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1.1 INTRODUCTION

Form time immemorial teaching has been considered a noble profession. According to Madam Montessori. "The teacher is an active observer and supervisor of children who directs and guides wherever and whenever necessary" But teacher should be effective because it is generally believed effective teacher are the effective instrument for developing effective human resources in terms of student growth in desirable direction cartographer by the guardians of the society and planned by the movement policy-makers. Though the term ‘effectiveness’ is used frequently in numerous defined formal context such as Organization Administration industry, School University etc. or in informal setting like family. The contemporary literature has avoided to define it because of its inherent ambiguity and complexity. The confusion still persists with regard to the word teaching effectiveness or teacher effectiveness and hence commonly agreed upon criteria of effectiveness are difficult to find. The defining teacher effectiveness two trends are discernable. The first is concerned with student growth-acquisition of ultimate and proximate goals exhibited through their knowledge communication skills and attitudes Second is related to the handling the process variables involved in teaching. Such as, presenting, asking responding, providing feedback, etc Thus teacher effectiveness involves multiple criterion, though the central idea is the integration of personal needs, roles, functions goals and also organizational goals,

Sahoo. F. M. and Patnaik, B. (2001) "The dimension of communication has significant and positive relation with estimation of teachers' effectiveness" Sodhi (2000) reported that the whole system of education depends upon the quality the competence and the devotion of the teacher. Teacher’s verbal behaviour is considered of two types, indirect and direct. Indirect verbal behaviour is considered to be teacher effectiveness. The effectiveness of the process of education has been squarely acknowledges to depend upon the effectiveness of its teachers. Teachers’ effectiveness specifies their capability to
work for the achievement of the aims and objectives of education and to further strengthen their teaching profession in this endeavour (Anand, 1983).

Teachers are required to be acceptable to their students. An effective teacher is amongst the foremost factors contributing to education improvement. Krishnan (1994) reported that an effective teacher could create the environment that motivates the students. Flanders and Simon (1969) expressed that teacher-effectiveness concerned with the characteristic of teachers. Teaching-aids, their effects on the education, outcomes of class room teaching. Deva (1966) found through his research study that predictors of performance in teaching skill are as to the ascendance of extroversion, and early academic achievement. Devnath (1971) reported that age, experience, academic achievement, sincerity in teaching, mastery of the method of teaching, sympathetic attitude towards students, their participation, teaching aid use, and appliances in teaching and professional training are some significant determinants of teaching efficiency. And its correlate at higher secondary stage in eastern U.P. The major findings revealed that effectiveness but rural teachers had shown better effectiveness than to those urban teachers. Shah (1991) attempted to study certain determinants that make teachers effective. It was found that teacher-effectiveness was significantly affected by teaching-aptitude, job satisfaction, job-attitude, job-motivation personality, value-pattern, self-concept, intelligence and organizational climate. Further, educational qualification, grade and teaching experience also determined teaching effectiveness to some extent.

Mohanty (2001) compared male and female teachers' adjustment in a study on 'causes of dissatisfaction among teachers.' For this reason questionnaires were administered over a sample of 50 male and 50 female teachers. Careful analysis of data revealed the fact that almost all teachers suffer from adjustment problems. However male teachers and more educated teachers were found to have more adjustment problems than their counterparts. Teaching competency was also influenced by adjustment of teachers.

Kulasrestha and Dave (2003) with the aim to study the status of personal, professional and social adjustment and to compare the adjustment of rural and urban primary school teachers of Agra district selected 187 teachers as their sample of study. Using MTAI (1979) data were collected and a careful analysis of result showed a difference in the mean values of adjustment scores of teachers.
working in primary schools. But the rural and urban teachers did not differ significantly in their adjustment.

All the above studies have highlighted the adjustment variations between teachers as far as some demographic variables are concerned. Therefore, the investigator has attempted to examine the effect of sex, qualification, marital status and teaching experience on adjustment of the present sample.

1.2 ADJUSTMENT

The dictionary meaning of the word ‘adjustment’ is of fit, make suitable, adapt, arrange, modify, harmonize or make correspondent. Thus, when we make an adjustment between two things, we adapt or modify one or both of them to correspond to each other. In some situation, one of the factors may not be changeable and so the one which is, has to be modified in some way to suit the other. The extension of a ladder by a suitable length to reach an upper story window is a good example of such an adjustment. Wearing of clothes according to the requirement of the season is another such example as ordinarily, it is beyond our capacity to change the seasons according to our clothes. Modern technology has, of source, made it possible to adjust the temperature inside dwelling houses and workplaces to harmonize with our needs.

You as teachers are more concerned with this subject matter because the primary purpose of education is to train children to solve life’s personal, social and economic problems. If you examine the various activities of an individual’s life, you will find that most of them involve adjustment of the individual to begin his vocational, social and economic problem. The process of adjustment starts right from the birth of the child and continues till his death.

The concept of adjustment is as old as human race on earth. Systematic emergence of this concept starts from Darwin. In those days the concept was purely biological and used the term adaptation. The adaptability to environmental hazards goes on increasing as we proceed on the phylogenetic scale from the lower extreme to the higher extreme of life. Insects and germs, in comparison to human beings, cannot withstand the hazards of changing condition in the environment and as the season changes, they die. Hand dreads of species of insects and games perish as soon as the winter begins.
Man, among the living begins, has the highest capacities to adapt to new situation. Man as a social animal not only adapts to physical demands but he also adjusts to social pressure in society.

Biologists used the term adaption strictly for physical demands of environment but psychologists use the term adjustment for varying condition of social or inter-personal relations in the society. Thus, We Gee that adjustment means reaction to the demands and pressure of social environment imposed upon individual. The demand may be external or internal to whom the individual has to react. Observe the life of child, he is asked to do this and not to do other things. He has to follow certain beliefs and set of values which the family follows. His personality develops in the continuous process of interaction with his family environment. There are other demand which may be termed as internal as hunger, water oxygen and sleep etc. If we do not fulfill these internal demands, we feel uncomfortable. With the development of the child these physiological demand go on increasing and become more complex.

These two types of demands sometimes come into conflict with each other and resultantantly make the adjustment a complicated process for the individual. Conflicts among the various needs or demand of a person present special problem need which is not gratified will produce frustration and leads sometimes to abnormal behavior.

Psychologists have interpreted adjustment from two important points of views. One, adjustment and the second lays emphasis on the process by which an individual adjust in his external environment. Now, Let us examine both of these approaches in detail.

Adjustment is a continuous process of action in the life of a human being or an organism with a definite purpose of meeting the needs of the self the needs of the environment and the needs of the culture or society the ultimate and of the process of action of the adjustment is successful survival. The end result may be survival or extermination a continuous close watch on the life of an organism or a human being may bring out many happy and unhappy events which are based upon the struggle for successful survival. Man is an interdependent creature, always expecting the help and the cooperation from other human beings and the culture or society in which he lives, for the fulfillment of his basic needs and also maker’s inevitable demands from them.
Therefore the study of adjustment has to do with how we make such accommodation and how successfully we meet the demands that are made on us. These needs can be bio-agonic originating in society, personal or communal or arising from any other conceivable source.

There has been a continuous struggle between the needs of the individual and the external forces since time immemorial. According to Darwin’s (1859) theory of evolution, those species which adapted successfully to the demands of living, survived and multiplied while other who did not, died out. Therefore, the adaptation or changing of oneself or one’s surrounding according to the demands of the external environment became the basic need for our survival. It is as true today with all of us it was with the Darwin’s primitive species. Those of us who can adapt of adjust to the needs of changing condition can live happily and successfully, while other vanish, lead miserable lives or prove a nuisance to society. However, the concept of adjustment is not so simple as adaptation. Psychologists and scholars differ considerably in interpreting its meaning and nature as can be seen from the following definitions:

1.2.1 Definition of Adjustment

Laurence Shaffer “Adjustment is the process by which a living organism maintains balance between his needs and the circumstances that influence the satisfaction of his needs”

1.2.2 Adjustment as achievement

Adjustment as an achievement means how efficiently an individual can perform his duties in different circumstance. Business, military, education and other social activities need efficient and well-adjusted men for the progress of the notion.

If we interpret adjustment as achievement, then we will have to set the criteria to judge the quality of adjustment.

Let us try to analyses these definitions for understanding the meaning and nature of the term adjustment.

In the first definition, James Driver takes adjustment to be the way and means to help the individual to meet the demands to change conditions by adapting or modifying his previous way of doing or facing things. The other three
definitions also agree with this opinion that one is required to change one’s mode of behavior to suite the change situations so that a satisfactory and harmonious relationship can be maintained keeping in view the individual and his needs on the one hand, and the environment and its influence on the individual, on the other; In doing so, as Good’s definition states, the individual can either change himself according to the needs of the environment or change his environment to suit his own needs.

Shaffer’s definition underlines one’s need and their satisfaction. Human needs are vital, indispensable and urgently requisite. One feels adjusted to the extent that one’s need is gratified or is in the process of being gratified. The individual tries to bring about changes in his circumstances in order to overcome the difficulties in the fulfillment of his needs. Sometimes, he reduces his needs and as a result he may feel satisfied within the limits of his environment. He thus tries to maintain a balance between his needs and his capacity of realizing these needs and as long as this balance is maintained, he remains adjusted. A soon as this balance is disturbed, he drifts towards maladjustment.

Gates and Jersild as also Crow and Crow define adjustment as the maintenance of the harmonious relationship between man and his environment. An individual needs to change or modify himself in some way or the other to fit into or accommodate himself with his environment. As the condition in the environment is changing all the time, adjustment is also a continuous process. For instance, if a girl from the city marries into a rural family and has to live in a village, she would have to change her behavior, her habits and her attitude in order to accommodate herself to the changed environment.

Vonhaller’s definition takes the clue from Darwin’s theory of evolution. Darwin maintained that only that organism most fitted to adapt to changing circumstances survive. Therefore, the individuals who are able to adjust themselves to changed situation in their environment can live a harmonious and happy life. Adjustment as a psychological term may thus be said to be another name for the term ‘adaptation’ used in the biological world. Adjustment, in all its meaning implies a satisfactory adaptation to the demands of day-to-day life. From the foregoing discussion it may be concluded that adjustment is a process that helps a person to lead a happy and contented life while maintaining a balance between his needs and his capacity to fulfill them. It enables him to change his
way of life according to the demands of the situation and gives him the strength and ability to bring about the necessary changes in the conditions of his environment.

In addition to his own basic needs, an individual is also subject to certain demands of society. If he thinks only in terms of satisfying his own needs without thought of the norms, ethics and cultural traditions of society, he will not be adjusted to his environment. Adjustment does not cater only to one’s own demands but also to the demands of society. It may, therefore, be stated that in its comprehensive connotation, adjustment is a condition or state in which the individual’s behavior conforms to the demands of the culture or society to which he belongs and he feel that his own needs have been, or will be fulfilled.

Adjustment involves the gratification of a person’s needs as governed by the demands of various environmental situations. This is not, however, a one-way process an individual maintains the balance between himself and his surroundings either by modifying his own behavior or by modifying the environment. In this context, as Arkoff (1968) states:

Adjustment is the interaction between a person and his environment. How one adjusts in a particular situation depends upon one’s personal characteristics as also the circumstances of the situation. In other words, both personal and environmental factors work side by side in adjustment. An individual is adjusted if he is adjusted to himself and to his environment.

1.2.3 Criteria for Good Adjustment

Here you must be very clear in the mind as regards the criteria of adequacy of adjustment. No universal criteria can be set for all times to come because criteria involve value judgment which differ from culture to culture and from generation to generation within the same culture. Four criteria have been evolved by psychologists to judge the adequacy of adjustment. They are as follows:

1) **Physical health:** - The individual should be free from physical ailments like headache, ulcers, indigestion and impairment of appetite. These symptoms in individual have sometimes psychological origin and may impair his physical efficiency.
2) **Psychological comfort:** - One of the most important facts of adjustment is that individual have no psychological diseases as obsession, compulsion, anxiety and depression etc. These psychological diseases if occur excessively cause to seek professional advice.

3) **Work efficiency:** - The person, who makes full use of his occupational or social capacities, may be termed as well adjusted in his social set up.

4) **Social acceptance:** - Societies differ in deciding the universally acceptable criteria of good behavior, for example, in our country smoking and drinking are supposed to be antisocial Everybody wants to be socially accepted by other person. If a person obeys social forms, beliefs and set of values, we many calls him well adjustment but if he satisfies his need by antisocial means then he is called maladjustment. But you see that but there are societies where these activities are quite normal for social adjustment.

### 1.2.4 Adjustment as Process

Adjustment as a major importance for psychologists, teachers and parents; to analyses the process we should study the development of an individual longitudinally from his birth onwards. The child, at the time of his birth, is absolutely dependent on other for the satisfaction of this need, but gradually with the age he learns to control his needs. His adjustment largely depends on his interaction with the external environment in which he lives. When the child is here, the world, for him, is a big buzzing, blooming confusion. He cannot differentiate among the various objects of his environment but as he matures he comes to learn to articulate the details of his environment through the process of sensation, perception and conception. The child in his infancy can respond and think about only concrete objects of his environment. The process of abstraction comes afterwards. The young children lack the capacity of self control of the instinctive impulses. Anything which appears to their senses bright they try to take hold of it. Their development is purely on instinctive level. The nature of adjective process is decided by a number of factors, particularly, internal needs and external demands of the child.

When a conflict occurs between internal needs and external demands, in such condition, there are three alternative, one, the individual may inhibit or modify his internal needs or demand and second, he can alter the environment,
and can satisfy his demand and third alternative, is that he can use some mental mechanism to escape from the conflicting situation and may be able to maintain the balance of his personality.

Piaget (1952) has studied the adjective process from different angles. He used the term accommodation and assimilation to represents the alternation of oneself or environment as a means of adjustment. A person who carries his value and standard of conduct without any change and maintains these in spite of major changes in the social climate is called assimilator. The man, who takes his standard from social context and changes his beliefs in accordance with the altered values of the society, is called accommodator.

Now the question arises which of above referred processes of adjustment is more effective? It is very difficult to answer this question in clear cut terms because relative merits of either of the adjective process requires, making value judgment. The human begin in order to adjust successfully in his society, has to resort to both the device.

Very significant findings have been made regarding adjustment process by Freud, Adler and Jung. We will discuss the contribution of Freud and other psycho-analysis in the later part of this chapter.

1.2.5 Symptoms of Maladjustment

There is difference of degrees between maladjustment and adjustment. It is a difficult to differentiate adjusted and maladjusted children only on the basis of observation in the classroom or in the school. There are certain symptoms which give some indication of maladjustment if excessively used by children. These symptoms can be divided into the following three categories.

1. **Physical symptoms:** - Stuttering stammering, scratching head, facial twitching, biting nails, rocking feet, restlessness, and barrier with fingers and vomiting.

2. **Behavior deviations:** - Aggression, lying, bullying, poor school achievement hyperactivity, negativism and sex disturbances.

3. **Emotional symptoms:** - Excessive worries, fear, inferiority, hatred, extreme timidity, temper tantrum, persistent anxiety, conflicts, and tension.
1.2.6 Causes of Maladjustment

Maladjustment is a complex problem of human behavior; no single factor can be pin-pointedly named as its causes. It is the outcome of multifactor's interacting with the developing personality of the child. There are numerous factors in home, society and school which lead to maladjustment. We will discuss in this chapter the various condition which lead to frustration of needs which is the basic cause of maladjustment and will discuss the approaches of Freud, Adler, Jung and other psycho-analysts to understand maladjustment.

1. **Physique:** - The physique and appearance play an important role in the social development of the child. If the child is physically weak, ugly, and has some sensory handicaps he may be shunned by other; Even the parents, make comparisons in their children. Comments by parent’s siblings and strangers affect the behavior of ugly, weak, handicapped children. Develop a number of problems resulting in maladjustment.

2. **Long sickness and injury:** - Long sickness of a child affects his social development and academic achievement in school.

3. **Poverty:** - There is positive correlation between poverty and maladjustment in children. Highest percentage of maladjusted children comes from low socio-economic condition. But it is not necessarily true that all children who come from under privileged class are maladjusted. The crucial factor in poor home is that parents cannot even fulfill the legitimate needs of their children. Frustration of needs leads to maladjusted behavior.

4. **Broken home:** - All research studies have established beyond doubt that children who come from homes that have been broken by death of parents, divorce, separation, physical or mental handicaps, of parents are often more maladjusted than children from more stable homes. Children in broken homes do not get the affection, love, sympathy and security. They are emotionally disturbed. Homes which are not broken but in which there is constant conflict between parents or other members of the family also provide conditions which affect the security, affection, mental stability and fulfillment of needs of children.

5. **Personal inadequacies:** - In addition to physical appearance, there are certain other inadequacies in children which frustrate their needs and
create constant anxiety. The parents, who are ambitious and set high goals for their children irrespective of their physical and mental abilities, create frustration in their children.

6. **Parental attitudes:** - The important factor which affects the adjustment is the attitude of parents towards their children. The parents may reject the child. The rejected child develops feelings of insecurity, helplessness and loneliness. Rejection and lack of affection may lead to maladjusted behavior. Over-protection of the child may lead to lack responsibility, lack socialization, aggressiveness, selfishness and general infantile behavior which may put the child into trouble in social environment.

7. **Value placed on sex of the child:** - It is very unfortunate that in India parents differentiate between their son and daughter. Sons are preferred to daughters in our society. This partial treatment to girls may lead to maladjustment.

8. **Adoption:** - Generally, adopted children are maladjusted when they come to know the fact. If a child is adopted in early infancy and problem of adoption is psychologically dealt with, then adopted children resemble to their foster parents in many qualities. In addition to the above factors, there are many other factors which contribute to the problem of maladjustment such as relationship among brothers-sisters, position of the child in the family.

9. **Emotional shock:** - Children, who experience emotional shocks such as death, accident, riots, flood etc, may manifest maladjustment in their behavior.

### 1.2.7 Adjustment Mechanisms

In the, we have described various factors which cause frustration of motives. The frustrated person may react against the source of frustration in different ways. He many physically attack the source in order to reduce his mental tension and hostility or he may destruct the object of frustration. He may use withdrawal, fantasy or stereotype to maintain the balance of his personality.

There are some common ways which the individuals use to defend or escape from conflicts and frustration which are known as defense or adjustment mechanism. An adjustment mechanism may be defined as any habitual method
of overcoming blocks, reaching goals, satisfying motives, relieving frustration and maintaining equilibrium. Every individual uses his own mechanism to maintain the balance of his personality in the society, but psychologists have listed certain adjustment mechanisms which are used by majority of the people in the constant struggle for survival in their environment. In the following pages we will describe the mechanisms which are used by normal, psychoneurotic and psychotic people.

1.2.8 Characteristic of Adjustment Mechanism

1. Adjustment mechanism is almost used by all people. They are constructs which are inferred from the behavior of the individuals. They have protective orientation. All mechanism is used to project or enhance the person’s self-esteem agent’s dangers. They defend the person against anxiety and frustration. They increase satisfaction and help in the process of adjustment if use within limit.

2. The danger is always within the person. He fears his own motives. The fear and danger are manifested in adjustment mechanisms.

3. Invariably all adjustment mechanisms, the individual distorts reality in one way or the other, because the matched of protecting against danger sinner impulses or escaping from anxiety involves some kind of distortion of the conscious representation of the person’s impulses.

4. The overall effect of adjustment mechanism is to cripple the individual’s functioning and development through falsifying some aspects of his impulses to that he is deprived of accurate self-knowledge as a basis for action. There is self-deception underlying all adjustment mechanism. We deny and disguise the real cause of our behavior in order to maintain the balance of our personality.

1.2.9 Adjustment as Achievement or Process

Adjustment can be interpreted as both, process and the outcome of that process in the form of some attainment or achievement. When a poor child studies under the street light because he has no lighting arrangement at home he is said to be in a process of adjustment. What he attains in term of success in his examination or the fulfillment of his ambition or pride in his achievement is
nothing but the result of his adjustment to his self and his environment. Thus, adjustment as an achievement means how the effectiveness with which an individual can function in changed circumstances and is, as such, related to his adequacy and regarded as an achievement that is accomplished either badly or well (Lazarus, 1976).

Adjustment as process describes and explains the way and means of an individual’s adaptation you his self and his environment without reference once to the quality of such adjustment or its outcome in term of success of failure. It only show how individuals or group or groups of people cope under changing circumstances and what factors influence this adjustment. Let us now consider some salient futures of adjustment as an interaction between a person and his environment.

**Continuous process:**

The process of adjustment is continuous. It starts at one’s birth and goes on without stop till one’s death. A person as well as his environment is constantly changing as also are his needs in accordance with the demands of the changing environment. Consequently, the process or terms of an individual’s adjustment can be expected to change from situation to situation and according to Ark off (1968), there is nothing like satisfactory factory or complete adjustment which can be achieved once and for all time. It is something that is constantly achieved once and for all time. It is something that is constantly achieved and re achieved by us.

**Two-way process:**

Adjustment is a two-way process and involves not only the process of fitting oneself into available circumstances but also the process of changing the circumstances to fit one’s needs. Emphasizing this two-way nature of the adjustment process, Robert W. White (1956) writes:

The concept of adjustment implies a constant interaction between the person and his environment, each making demands on the other. Sometimes adjustment is accomplished when the person yields and accepts conditions which are beyond his power to change. Sometimes it is achieved when the environment yields to the person’s constructive activities. In most cases adjustment is
compromise between these two extremes and maladjustment is a failure to achieve a satisfactory compromise.

1.2.10 Areas of Adjustment

Adjustment in the case of an individual should consist of personal as well as environment component. These two aspects of adjustment can be further subdivided into smaller aspects of personal and environment factors. Adjustment, although seeming to be universal characteristic or quality may have different aspects and dimensions.

Though the numerous efforts at measuring adjustment though inventories and other techniques, these aspects have been identified and various tests have been constructed to assess their dimensions. For example, Bell (1958) has taken five areas or dimensions in his adjustment inventory namely, home, health, social, emotional and occupational.

Arkoff (1968) in his book: Adjustment and Mental Health has enumerated the family, school or college, vocation and marriage as the important areas of adjustment.

Recently, Joshi (1968) and Pandey in their research study covering school and college student, have been 11 areas or dimensions of an individual’s adjustment:

1. Health and physical development.
2. Finance, living conditions and employment
3. Social and recreational activities.
4. Courtship, sex and marriage.
5. Social psychological relations.
6. Personal psychological relations.
7. Moral and religious.
8. Home and family.
10. Adjustment to school and college work.
11. Curriculum and teaching.

In this way, adjustment of a person is based on the harmony between his personal characteristics and the demands of the environment of which he is a
part. Personal and environment factors work side by side in bringing about this harmony.

1.2.11 Measurement of Adjustment
Measurement as an instrument of inquiry is now frequently used in behavioral sciences. At a general level of classification in behavioral science, the following five different type of measuring, techniques are used:

1. Testing techniques;
2. Projective techniques;
3. Inventory techniques;
4. Sociometric techniques; and
5. Scaling techniques;

In the area of measurement adjustment, inventory techniques are the most popular because they have many advantages compared to other techniques. Testing techniques can only be used to assess the characteristics of individuals at the conscious and projective techniques only at the unconscious level. The adjustment behavior, the adaptation to changed circumstances involves both conscious as well as unconscious behavior. Therefore, the two techniques separately are unable to give a proper assessment of an individual’s adjustment.

Sociometric techniques are used in the measurement of social relationships. They can provide clues to the level of social adjustment. Social adjustment is only one part of an individual’s total adjustment. The other aspects of his adjustment like physical, mental, emotional, social and occupational are not explored by the Sociometric techniques and they cannot, therefore, be used for the accurate assessment of an individual’s total adjustment.

In scaling techniques opinions are collected from some other person or person about the adjustment pattern of a particular individual known to the respondents. Adjustment as a wide phenomenon carries so many things with it that one cannot judge the adjustment pattern of another individual from his overt behavior and the inner private world or reactions of an individual cannot be assessed by the use of scaling techniques.
Some important inventories and measures of adjustment:

1. Bell’s adjustment inventory developed by Hugh M. Bell.
2. Edward’s personal preference Schedule (EPPS) published by Psychological Corporation, New York.
3. The Heston personal adjustment inventory developed by Joseph C. Heston.
5. Asthana’s adjustment inventory developed by H.S. Asthana.
6. Vyaktitva parakha prashnavali developed by M.S.L. Saxena.
7. Sinha’s adjustment inventory developed by M.C. Joshi and Jagdish Pandey.
8. Adjustment inventory for older people devised by P., V. Ramamurti.

1.2.12 Characteristics of a Well-Adjusted Person

A well-adjusted person is supposed to process the following characteristics:

1. **Awareness of his own strengths and limitations:** - A well-adjusted person knows his own strengths and weaknesses. He tries to make capital out of his assets in some areas by accepting his limitations in others.

2. **Respecting him and others:** - This is like for one-self is a typical symptom of maladjustment. An adjusted individual has respect for himself as well as for others.

3. **An adequate level of aspiration:** - His level of aspiration is neither too low nor too high in terms of his own strengths and abilities. He does not try to reach for the stars and also does not repent over selecting an easier course for his advancement.

4. **Satisfaction of basic needs:** - His basic organic, emotional, and social needs are fully satisfied or in the process of being satisfied. He does not suffer from emotional cravings and social isolation. He feels reasonably secure and maintains his self-esteem.

5. **Absence of a critical or fault-finding:** - Attitude. He appreciates the goodness in objects, person or activities. He does not try to look for weaknesses and faults. His observation is scientific rather than critical or
punitive. He likes people, admires their good qualities, and wins their affection.

6. **Flexibility in behavior:** - He is not rigid in his attitude or way of life. He can easily accommodate or adapt himself to change circumstances by making necessary changes in his behavior.

7. **The capacity to deal with adverse circumstances:** - He is not easily overwhelmed by adverse circumstances and has the will and the courage to resist and fight odds. He has an inherent drive to master his environment rather than to passively accept it.

8. **A realistic perception of the world:** - He holds a realistic vision and is not given to flights of fancy. He always plans, thinks and acts pragmatically.

9. **A feeling of ease with his surroundings:** - A well-adjusted individual feels satisfied with his surroundings. He fits in well in his home, neighborhood and other social surroundings. If a student, he likes his school, school-mates, teachers, and feels satisfied with his daily routine. When he enters a profession, he has a love for it and maintains his zeal and enthusiasm despite all odds.

10. **A balanced philosophy of life:** - A well-adjusted person has a philosophy which gives direction to his life while keeping in view the demands of changed situations and circumstances. This philosophy is centered on the demands of his society, culture, and his oneself so that he does not clash with his environment or with himself.

1.2.13 Models of Adjustment

Why do some people adjust it their environment and other do not? What are the factors that make individual adjusted or maladjusted? There are several theories and models describing the pattern to adjustment for answering such question. Let us discuss some of the important models.

1. **The moral model:** - This represents the oldest view-point about adjustment or maladjustment. According to this view, adjustment or maladjustment should be judged in terms of morality i.e. absolute norms of expected behavior. Those who follow the norms are adjusted(virtuous or good people)and those who violate or do not follow these norms are
maladjusted (sinners). Evil supernatural forces like demons, devils, etc. were blamed for making one indulge in behavior against the norms (committing sins) while the religious gods, goddess and other saintly great souls were responsible for making one a happy, healthy, prosperous and pious person (adjusted in the modern sense). However, as the medical and biological sciences advanced and scientific reasoning gained a firm footing in the nineteenth century, the moral model was replaced by the medico-biological model.

2. **The medico-biological model:** - This model holds genetic, physiological and biochemical factors responsible for begin adjusted or maladjusted to his self and his environment. Maladjustment, according to his model, is the result of disease in the tissues of the body, especially the brain. Such disease can be the result of heredity or damage acquired during the course of person’s life-by injury, infection, or hormonal disruption arising from stress, among other things. In the opinion of Lazarus (1976), the correction of adjective failures or disorders requires correction of the tissue defect through physical therapies such as drugs, surgery and the like. This model is still extant and enjoys credibility for rooting out the causes of adjective failure in terms of genetic influences, biochemical defect hypotheses, and disease in the tissues of the body. However, it is not correct to assign physiological or organic causes to all maladapted and malfunctioning behavior, especially when there is no evidence of physiologically malfunction. Such a situation certainly calls for other explanations, viewpoints or models.

3. **The psychoanalytic mode:** - These model owners its origin to the theory of psychoanalysis propagated by Sigmund Freud (1938) and supported by psychologists like Adler, Jung and other neo-Freudians. The human psyche or mind consists of three conscious, the sub-conscious and unconscious. The unconscious holds the key to our behavior. It decides the individual's adjustment and maladjustment to his self and to his environment. It contains all the repressed wishes, desires, feelings, drives and motives many of which are related to sex and aggression. One is adjusted or maladjustment to the degree, extent or the ways in which these are kept dormant or under control.
According to Freud, man is a pleasures seeking animal by nature. He wants to seek pleasure and avoids pain or anything which is not in keeping with his pleasure loving nature. The social restrictions imposed by the mores of society and his own moral standards dictated by his superego come in conflict with the nature. These pleasures are mostly sexual in nature. An individual drifts towards malfunctioning of behavior and maladjustment in case such satisfaction is threatened or denied. Freud postulated the imaginary concepts of ‘id’, ‘ego’ and ‘superego’ for the adjective and non-adjective behavior patterns and formulated the following conclusion:

A person’s behavior remains normal and in harmony with his self and his environment to the extent that his ego is able to maintain the balance between the evil designs of his id and the moral ethical standard dictated by his superego. In case the ego is not strong enough to exercise proper control over one’s id and superego, malfunction of behavior would result. Two different situations could then arise.

If the superego dominates then there is no acceptable outlet for expression of the repressed wishes, impulses and appetites of the id. Such a situation may give birth to neurotic tendencies in the individual.

- If the id dominates, then the individual pursues his unbridled pleasure seeking impulses, without care for the social and moral norms. In such a situation the individual may be seen to the engaged in unlawful or immoral activities resulting in maladaptive, problem or delinquent behavior.
- Freud also uses the concept of libido, i.e., a flow of energy related to sex gratification. He equates it with flowing river and maintains that:
  - If its flow is outward causing sex gratification and pleasurable sensation from outside objects, the individual remains quite normal and adjusted to his self and the environment.
  - Its inward flow leads to self-indulgence and narcissism.
  - If its path is blocked, this results in its arrest leading to regressive behavior, a kind of abnormality.
  - If the flow of the libido is dammed up, condemned or repressed through the authority exercised by the ego in association with the superego, it may cause severe maladjustment. When the ego is weak and the superego is
rigid, this may lead to psychotic personality disorders. However, when the ego is weak and the superego also is not too rigid it may result in relatively simple disorders like neurosis or still simpler maladaptive behavior characterized by restlessness, sleeplessness, headache, stomachache, backache, vomiting, lack of appetite etc.

- According to Freud, adjustment or maladjustment should not be viewed only in terms of what the individual may be undergoing at present and what happened to him in his earlier childhood is even more important. What he may have experienced as a child, what types of gratification to his sex urge he has achieved, what has been repressed in his unconscious, how he has passed through the distinct stages of sexual development etc. are, thus, quite important for making him adjusted or maladjusted to his self and the environment.

**Adler’s views.** Adler disagreed with his teacher, and substituted the sex motive with the power motive or desire to attain superiority and perfection to explain human behavior. He maintained that:

- There is an inherent strong urge in all human begins to seek power and attain superiority. Besides this as a child, one is helpless and dependent which makes one feel inferior and in order to make up for the feelings of inferiority, one takes recourse to compensatory behavior, i.e., indulges in a struggle for power. Environmental situations, constitutional deficiency and many other factors may also make one feel inferior and to get away from these feelings one learns to struggle for achieving power. An individual’s efforts for seeking power or attaining perfection may be the result of his need for creative expression, the urge to do something new, to enhance his status in the eyes of his colleagues and others.

- Stimulated thus by the urge to seek power or attain superiority and perfection, one adopts a distinctive lifestyle suited to one’s environmental situations. One continues to strive for superiority by emulating and exploiting the ways and means provided by one’s lifestyle. Adjustment or the lack of it would depend on whether one’s efforts end in success or failure to achieve one’s goal. Thus, the following three situations may arise:
• Success in seeking gratification of one’s power motive or attaining superiority may lead to good adjustment to one’s self and the environment.
• In the case of partial failure, if one is successful in bringing about a slight modification in one’s life’s goals or style of life one may be able to reconcile with one’s self and the environment and may feel adjusted and remain normal.
• In case of failure to obtain gratification of the power motive and to changing one’s goal or style of life, one may drift towards non-adjective or maladjusted behavior leading to mild or severe mental illness.

**Jung’s views.** Jung’s system of analytical psychology advocated the idea of the self-actualization motive instead of Freud’s sex gratification motive and Adler’s power seeking motive for explaining the way and how of human behavior. According to him, one has a strong inner urge or motive to exhibit one’s talents or abilities or seek self-actualization. The degree of adjustment of one’s personality depends on the extent to which one is successful in actualizing oneself. Libido, the life energy as Jung maintains may flow both ways—inward and outward, turning an individual into an introvert or extrovert personality. In the introvert, thinking is predominant while sensations and feelings are suppressed. In the extroverts, on the other hand, the feelings or sensations are more predominant and the thinking suppressed. Generally speaking, however, an individual is neither purely introvert nor a purely extrovert. He is ambient, i.e. while showing the symptoms of an introvert; he possesses some characteristics of the extrovert and vice versa. As long as a person can maintain a proper balance between his thinking and feeling he remains adjusted to his self and the environment. But Lopsided behavior, i.e. laying too much emphasis on thinking at the cost of feelings or giving too much consideration to feelings at the cost of thinking may disturb the balance of one’s psyche. It may lead to maladaptive behavior causing mild or severe mental illness.
• Another criterion for normal or properly behavior, according to Jung’s theory, is the reconciliations between one’s conscious and unconscious behavior. Failure on one part to maintain or achieve such reconciliation may lead to maladaptive behavior and mental illness. When one’s conscious is not in tune with the unconscious or when the unconscious turns hostile on account
of begins not properly understood by the conscious it is bound to create imbalances in one’s mind and make one’s behavior quite hostile to one self and to one’s environment. If this hostility or aggression is directed in ward, one becomes neurotic but when it overflows outwards, one turns into a psychotic or delinquent character. In some severe forms of insanity, as claimed by Jung, we find a complete autonomy of the unconscious, a type of complete control or bombardment of the conscious mind by the unconscious content in the shape of disturbing and unusual ideas. Harmony or discord between one’s conscious and unconscious may thus proves to be deciding factor for one’s personality to be termed as adjusted or maladjusted to one’s self and the environment.

- The views of other neo-Freudians and later psychoanalysts. The other followers of the psychoanalysis school also tried to put forward their own viewpoints explaining the way and how of human behavior. Notable among them were Karen Horney, Erich Fromm, Wilhelm Reich and Erich. Erickson. Let us briefly discuss their views.

The Sociogenic or cultural model According to this model, the society in general and culture in particular affects one’s ways of behavior to such an extent that behavior takes the shape of adaptive or non-adaptive behavior turning one into an adjusted or maladjusted personality. The society and culture to which one belongs does not only influence or shape one’s behavior but also sets a standard for its adherents to behave in the way it desires. Individuals behaving in the manner that society desires are labeled as normal and adjusted individuals while deviation from social norms and violation of role expectancy is regarded as the sign of maladjustment abnormality. Although, society or culture plays a significant role in shaping and influencing human behavior, yet it should not be regarded as the only factor in the adjustment process. Moreover, the societies or cultures may themselves, rather than individual be maladaptive and sometimes even destructive to the individual’s adjustment like Germany. It is not proper, therefore, to depend solely on the Sociogenic or cultural model for the labeling of one’s behavior as adjusted or maladaptive.

4. The social psychological or behaviouristic model. The socio psychological or behaviouristic model in general emphasizes that Behaviors
are not inherited. Competencies required for successful living are largely acquired or learned though social experience by the individual himself.

- The environmental influences provided by the culture and social institutions are important but it is the interaction of one’s psychological self with one’s physical as well as social environment which plays the decisive role in determining adjective success or failure.

- Behaviors, whether normal or abnormal is learned by obeying the same set of learning principle or laws. Generally, every type of behavior is learned or acquired as an after-effect of its consequences. The behavior once occurred, if reinforced, may be learned by the individual as normal. As a result, one may learn to consider responses which are labeled normal, as abnormal.

- Not only is normal and abnormal behavior learned, the labeling of behavior as normal or abnormal is also learned. Whether or not an individual is considered abnormal or maladjusted for a particular type of behavior depends upon the observer of the behavior and also upon the social context of the behavior.

- Maladaptive behavior may be treated by applying the principle of behavior modification, unlearning, reconditioning and correcting environmental situations responsible for its occurrence.

### 1.2.14 Methods of Adjustment

In order to healthy, happy and satisfying life one has learn the various ways of adjustment, i.e. coping with one’s environment as effectively as possible. Also he has to safeguard his self against turning into a maladjusted and abnormal personality. How can it be done? What are the different ways of coping with one’s environment? How does one handle and face the conflicts, anxieties, pressures and stresses of one’s life? To seek answers to these questions the description of possible modes, ways and methods uses by the individual in his adjustment process is necessary.

The methods used for keeping and restoring harmony between the individual and his environment can be grouped into categories, direct methods and indirect methods.

1. **Direct methods.** Direct methods are those methods which are employed by the individual intentionally at the conscious level. They are rational and
logical and help in getting permanent solution of the problem faced by the
individual in a particular situation. These methods include the following:

**Increasing trials or improving efforts** When one finds it difficult to solve
a problem or face obstacles in the path, to cope with his environment he
can attempt with a new zeal by increasing his efforts and improving his
behavioral process.

**Adopting compromising means** For maintaining harmony between his
self and the environment one may adopt the following compromising
postures:

He may altogether change his direction of efforts by changing the original
goals, i.e. an aspirant for I.A.S. my direct his energies to become a
probation officer in a nationalized bank.

ii) He may seek partial substitution of goal like selection for the provincial
civil service in place of the I.A.S.

iii) He may satisfy himself by an apparent for the real thing, e.g., in the case
of a child, by a toy car in place of a real car and in the case of a young boy
desirous of getting married by a doll in his arms.

**Withdrawal and submissiveness** One may learn to cope with one’s
environment by just accepting defeat and surrendering oneself to the
powerful forces of environment and circumstances.

**Making proper choices and decisions** A person adapts himself to, and
seeks harmony with, his environment by making use to his intelligence for
the proper choices and wise decisions particularly when faced with
conflicting situations and stressful moments.

1) **Indirect method of achieving adjustment.** Indirect method is those
methods by which a person tries to seek temporary adjustment to protect him
for the time being against a psychological danger. These are purely psychic or
mental devices-ways of perceiving situations as he wants to see them and
imagining that things would happen according to his wishes. That is way
these are called defense or mental mechanisms employed in the process of
one’s adjustment to one’s self and the environment. A few important mental
mechanisms are :

**Repression:** - Repression is a mechanism in which painful experiences,
conflicts and unfulfilled desires are paused down into our unconscious. In this
way one unconsciously tries to forget the things that might make him anxious or uncomfortable. One tries to get temporary relief from the tension or anxiety by believing that the tension producing situation does not exist.

**Regression:** Regression means going backward or returning to the past. In this process, an individual tends to regress to his early childhood or infantile responses—indeed order to save himself from mental conflicts and tensions. A man failing in his love affair resorts to regression when he exhibits his love for dolls. Similarly an elder child may regress and start behaving like an infant when a new sibling is born and he feels neglected.

**Compensation:** This is a mechanism by which an individual tries to balance or cover up his deficiency in one field by exhibiting his strength in another field. For example, an unattractive girl who becomes a bookworm to secure a position in the class is making use of such mechanism in order to attract attention which she is unable to do with her looks.

**Rationalization:** This is a defense mechanism in which a person justifies his otherwise unjustified behavior by diving socially acceptable reasons for it and thus attempts to defend himself by inventing plausible excuses to explain his conduct. A child makes use of rationalization when he tries to extend lame excuses for his failure. He may blame the teacher or parents or his poor health and thus try to disguise his own weakness and deficiency.

### 1.3 STRESS

Whenever there is a change in our environment (physical or psychological environment), which we appraise as a damaging or harmful, some demand is placed on us for adjustment. The way our body and mind respond to these demands is called 'stresses. Stress is both, a physical as well as a psychological.

“Stress is an adaptive response to an external situation that results in physical, psychological and or behavioral deviations for organizational participants.”

The most commonly accepted definition of stress (mainly attributed to Richard S Lazarus) is that stress is a condition or feeling experienced when a person perceives that “demands exceed the personal and social resources the
individual is able to mobilize." In short, it's what we feel when we think we've lost control of events.

Stress can manifest itself in both a positive way and a negative way. Stress is said to be positive when the situation offers an opportunity for one to gain something. Eustress is the term used to describe positive stress. Eustress is often viewed as motivator since, in its absence, the individual lacks that ‘edge’ necessary for peak performance. It is negative when stress is associated with heart-disease, alcoholism, drug abuse, merit breakdowns, absenteeism, child abuses and a host of other social, physical, organizational and emotional problems.

Stress is associated with constrains and demands. The former prevents an individual from doing what he or she desires. The latter refers OT the loss of something desired. Aspiring to own a new Ford Ikon and not be able to mobilize the necessary cash is a constraint; Desiring to attend a social function but unable to do so because to pressing official work amounts to a demand.

Today, many organizations and employees are experiencing the effects of stress on work performance. The effects of stress can be either positive or negative. What is perceived as positive stress by one person may be perceived as negative stress by another, since everyone perceives situations differently. According to Barden, negative stress is becoming a major illness in the work environment, and it can debilitate employees and be costly to employers. Managers need to identify those suffering from negative stress and implement programs as a defense against stress. These programs may reduce the impact stress has on employees’ work performance. Stress is our natural way of responding to the demands of our ever-changing world.1 Although we all experience change and demands regularly, the way that we interpret these internal and external changes directly affects the degree to which we feel stress. As a result, not all individual interpret the same events as stressful; what may seem stressful to you may not be the same for your best friend, and vice versa.

Stress can be a result of both positive and negative experiences, and it is a necessary part of our daily lives. From an evolutionary standpoint stress was necessary for survival (i.e., imagine hunting large prey on which one’s entire tribe is dependent) and some stress continues to be a helpful part of our modern lives since it motivates us to accomplish tasks or make changes. we all feel the
pressure of our environment during times of transition (i.e., at the time of high school graduation) and in preparation for significant life events (anticipation of a job interview). Although response to stress is often adaptive feeling stress before an exam may be a cause negative in studying for it), too much stress or an inability to cope with it can cause negative emotional and physical symptoms, including, but not limited to, anxiety, irritability, increased heart rate.

Although some stress is a natural and inevitable part of our lives, feeling burdened or unable to cope can be problematic and can seriously affect your mental and physical well-being. Constantly being exposed to stressful situations can be over.

Stress is the “wear and tear” our bodies experience as we adjust to our continually changing environment. It is a term used to denote stress and pressures. Too much stress can increase pain, and has physical and emotional effects on us and can create negative feelings. It can make a person more prone to illnesses such as heart disease or mental problems.

As a positive influence, stress can help us to act. It can result in a new awareness and an exciting perspective influence can lend to feeling of anxiety, anger, frustration, health problems such as headaches, rashes, insomnia, peptic ulcers, high blood pressure, heart disease and stroke.

Stress is defined as a feeling of emotional or physical tension. Emotional stress usually occurs when situations are considered difficult or unmanageable. Therefore, different people consider different situations as stressful.

Physical stress refers to a physiological reaction of the body triggers. The pain experienced after surgery is an example of physical stress. Physical often leads to emotional stress is frequently experienced as physical discomfort (e.g. stomach cramps).

Stress is factor in all of our lives. Stress is simply the way we react physically mentally and emotionally to various conditions, changes and demands in our lives. A certain amount of stress in one’s life is good. Stress keeps us engaged, focused and moving forward. However, too much stress can be vitiating badly. Too much stress will detract from productivity and happiness.

Stress is a term in psychology and biology, first coined in the biological context in the 1930s, which has in more recent decades become commonly used in popular and common. It refers to the consequence of the failure of an organism
human or animal to respond appropriately to emotional or physical threats, whether actual or imagined.

Workplace stress is the harmful physical and emotional response that occurs when there is a poor match between job demands and capabilities, resources, or needs of the worker.

Work-related stress can lead to anxiety and tension. Although stress is a normal part of life, excessive stress interferes with productivity and reduces physical and emotional health. Especially in difficult economic times, challenges in the workplace can prove difficult to handle. Work-related stress can interfere with your personal life and ability to function, so learning to deal with work-stress effectively is not only important, it is essential.

Stress-related disorders encompass a broad array of conditions, including psychological disorders (e.g., depression, anxiety, post-traumatic stress disorder) and other types of emotional strain (e.g., dissatisfaction stress, tension, etc.) maladaptive behaviors (e.g., aggression, substance abuse), and conditions that may lend to poor work performance or even injury. Job stress is also associated with various biological reactions that may lead ultimately to compromised health, such as cardiovascular disease, or in extreme cases, death.

Stress is a prevalent and costly problem in today’s workplace. About one-third of workers report high levels of stress. One-quarter of employees view their jobs as the number one stressor in their lives. Three-quarters of employees believe the worker has more on-the-job stress than a generation ago. Evidence also suggests that stress is the major cause of turnover in organizations.

1.3.1 Reasons of Mental Stress
Following are major reasons of mental stress:

1. Fulfillment of basic needs.
2. Conditions of life
3. Caste
4. Intelligence
5. Personality
6. Personal reasons
7. Family life
8. Business
1.3.2 Common Stressors

Stress is a normal part of life. Many things in life can be stressful. Situations such as exams, death of a loved one, task deadlines, and conflicts between family members, relationship difficulties or a change of school can cause stress. Factors within ourselves such as high expectations of oneself or others and inability to accept failure are responsible too.

1.3.3 Reactions to stress

A small amount of stress can help people perform their best—during an exam, an athletic event, or on stage. With too much stress, people may become accident-prone, make a lot of mistakes, and may not be able to function. We react differently when under stress. Some people like to be busy, with lots of activity. Other people may prefer a slower pace, with less activity. What one person finds relaxing may be stressful to another. Therefore it is important to choose a pattern of relaxation for oneself.

Bodily Reactions

When under stress, the body quickly releases chemicals into the blood. This sets into motion a series of physical changes such as faster heartbeat and breathing rate, higher blood pressure, sweating and increased muscle tension. These physical changes give the body added strength and energy. They prepare the body for dealing with stressful events such as giving a speech, aiding an accident victim, or fighting or fleeing from an attack. When stress is dealt with in a positive way, the body restores itself and repairs any damage caused by the stress. The mind’s reaction to stress is harder to predict. These mental reactions vary according to the situation and the person. They may include feelings of anger, fear, anxiety, annoyance and frustration.

1.3.4 Types of Stress:
Stress can be divided into two groups according to its nature:

1. **DURATION:**

   **Acute Stress:**
   
   Stressors defined as acute are the things that hamper your plans or your day: transportation problems that make you late to work, a missed deadline, an unexpected meeting with your child’s teacher. Acute stress happens to everyone and tends to be manageable.

   **Symptoms of Acute Stress:**
   
   - Emotional distress: worry, anger, irritability, anxiety, frustration, impatience
   - Physical problems: fatigue, headache, back pain, jaw pain, trembling, cold hands and feet, and muscular stiffness that can lead to pulled muscles, tendons, and ligaments
   - Digestive problems: heartburn, acid stomach, diarrhoea, constipation, flatulence, irritable bowel syndrome
   - Vital-Sign disturbances: rise in blood pressure, rapid heartbeat, sweaty palms, heart palpitations, dizziness, shortness of breath, chest pain
   - Mental disturbances: confusion, inability to concentrate, indecisiveness, mind racing, mindlessness, or blankness

   **Episodic Acute Stress**
   
   Episodic acute stress is characterized by intense reaction to everything: the classic type A personality, an excessive competitive drive, aggressiveness, impatience, and having a sense of time urgency. Episodic acute stress involves worry that a disaster is going to happen any minute.

   **Symptoms of Episodic Acute Stress (In addition to symptoms of acute stress):**
   
   - Persistent headaches
   - Hypertension
   - Asthma
   - Chest pain
   - Heart disease

2. **Chronic Stress**
Chronic stress is the long-standing stress that wears people down. It can be associated with such problems as poverty, illness, dysfunctional families, or work dissatisfaction.

**Symptoms of Chronic Stress:**
- Loss of appetite, or overeating
- Feeling of insecurity & inadequacy
- Weakened immune system
- Heart disease
- Chronic pain in joints, back, jaw, or shoulders
- Pessimism
- Resentment
- Extreme or chronic anger
- Inability to concentrate
- Peptic ulcers
- Diminished coping ability
- Depression
- Chronic fatigue
- Migraine headaches
- Persistent anxiety
- Reclusiveness
- Constant irritability
- Cynicism
- Low performance levels
- Digestive Disorders

**Traumatic Stress**
Traumatic stress occur when a person has had a traumatic experience such as being in an accident, witnessing a terrible crime, losing a job, or having extreme financial problems in keeping the farm as a result of a drought or any natural or human disaster. Individuals experience extreme emotional responses. The shock can make you dazed and the denial is the coping mechanism – putting off feeling the intensity of the experience.

**Symptoms of Traumatic Stress:**
• Feelings: unpredictable, intense mood swings; anxiety; nervousness; depression
• Thoughts: flashbacks; vivid memory of event; inability to concentrate
• Physical reactions: rapid heartbeat; sweating; headache, nausea, chest pain, general pain, and digestive problems
• Relationship problems: strained, frequent arguments with family members and/or co-workers; withdrawal and isolation from group activity

Management:

Eu-stress:
“The stressors that are new and we can cope and use in learning is called ‘Eustress’”.

Distress:
“The stressors that are not manageable called ‘Distress’”.

1.3.5 Types of Stressors:
Different individuals have different situations as their stressors. The first step in learning to control our stress is to find out our own stressors.

1. **Physiological Stressors**: Excessive heat, cold, noise, person’s own illness.

2. **Psychological Stressors**: Death of loved one, emotional breakup, tension

3. **Social Stressors**: Social status, Peer pressure

4. **Socio- Economical, political and environmental Stressors**: Unemployment, less income compared to demands, high cost of living, technological change, pollution, poor services, etc.

5. **Family Stressors**: Sharing of workload, different values, different lifestyles, distribution of money/assets, illness or death of a family member, staying away from the family, etc.

6. **Interpersonal stressors**: Spoiled relationship with a family members, friends, neighbors, or any significant other’ due to different values, expectations, obligations, poor communication, misunderstandings, jealousy, etc.
1.3.6 Coping of Stress

1. **Time management:**
   Time management refers to a range of skills, tools, techniques used to manage time to accomplish specific tasks, projects and goals. Time Management includes: planning, allocating, setting goals, delegation, analysis of time spent, organizing, scheduling and prioritizing.

2. **Increasing intensity of relaxation:**
   An individual must do relaxation twice in a day; one in the early morning and the other is in the late evening.

3. **Decrease frequency of stressors:**
   Find out the number of stressors and try to decrease them.

4. **Be realistic:**
   Accept the fact about the life. If we are in problem, then get stable as soon as possible and try to find out the solutions.

5. **Positive self-talk:**
   Positive self-talk helps a person to come out from any stress and tension. Positive self-talk is also helpful in self-motivation.

6. **Divide the stressors:**
   Division of any work can decrease the workload. If the stressors are divided in numbers then the effect of stressors reduced and gets half.

1.3.7 Causes of Mental-Stress

One of the norms of science is that any particular incident is related to another incident. The conditions surrounding mental stress are very complicated. The causes of mental-stress are individual centered. In similar conditions, one person is faced with abnormal mental stress. In another person, this may create ordinary mental stress. While in yet another it may not result in any mental stress. In the contrary, it could create happiness.

In a research, different experts have described different reasons for mental stress. It is difficult to explain all the information here. Baron (1986) has classified the reasons behind the mental stress in institutions into two types:
1.3.8 Forces Related to the Institution And Activities.

1. Occupational-Demands:-

A number of occupations are such that they create more mental stress when compared to other occupations. For example, medical, fire-brigade, pilot services generate higher degree of mental stress. In contrast, the mental stress experienced by employees working in non-mechanized occupations such as lecturers, farmers, librarians, school teachers etc is less. In a study of the mental stress in 130 types of occupation conducted by America’s National Institute for occupational safety & Health it was found the degree of mental stress among medical employees, managers, waiters, and workers was less. The degree of mental stress increases in occupations involving crucial decision-making, constant use of machines, information-exchange or risk-bearing activities.

2) Conflict of Roles:-

A person who achievable roles of two non-wills be subject to mental stress; For example, working women who can’t cope up with the demands of the children, husband and family will come under mental stress.

3) Doubtful Role:-

At times, when a person is not clear about his activities than people don’t like his role comes under doubt. Lack of clarity about, such related to one’s activities, limits of one’s power and responsibility; because this could create mental-stress.

4) Maximum & Minimum slope of work:-

Both occupations which involve maximum work or minimum work create mental stress. Maximum work stress is of two types; result and quality oriented. The maximum result-oriented work demands more work in a definite time-schedule.

So also, in similar minimum work stress occupation conditions would not be favorable. As a result of this, the individual could feel boredom, lack of interest. Since these reactions are of chromic nature, they give rise to mental stress.

5) Responsibility for Threes:-

In any institution, there is work-division. Many individuals are given responsibilities outside their occupations; while many manage financial
responsibilities, Responsibility of working with people. Research indicates that individuals who accept other responsibilities experience a high degree of mental stress as they are affected by tension and worry.

6) Inadequate Social Help:-

Baron and Bran have defined Social help as “helpful activities rendered by other members of the institution to an individual working in that institution “shortage of such social help increases mental stress. Research indicates this. For example, such conditions are found to a large extent in individual society, organizational units, & govt. organizations etc.

7) Lack of Decision-Making:-

When there is no scope for decision-making in one’s field of activities, an individual feels that he is evading a life under others control and without any aim. Such a situation is quite rave and leads to mental-stress. Jackson had done his research on this issue in 1983.

8) Other Institutional Forces:-

Forces such as valuation of activities circumstances activities, conditions and change etc can also result in mental-stress. Mental-stress can also be created if a person’s evaluation is made by others. Many times circumstances surrounding work can result in mental-stress. Inconvenient and uncomfortable work conditions such as high-temperature suffocating atmosphere, over-crowding etc can lead to mental-stress. Also, changer in the company functioning, structure, internal re-organization organizational interference and crucial charger in occupation etc can make the employees undergo increased mental stress.

1.3.9 Work Stress:-

Contains a typical model of occupational stress; as illustrated in the figure, stressors lend to stress, which in turn, lend it a variety of consequences. The model also contains several variables that help moderate the stressors – stress – outcome relationship. A moderator is a variable that causes the relationship between stress and outcomes to be stronger for some people and weaker for others.
Stressors-Sources of stress:-
Stressors originate at individual, organizational and extra- organizational levels.

Stressors-level stressors:-
These relate directly to a personality and job responsibilities. Experts estimate that more than 10 million workers have computer-related vision problems each that require a trip to an optometrist. Forty percent of these people use special glasses while working with video display terminals.

The most common individual level stressors are type of personality, role overload, and role conflict and role ambiguity.

A model of occupational stress:-
The Type A personality is stress-prone as it is associated with the following behavioral patterns:

- Always moves. Walks and eats rapidly.
- Feels impatient with the pace of things, hurries others, dislikes waiting.
- does several things simultaneously.
- feels guilty when relaxing
- Tries to schedule more in less and less time.
- Uses nervous gestures such as clenched fist, banging the hand on the table.
- Does not have time to enjoy life.

The achievement orientation, impatience and perfectionism of individuals with Type A personalities may create stress in work circumstances that other persons find relatively stress-free. Type a personality, in this sense, bring stress on them.

The Type B personality, on the other hand, is stress prone. Following are the typical characteristics of Type B personality:

- Is not concerned about time.
- Is patient
- Does not brag
- Play to fun, not to win.
- Relaxes without feeling guilty.
- Has no pressing deadlines
- Is mind-mannered.
- Is never in a hurry?
Too much of work causes stress to an employee; the story of Reddy, stated in the opening case, is illustrative of work overload causing stress. Excess workload has become the normal these days as more and more organizations have reduced their workforce and restructured work, leaving the remaining employees with more tasks and fewer resources of time to complete them.

Role conflict occurs where people face competing demands. There are two types of role and conflict in organizations.

Inter-role conflict occurs when an employee has two roles that are in conflict with each other. Inter-role conflict is common in matrix organizations where subordinates will be shared by matrix bosses. Personal conflict occurs when personal values clash with organizational goals. For example, offering bribe to corner an order may help the organization. But such practice will conflict with the ethical value of the executive as an individual.

Role ambiguity Exists when employees are uncertain about their responsibilities, functions, performance expectations and levels of authority. This tends to occur when people enter new situations, such as joining the organization or taking foreign assignment, because they are uncertain about tasks and social expectations

Task characteristics are also individual level stressors. Task is more stressful when they involves decision making, monitoring equipment, or exchanging information with others. Traffic congestions is a major stressor for sale people and bus drivers. Andas traffic intensity increases in the future, so will stress levels.

As we go into the future, a 24-hour work model will bring new challenges. Increasing number of professionals will be required to work during night shifts. Adjustment of the body clock to the new routine, health risks and stress related hazards will be serious issues the OB experts need to face in the coming years. Night shifters result in gastrointestinal disorders and abnormal heart rhythms. There can be chronic gynecological problems for women (women will also be required to work overnights in such industries as call centers). Mental symptoms can be so server that a stressed night shift worker can almost be unmanageable. The night shift worker will be more vulnerable to stress because of sleeping patterns, emotional problems and family commitments while juggling a varying work timetable, some time with little social support.
**Group Level Stressors:**

Group level stressors are caused by group dynamics and managerial behaviors. Managers create stress for employees by (A) exhibiting inconsistent behaviors, (B) failing to provide support, (C) showing lack of concern, (D) providing inadequate direction, (E) creating a high productivity environment, and (F) focusing on negatives while ignoring good performance.

Sexual harassment is yet another group level stressor. Sexual harassment refers to unwelcome conduct of a sexual nature that affects the job-related performance of an employee adversely. One example of sexual harassment is a male supervisor threatening to fire a female employee if she fails to accept his sexual advances.

Another serious interpersonal stressor is the rising wave of physical violence and aggression in the workplace. It is estimated that more than 1000 employees are murdered at work each year in the US. Workplace violence includes assaults, rape and threats using a weapon.

**Organizational Stressors:**

Organizational stressors affect large number of employees. Organizational climate is a prime example. A high pressure environment that places chronic work demands on employees fuels the stress response. In contrast, participative management can reduce Organizational -level stressors. Poor lighting, loud noise, improper placement of furniture and a dirty and smelly environment create stress. Managers should monitor these and eliminate them at the earliest.

Defines the level of differentiation, the degree of rules and regulation, and where decisions are made. Excessive rules and lack of participation in decision that affect an employee are examples of structural variables that might be potential stressors.

Represents the managerial style of the organization’s senior executives; some chief executive officers create a culture characterized by tension, fear and anxiety. They establish unrealistic pressures to perform in the short run impose excessively tight controls and routinely fire employees who fail to measure up.
Extra-organizational Stressors:-

Extra-organizational stress is caused by factors outside the organization. For instance conflicts associated with one’s career and family life is stressful.

Home life certainly impacts one’s attitudes and performance at work. Death of a spouse, injury to one’s child, war failure in school or at work, an unplanned and similar other life event can be stressful. Socioeconomic status represents a combination of (a) economic status as measured by income, (b) social status by educational level(c) work status as measured by occupation. These stressors are likely to become more important in the future.

Organizational Strategies:-

Besides individuals practicing coping strategies, organizations too have been development and implementing stress-reduction strategies. Some of these programmers focus on a specific issue or a problem, such as alcohol or drudge abuse, career counseling, job allocation or burnout. Still other programmers may target a specific group within the organization, as for example training in relaxation skills.

Organizational coping strategies help reduce the harmful effects of stress in three ways: (i) identify and then modify or eliminate work stressors (ii) help employees modify their perception and understanding of work stress, and (iii) help employees cope more effectively with the consequences of stress. “

Organizational strategies aimed at eliminating stress often include –

- improvements in the physical work environment;
- Job redesign to eliminate stressors;
- Change in workloads and deadlines;
- Structural reorganization;
- Change in work schedules, more flexible hours and sabbaticals;
- Management by objectives or other goal-setting programmers;
- Greeter levels of employee participation, particularly in planning changes that affect them; and
- Workshops dealing with role clarity and role analysis.

Programmers that promote role clarity and role analysis are of vital importance in removing or reducing role ambiguity and role conflict-the two main
sources of stress. While diagnosing stressors in the workplace, OB experts should be aware of the fact that uncertainty and perceived lack of control heighten stress. Jobs involving high uncertainty over the outcomes accompanied by low controllability add to the stress. Thus, involvement of employees in organizational change efforts that will affect them, work redesign that reduces uncertainty and increases control over the pace of work, and improved clarity and understanding of role all should help reduce the work stress.

Programmers of stress management targeted at perceptions and experiences of stress and outcomes of stress (See fig.11.5, arrows 2 and 3 ) include-

- team building;
- behavior modification;
- career counseling and other employee assistance programmers;
- workshops on time management;
- workshops on burnout to help employee understand its nature and symptoms;
- training in relaxation techniques; and
- physical fitness or wellness programmers

Employee assistance programmers and wellness programmers are being increasingly used by firms nowadays.

**Wellness Programmers:**

Wellness programmers, often called Health Promotion Programmers, focus on employee’s overall physical and mental health. Simply stated, any activity an organization engages in that is designed to identify and assist in preventing or correcting specific health problems, health hazards, or negative health habits falls under wellness programmers. This includes not only disease identification but lifestyle modification too. Among the most prevalent examples of such programmers are those emphasizing hypertension identification and control, smoking cessation, physical fitness and exercise, nutrition and diet control and work and personal stress management.

- Stress is one’s response to a disturbing factor in the environment and the consequences of such reaction.
Response to stress varies between individuals. How an individual experiences stress depends on perception, past experience and social support the individual has. Stressors originate at the individual, group, organizational or extra-organizational level.

Outcomes of stress are very serious. Individual suffers from stress, so also the organization which has to pay in terms of absenteeism, reduced productivity and claims of damages from affected employees.

One serious consequence of stress is burnout. Burnout results from prolonged exposure to stress.

There are individual as well as organizational strategies to cope with stress.

Stress is negatively related to performance. Higher the stress, lower the performance. The earlier belief that moderate level of stress enhances performance is not held tenable now.

1.3.10 Potential Sources of Stress

What causes stress? As the model in exhibit 19-8 shows, there are three categories of potential stressors: environmental, organizational, and personal. Let’s take a look at each.

Environmental Factors Just as environmental uncertainty influences the design of an organization’s structure, it also influences stress levels among employees in that organization. Indeed, evidence indicates that uncertainty is the biggest reason people have trouble coping with organizational changes. There are three main types of environmental uncertainty: economic, political, and technological.

Changes in the business cycle create economic uncertainties. When the economy is contracting, for example, people become increasingly anxious about their job security. Political uncertainties don’t tend to create stress among North Americans as they do for employees in countries like Haiti or Venezuela. The obvious reason is that the United States and Canada have stable political systems, in which change is typically implemented in an orderly manner. Yet political threats and changes, even in countries like the United States and Canada, can induce stress. For instance, the threats by Quebec to separate from Canada, or the difficulties of East Germany integrating with West Germany, lead to political uncertainty that becomes stressful to people in these countries. Technological change is a third type of environmental factors that can cause
stress. Because new innovations can make an employee’s skills and experience obsolete in a very short time, computers, robotics, automation, and similar forms of technological innovation are a threat to many people and cause them stress.

Organizational Factors There is no shortage of factors within an organization that can cause stress. Pressures to avoid errors or complete tasks in a limited time, work overload, a demanding and insensitive boss, and unpleasant coworkers are a few examples. We’ve categorized these factors around task role, and interpersonal demands.

Task demands are factors related to a person’s job. They include the design of the individual’s job (autonomy, task variety, degree of automation), working conditions, and the physical work layout. Assembly lines, for instance, can put pressure on people when the line’s speed is perceived as excessive. Similarly, working in an overcrowded room or in a visible location where noise and interruptions are constant can increase anxiety and stress. Increasingly, as customer service becomes ever more important, emotional labor is a source of stress. Imagine being a flight attendant for Southwest Airlines or a cashier at Starbucks. Do you think you could put on a happy face when you’re having a bad day?

Role demands relate to pressures placed on a person as a function of the particular role she plays in the organization. Role conflicts create expectations that may be hard to reconcile or satisfy. Role overload is experienced when the employee is expected to do more than time permits. Role ambiguity is created when role expectations are not clearly understood and the employee is not sure what he or she is to do.

Interpersonal demands are pressures created by other employees. Lack of social support from colleagues and poor interpersonal relationships can cause stress, especially among employees with a high social need.

Personal Factors the typical individuals works about 40 to 50 hours a week. But the experiences and problems that people encounter in the other 120-plus non-work hours each week can spill over to the job. Our final category, then, encompasses factors in the employee’s personal life. Primarily, these factors are family issues, personal economic problems, and inherent personality characteristics.
National surveys consistently show that people hold family and personal relationships dear. Marital difficulties, the breaking off of a relationship, and discipline troubles with children are examples of relationship problems that create stress for employees that aren’t left at the front door when they arrive at work.

Economic problems created by individuals overextending their financial resources are another set of personal troubles that can create stress for employees and distract their attention from their work. Regardless of income level—people who make $80,000—some people are poor money managers or have wants that always seem to exceed their earning capacity.

Studies in three diverse organizations found that stress sympathy reported prior to beginning a job accounted for most of the variance in stress sympathy reported 9 months later. This led the researchers to conclude that some people may have an inherent tendency to accentuate negative aspects of the world in general. If this true, then a significant individual factor that influences stress is a person’s basic disposition. That is, stress sympathy expressed on the job may actually originate in the person’s personality.

Stressor Are Additive A fact that tends to be overlooked when stressors are reviewed individually is that stress is an additive phenomenon. Stress builds up. Each new and persistent stressor adds to an individual’s stress level. So a single stressor may be relatively unimportant in and of itself, but if added to an already high level of stress, it can be “the straw that breaks the camel’s back.” If we want to appraise the total amount of stress an individual is under, we have to sum up his or her opportunity stresses, constraint stresses, and demand stresses.

1.3.11 Individual Differences Regarding Stressful Situations

Some people thrive on stressful situations, while others are overwhelmed by them. What is it that differentiates people in term of their ability to handle stress? What individual difference variables moderate the relationship between potential stresses and experienced stress? At least four variables—perceptions, job experience, social support, and personality—have been found to be relevant moderators.

We demonstrated that employees react in response to their perception of reality rather than to reality itself. Perception, therefore, will moderate the relationship between a potential stress condition and an employee’s reaction to it.
For example, one person’s fear that he’ll lose his job because his company is laying off personnel may be perceived by another as an opportunity to get a large severance allowance and start his own business. So stress potential doesn’t lie in objective condition; it lies in an employee’s interpretation of those conditions.

The evidence indicates that experience on the job tends to be negatively related to work stress. Why? Two explanations have been offered. First is the idea of selective withdrawal. Voluntary turnover is more problem among people who experience more stress. Therefore, people who remain with an organization longer are those with more stress-resistant traits or those who are more resistant to the stress characteristics of their organization. Second, people even tally develop coping mechanisms to deal with stress. Because this takes time, senior member of the organization are more likely to be fully adapted and should experience less stress.

There is increasing evidence that social support—that is, college relationship with coworker or supervisor—can buffer the impact of stress. The logic underling this moderating variable is the social support acts as a palliative, mitigating the negative effects of even high-strain jobs.

Personality also affects the degree to which people experience stress and how they cope with it. Perhaps the most widely studied personality trait in stress is Type a personality, which we discussed in Chapter. Type A—particularly that aspect of Type A that manifests itself in hostility and anger—is associated with increased levels of stress and risk for heart disease; more specifically, people who are quick to anger, maintain a persistently hostile outlook, and project a cynical mistrust of others are at increased risk of experiencing stress in situations.

**Consequences of stress management**

Stress shows itself in a number of ways. For instance, an individual who is experiencing a high level of stress may develop high blood pressure, ulcers, irritability, difficulty making routine decisions, loss of appetite, accident-proneness, and the like. These symptoms can be subsumed under three general categories: physiological, psychological, and behavioral symptoms.
1.4 WELL-BEING

Well-being is most commonly used in philosophy to describe what is non-instrumentally or ultimately good for a person. The question of what well-being consists in is of independent interest, but it is of great importance in moral philosophy, especially in the case of utilitarianism, according to which well-being is to be maximized. Significant challenges to the very notion have been made, in particular by G.E. Moore and T.M. Scanlon. It has become standard to distinguish theories of well-being as either hedonist theories, desire theories, or objective list theories. According to the view known as welfares, well-being is the only value. Also important in ethics is the question of how a person’s moral character relates to their well-being.

1.4.1 The Concept

Popular use of the term ‘well-being’ usually relates to health. A doctor’s surgery may run a ‘Women’s Well-being Clinic’, for example. Philosophical use is broader, but related, and amounts to the notion of how well a person’s life is going for that person. A person’s well-being is what is ‘good for’ them. Health, then, might be said to be a constituent of my well-being, but it is not plausibly taken to be all that matters for my well-being. One correlate term worth noting here is ‘self-interest’: my self-interest is what is in the interest of me, and not others.

The philosophical use of the term also tends to encompass the ‘negative’ aspects of how a person’s life goes for them. So we may speak of the well-being of someone who is, and will remain in, the most terrible agony: their well-being is negative, and such that their life is worse for them than no life at all. The same is true of closely allied terms, such as ‘welfare’, which covers how well a person is faring as a whole, whether well or badly, or ‘happiness’, which can be understood—as it was by the classical utilitarian’s from Jeremy Bentham onwards, for example—to be the balance between good and bad things in a person’s life. But note that philosophers also use such terms in the more standard ‘positive’ way, speaking of ‘ill-being’, ‘ill-faring’, or, of course, ‘ unhappiness’ to capture the negative aspects of individuals’ lives.

‘Happiness’ is often used, in ordinary life, to refer to a short-lived state of a person, frequently a feeling of contentment: ‘you look happy today’; ‘I’m very
happy for you'. Philosophically, its scope is more often wider, encompassing a whole life. And in philosophy it is possible to speak of the happiness of a person's life, or of their happy life, even if that person was in fact usually pretty miserable. The point is that some good things in their life made it a happy one, even though they lacked contentment. But this usage is uncommon, and may cause confusion.

Over the last few decades, so-called 'positive psychology' has hugely increased the attention paid by psychologists and other scientists to the notion of 'happiness'. Such happiness is usually understood in terms of contentment or 'life-satisfaction', and is measured by means such as self-reports or daily questionnaires. Is positive psychology about well-being? As yet, conceptual distinctions are not sufficiently clear within the discipline. But it is probably fair to say that many of those involved, as researchers or as subjects, are assuming that one's life goes well to the extent that one is contented with it—that is, that some kind of hedonistic account of well-being is correct.

When discussing the notion of what makes life good for the individual living that life, it is preferable to use the term 'well-being' instead of 'happiness'. For we want at least to allow conceptual space for the possibility that, for example, the life of a plant may be 'good for' that plant. And speaking of the happiness of a plant would be stretching language too far. (An alternative here might be 'flourishing', though this might be taken to bias the analysis of human well-being in the direction of some kind of natural teleology.) In that respect, the Greek word commonly translated 'happiness' (eudemonia) might be thought to be superior. But, in fact, eudemonia seems to have been restricted not only to conscious beings, but to human beings: non-human animals cannot be eudemon. This is because eudemonia suggests that the gods, or fortune, have favored one, and the idea that the gods could care about non-humans would not have occurred to most Greeks.

It is occasionally claimed that certain ancient ethical theories, such as Aristotle's, result in the collapse of the very notion of well-being. On Aristotle's view, if you are my friend, then my well-being is closely bound up with yours. It might be tempting, then, to say that 'your' well-being is 'part' of mine, in which case the distinction between what is good for me and what is good for others has broken down. But this temptation should be resisted. Your well-being concerns
how well your life goes for you, and we can allow that my well-being depends on yours without introducing the confusing notion that my well-being is constituted by yours. There are signs in Aristotelian thought of an expansion of the subject or owner of well-being. A friend is ‘another self’, so that what benefits my friend benefits me. But this should be taken either as a metaphorical expression of the dependence claim, or as an identity claim which does not threaten the notion of well-being: if you really are the same person as I am, then of course what is good for you will be what is good for me, since there is no longer any metaphysically significant distinction between you and me.

Well-being is a kind of value, sometimes called ‘prudential value’, to be distinguished from, for example, aesthetic value or moral value. What marks it out is the notion of ‘good for’. The serenity of a Vermeer painting, for example, is a kind of goodness, but it is not ‘good for’ the painting. It may be good for us to contemplate such serenity, but contemplating serenity is not the same as the serenity itself. Likewise, my giving money to a development charity may have moral value, that is, be morally good. And the effects of my donation may be good for others. But it remains an open question whether my being morally good is good for me; and, if it is, it’s being good for me is still conceptually distinct from its being morally good.

1.4.2 Theories of Well-Being

Hedonism

On one view, human beings always act in pursuit of what they think will give them the greatest balance of pleasure over pain. This is ‘psychological hedonism’, and will not be my concern here. Rather, I intend to discuss ‘evaluative hedonism’ or ‘prudential hedonism’, according to which well-being consists in the greatest balance of pleasure over pain.

This view was first and perhaps most famously, expressed by Socrates and Protagoras in the Platonic dialogue, Protagoras (Plato 1976 [C4 BCE]: 351b-c). Jeremy Bentham, perhaps the most well-known of the more recent hedonists, begins his Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation thus: ‘Nature has placed mankind under the governance of two sovereign masters, pain and pleasure. It is for them alone to point out what we ought to do’.
In answer to the question, ‘What does well-being consist in?’, then, the hedonist will answer, ‘The greatest balance of pleasure over pain’. We might call this substantive hedonism. A complete hedonist position will involve also explanatory hedonism, which consists in an answer to the following question: ‘What makes pleasure good, and pain bad?’ the answer being, ‘The pleasantness of pleasure, and the painfulness of pain’. Consider a substantive hedonist who believed that what makes pleasure good for us is that it fulfills our nature. This theorist is not an explanatory hedonist.

Hedonism—as is demonstrated by its ancient roots—has long seemed an obviously plausible view. Well-being, what is good for me, might be thought to be naturally linked to what seems good to me, and pleasure does, to most people, seem good. And how could anything else benefit me if I did not enjoy it?

The simplest form of hedonism is Bentham’s, according to which the more pleasantness one can pack into one’s life, the better it will be, and the more painfulness one encounters, the worse it will be. How do we measure the value of the two experiences? The two central aspects of the respective experiences, according to Bentham, are their duration, and their intensity.

Bentham tended to think of pleasure and pain as a kind of sensation, as the notion of intensity might suggest. One problem with this kind of hedonism is that there does not appear to be a single common strand of pleasantness running through all the different experiences people enjoy, such as eating hamburgers, reading Shakespeare, or playing water polo. Rather, it seems, there are certain experiences we want to continue, and we might be prepared to call these—for philosophical purposes—pleasures (even though some of them, such as diving in a very deep and narrow cave, for example, would not normally be described as pleasurable).

But simple hedonism could survive this objection merely by incorporating whatever view of pleasure was thought to be plausible. A more serious objection is to the evaluative stance of hedonism itself. Thomas Carlyle, for example, described the hedonistic component of utilitarianism as the ‘philosophy of swine’, the point being that simple hedonism places all pleasures on a par, whether they be the lowest animal pleasures of sex or the highest of aesthetic appreciation. One might make this point with a thought experiment. Imagine that you are given the choice of living a very fulfilling human life, or that of a barely sentient oyster,
which experiences some very low-level pleasure. Imagine also that the life of the oyster can be as long as you like, whereas the human life will be of eighty years only. If Bentham were right, there would have to be a length of oyster life such that you would choose it in preference to the human. And yet many say that they would choose the human life in preference to an oyster life of any length.

Now this is not a knockdown argument against simple hedonism. Indeed some people are ready to accept that at some length or other the oyster life becomes preferable. But there is an alternative to simple hedonism, outlined famously by J.S. Mill, using his distinction between ‘higher’ and ‘lower’ pleasures (1998 [1863], chi. 2). Mill added a third property to the two determinants of value identified by Bentham, duration and intensity. To distinguish it from these two ‘quantitative’ properties, Mill called his third property ‘quality’. The claim is that some pleasures, by their very nature, are more valuable than others. For example, the pleasure of reading Shakespeare, by its very nature, is more valuable than any amount of basic animal pleasure. And we can see this, Mill suggests, if we note that those who have experienced both types, and are ‘competent judges’, will make their choices on this basis.

A long-standing objection to Mill’s move here has been to claim that his position can no longer be described as hedonism proper (or what I have called ‘explanatory hedonism’). If higher pleasures are higher because of their nature, that aspect of their nature cannot be pleasantness, since that could be determined by duration and intensity alone. And Mill anyway speaks of properties such as ‘nobility’ as adding to the value of a pleasure. Now it has to be admitted that Mill is sailing close to the wind here. But there is logical space for a hedonist position which allows properties such as nobility to determine pleasantness, and insists that only pleasantness determines value. But one might well wonder how nobility could affect pleasantness, and why Mill did not just come out with the idea that nobility is itself a good-making property.

But there is a yet weightier objection to hedonism of any kind: the so-called ‘experience machine’. Imagine that I have a machine that I could plug you into for the rest of your life. This machine would give you experiences of whatever kind you thought most valuable or enjoyable—writing a great novel, bringing about world peace, attending an early Rolling Stones’ gig. You would not know you were on the machine, and there is no worry about its breaking down or
whatever. Would you plug in? Would it be wise, from the point of your own well-being, to do so? Robert Nozick thinks it would be a big mistake to plug in: ‘we want to do certain things … we want to be a certain way … plugging into an experience machine limits us to a man-made reality’ (Nozick 1974, p. 43).

One can make the machine sound more palatable, by allowing that genuine choices can be made on it, that those plugged in have access to a common ‘virtual world’ shared by other machine-users, a world in which ‘ordinary’ communication is possible, and so on. But this will not be enough for many anti-hedonists. A further line of response begins from so-called ‘externalism’ in the philosophy of mind, according to which the content of mental states is determined by facts external to the experience of those states. Thus, the experience of really writing a great novel is quite different from that of apparently writing a great novel, even though ‘from the inside’ they may be indistinguishable. But this is once again sailing close to the wind. If the world can affect the very content of my experience without my being in a position to be aware of it, why should it not affect the value of my experience?

The strongest tack for hedonists to take is to accept the apparent force of the experience machine objection, but to insist that it rests on ‘common sense’ intuitions, the place in our lives of which may itself be justified by hedonism. This is to adopt a strategy similar to that developed by ‘two-level utilitarian’s in response to alleged counter-examples based on common-sense morality. The hedonist will point out the so-called ‘paradox of hedonism’, that pleasure is most effectively pursued indirectly. If I consciously try to maximize my own pleasure, I will be unable to immerse myself in those activities, such as reading or playing games, which do give pleasure. And if we believe that those activities are valuable independently of the pleasure we gain from engaging in them, then we shall probably gain more pleasure overall.

These kinds of stand-off in moral philosophy are unfortunate, but should not be brushed aside. They raise questions concerning the epistemology of ethics, and the source and epistemic status of our deepest ethical beliefs, which we are further from answering than many would like to think. Certainly the current trend of quickly dismissing hedonism on the basis of a quick run-through of the experience machine objection is not methodologically sound.
Desire Theories

The experience machine is one motivation for the adoption of a desire theory. When you are on the machine, many of your central desires are likely to remain unfilled. Take your desire to write a great novel. You may believe that this is what you are doing, but in fact it is just a hallucination. And what you want, the argument goes, is to write a great novel, not the experience of writing a great novel.

Historically, however, the reason for the current dominance of desire theories lies in the emergence of welfare economics. Pleasure and pain are inside people's heads, and also hard to measure—especially when we have to start weighing different people's experiences against one another. So economists began to see people's well-being as consisting in the satisfaction of preferences or desires, the content of which could be revealed by their possessors. This made possible the ranking of preferences, the development of 'utility functions' for individuals, and methods for assessing the value of preference-satisfaction (using, for example, money as a standard).

The simplest version of a desire theory one might call the present desire theory, according to which someone is made better off to the extent that their current desires are fulfilled. This theory does succeed in avoiding the experience machine objection. But it has serious problems of its own. Consider the case of the angry adolescent. This boy's mother tells him he cannot attend a certain nightclub, so the boy holds a gun to his own head, wanting to pull the trigger and retaliate against his mother. Recall that the scope of theories of well-being should be the whole of a life. It is implausible that the boy will make his life go as well as possible by pulling the trigger. We might perhaps interpret the simple desire theory as a theory of well-being-at-at-a-particular-time. But even then it seems unsatisfactory. From whatever perspective, the boy would be better off if he put the gun down.

We should move, then, to a comprehensive desire theory, according to which what matters to a person's well-being is the overall level of desire-satisfaction in their life as a whole. A summative version of this theory suggests, straightforwardly enough, that the more desire-fulfillment in a life the better. But it runs into Derek Parfit's case of addiction (1984, p. 497). Imagine that you can start taking a highly addictive drug, which will cause a very strong desire in you
for the drug every morning. Taking the drug will give you no pleasure; but not taking it will cause you quite severe suffering. There will be no problem with the availability of the drug, and it will cost you nothing. But what reason do you have to take it?

A global version of the comprehensive theory ranks desires, so that desires about the shape and content of one's life as a whole are given some priority. So, if I prefer not to become a drug addict that will explain why it is better for me not to take Parfit's drug. But now consider the case of the orphan monk. This young man began training to be a monk at the earliest age, and has lived a very sheltered life. He is now offered three choices: he can remain as a monk, or become either a cook or a gardener outside the monastery, at a grange. He has no conception of the latter alternatives, so chooses to remain a monk. But surely it might be possible that he would have a better life were he to live outside?

So we now have to move to an informed desire version of the comprehensive theory. According to the informed desire account, the best life is the one I would desire if I were fully informed about all the (non-evaluative) facts. But now consider a case suggested by John Rawls: the grass-counter. Imagine a brilliant Harvard mathematician, fully informed about the options available to her, who develops an overriding desire to count the blades of grass on the lawns of Harvard. Like the experience machine case, this case is another example of philosophical ‘bedrock’. Some will believe that, if she really is informed, and not suffering from some neurosis, then the life of grass-counting will be the best for her.

Note that on the informed desire view the subject must actually have the desires in question for well-being to accrue to the subject. If it were true of me that, were I fully informed I would desire some object which at present I have no desire for, giving me that object now would not benefit me. Any theory which claimed that it would amounts to an objective list theory with a desire-based epistemology.

All these problem cases for desire theories appear to be symptoms of a more general difficulty. Recall again the distinction between substantive and formal theories of well-being. The former state the constituents of well-being (such as pleasure), while the latter state what makes these things good for people (pleasantness, for example). Substantively, a desire theorist and a
hedonist may agree on what makes life good for people: pleasurable experiences. But formally they will differ: the hedonist will refer to pleasantness as the good-maker, while the desire theorist must refer to desire-satisfaction. (It is worth pointing out here that if one characterizes pleasure as an experience the subject wants to continue, the distinction between hedonism and desire theories becomes quite hard to pin down.)

The idea that desire-satisfaction is a ‘good-making property’ is somewhat odd. As Aristotle says (1984 [C4 BCE], Metaphysics 1072a, tr. Ross): ‘desire is consequent on opinion rather than opinion on desire’. In other words, we desire things, such as writing a great novel, because we think those things are independently good; we do not think they are good because they will satisfy our desire for them.

**Objective List Theories**

The threefold distinction I am using between different theories of well-being has become standard in contemporary ethics. There are problems with it, however, as with many classifications, since it can blind one to other ways of characterizing views. Objective list theories are usually understood as theories which list items constituting well-being that consist neither merely in pleasurable experience nor in desire-satisfaction. Such items might include, for example, knowledge or friendship. But it is worth remembering, for example, that hedonism might be seen as one kind of ‘list’ theory, and all list theories might then be opposed to desire theories as a whole.

What should go on the list? It is important that every good should be included. As Aristotle put it: ‘We take what is self-sufficient to be that which on its own makes life worthy of choice and lacking in nothing. We think happiness to be such, and indeed the thing most of all worth choosing, not counted as just one thing among others’ (2000 [C4 BCE], Nicomachean Ethics 1197b, tr. Crisp). In other words, if you claim that well-being consists only in friendship and pleasure, I can show your list to be unsatisfactory if I can demonstrate that enjoyment or pleasure is also something that makes people better off.

What is the ‘good-maker’, according to objective list theorists? This depends on the theory. One, influenced by Aristotle and recently developed by Thomas Hurka (1993), is perfectionism, according to which what makes things
constituents of well-being is their perfecting human nature. If it is part of human nature to acquire knowledge, for example, then a perfectionist should claim that knowledge is a constituent of well-being. But there is nothing to prevent an objective list theorist's claiming that all that the items on her list have in common is that each, in its own way, advances well-being.

How do we decide what goes on the list? All we can work on is the deliverance of reflective judgment—intuition, if you like. But one should not conclude from this that objective list theorists are, because they are intuitionist, less satisfactory than the other two theories. For those theories too can be based only on reflective judgment. Nor should one think that intuitionism rules out argument. Argument is one way to bring people to see the truth. Further, we should remember that intuitions can be mistaken. Indeed, as suggested above, this is the strongest line of defense available to hedonists: to attempt to undermine the evidential weight of many of our natural beliefs about what is good for people.

One common objection to objective list theories is that they are elitist, since they appear to be claiming that certain things are good for people, even if those people will not enjoy them, and do not even want them. One strategy here might be to adopt a ‘hybrid’ account, according to which certain goods do benefit people independently of pleasure and desire-satisfaction, but only when they do in fact bring pleasure and/or satisfy desires. Another would be to bite the bullet, and point out that a theory could be both elitist and true.

It is also worth pointing out that objective list theories need not involve any kind of objectionable authoritarianism or perfectionism. First, one might wish to include autonomy on one's list, claiming that the informed and reflective living of one's own life for oneself itself constitutes a good. Second, and perhaps more significantly, one might note that any theory of well-being in itself has no direct moral implications. There is nothing logically to prevent one's holding a highly elitist conception of well-being alongside a strict liberal view that forbade paternalistic interference of any kind with a person's own life (indeed, on some interpretations, J.S. Mill's position is close to this).

One not implausible view, if desire theories are indeed mistaken in their reversal of the relation between desire and what is good, is that the debate is really between hedonism and objective list theories. And, as suggested above,
what is most at stake here is the issue of the epistemic adequacy of our beliefs about well-being. The best way to resolve this matter would consist, in large part at least, in returning once again to the experience machine objection, and seeking to discover whether that objection really stands.

1.4.3 Well-Being and Morality

Well-being obviously plays a central role in any moral theory. A theory which said that it just does not matter would be given no credence at all. Indeed, it is very tempting to think that well-being, in some ultimate sense, is all that can matter morally. Consider, for example, Joseph Raz's 'humanistic principle': ‘the explanation and justification of the goodness or badness of anything derives (Raz 1986, p. 194). If we expand this principle to cover non-human well-being, it might be read as claiming that, ultimately speaking, the justificatory force of any moral reason rests on well-being. This view is welfares.

Act-utilitarian’s, who believe that the right action is that which maximizes well-being overall, may attempt to use the intuitive plausibility of welfares to support their position, arguing that any deviation from the maximization of well-being must be grounded on something distinct from well-being, such as equality or rights. But those defending equality may argue that egalitarians are concerned to give priority to those who are worse off, and that we do see here a link with concern for well-being. Likewise, those concerned with rights may note that rights are to certain goods, such as freedom, or the absence of 'beds', such as suffering (in the case of the right not to be tortured, for example). In other words, the interpretation of welfares is itself a matter of dispute. But, however it is understood, it does seem that welfares poses a problem for those who believe that morality can require actions which benefit no one, and harm some, such as, for example, punishments intended to give individuals what they deserve.
Well-being and Virtue

Ancient ethics was, in a sense, more concerned with well-being than a good deal of modern ethics, the central question for many ancient moral philosophers being, ‘Which life is best for one?’ The rationality of egoism—the view that my strongest reason is always to advance my own well-being—was largely assumed. This posed a problem. Morality is naturally thought to concern the interests of others. So if egoism is correct, what reason do I have to be moral?

One obvious strategy to adopt in defense of morality is to claim that a person's well-being is in some sense constituted by their virtue, or the exercise of virtue, and this strategy was adopted in subtly different ways by the three greatest ancient philosophers, Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle. At one point in his writings, Plato appears to allow for the rationality of moral self-sacrifice: the philosophers in his famous ‘cave’ analogy in the Republic (519-20) are required by morality to desist from contemplation of the sun outside the cave and to descend once again into the cave to govern their fellow citizens. In the voluminous works of Aristotle, however, there is no recommendation of sacrifice. Aristotle believed that he could defend the virtuous choice as always being in the interest of the individual. Note, however, that he need not be described as an egoist in a strong sense—as someone who believes that our only reasons for action are grounded in our own well-being. For him, virtue both tends to advance the good of others, and (at least when acted on) advances our own good. So Aristotle might well have allowed that the well-being of others grounds reasons for me to act. But these reasons will never come into conflict with reasons grounded in my own individual well-being.

His primary argument is his notorious and perfectionist ‘function argument’, according to which the good for some being is to be identified through attention to its ‘function’ or characteristic activity. The characteristic activity of human beings is to exercise reason, and the good will lie in exercising reason well—that is, in accordance with the virtues. This argument, which is stated by Aristotle very briefly and relies on assumptions from elsewhere in his philosophy and indeed that of Plato, appears to conflate the two ideas of what is good for a person, and what is morally good. I may agree that a ‘good’ example of humanity will be virtuous, but deny that this person is doing what is best for them. Rather, I may
insist, reason requires one to advance one's own good, and this good consists in, for example, pleasure, power, or honor. But much of Aristotle's Nicomachean Ethics is taken up with portraits of the life of the virtuous and the vicious, which supply independent support for the claim that well-being is constituted by virtue. In particular, it is worth noting the emphasis placed by Aristotle on the value to a person of ‘nobility’ (to kalong), a quasi-aesthetic value which those sensitive to such qualities might not implausibly see as a constituent of well-being of more worth than any other. In this respect, the good of virtue is, in the Kantian sense, ‘unconditional’. Yet, for Aristotle, virtue or the ‘good will’ is not only morally good, but good for the individual.

Well-being is difficult to define but it is even harder to measure. In general, wellbeing measures can be classified into two broad categories: objective and subjective measures. The first category measures wellbeing through certain observable facts such as economic, social and environmental statistics. People’s wellbeing is assessed indirectly using cardinal measures. On the other hand, subjective measures of wellbeing capture people’s feelings or real experience in a direct way, assessing wellbeing through ordinal measures.

Traditionally, wellbeing has been identified with a single objective dimension: material wellbeing measured by income or GDP. It then expanded to such measures as income per capita and poverty. The link between income and wellbeing rests on the assumption that income allows increases in consumption and consumption increases utility. Yet there is disagreement on how increases in consumption represent improvements in wellbeing. Moreover, GDP has its measurement flaws and does not capture all the aspects of human life. Thus, instead of relying on a single dimension, wellbeing measurements have progressed to encompass broader dimensions such as social and environmental aspects, and human rights. It is now widely accepted that the concept of wellbeing is multidimensional: encompassing all aspects of human life.

According to Keyes & Lopez, subjective descriptive of emotional well-being and objective descriptions of psychological and social well-being provide useful framework for conceptualizing human functioning. Emotional well-being consists of perceptions of avowed happiness and satisfaction with life, along with the balance of positive and negative effects. This threefold structure of emotional well-being consists of life satisfaction, positive effect, and the absence of
negative effect. It has been confirmed in numerous studies (e.g., Bryant & Veroff, 1982; Lucas, Diener, & Suh, 1996; Shmotkin, 1998). According to Ryff (1989) self-acceptance, personal growth, purpose in life, environmental mastery, autonomy, and positive relations with others are the six dimensions of positive functioning. These components of psychological well-being are independent even though they are correlated with well-being. Ryff and Keyes (1999) conducted an analysis of the six-part well-being model and found that this multi-dimensional model was a superior fit over a single-factor model of well-being. Keyes (1998) proposed that dimensions of coherence, integration, actualization, contribution, and acceptance are the critical components of social well-being. According to Keyes (1998), just as clinicians categorize the social challenges that are evident in an individual's life, so they assess the social dimensions of well-being. Keyes (Keyes & Lopez, 2002) also suggested that “complete mental health” can be conceptualized via combinations of high levels of emotional well-being, psychological and social well-being as well as the absence of recent mental illness. This complete state model suggests that combined mental health and mental illness symptoms may be ever-changing resulting in fluctuations in states of overall well-being ranging from complete mental illness to complete mental health. Individuals with high levels of well-being are characterized as flourishing whereas those with no mental illness but low levels of well-being are called languishing. In this model conceptualization and treatment are well connected as intervention techniques aimed at enhancing components of well-being can enhance overall subjective well-being.

Broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions (Fredrickson, 1998, 2001) explains a host of impressive long-range benefits of positive emotions and provides the rationale for the prediction that positive emotions are active ingredients in the observed religion–health–well being link. Positive emotions are adaptive and essential experiences, the theory holds, because they both broaden people’s momentary thought–action repertoire and build their enduring personal resources. They broaden people’s momentary thought–action repertoires, widening the array of the thoughts and actions that come to mind. Joy, for instance, creates the urge to play, push the limits, and be creative. Interest, a phenomenological distinct positive emotion, creates the urge to explore, take in new information and experiences, and expand the self in the
process. Contentment, a third distinct positive emotion, creates the urge to take time to savor current life circumstances and integrate these circumstances into new views of self and of the world. Gratitude, a fourth distinct positive emotion, creates the urge to repay kindness creatively. These various thought–action tendencies—to play, to explore, to savor and integrate, and to repay kindness—each represent ways that positive emotions broaden habitual modes of thinking or acting. In general terms, then, positive emotions appear to “enlarge” the cognitive context an effect recently linked to increases in brain dopamine levels. Whereas the narrowed mindsets of negative emotions carry direct and immediate adaptive benefits in situations that threaten survival, the broadened mindsets of positive emotions are beneficial in other ways. Specifically, these broadened mindsets carry indirect and long-term adaptive benefits because broadening builds enduring personal resources.

1.4.4 Important Factors of Psychological Well-Being

1. **Love and marriage** Romantic relation will be anxiety lovable persons think that love is a component of psychological well-being. Many persons complained about their marriage life. Even the beginning pair of their marriage life is key factor of psychological well-being. Married people have Highest satisfaction than divorce and unmarried people. It is so difficult to analyze this relationship. Which one is psychological well-being and Marriage life? It may be possible that psychological well-being is given More satisfaction to marriage life than marriage life is Given satisfaction to psychological well-being and it may Be possible that those people who have more psychological Well-being, they could keep good marriage relationship. And they stable too but some unhappy people faced many difficult situations to find out good life partner and also maintain their relationship.

2. **Personality.** Psychological well-being of persons is depended on event and incidents which are related with past situation. (Dienr And lucas, 1999) some people are created for possessed of Psychological well-being. Some people live their life between Grateful and fruitless. Many events of person’s live are also affected to psychological well-being. Researcher reached that person who winner of lottery and that person who face the accident and became handcuffed, both of those persons Are not more effected to psychological
well-being. (Stickman …..1978) some researcher was getting surprise that happiness and horrible events are not affected to Psychological well-being. As dramatize real evidence (proof) Indicated that psychological well-being is not depending on external factor but internal factor. Psychological well-being could not achieve by getting good Home promotion on job. But it achieve by person’s attitude towards their life.

3. **Works**

many people complain about their professional work are never thinking that work is a source of psychological well-Being. But love and marriage is more important than work in psychological well-being. Professional satisfaction is corrected with general psychological well-being. (War, 1999) study that unemployment is more destructive effect on individual psychological well-being. (Argyle, 1999) it is so difficult to say that work satisfaction shall be brought psychological well-being or psychological well-being shall be brought work satisfaction. But proud that both are centralize with work relation.

**Somewhat important factors of personal well being**

Researcher indicates that fouler factors are related with emotion of psychological well-being; their name like Health, social activity, religion & culture.

**Health**

Hood physical health is mast importance components for Psychological well-being. But people are habitual with their Health problems. Research is mention that those people who have serious physical disease are not as unhappy as are think. (Myers, 1992) moreover freedman (1978) explains that good health is not an arisen psychological well-being itself; because people accept good health. Researches shoaled average relations between emotion of psychological well-being and good health.

**Social activity**

Human being is social animal internal individual relationship would be contributing in psychological well-being. Those People who are happy with their friends circle and activate with social activity, only they have average Psychological Well-being. Other side those people who are alone, they are
unhappy. They think that no one is hearing for decreasing their sadness and taken care.

**Religion**

There is middle level of relation between religious & emotion of psychological well-being. But many research indicated that theistic have more psychological well-being than atheistic because of their faith in religion. Researchers are not accurate believe that how to effect religion on psychological well-being, given some intention Related with it and say that religion is given knowledge to People about objective of life and meaningful life. Only By religion, people can endure stroke. They also could accept their perishable life and their death.

**Culture**

Researcher point out their many cultural factors is related with psychological well-being. (Diener, Diener and Diener: sunset all 1998) There is cultural diversity in group hood normality which is Opposite with individual hood is given more importance to Own objectives than group objectives. In opposite side group hood is given most importance to group objectives than Personal objectives. They give importance to their family, Caste, social class, general, work group etc. And also give more importance to co-operation, interaction and own activity which is effect on group than individual Hood. (Kwan, bond and singelis 1997) by these important Factors, group hood considered to harmony of relationship as decisional components of psychological harmony. Researcher suggest that individual hood has more psychological well-being than group hood (cultural People)

**Factors which are not very important for Personal well being**

We discuss about personal difference in psychological Wall-being, from them many components are not corrected with psychological well-being. General people believe that some components are most corrected with it but in real, these components are not corrected with psychological Well-being.
Money

There is less correlation between person’s income and Psychological well-being. (Myers and Diener, 1995) One study was shown that there are 0.12 correlation rates Between American public’s income and psychological well-Being. We should accept that people could be become Unhappy because of their excessive poverty. But if people will be going to below poverty line, its co-relation rate could

Be down. We see that higher people have more psychological well-being than middle level people these eras People wants to use more money that why the money problem is become very serious problem. And so they will earn more and more even they fill its shortage.

“Many people believe that money is our god. Those people who have income in six digits, they also complain about Money shortage”

Age

There is not important correlation between age and psychological well-being. There is 1% contribution of Age factored in personal difference. In this factor, if their age will be increased & increased, more changes should be come. If age will be increased & increased, professional work should be become less important. As well as increased their health important. But people’s psychological well-Being level is on average level.

Gender

Females have more dejected than males. On this manner Are can say that female has less psychological well-being than male. Accordingly age factor Gender is also contribute only 1%

Intelligence

Intelligence is most important characteristic in mordent era. But researchers had not found its correlation rate between Intelligence and psychological well-being. Educational achievement should not be having relation with life satisfaction directly.
Parenthood

Children are known as sources of enjoyment & satisfaction for parents. But some time children are become reason of Problems & become headache too. Those people who have Children, they have more problems which are related with their marriage and tension than those people who have no Children, but happy life. That’s wyes parent might faced difficulties. Normally preservation should be balanced in Right & wrong work. We cannot say carly those people who have children, have less or more psychological being. Than People who have no children.

Physical attraction

Attractive persons have higher benefits than unattractive Persons. In west people they are giving more important than others. Attractive people have more psychological well-being. Than an attractive people even are can say there is less relationship between attraction & psychological well-being.

Community

Freedman asked to people where do you want to live? Those people answered that they want to live in peaceful Atmosphere and rural area. We found that psychological well-being has relationship with community.

We found that Equal level of relationship (Which is related with PWB) between urban; rural and semi-urban area.

Factors for psychological well-being

Accordingly researchers many researchers had research for identifying decisive factors for psychological well-being & getting some information about those factors which are focus on psychological well-Being. These factors are divided into three parts.

Mere and Johodu (1989) mention some factors with consideration psychological Well-being.

Personal

Person’s nature is made by many characters. These characters shall be as sign for psychological well-being but only that Time when each & every characters are organized and work as one cell. According to airport, from this
organization each & every persons create one separate type of thinking way will be high them those people will have best psychological Well-being.

**Self-manifestation**

Persons need self manifestation when they fulfilled their Ordinary needs. If persons are not behaved for it, then their psychological well-being is so weak.

1. Some attitude towards themselves General persons have healthy attitude toward themselves. If persons have a character to accept the reality with consideration their strength and limitation, their psychological well-being is best. These persons have self- Respect & self esteem. So they keep some expectation According to their opacity. In the end their possibilities of future result are so low and thus they can get psychological satisfaction; which is increased to psychological well-being.

2. Personal freedom if personal shall be self dependence. Take some decision by Own way solve that problems which are related with social Environment, then those persons have high psychological Well-being. This type’s person can solve each & every types of problems. If some persons want to get suggestion, views from others in very small mater and followed them, then their psychological well-being will be become low.

3. Person’s method to identify Reality this components is most important for psychological well-Being. Persons need bias factor clearness (which is pure) Are known as good identification. In this persons can understand this deferens between expectation and realities (originality)

4. Control and mastery on environment generally this control and mastery power is important Character for psychological well-being. Getting love power, Giving love power, capacity to solve problems and maintaining interpersonal relationship power, all these power are included in it.

**Social factors**

Many researchers tried to explain this factor. This is Give below:

1. Family life According to cowman Family life shall be opened the door for social relationship which is desirable and stable? By this, we can reduce to Alones. There are many needs to family members as this Area they can satisfy with their needs. If they satisfied their need, then persons can
increased their psychological well-being. And can also find out their problems easily.

2. Health social relation Persons could developed their healthy relationship with others member by interacting process, this is necessary for psychological well-being. Persons should have power to identified to good or bad Parts of others persons, evolution power, how to expected to behave from others; How to behave with others. How to speak; How to maintain the relationship. Those persons who have these all powers and they can Think on them healthy way only those persons have Psychological well-being.

3. Rent There is not relationship with rent brother; if your relationship shall be good. Co-operate to one another Love and close emotional relation, and then you can develop your psychological well-being.

4. Appropriate professional atmosphere only those persons get psychological satisfaction, who Have business which is based on their knowledge level. Perfectness power and qualified way. Every persons Want good job. If persons can't get opportunities to Show their power or its work shall be out of their Capacity then those people shall be collapse. Moreover Residential area friend's co-operation.

   Work atmosphere & work nature. All these factors are affected on psychological well-being.

**Personal factors**

Generally many psychologists believe that inheritance. Physical health, knowledge etc. factors should be effected by psychological well-being. For example, deficiencies inheritance should be provided fertilize atmosphere for diseases of physical & psychological and arisen favorable Effect for disharmony of person.

**Continuously**

If people have physical sickness for long time, then they cannot maintain Psychological well-being. It is fact that mentally retarded Persons have low level of psychological well-being.
Suggestions
Barnhart gave some suggestion for psychological well-being in practical psychology book. It's as below.

1. Useful activities do in life by them. Reduce bear and worry.
2. Live comfortable life. Tank it easy to each & every movement.
3. Live in present time.
4. Always do self-observation in life take care those factors

Which are disturbance to your life?
1. Keep habit to bring intelligible solution way for solving your workable & hard problems in your life.
2. Aries interest in each & every work and game.
3. Never postponed any work, quick take some decision for it.
5. Think about result of your decision which was taken in past and learn something.
6. Always keep high goal, noble thought & noble ideal.
7. Live with other people and take interest in others person’s problems.
8. Psychological well-being is depended on physical health so that we have to care our physical health.

Dimension
Much result which is related with psychological well-being, Is indicated by Bhogle & given below some result and meaning of psychological well-being.

1. **Meaning lessens**: It indicated that person’s alones and unpleasant toward their life.
2. **Somatic symptoms**: It mentions that situation which is related with physical Diseases and mental burden.
3. **Self-esteem**: It mentions that self ability to do some work and self-views.
4. **Positive effect**: It point out that pleasant and proud. Pleasant is for achieving something in life and proud is for work which is done by one?
5. **Daily activities**: It mention that can people achieve pleasant from their work which is done regularly in their life. As well as are people able to take some decisions in their life or not?

6. **Life satisfaction**: It guidance that toward their life and how much present time is important for them.

7. **Suicidal ideas**: It informed that did they think about their suicide or not and do some ideas come in their mind about suicide or not?

8. **Personal control**: It gives information that people who face some situation in entire life for that they think, they are responsible for it or their luck is responsible for it.

9. **Social dependence**: It suggests that people are satisfied with their goals which are achieved by themselves.

10. **Tension**: It indicated that persons who have confusion situations or not and have they anger nature irritable nature?

11. **Wellness**: It gives information about their physical health and how they handle their situation?

12. **General Affiance**: It hints that will they need some Medicine for their physical and power.

13. **Satisfaction**: It mention that people are satisfied with entire their life marriage life, health.

**1.5 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY**

There have been several studies in the past that have paying attention on the teacher’s adjustment, well being and stress. There are three dimensions taken together in the research that is government school, private school, experiences, and gender.

However, a small number of studies in the recent history have thrown light on the subject being taught, as playing an essential role of teachers in their life’s well being, adjustment and stress level measurement. The subjects taught in this study have been divided into four dimensions that are male, female, married and unmarried teachers.

The fundamental assumption is that, there is teacher’s adjustment, stress level and well being may be differ person to person but may be their stress level high or low, same as for their well being and adjustment. There is second
assumption is that government school teachers adjustment, stress and well being may be high in compare to private school teacher. There is third assumption is that there may be those teachers adjustment, well being and stress level is low who has more than 15 years experience in compare to those who don’t have more than 15 years work experiences. There is forth assumption is that female have more problem in adjustment, stress and in well being in compare to male.