group Statistics</th>
<th>SEX</th>
<th>Mean Score</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>4.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self control</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suspiciousness</td>
<td>Male</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
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Tension

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<td>Male</td>
<td>4.89</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female</td>
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Total score

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<tr>
<td>Male</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>5.30</td>
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Trait anxiety

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<th>Female</th>
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<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>14.16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
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State anxiety

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<th>Female</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>12.89</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>18.30</td>
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Table 1: Mean scores of males and females

**Independent Samples Test**

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<tr>
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<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
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<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
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<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
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<td>Maturity</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>Self control</td>
<td>2.805</td>
<td>-2.670</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>.011</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-2.696</td>
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<td>Suspiciousness</td>
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<td>.445</td>
<td>.177</td>
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<td></td>
<td>-1.373</td>
<td>.178</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tension</td>
<td>.590</td>
<td>-1.162</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.447</td>
<td>.253</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-1.157</td>
<td>.255</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total score</td>
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<td>-2.428</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.159</td>
<td>.020</td>
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<td></td>
<td>-2.443</td>
<td>.020</td>
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<tr>
<td>Trait Anxiety</td>
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<td>-3.804</td>
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<td></td>
<td>.656</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>-3.813</td>
<td>.001</td>
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<tr>
<td>State Anxiety</td>
<td>1.488</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.230</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-3.290</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
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</table>
INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

GUILT PRONENESS:

1. Female scored 5.00 on mean score as compared to male who scored 4.26 that is to say that female scored higher than male.

MATUREITY:

1. Female scored 2.65 on mean score as compared to male who scored 2.21 that is to say that female scored higher than male.

SELF CONTROL:

1. Female scored 3.85 on mean score as compared to male who scored 2.37 that is to say that female scored higher than male.

SUSPICIOUSNESS:

1. Female scored 6.85 on mean score as compared to male who scored 5.84 that is to say that female scored higher than male.

TENSION:

1. Female scored 5.80 on mean score as compared to male who scored 4.89 that is to say that female scored higher than male.

TOTAL SCORE:

1. Female scored 5.30 on mean score as compared to male who scored 4.05 that is to say that female scored higher than male.

TRAIT ANXIETY:

1. Female scored 20.20 on mean score as compared to male who scored 14.16 that is to say that female scored higher than male.

STATE ANXIETY:
1. Female scored 18.30 on mean score as compared to male who scored 12.89 that is to say that female scored higher than male.

In a nutshell on Mean Score- Female scored higher than male on Guilt proneness, Maturity, Self Control, Suspiciousness, Tension, Total score, Trait anxiety and State anxiety.

Interpretation of t-test results:

1. Significant difference does not exist between female and male on guilt proneness.

2. Significant difference does not exist between female and male on maturity.

3. Significant difference does exist between female and male on self control.

4. Significant difference does not exist between female and male on suspiciousness.

5. Significant difference does not exist between female and male on tension.

6. Significant difference does exist between female and male on total score.

7. Significant difference does exist between female and male on trait score.

8. Significant difference does exist between female and male on state score.

9. In female Trait anxiety is predominant as compared to State anxiety.
Conclusion:

The study results indicate that women do experience a higher level of stress as compared to men. The study looks into the stress levels of women working in varied organizations in Delhi. It is not only that state anxiety is higher among working women as compared to working women in Delhi but the trait anxiety is also higher among women.

Now further study needs to be carried out to see the reason for higher levels of anxiety among working women as compared to working women in Delhi.

Bibliography:


Vandana Malviya, Dr Srirang Jha and Dr Sudhinder Chowhan.

Abstract:

Until not very long ago, organization looked at ‘work’ and ‘life’ as independent domains. The conflicting demands of work and personal life have always existed in the lives of employees. However, there was an unwritten rule that employees were not to let their personal life interfere with their work-life as these were two compartmentalized spheres. Employees were expected to place the organization’s interests ahead of their own. Work versus personal life was seen as a zero sum game. Work-life imbalance implies inter-role conflict wherein the role pressure from work and family are mutually incompatible and demand of participation in one role makes participation in the other role almost difficult. Work-life imbalance not only affects the psychological well-being of the employees but also their work related attitudes such as organizational commitment and their work related behaviour such as absenteeism, tardiness and turnover. This paper presents a comprehensive review of the determinants of work-life imbalance.

Introduction:

Work-life balance (WLB) refers to the capacity of members of the labour market to participate in various domains and manage the multi-faceted demands associated with their social roles. Problems arise when "worlds collide"—that is, when there are conflicts associated with fulfilling one's concurrent roles. Social psychologists contend that since an individual has a fixed amount of psychological and physiological resources available to fulfil his/her role obligations, the involvement in multiple roles may exhaust these resources in many people. In order to adapt, a person makes trade-offs, such as devoting greater amounts of time to one role over another, and/or achieving life satisfaction in one domain at the expense of another.

Defining Work-Life Imbalance:

Over the past decade, there has been a surge of definitions proposed by researchers for work-life balance (Clark, 2000; Kirchmeyer, 2000; Marks and MacDermid, 1996). Clark perceived it as satisfaction and effective functioning at both work and home, with minimum role conflict. Similarly, Kirchmeyer viewed it as the even allocation of time, energy, and commitment across all life domains in order to achieve satisfaction in these domains. Marks and MacDermid suggested that work-family balance reflects how an individual orients him/herself across various roles in life. Greenhaus et al. (2003) defined work-family balance as, “the extent to which an individual is equally engaged in – and equally satisfied with – his or her work role and family role (p. 513).”

Fisher (2001) developed a broader term called work-life balance, in which “imbalance” refers to an occupational stressor based on lost resources of time (e.g. amount of time spent at work comparative to time spent in non-work activities), energy (e.g. not having energy available to
pursue non-work activities after a full-day's work), and feelings toward work and personal life. Moore (2007) defines a “good” work-life balance as a situation in which workers feel that they are capable of balancing their work and non-work commitments, and, for the most part, do so. Work-family balance refers to having enough time to fulfil activities in both work and family domain (De Cieri et al., 2005; Voydanoff, 2002).

Kalliath and Brough (2008) defined “WLB is the individual perception that work and non-work activities are compatible and endorse growth in accord with an individual’s existing life priorities”. Furthermore, it is not only family obligations that constitute an issue in work-life balance. Any types of activities (e.g. hobbies, time with friends) that the individual desires to pursue outside one's work obligations pertain to work-life balance.

**Why Work-Life Imbalance/Areas being affected by work-life imbalance:**

There has been so much and research on work-life imbalance during these past two decades because of the various being affected due to work-life imbalance.

The following are the areas being affected or impacted by work-life imbalance:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcomes</th>
<th>Researcher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Burnout</td>
<td>Bacharach et al., 1991; Burke, 1988; Geurts et al., 1999; Allen et al., 2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General strain and Stress</td>
<td>Lange, 2003; Sonnentag and Frese, 2006; Major et al., 2002; Gallinsky, 2005; Parasuraman and Simmers, 2001</td>
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<td>Anxiety and depression</td>
<td>Schieman, 2003; Eby et al., 2002; Lapierre and Allen, 2006; Kinnunen et al., 2006; Frone, 2000; Grzywacz and Bass, 2003</td>
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<td>Physical ailments and lower energy level</td>
<td>Kinnunen et al., 2006; Noor, 2003; Jansen et al., 2003; Demerouti et al., 2008; Lange, 2003; Sonnentag and Frese, 2006; Hyman et al., 2003; Googins and Gonyea, 1992</td>
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<td>Fatty food consumption</td>
<td>Allen and Armstrong, 2006</td>
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<td>Destructive parenting and poor family life</td>
<td>Stewart and Barling, 1996; Hughes and Bozionelos, 2007; Allen et al., 2000; Eby et al., 2005; Oudge et al., 2006</td>
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<tr>
<td>Alcohol use</td>
<td>Eby et al., 2002; Frone et al., 1992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life satisfaction</td>
<td>Rice et al., 1992; Allen et al., 2000; Eby et al., 2002,2005; Yildirim and Aycan, 2007; Hill, 2006;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>Yildirim and Aycan, 2007; Eby et al., 2002; Adams et al., 1996; Burke et al., 1988; Rice et al., 1992; Sekaran, 1985; Bamundo and Kopelman, 1980</td>
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<tr>
<td>Category</td>
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<tr>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>Employee engagement</td>
<td>Lockwood, 2006; Martel, 2003; Shankar and Bhatnagar, 2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality service</td>
<td>Hogarth et al., 2000; Lach, 1999</td>
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<tr>
<td>Organizational citizenship</td>
<td>Breaugh and Frye, 2004; Grover and Crooker, 1995; Lambert, 2000; Gordon et al., 2007; Kopelman et al., 2006; Wang and Verma, 2009</td>
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<td>Loyalty</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance</td>
<td>Perry-Smith and Blum, 2000; Konrad and Mangel, 2000; Cappelli, 2000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Employee turnover</td>
<td>Wang and Walumbwa, 2007; Dagger and Sweeney, 2006; Mulvaney et al., 2006; Doherty and Tyson, 2000; Maxwell, 2005; Griffeth et al., 2000; Steel, 2002; Tett and Meyer, 1993; Eby et al., 2005; Greenhaus and Powell, 2003; Shankar and Bhatnagar, 2010; Simon et al., 2004; Hughes and Bozionelos, 2007</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Determinants of Work-Life Imbalance:

**Demographic variables:**
Gender, age, career stage, marital status, childcare responsibility, family type.

**Individual trait variables:**
Emotional stability, spiritual inclination, locus of control, workaholism.

**Work and Family related variables:**
Years of work experience, spousal support, family support, social support, supervisory support, organizational policies, social life within the organization, social life outside the organization, job demand, work time control, job involvement, career satisfaction, professionals, dual working couple, persistence second shift, same same career couple.

This model has been framed on the basis of thorough literature review. The model shows that demographic, individual trait and work and family related variables that affect the work life imbalance. The inclusion of these different sets of variables gives a better understanding of the various variables that affect work-life imbalance of working professionals. Lots of researchers have studied personality variables as the determinants of work-life imbalance (Hughes and Parkes, 2007; Rijswijk et al., 2004; Bruck and Allen, 2003; Wayne et al., 2004; Mitchelson, 2009; Aziz and Cunningham, 2008; Aziz and Zickar, 2006; Bonebright et al., 2000; Zhang and Liu, 2011; Rubab et al., 2008; Agarwal and Ferratt, 2000).

**Demographic variables:**

**Gender:** Recent studies on gender confirm that inequalities still persist (Blau et al., 2006; Hardy and Adnett, 2002; Felstead et al., 2002, p. 57). Although women’s participation in the workforce is widely accepted, women still continue to carry the major burden of family or
“caring” responsibilities (Chapman, 2004; Whitehouse et al., 2007). The issue of gender lies at the heart of work-life imbalance. Evidence that suggests that there are differences between male and female employees in the factors that contribute to their experience of work-life imbalance (Whitehouse and Brocklebank, 2003). According to the Expansionist Theory (Barnett and Hyde, 2001), gender-roles are expanding: women are more active in professional work life, whereas men are more active in family life. As the consequence of this trend, maintaining a balance between work and family responsibilities has become a challenge for working people. Although both men and women may experience work-family conflict, women report more conflict than men due to them spending more combined time on work and family activities (Frone et al, 1992; Hammer et al., 1997; Lundberg et al., 1994). Whereas, Woodward (2007) found that women reported high workloads, requiring long working hours, which consumed time and energy otherwise available for other relationships and commitments and their own leisure.

**Career stage:** There is a mixed literature on career stage of an individual and its affect on work-life imbalance. Some literature suggests that work-family balance may be achieved by senior staff and managers who have better autonomy and discretion, and greater access to resources that sustain a balance between work and family (Whitehouse et al., 2007). While other research (Poelmans et al., 2003, 276) concludes that managers may play a crucial but contradictory role, “as both victims of work-family conflict, primary sources of resistance or support for these policies and practices, and agents in their implementation.” Drew and Murtagh (2005) found that senior management were often frustrated with working long hours. Senior managers felt unable to control their working time and to work “normal hours” or take parental leave (Drew and Murtagh, 2005, 277). Those in early career stage have so many goals to pursue and have lots of challenges when they start their career. The researcher feels that they find it difficult to manage their work and family domains.

**Income:** Those managers and professionals who have good salary package may be able to minimize work-life conflict by taking paid help such as cleaners and nannies to enable work-life balance (Graves et al., 2007). Liff and Ward (2001) concludes that those who high salary package are better able to balance their work and life domain as compared to their counterparts. Some researchers have not found any significant correlation between income and work-life imbalance (Frone et al, 1997), while others have discovered positive correlation between income and WIF, but that of FIW is not apparent (Frone, 2000). In addition, some researchers showed opposite points to this, the study of Voydanoff (1988) indicated that high-income people feel less shortage of time compared to low-income ones. Their presuming economic strength probably helps to satisfy them on time demand.

**Marital status:** There is mixed research on marital status and work life imbalance. Research indicates that work-life imbalance is more predominant among those who are married and with children and compared to those without children and that employed parent have multiple roles that compete for their time and effort (Holahan and Gilbert, 1979; Pleck, 1979; Higgins et al., 1992). While some other research concludes that work-life balance is an issue that pertains to all individuals who are in paid work, regardless of whether they have family
responsibilities or not (Dex and Scheibl, 2001; Fu and Shaffer, 2001; Rotondo et al., 2002). Wilson (2004) found that singles face more work-life imbalance as compared to males as they have no excuse to say no for work and the bosses feel that they are free from family responsibilities and prefer to give all that extra work to them.

Childcare responsibility: Childcare responsibility is usually measured by number of children in a family and ages of children. Grandey and Cropanzano (1999) achieved a research result indicated that the correlation of the number of children to FIW is high to 0.45. Santos and Cabral-Cardoso (2008) found that the tension and conflict between work and life is more among women and particularly among those with dependent children. Jones and McKenna (2002) concluded that work-life conflict is affected by the marital status and presence of children and reported that work-interference with life is more among mothers with children as compared to non-mothers. Work-life balance predictors might be measured by “having children at home, experiencing disagreements or tension with spouse, and high involvement or time demands from family members” (Eby et al., 2004, 124). Studies of domestic work and care-giving consistently show that women spend more time on such tasks as compared to men (Moen, 1992; Bullock, 1994; Fagenson, 1993). Pre-school children need their parents to pay much more time and efforts. Infants and pre-school children have the highest requirements of time and energy from their parents (Bedeian et al, 1988). Mothers of younger children have more work-interference with life and life-interference with work as compared to mothers who have older children (Aryee, 1992, Bedeian et al., 1988).

Family type: There is a mixed research on the relation between family type i.e. joint or nuclear family and work-life imbalance. Complexity and pressures begin in the home and extended family environment (Blegen, Mueller and Price, 1988); as the number of members in a household increases, the number of schedules that must be coordinated also increases. Grzywacz and Marks (2000) found that those with big-sized family have higher family-interference with work than others. The individual, who spends a lot of time on family and takes on more exceptions as family role, will feel lack of working time and energy for work. High-level family demand may require individuals spend more time on family chores, which definitely spills over to work role, and thus increase FIW (Rijswijk et al., 2004; Major et al., 2002; Guest, 2002). While some other researcher’s state that family members can provide instrumental help (taking over household tasks) and empathy, love, and advice (Daalen et al., 2006).

Long working hours: A considerable amount of research showed that work demands such as number of hours worked, workload and shift work were positively and strongly associated with WFC (Burke, 2002; Higgins and Duxbury, 2001; Higgins and Duxbury, 1992; Saltzstein et al., 2001; Voydanoff, 1988). Working long hours, evenings and weekends restrains the time that employees have for family activities. Barbara Pocock (2003) picks up on moodiness at home that results from working excessively long hours, the guilt that parents feel for not attending their children’s significant events at school and the fraying of community fabric as workers time to run local clubs disappears: “Grumpy people do not make great lovers, fathers, mothers, drivers, neighbours or golfers”.
**Individual trait variables:**

**Emotional stability:** These findings suggest that those with increasing tendencies towards maladjustment and emotional instability are also experiencing increasing perceptions of WFC. Bruck and Allen (2003) found a negative relationship between agreeableness and time-based WFC and between conscientiousness and FIW after controlling for demographic variables and Type Á personality traits. Similarly, Wayne et al (2004) found a negative relationship between WIF and both agreeableness and conscientiousness, and a negative relationship between FIW and conscientiousness.

**Locus of control:** Locus of control is one’s perception of the degree of control she or he has over events in life (Rotter, 1966). Rotter identified internal locus of control individuals as people who tend to perceive outcomes of their behaviours has resulted from their own efforts. They take the responsibility of their own behaviour and do what they think to be right. And people with external locus of control tends to believe that whatever happens in their life is not because of them but because of some other influential people. Internal locus of control seems to take more initiative, are interested to change, and actively manage outcomes in their lives. Locus of control is the individual’s generalized belief concerning the extent to which outcomes are determined by internal (e.g., personal effort and ability) as opposed to external variables (e.g., fate, chance, or powerful others). Internals show higher work motivation and satisfaction, less anxiety, and higher expectancy that effort leads to performance (Spector, 1994), and they hold more positive attitudes than externals when task difficulty is high (Gul et al., 1994). Several studies have examined the relationship between locus of control and work-family conflict (Noor, 2002, 2006). Noor investigated the effects of locus of control on work-family conflict and found that individuals with an external locus of control (those who attribute the causes of events in their lives to factors other than themselves) reported experiencing more work-family conflict. Similarly, Andreassi and Thompson (2009) found that internal locus of control was negatively related to work-family conflict.

**Spiritual inclination:** People increasingly desire to experience spirituality not only in their personal lives, but also their work where they spend a large amount of time (Neck and Milliman, 1994; Ray, 1992; Maynard, 1992). The quote “we are not human beings with a spiritual experience, but rather spiritual beings with a human experience” is stated more widely now than ever. Hope is an integral part of spirituality, the feeling that things will get better and we are in this world to do good. Spirituality provides employees meaningfulness, integrity, honesty, humility, respect, fairness, caring & concern, listening, appreciating others and reflective practices (Reave, 2005). Spirituality also helps individuals to stay calm, in peace even in the times and turbulence and gave them a feeling of hope, being of service, humility and forgiveness (Kruger and Hanson, 1999). According to (Vicari, 2003), majority of experts claim that individual's personal life and life at work is strongly influenced by the spiritual dogmas. Also, spirituality is correlated to increased joy, serenity, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and commitment (Burack, 1999; Fry, 2003, 2005; Giacalone and Jurkiewicz, 2003a; Kouzes and Posner, 1995; Krishnakumar and Neck, 2002; Paloutzian et al., 2003; Reave, 2005).
Workaholism: Oates (1971) first created the term workaholic to describe a person whose enhanced necessity to work hinders various life functions (Bonebright et al., Porter, 2001). Workaholism can lead to interpersonal relationships and lead to marital dissatisfaction. Carroll and Robinson, (2000) found that women married to workaholics reported higher marital estrangement and fewer positive feelings towards their husbands. Porter (2001) found that the spouses of workaholics felt ignored, unloved, and emotionally/physically abandoned. Spence and Robbins (1992) found women to be significantly more likely to feel driven to work, to have more work environment, to experience more work stress, and to allocate more time to the job. Their findings suggest that women have a greater tendency to show at least some characteristics of workaholism, perhaps owing to the more competitive work environment and the higher expectations placed upon them in order to succeed in the workplace. Individuals who are very committed to their job may be more likely to work longer hours and/or more likely to continue to work whilst unwell (Ala-Mursula et al., 2006). Workaholics have higher levels of work stress and the inner pressures and drive for these individuals to work. As employees get more engaged in work, their ability to balance the demands of work and personal life increasingly suffers (Bonebright et al., 2000). “Workaholics” who are characterized as those who choose to work long hours even when they may not need to do so and they tend to do so at the expense of other activities. Peiperl and Jones (2001) viewed workaholism similar to alcoholism. Robinson (2000a) proposes a rather stringent definition reflective of what he views as the “true workaholic”. He defines workaholism as “an obsessive-compulsive disorder that manifests itself through self-imposed demands, an inability to regulate work habits, and an over indulgence in work to the exclusion of most other life activities” (Robinson, 2000a).

Work and family related variables:

Years of work experience, spousal support, family support, social support, supervisory support, organizational policies, social life within the organization, social life outside the organization, job demand, job control, career satisfaction, dual working couple, spouse in teaching profession.

Spousal support: Spousal support has been found to reduce role-strain through its impact on perceived stressors (Carlson and Perrewe, 1999) and to increase marital quality (Dehle et al., 2001; Julien et al., 2003) and general well-being (Dehle et al., 2001). Dehle et al. (2001) found that spousal support is important for both marital satisfaction and individual functioning. Individuals who reported higher rates of spousal support were more likely to report higher levels of marital satisfaction, fewer symptoms of depression, and more manageable stress levels. Prior findings have illustrated that a spouse’s support can negate work-family conflict (Erdwins, et al. 2001, Lee and Choo 2001, Kirrane and Buckley 2004). In examining physiological responses to a conflict interaction with one's spouse, Heffner, Kiecolt-Glaser et al., (2004) found that cortisol and mood levels were affected by spousal support. Spousal support can be emotional or instrumental (Lee and Choo 2001, Kirrane and Buckley 2004). Spouse contribute in areas like earnings and financial management (Kate, 1998), home and family responsibilities (Baron and Kenny, 1986; Bonney et al., 1999),
career management and support (Gordon and Whelan-Berry, 2004; Hertz, 1999) and interpersonal support ((Becker and Moen, 1999).

**Family support:** Grzywacz and Marks (2000) showed that family support (such as from spouse) has significantly negative correlation with FIW. Families and particularly noted for supplying feedback and guidance, mediating problem solutions, serving as a haven for rest and recuperation, validating an individual’s identity, and contributing to emotional mastery (Caplan et al., 1975). Families can also provide tangible resources like nuclear family may provide income beyond that earned by the individual. Financial resources may also be available from one’s extended family, along with childcare assistance (Parish and Hao, 1991), help with shopping, and coverage for events like repair calls and vet visits (Caplan et al., 1975). There is growing consensus that emotional and instrumental support plays a vital role in regard to work-family conflicts (Behr and McGrath 1992; Caplan et al., 1975; McIntosh, 1991; Kaufmann, and Beehr, 1986). Adams et al. (1996) found that family-based social support was negatively associated with family interfering with work, a dimension of work-family conflict. These relationships also provide support that reduces work-family conflict by reducing time demands and stress (Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1994; Seers et al., 1983). King et al., (1996) found that family members can support employees in their efforts to manage work and life domains by providing emotional sustenance and instrumental assistance. Emotional sustenance helps in preventing family interference with work (Lapierre and Allen, 2006)

**Supervisory support:** Now-a-days lots of emphasis is being given to supervisory support in work-life balance literature (Stinghambler and Vandenbergh, 2004; Beehr et al., 2003; Yildirim and Aycan, 2007; Anderson et al., 2002; Baral and Bhargava, 2010; Moen and Yu, 2000; Thompson and Poppins, 2005; Major et al., 2008). Studies found that supervisory support was an important source of support in coping with problems associated with WFC (Anderson et al., 2002; Beehr et al., 2003; Burke and Greenglass, 1999; Duxbury and Higgins, 1994; Thomas and Ganster, 1995). Supervisor support is also crucial for work-family enrichment (Beutell and Wittig-Berman, 2008; Wadsworth and Owens, 2007; Aryee et al., 2005) since, supervisors can alleviate most of the work related tension and strain (Beehr et al., 2000), which may potentially provide the energy and confidence (Marks, 1977) to participate in family related activities. Even the success of work life balance practices is dependent on supervisor’s attitude, skills and behaviour (Glynn et al., 2002). O’Driscoll et al. (2003) demonstrated that employees with greater supervisor support reported less psychological strain than co-workers with less support from their supervisors. Moen and Yu (2000) found that having a supervisor who is understanding and supportive leads to higher scores on positive indicators of life quality (coping/mastery) and lower scores on negative indicators of life quality (work/life conflict, overload, and stress) for both men and women.

**Organizational policies:** Perceived organizational support (POS) is currently the most extensive form of support considered in the human resource management literature. POS was initially developed by Eisenberger and his colleagues (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002; Rhoades et al., 2001) and subsequently by other researchers (Settoon et al., 1996; Wayne et al., 1997). When employees perceive their employer as supportive, their
commitment to the organization increases. An individual's perceptions concerning available support, rather than its actual availability, may be a stronger predictor of effective coping or achievement of desirable outcomes (Cohen and Syme, 1985). Allen (2001) found that employees who perceived their organization as less family-supportive experienced more work-life imbalance, less job satisfaction, less organization commitment and greater turnover intention. Baltes et al., (1999) and Duxbury and Higgins (2001) found that work-life balance practices like flextime, childcare and elderscare support helps in balancing the employees work and family domain and also enhances the workplace performance.

**Social life within the organization:** Employees differentiate support from the organisation and the support they receive from their immediate work group or supervisor (Allen, 2001; Jahn et al., 2003; Self et al., 2005). Both the immediate manager and peers are sources of social support that help relieve occupational stress and reduce turnover (Buunk and Verhoeven, 1991; Savery, 1988; Bailey and Kurland, 2002; Gajendran and Harrison, 2007). Kram (1985) found that peer relationships at work vary from those who exchange information about work and the organisation to those who provide confirmation and emotional support. Ducharme and Martin (2000) found evidence that the social support of peers enhances the job satisfaction of all workers. If employees enjoy a good social life i.e. relation with the seniors and peers, they feel good about working in such organizations. Social gathering where employees family is also invited are perceived good by the employees. Ducharme and Martin (2000) found evidence that the social support of peers enhances the job satisfaction of all workers. Supportive relationships make career advancement and success more likely. Work-based relationships may be instrumental in supporting career advancement in managerial roles (Kram, 1985; Scandura, 1992) and creating feelings of inclusion in professional roles (Gersick et al., 2000; Mor Barak and Levin, 2002) that indicate career accomplishment.

**Job demand:** A considerable amount of research showed that work demands such as number of hours worked, workload and shift work were positively and strongly associated with work-life imbalance (Burke, 2002; Higgins et al., 2000; Higgins and Duxbury, 1992; Saltzstein et al., 2001; Voydanoff, 1988; Hughes and Parkes, 2007; Rijswijk et al., 2004; Yildirim and Aycan, 2007; Guest, 2002). According to Bond et al., (1997) job requirements, such as mandatory overtime, shift work, on-call requirements, and evening/weekend/holiday coverage impose on one’s personal time. Researchers have also proved that job demands such as a high work pressure, emotional demands, and role ambiguity may lead to sleeping problems, exhaustion, and impaired health (Doi, 2005; Halbesleben and Zellars, 2006). According to World Health Organization, mental health problems due to work pressure are expected to become the second most common cause of disability and death by 2020 (Harnois and Gabriel, 2000).

**Work time control:** Work time control can be described as the individual’s autonomy regarding issues such as starting and finishing times, breaks, days off, vacations, and the number of work hours (Costa et al., 2001). Hughes and Parkes (2007) showed that work time control was not only directly and inversely related to WFI (Jansen et al., 2004), but also indirectly: high work time control buffered the adverse effects of long work hours on WFI.
When facing a high degree of workload, particularly when working under high time pressure, individuals have to work fast and have to invest a lot of effort in order to accomplish their tasks (Frese and Zapf, 1994; Hockey and Earle, 2006). There is considerable evidence that work time control may alleviate the negative effect of work time demands on health and work–family balance (Ala-Mursula et al., 2006; Tucker and Rutherford, 2005; Van der Hulst and Geurts, 2001; Geurts et al., 2009).

**Job involvement:** Job involvement has to do with the degree of importance people allocate to work involvement (Higgins et al., 1992; Adams et al., 1996) and to involvement in family roles (Williams and Alliger, 1994). It represents the degree to which a person's job is central to his/her self-esteem or sense of identity (Kanungo, 1982; Lodahl and Kejner, 1965). Social identity theory states that people can invest in various social roles which define their own identities and the roles they occupy in a social environment (Mael and Ashforth, 1995; Ashforth, 1998). More specifically, individuals with high job involvement may find it more difficult to comply with the demands of other roles, as has been found in past work-life balance research (Martire et al., 2001; Bruck et al., 2002; Major et al., 2002; Beutell and O’ Hare, 1987; Frone and Rice, 1987; Greenhaus, and Kopelman, 1981; Parasuraman et al., 1989; Wley, 1987; Frone et al., 1992). Job involvement may lead to work interfering with family, which in turn leads to less time and energy devoted to family roles, thereby making it more difficult to comply with pressures associated with family roles.

**Career satisfaction:** Choices for continued personal growth and development, such as continuing education (Schor, 1991) and career changes, can also complicate balancing work and life. Those with higher career demands will have difficulty in balancing their work and life domain till the time they accomplish what they desire from their career.

**Professionals:** Research findings concerning the ability of professionals and managers to balance work and family are also mixed. (Tausig and Fenwick, 2001; Drew and Murtagh, 2005; Poelmans et al., 2003; Wajeçman, 1999) reported that a professional occupation was negatively associated with work-life balance. In contrast there are researches that state that some managers and professionals may be able to minimize work-life conflict by purchasing support such as cleaners and paid help to enhance work-life balance (Graves et al., 2007). Moreover, professionals and managers may have more access to greater flexibility relative to other workers enabling them to better cope with the heavy work and family demands (Eaton, 2003; Rau and Hyland, 2002). There is some evidence to suggest that highly educated women in well-paid jobs are “best placed to access supportive policies” (Whitehouse et al., 2007).

**Dual working couple:** Economic pressures have significantly increased the need for dual-earner families to the point that the majority of families now require two breadwinners to meet rises in the cost of living. In India, the demographic changes are seen in the form of increasing number of women in the workforce (Census of India, 2010) and increasing number of nuclear as well as dual earner families (Bharat, 2003; Rajadhyaksh and Bhatnagar, 2000; Komarraju, 1997; Sekaran, 1992), which put pressure on both men and women to manage their work and family obligations. There is a 40% increase in women in paid labour force (Dutta and Singh, 2003; Jain, 1992; Nath, 2000). This movement from the private to the
public domain and their increased presence in the world’s workforces have challenged traditional notions of the locus of responsibility for childcare and for the care of members of families and communities (Calas and Smirich, 1996; Chhachhi and Pittin, 1996; Greer, 1970). Those whose spouse is not working can concentrate on their job better as their is available to take the responsibility of household but those couples where both the partners work becomes a big challenge. So the working spouse can concentrate more on work and the home maker can take the charge of household work. Also there are researches which averts that husbands of employed women engage more in family roles than the husbands of non-employed women (Barnett and Baruch, 1987; Pleck, 1985)

**Persistence second shift:** Though there is an increase in the number of working women in India, but they have to perform the household activities even after having a tiring day at office. Studies on domestic work and care-giving consistently show that women spend more time on such activities than men (Moen, 1992; Bullock, 1994; Fagenson, 1993). Regardless of the number of working hours and the place where work is carried out through either home, labour market or both, women are left with less time for sleep or rest. As a result, many health problems may occur such as malnutrition, chronic fatigue, stress and premature aging (Smyke, 1991; Marshal, 2001). Employees tend to undertake domestic responsibilities irrespective of their employment status; the so-called second shift remains stubbornly intact. Previous research suggests that the movement of women into the workforce, longer working hours and work intensification have resulted in less time for family, recreation and community (Pocock, 2003, 2005). Those who have more work to do at home also will have difficulty in balancing their work and life domain (Rijswijk et al., 2004; Abbott et al., 1998; Borrill and Kidd, 1994; Major et al., 2002; Guest, 2002)

**Same-same career couple:** Martin et al. (1975) of female sociologists wrote that “those faculty in same-same career couples were proportionally more successful at obtaining the PhD, achieving higher academic ranks, gaining more promotion, avoiding demotions, and practicing longer professional careers. The 'same-same' couples also had the highest joint productivity in the publication histories” (Butler and Paisley, 1980, 227). Hall and Hall (1979) provide a further explanation to this observed compatibility, by contending that it is easier to understand the spouse's commitments and provide needed support.

**Conclusion:**

The determinants of work-life imbalance are gathered from thorough literature review. But most of the researches are done in western culture and the culture in which the study is done has a major impact on it (Aryee, 1992; Rosenbaum and Cohen, 1999; Treas and Wildmer, 2000; Williams and Best, 1990). So what is applicable for western countries may not be applicable in the context of Asian countries like India. So, an empirical study further needs to be carried out keeping these determinants as base and then try to find out are these variables the determinants of work-life imbalance in Indian context or not.

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PHYSICAL FITNESS FOR WORKING WOMEN

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Abstract

Working women have a tougher task than that of men. They not only need to be working at home but in office too. So, it is very necessary that they take good care of their health and follow a good fitness regime. The decision to carry out a physical fitness for working women cannot be taken lightly. Each workout program should begin with a warm-up and end with a cooldown. The key to weight control is keeping energy intake and energy output in balance. Exercise plays an important role in weight control by increasing energy output. Waking offers the easiest and least expensive way to work out for working women. Certain exercise like squats push-ups, stomach crunches, triceps dips, shoulder press, bent over lateral raise can actually help to stay fit. Along with proper workout it is necessary for working women to have a good and healthy diet.

Introduction

Physical fitness comprises two related concepts: general fitness (a state of health and well-being) and specific fitness (a task-oriented definition based on the ability to perform specific aspects of Sports or occupations).

In previous years, fitness was commonly defined as the capacity to carry out the day’s activities without undue fatigue. However, as automation increased leisure time, changes in lifestyles following the industrial revolution rendered this definition insufficient. These days, physical fitness is considered a measure of the body’s ability to function efficiently and effectively in work and leisure activities, to be health, to resist hypo kinetic diseases, and to meet emergency situations.

Without exercise our health would be doomed. Learn how to get started on your fitness plan, what to do when you get off track with your exercise goals, how to use everyday activities to meet your goal for physical fitness, as well as other facts you should know about exercising at home, outside or at gymnasium. Studies have shown that regular exercise significantly increases life expectancy and improves overall health regular plan of Physical fitness studies.

Role of Physical Education in Working Women Health

Making a Commitment

You have taken the important first step on the path to physical fitness by seeking information. The next step is to decide that you are going to be physically fit. The decision to carry out a physical fitness program cannot be taken lightly. It requires a lifelong commitment of time and effort. Exercise must become one of those things that you do without question, like bathing and brushing your teeth. Unless you are convinced of the benefits of fitness and the risks of unfitness, you will not succeed.
Patience is essential. Don’t try to do too much too soon and don’t quit before you have a chance to experience the rewards of improved fitness.

**Checking Your Health**

If you’re under 35 and in good health, you don’t need to see a doctor before beginning an exercise program. But if you are over 35 and have been inactive for several years, you should consult your physician, who may or may not recommend a graded exercise test. Other conditions that indicate a need for medical clearance are: high blood pressure, heart trouble, family history of early stroke or heart attack deaths, frequent dizzy spells, extreme breathlessness after mild exertion, arthritis or other bone problems, severe muscular, ligament or tendon problems or any other known or suspected disease.

Fitness can be described as a condition that helps us look, feel and do our best. More specifically, it is: The ability to perform daily task vigorously and alertly, with energy left over for enjoying leisure time activities and meeting emergency demands. It is the ability to endure, to bear up to withstand stress, to carry on in circumstances where an unfit person could not continue, and is a major basis for good health and well-being.

As you undertake your fitness program, it’s important to remember that fitness is an individual quality that varies from person to person. It is influenced by age, sex, heredity, personal habits, exercise and eating practices. You can’t do anything about the first three factors. However, it is within your power to change and improve the others where needed.

**Knowing the Basic**

Physical fitness is most easily understood by examining its components, or “parts.”

There is widespread agreement that these four components are basic:

1. **Cardiorespiratory Endurance** - the ability to deliver oxygen and nutrients to tissues and to remove wastes, over sustained periods of time. Long runs and swims are among the methods employed in measuring this component.

2. **Muscular Strength** - the ability of a muscle to exert force for a brief period of time. Upper-body strength, for example, can be measured by various weight-lifting exercises.

3. **Muscular Endurance** - the ability of a muscle, or a group of muscles, to sustain repeated contractions or to continue applying force against a fixed object. Pushups are often used to test endurance of arm and shoulder muscles.

4. **Flexibility** - the ability to move joints and use muscles through their full range of motion. The sit-and- reach test is a good measure of flexibility of the lower back and backs of the upper legs.

Body Composition is often considered a component of fitness. It refers to the makeup of the body in terms of lean mass (muscle, bone, vital tissue and organs) and fat mass. An optimal ratio of fat to lean mass is an indication of fitness, and the right types of exercises will help you decrease body fat and increase or maintain muscle mass.

**Work Schedule**

Your exercise program should include something from each of the four basic fitness components described previously. Each workout should begin with a warm-up and end with a cool down. As a general rule, space your workouts throughout the week and avoid consecutive days of hard exercise.

Here are the amounts of activity necessary for the average healthy person to maintain a minimum level of overall fitness. Included are some of the popular exercises for each category.

1. **Warm-Up** - 5-10 minutes of exercise such as walking, slow jogging, knee lifts, arm circles or trunk rotations. Low intensity movements that simulate movements to be used in the activity can also be included in the warm-up.

2. **Muscular Strength** - a minimum of two 20-minute sessions per week that include exercises for all the major muscle groups. Lifting
weights is the most effective way to increase strength.

3. **Muscular Endurance** - at least three 30-minute sessions each week that include exercises such as calisthenics, pushups, sit-ups, pull-ups, and weight training for all the major muscle groups.

4. **Cardiorespiratory Endurance** - at least three 20-minute bouts of continuous aerobic (activity requiring oxygen) rhythmic exercise each week. Popular aerobic conditioning activities include brisk walking, jogging, swimming, cycling, rope-jumping, rowing, cross-country skiing, and some continuous action games like racquetball and handball.

5. **Flexibility** - 10-12 minutes of daily stretching exercises performed slowly, without a bouncing motion. This can be included after a warm-up or during a cool down.

6. **Cool Down** - a minimum of 5-10 minutes of slow walking, low-level exercise, combined with stretching.

**A Matter of Principle**

The keys to selecting the right kinds of exercises for developing and maintaining each of the basic components of fitness are found in these principles:

1. **Specificity** - pick the right kind of activities to affect each component. Strength training results in specific strength changes. Also, train for the specific activity you’re interested in. For example, optimal swimming performance is best achieved when the muscles involved in swimming are trained for the movements required. It does not necessarily follow that a good runner is a good swimmer.

2. **Overload** - work hard enough, at levels that are vigorous and long enough to overload your body above its resting level, to bring about improvement.

3. **Regularity** - you can’t hoard physical fitness. At least three balanced workouts a week are necessary to maintain a desirable level of fitness.

4. **Progression** - increase the intensity, frequency and/or duration of activity over periods of time in order to improve.

Some activities can be used to fulfill more than one of your basic exercise requirements. For example, in addition to increasing cardio respiratory endurance, running builds muscular endurance in the legs, and swimming develops the arm, shoulder and chest muscles. If you select the proper activities, it is possible to fit parts of your muscular endurance workout into your cardio respiratory workout and save time.

**Controlling Weight of Working Women**

The key to weight control is keeping energy intake (food) and energy output (physical activity) in balance. When you consume only as many calories as your body needs, your weight will usually remain constant. If you take in more calories than your body needs, you will put on excess fat. If you expend more energy than you take in you will burn excess fat.

Exercise plays an important role in weight control by increasing energy output, calling on stored calories for extra fuel. Recent studies show that not only does exercise increase metabolism during a workout, but it causes your metabolism to stay increased for a period of time after exercising, allowing you to burn more calories.

How much exercise is needed to make a difference in your weight depends on the amount and type of activity, and on how much you eat. Aerobic exercise burns body fat. A medium-sized adult would have to walk more than 30 miles to burn up 3,500 calories, the equivalent of one pound of fat. Although that may seem like a lot, you don’t have to walk the 30 miles all at once. Walking a mile a day for 30 days will achieve the same result, providing you don’t increase your food intake to negate the effects of walking.
If you consume 100 calories a day more than your body needs, you will gain approximately 10 pounds in a year. You could take that weight off, or keep it off, by doing 30 minutes of moderate exercise daily. The combination of exercise and diet offers the most flexible and effective approach to weight control.

Since muscle tissue weighs more than fat tissue, and exercise develops muscle to a certain degree, your bathroom scale won’t necessarily tell you whether or not you are “fat.” Well-muscled individuals, with relatively little body fat, invariably are “overweight” according to standard weight charts. If you are doing a regular program of strength training, your muscles will increase in weight, and possibly you’re overall weight will increase. Body composition is a better indicator of your condition than body weight.

Lack of physical activity causes muscles to get soft, and if food intake is not decreased, added body weight is almost always fat. Once-active people, who continue to eat as they always have after settling into sedentary lifestyles, tend to suffer from “creeping obesity.”

**Clothing**

All exercise clothing should be loose-fitting to permit freedom of movement, and should make the wearer feel comfortable and self-assured.

As a general rule, you should wear lighter clothes than temperatures might indicate. Exercise generates great amounts of body heat. Light-colored clothing that reflects the sun’s rays is cooler in the summer, and dark clothes are warmer in winter. When the weather is very cold, it’s better to wear several layers of light clothing than one or two heavy layers. The extra layers help trap heat, and it’s easy to shed one of them if you become too warm.

In cold weather, and in hot, sunny weather, it’s a good idea to wear something on your head. Wool watch or ski caps are recommended for winter wear, and some form of tennis or sailor’s hat that provides shade and can be soaked in water is good for summer.

Never wear rubberized or plastic clothing, such garments interfere with the evaporation of perspiration and can cause body temperature to rise to dangerous levels.

The most important item of equipment for the runner is a pair of sturdy, properly-fitting running shoes. Training shoes with heavy, cushioned soles and arch supports are preferable to flimsy sneakers and light racing flats.

**When to Exercise?**

The hour just before the evening meal is a popular time for exercise. The late afternoon workout provides a welcome change of pace at the end of the work day and helps dissolve the day’s worries and tensions.

Another popular time to work out is early morning, before the work day begins. Advocates of the early start say it makes them more alert and energetic on the job. Among the factors you should consider in developing your workout schedule are personal preference, job and family responsibilities, availability of exercise facilities and weather. It’s important to schedule your workouts for a time when there is little chance that you will have to cancel or interrupt them because of other demands on your time.

You should not exercise strenuously during extremely hot, humid weather or within two hours after eating. Heat and/or digestion both make heavy demands on the circulatory system, and in combination with exercise can be an overtaxing double load.

**Taking it slow and easy...**

Walking offers the easiest, least expensive way to work out for most people. Research shows that people who go from a sedentary lifestyle to one which includes moderate amounts of physical activity derive the most health benefits from exercise. It’s important to start out slowly if you have been inactive for a long period of time. The speed and length of your walk should match your level of fitness. It may be necessary for you to start with just 10 or 15 minutes and increase your walking as you feel able. A good way to measure whether you are working too hard is if you are unable to carry on a conversation-- if you can't talk-- slow down
your walk! A healthy, injury-free walk is one in which you can easily continue talking while you walk.

**Back and neck stretch**

Stretching the back, neck and abdominal muscles before exercise can prevent sprained backs and necks.

**Foot stretching**

Foot pain can be prevented by gently stretching the Achilles tendon. Pull your foot backward and hold for 10 seconds, repeat 10 times. Properly fitted and appropriate footwear is also important in preventing foot injury.

**Stretching muscles**

Gently stretch all major muscles prior to a workout to prevent muscle strains and pulls. Strengthen the muscles on the front of your thighs by contracting and relaxing the muscle with your knee straight. Contract to the count of ten and relax - repeat 10 times on each leg.

**Shin stretching**

Shin injury can be prevented with a slow warm-up before and stretching following each workout. Proper arch support is also important as is a soft workout surface grass, instead of asphalt.

**Shoulder stretch**

After-work out shoulder pain is prevented by standing straight and rolling the shoulders backward in a circular motion, also stand and hold the back of a chair while bending at the waist so that your back is parallel to the floor—make 25 circles with your free arm and repeat on other side.

**Elbow stretch**

Forearm strength can be built up by doing reverse curls with light weights or squeezing a rubber ball.

**Role of Yoga in Working Women Health**

Gone are the days when women would stay back at home and do the house hold chores. Today, women are making use of their skills. They stand shoulder to shoulder to a man. Their work at times can be so hectic that they may hardly be able to spend their time on taking care of their health and their fitness regime. So we shall see the different ways of how working women can stay fit. As she has got to take care of the rest of the family as well. Yoga is an age old practice that keeps the mind, soul and body fit. Many working women practice yoga for its power and strength.

There are 8 parts of yoga namely:

- Yama
- Asana
- Niyama
- Pranayama
- Pratayahara
- Dhyana
- Dharana
- Samadhi

A 20 minutes daily work out can be very relaxing. This exercise can be performed under any weather condition and in any place. Making it perfect for working women. Medical science has also shown psychological and physiological gains of yoga. Yoga involves proper breathing, thinking positive, rest and a good nutritional diet.

**Conclusion**

Regular exercise is a great stress reliever. It helps you lose weight and so also increases your energy and stamina. Exercise leads to the release of endorphins. Thus making us feel confident, happy and give us the strength to take up stress. Working women need this the most. A proper regular exercise can

- Improve your personal life
- Safeguard you from falling sick.
- Give strength to heart and mind.

Hectic life of today can make it difficult for women to hit the gym as desired. So it is advisable to even take up a normal exercise at home itself. Certain exercises like squats pushups, stomach crunches, triceps dips, shoulder press, bent over lateral raise can actually help to stay fit.

Along with proper work outs it is necessary to also be eating a good and healthy diet. Working women at times are so busy with their work that they tend to skip their food. This is not a good habit. It can cause lots of problems later. Eating of fresh fruits, vegetables and drinking lots of water is
advisable. More processed food gives the body more energy which is good for digestion.

Breakfast can start with fresh fruits. As they contain glucose that gives us a whole lot of energy. A heavy breakfast means more energy is consumed to digest it. So a light breakfast is advised. A few dry fruits in the mid day are good in case of hunger. Lunch can be a mixture of cereals, pulses, raw and cooked fresh vegetables. Bajra, sprouts, jawar, wheat flour is also good. Snack can be sandwich without cheese and butter. Dinner can be a proper meal. This has to be consumed 2 hours before going to bed.

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Spirituality in Education for Holistic Development.

Vandana Malviya and Dr Srirang Jha

Abstract:

There is growing number of problems among youth like violence, behavioural changes, pressure of performance, drug addiction, depression, etc. Assisting students to grow spiritually will help to create a new generation who are more caring, more globally aware, and more committed to social justice, while also enabling students to respond to the many stresses and tensions of the rapidly changing technological society. This paper is an effort to raise public awareness of the important role that spirituality plays in student learning and development, by alerting academic administrators, faculty, and curriculum committees to the importance of spiritual development, and by identifying strategies for enhancing that development.

_work is love made visible. And if you cannot work with love but only with distaste, it is better that you should leave your work and sit at the gate of the temple and take alms of those who work with joy._ (Kahlil Gibran, 1965, p. 28)

Introduction:

According to World Health Organization, India has become one of the highest suicide rates countries worldwide. The country’s health ministry estimates that up to 120,000 people commit suicide each year and almost 40% of them are below the age of 30. Though media often report a particular event to be the cause behind suicide but Dr Sandy Dias, psychologist says that, “it’s probably something that has been going on for a long time where the person would have experienced suicidal thoughts and may have been grappling with a lot of emotional issues. The event is just a trigger; it’s just the tip of the iceberg”. The changing social-cultural where both parent work outside and because of that children lack emotional support at home which further leads to distress among children and adolescents. Social network are also changing, the time spent with local friends is being replaced by internet gaming with virtual playmates across the globe. “The absence of healthy play spaces deprives children of vital lessons in interpersonal relationships. Children are pursuing their studies, their tuitions, their organized activities, as individuals, not as groups. So the informal groups of children’s network are the first network that is really broken up” says Shubhada Maitra, chairperson of the Centre for Health and Mental Health at Mumbai-based Tata Institute of Social Sciences.

Out of every three cases of suicide reported every 15 minutes in India, one is committed by a youth in the age group of 15 to 29. Psychologist Dr Kurien of Southern Medical Centre says that, “children are not brought up peacefully. They are under pressure to deliver at school; they are under pressure to appear for competitive examinations. Even when they reach puberty, no one in the family had given them any advice about meaning of life”.

Dr Samsah Soonawala, associate director of psychiatry research at Jaslok Hospital aver “children face all kinds of pressure at school as well as society. They have to keep up with
school curriculum as well as with the peer pressure of acquiring the latest gadgets or dating”. Further, “children don’t exhibit sadness like older people do. They are not going to tell their peers that they are depressed about something”, says Dr Vishal Head of psychiatry at Cooper hospital, Juhu. Dr Harish Shetty, a social psychiatrist says “the age of onset of violence has gone down, the age of onset of substance abuse has gone down, the age of onset of sexual offence has also gone down. Hence, it is not surprising that the age of onset of depression has also gone down”.

Experts blame the shifting environment for the change, “we are trying to live a century within a lifespan. While the physical orchestra of the body has changed, the mental software has not kept pace. So depression and suicidal thoughts are bound to occur”.

Children suffering from depression prefer staying at home and watch TV instead of relating with other. They tend to eat more and overtime these children become obese. Obese children are more likely to suffer from coronary heart disease, diabetes, and hypertension.

Evidence from growing body of research indicates that one in seven young men and one in ten young women were engaged in pre-marital sex (Abraham and Kumar, 1999; Alexander et al., 2006; Awasthi, Nichter and Pande, 2000; Brahma et al., 2005; Collumbien, Das and Bohidar, 2001; Jaya and Ahmed, 2008; IIPS and Macro International, 2007; Jejeebhoy and Sebastian, 2004; National Institute of Medical Statistics and National AIDS Control Organization, 2008; Pradhan and Ram, 2007; Ram, Bhat and Dwivedi, 2007; Santhya, Jejeebhoy and Ghosh, 2008; Sujay, 2009).

Students are having relationship problems with parents, teachers and friends. They are arguing and fighting with parents and getting in trouble in school or with the law. Furnham, Badmin and Sneade (2002) found that female adolescents linked body image dissatisfaction with self; those who were more dissatisfied with their bodies had lower self-esteem.

Dohrenwend and Dohrenwend (1981) suggested that spiritual support may be very beneficial to those experiencing high levels of stress because their psychological well-being is vulnerable. Maton (1989) found that spirituality was positively related to adjustment for high-stress students. Young et al., “a greater orientation to spirituality weakens the impact of negative life experiences on depression and on the onset of anxiety” (p. 54-55).

There are evidences that spirituality and religiosity are positively related to physical and psychological well-being (Payne, Bergin, Bielema, & Jenkins, 1991; Perdersone, 1998). Ingersoll (1998) produces 10 dimensions of spiritual wellness that can be summarized as “experience of divinity, meaning, connectedness with God and others, mystery or dealing with the unexplained, a sense of freedom, experience of spiritual rituals and practices, forgiveness, hope interests in increasing knowledge of self and other things, and being aware of the present moment”.

Through spirituality students become empowered and realize that even though they have issues, stressors, and challenges, but they are not defined by these circumstances. This realization provides a pathway to greater peace, freedom of self-expression, increased
manageability over the healing process and self-esteem. Each person’s spirituality is greatly impacted by the community they are a part of and the relationships they are in.

The old adage that goes like “you can’t teach old dog new tricks” applies to the teaching of spirituality and ethics. There is a belief that one gets his or her values and spiritual training or connection primarily from childhood experiences.

**What is Spirituality?**

The topic of spirituality in the workplace is gaining importance among academicians as well as business professionals currently. Spirituality is extensively incorporated either tacitly or explicitly in public, private, for profit and not-for-profit organizations across the world. An awareness of the important role of spirituality is growing within the education system also as students are seeking for personal identity to give meaning to their lives in the fast-paced world of the 21st century.

The word “spirituality” originated from a Latin word for breath, “spiritus,” with the concept of enthusiasm, from the Greek “enthousiasmos,” meaning “the God within”. Myers and Sweeney (2005) define spirituality as “an awareness of a being or force that transcends the material aspects of life and gives a deep sense of wholeness or connectedness to the universe” (p. 20).

According to Myers (1990) spirituality is “a continuous search for purpose and meaning in life; an appreciation for depth of life, the expanse of the universe, and natural forces which operate; a personal belief system” (p. 11). Dehler and Welsh (2003) define spirituality at work as “a search of meaning, deeper self-knowledge or transcendence to a higher level” (p. 114). Tepper (2003) asserts spirituality as “the extent to which an individual is motivated to find sacred meaning and purpose to his or her existence”. Thus spirituality enables an individual’s expression of an inner life by performing meaningful work in the context of a community. Spirituality is an inner consciousness, which is the state of ‘wakefulness as its essential nature, unmixed with images, thoughts, feelings or any other objects of perception (Heaton, Schmidt-Wilk, & Travis, 2004).

Howard (2002) asserted that, “writings in the spirituality at work area suggest that work should contribute to people’s spiritual lives; and their spiritual lives should contribute to their work”. Just as plucking out the eye from body would render the individual blind, rejecting spirituality per se will render humanity devoid of the precious eyes of divine wisdom resulting in disharmony and chaos. The spiralling rates of criminality and violence all over the globe give us a tiny glimpse of the anarchy that is in store if humanity continues to neglect spirituality.

**Religiosity**

The task of establishing appropriate level of spirituality among students is particularly difficult in a pluralistic society like ours in which there is no shared consensus about ultimate beliefs and values. Although spirituality is not necessarily religiously driven, the basic
concepts of the spiritual mind set: acceptance, understanding, consciousness and peace are embedded in the majority of world religions. Spirituality does not necessarily mean to follow a certain religious doctrine or a belief; rather it is a belief in a purpose higher than one self. One may be spiritual without attending services or belonging to a particular religion. Similarly, one may be religious, yet do not have connection with their spirituality

As is true of spirituality, religiosity is a difficult term to define (Fetzer Institute, 1999; Hackney & Sanders, 2003). Religion is characterized by “group activity that involves specific behavioural, social, doctrinal, and denominational characteristics”, spirituality point to our interiors, by which we mean our subjective life, as opposed to the objective domain of material objects that one can point to and measure. Spiritual domain has to do with human consciousness - what we experience privately in our subjective awareness.

In recent years there has been increasing interest in issues of meaning, purpose, authenticity, and spirituality in higher education. The spiritual component of human beings gives rise to questions about why we do what we do, pushes us to seek fundamentally better ways of doing it, and propels us to make a difference in the world (Zohar & Marshall, 2004).

Relevance of Spirituality for Faculty

There has been a growing interest in what had traditionally been the most neglected aspect i.e. spirituality (Adams and Csiernik, 2002; Ambrose, 1997; Conger et al., 1994; Hawley, 1993; Lee and Zemke, 1993; Neal, 1997). “Most of us spend so much time working, it would be a shame if we couldn’t find God there” (Gunther, 2001, p. 1). It teachers are more in touch with their own spirituality then they will be able to, directly or indirectly help their students grow spiritually and as a result these students will be better prepared to enter the corporate world.

Parker J. Palmer began the current movement of spirituality in academia. His The Courage to Teach and conferences that were by the same title were built on the same idea: “good teaching cannot be reduced to teaching; [but] comes from the identity and integrity of the teacher” (Palmer, 1998, p.10). According to Harris (1997) “spirituality influences play an important role in how many people see themselves and how they behave”. The actions of faculty both within and outside the classrooms impact the learning and development of future teachers, lawyers, physicians, and policymakers, not to mention their very own academic successors and the thousands of others whose work affects our daily lives. Researches show that informal interaction between students and faculty increases faculty influence on undergraduate student’s values, beliefs, and behaviours and positively affects student’s intellectual curiosity, interpersonal skills and maturational development. Faculty who are high on spiritual inclination feel that they have better integration of their personal and professional lives and better alignment between their academic work and personal values (Lindholm, 2006). Also spiritual inclined faculty view the importance of student’s personal development to be equal to that of intellectual and career development (Lindholm & Astin, 2006).
Kazanjian and Laurence maintain that through examining issues of purpose and meaning within the context of the campus environment; acknowledging the multiple aspects of self that operate simultaneously within individuals; and celebrating the diverse experiences that people bring to their encounters with one another, colleges and universities have tremendous potential to shape society positively. Carter (2003) states that, “spirituality can be seen basically as displaying and applying a heightening level of awareness towards others in a selfless way” (p. 1). According to Ashar and Lane-Maher (2004) “do not define success in materialistic- money, positional power, and status symbols- terms” but use terms “such as being connected, balance, and wholeness to define and describe success” (p. 249). Teachers need to be courageous and deeply engaged in teaching students, bringing their entire selves, including their spirituality, to their teaching.

Teachers should read a good deal of literature on spirituality, participate in seminars on spirituality, and take part in brainstorming sessions on spirituality. Students want to develop their spirituality, which suggests that they want to go on some kind of journey into hidden depths and self-knowledge.

The concept of education comes from the Latin educare, meaning ‘to lead out’, in the sense of drawing out what is within. If students are reporting that what is ‘within’ is a spiritual reality that needs to be ‘led out’ this poses problems for secular institution. If spirit is present in students, our institutions are not fulfilling the promise that is inherent in the word ‘education’ itself. There is more human reality to be ‘led out’ than the institutions are comfortable with. Education is not able to deliver what it promises, much less it is able to claim that it is satisfying the need of its clientele.

**Relevance of Spirituality in Education.**

Ones spirituality is really dependant on ones upbringing (Earley, & Kelly, 2004; Giacalone, 2004; Predmore, 2005; Samuelson, 2004). Michael Perino, a law professor at St. John’s University School of Law, that ethic courses have impact on student’s life. He avers that “students are at the formative stages of their careers, the lessons learned now will carry them through life” (Petrecca, 2002).

For many students transition during major life events can lead to physical and psychological distress (Schafer, 1996) and decreased self-esteem (Abel, 1996; Abousserie, 1994; Brown & Dutton, 1995). And this episodic stress and low self-esteem is significantly related to suicidal ideation in students (Wilburn & Smith, 2005).

Studies reveal that spirituality have been identified as helpful in coping with major life challenges (Holt, Clark, Kreuter, & Rubio, 2003; Mendelson, 2002). Mohamed, Wisnieski, Askar, and Syed (2004) present four interesting advantages in their review of persons who maintain the spiritual mindset. They claim that, “the stronger the spiritual factor of personality the more tolerant the person is of work failure and less susceptible to stress” (p. 102). Secondly, “the stronger the spiritual factor of personality the more the person favours the democratic style of leadership, more trusting, and the higher his/her tolerance of human diversity” (p. 102). Thirdly, “the stronger the spiritual factor of personality the more the
person exhibits altruistic and citizenship behaviour” (p. 102). And lastly, “the stronger the spiritual factor of personality the more the person’s commitment to the organization and work group increases” (p. 102).

James Gararino (1999) in his book on boys and violence, cites a review of the practical impact of spirituality on young people. He concludes that “spirituality exerts an anchoring effect on kids”. The effects he lists are reduced suicide, less depression, less casual sex, better response to trauma and less substance abuse. Donahue and Benson (1995) also report similar findings. The degree and quality of people’s engagement in the realm of “inwardness” is a critical determinant of overall developmental coherence and resilience.

Ashar and Lane-Maher’s (2004) study “linked the concept of success of spirituality and stated that to be successful one needs to embrace spirituality as well” (p. 249). Research studies reveal that people with higher levels of purpose and meaning tend to be healthier in general (Holt, Clark, Kreuter, & Rubio, 2003; Konig, 2002). Spiritual well-being also positively influences depression (Nelson, Rosenfeld, Breitbart, & Galietta, 2002) as well as helps in recovery from addiction (Doweiko, 2002), and cardiovascular diseases (Contrada, 2003).

When people realize and appreciate their spiritual depth, their capacity to become leaders is more profound, they become more productive, and they have a more positive impact on other- overall they create better working environments (Wolf, 2004). Spirituality is positively related to self-esteem (intellectual self-confidence, social self-confidence, self-rated courage) and feelings of equanimity (feeling good about the direction in which life is headed, feeling at peace and seeing each day as a gift).

According to Trott (1996) spirituality increases individuals self-efficacy, and a greater willingness to cooperate, grow, learn, and adapt to challenges. People who have mastered their emotions are able to roll with the changes, they don’t panic when a new program or any kind of change is announced. Rather they are able to suspend judgement, seek out information, and they easily move forward (Goleman, 1998).

**Inculcating spirituality among students**

Eminent thinkers throughout the world including leading scientists like Nobles Laureates Charles and Richard R Ernst, peace workers like Noble Laureates Oscar Arias and Betty Williams and spiritualists like Dalai Lama firmly believe that only a synthesis of science and spirituality can lead the world out of the present troubled times.

Spirituality can be enhanced by reading spiritual books, sharing spiritual belief with other friends, discussing meaning and purpose of life with other students, giving testimonies to other students; teachers also need to encourage such students who want to share their spiritual experience with other students; provided that sharing leads to edification of others. These programs may also include opportunities to share spiritual values, spiritual leadership training, and structured activities related to spiritual experiences like yoga and meditation classes, prayer groups, guest speakers, and community involvement.
Movie shows can be organized in the campus for students and faculty where such movies are shown which leaves deep impact on the lives of the viewers. Representatives from different spiritual organizations should be invited to share their live experiences with students and encourage the students to have a broader vision of their lives and educate them on how can they be a blessing to the society. Students can visit NGO’s, orphanage, old homes, and other organizations and can work voluntarily there to get inner peace and joy and get a feeling of contributing for the good of the society. Parents should also be encouraged to donate money, provide food or clothing for runaway street children, battered and abused women, children with disabilities and with visually challenged adults, children will learn by watching their parents also.

Students should be encouraged to choose their own spiritual mentor in the campus. Studies conclude that the mentors whom students choose for themselves were more valued than those allotted by a third party (DuBois et al, 2002; Grosman & Rhodes, 2002; Cannister, 1999, & Collins, 1999). Students can design and conduct an after-school mentoring program and working with local children with art, music, drama and circulating the value of education for all. The students of AMITY conducted a street play (Nukkad Natak) in Amity University and various prominent places of Delhi to create awareness about various psychosocial issues like rape, alcoholism, dowry and other social issues. Also students of AMITY were part of film “Peace and Spirituality” which was selected in the competitive category of Global Film festival in youth category. Senior students can also be encouraged to mentor younger students in their school/institute.

Morning assembly should be conducted daily and it should not become a ritual rather this time should be utilized appropriately. Chaplains should be invited to preach on spirituality and encouraging students to maintain a good life. Debates and quizzes can be organized on the life of great men and women of the world like mother Teresa, Mahatma Gandhi, Nelson Mandela, Abraham Lincoln, etc. Students should be encouraged to read bibliographies of great men and women.

Conclusion:

Researches reveal that students with high level of spirituality report better emotional and mental health as compared to those with little or no spiritual involvement. Students high on spirituality are less likely to feel depressed or experience psychological distress or poor emotional health; they also are more likely to have high levels of self-esteem.

Spirituality provides strength in times of distress, support and guidance, and gives meaning and purpose in life. Educators need to be aware of and sensitive to the spiritual needs of the students. Without spirituality one only gets partial experience, constantly longing for something more, but not really knowing what actually they are seeking for. Today’s students seem bored, disengaged or underwhelmed; they know deep down that there is something more, something that they are missing, because their spirituality is not being fed.

Assisting student’s spiritual growth will help to create a new generation who are more caring, more globally aware, and more committed to social justice than previous generations, while
also enabling students to respond to the many stresses and tension of our rapidly changing technological society. Providing students with more opportunities to connect with their “inner selves” facilitates growth in academic and leadership skills, contributes to their intellectual self-confidence and psychological well-being, and enhances their satisfaction with the school/college.

But experts insist that counselling in schools needs to move beyond merely "fixing a problem child" and become an integral part of the system. This calls for joint efforts on the part of parents, schools and the authorities.

“By refusing to develop ourselves spiritually we are restricting our human potential and our capacity to transform the world. If we could focus more on spiritual realities, greed would no longer control us. Without greed, I think we could achieve greater happiness and peace of mind. Spiritual awakening could have a powerful effect on stopping the downfall of society”- Scott, 2001.

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