Introduction
In the past years “Stress” has become a catchword in the contemporary literature. It has become fashion these days to speak of stress. Stress has become a multidisciplinary area of research. Whether it is the area of health clinical organizational behaviour or human resource management researches on stress is every common. Vast body of literature is available on how stress can have adverse effect on the performance and achievement of students. Besides, research have also established relationship of stress with subjective/psychological well-being of students. It has been found that stress is directly related to the life satisfaction and mental health of the students.

In addition to stress there is another variable which is directly linked with the performance of the college goers is institutional or organizational climate. The organizational or institutional climate has a very significant note to play so far as the performance is concerned. Several findings have shown direct relationship of the organizational climate with that of industrial worker. Not only in industrial and business setting the institutional climate is crucial for the well-being of workers, but also in educational institutions the very set up of the organization is related to the performance and well-being of the students.

In view of this the present attempt is to establish the relationship of perceived sources of stress and institutional climate in relation to the psychological well-being and performance of the college and university students.
Stress is one of the most common and frequently used words in our lives today. It implies pressure, tension or worry resulting from problems and difficulties one comes across in his life.

The stress experienced by man today must be different from that experienced in the past, and the stress experienced by a member of a developed industrial society is different from that experienced by a member of a developing and predominantly rural society. Perhaps in the past men were mainly concerned with their physical survival; they were always worried about their next meal, about shelter, and about protection from wild animals. Their most pressing wants were basic physical needs. In some societies this changed with development, and today, for some, physical needs are no longer a day-to-day concern. Members of the industrialized societies now worry more about problems of psychosocial nature, problems which are perhaps higher in the hierarchy of their needs.

Today man lives longer and enjoys a relatively high standard of living. But a high standard of living does not necessarily guarantee a better quality of life. A surfeit of luxuries can be as harmful as a shortage of necessities.

Stress is a problem for all types of society. Life is full of stressors that produce threats to our well-being. Health psychologists believe that today's daily life involves perceiving a series of repeated sequences of multiplicities of threats, finding ways and means of coping with them, and ultimately adapting to them, with greater or lesser success (Gatchel & Baum, 1983). Stress is the process by which events threaten or challenge an individual's ability to deal
adequately with a situation. The stress response of the body is somewhat like an aeroplane that is readying itself for the take off. Virtually the entire body machinery of a person (e.g. the heart and blood vessels, the immune system, the lungs, the digestive system, the sensory organs and brain) gets automatically modified to meet the perceived danger.

Stress is what you feel when you react to pressure from others or from yourself. Pressure can come from anywhere, including school, work, activities, friends and family members. Stress comes in many forms and to everyone.

The term “stress” has originated from Latin language and the concept of stress was first introduced in the life sciences by Hans Selye in 1936. He is recognized internationally as the father of stress theory. Dr Selye developed his concept of stress while studying medicine in Prague. In 1926, as a second year medical student, he noted that the patients he examined during the rounds all had a strikingly similar appearance: they were weak, tired, listless and apathetic, often they had muscle and weight loss. They even had similar facial expressions which indicated that they were ill. This set his inquisitive mind off in a totally different direction, searching for the common elements that affected all of those patients instead of focusing on the differences. This eventually led him to identify the stress reaction as an underlying cause or major contributing factor to most illnesses.

Selye’s theories were built on the earlier work of a noted Harvard physiologist named Dr. Walter Cannon who had, at the beginning of the century, identified and named the “fight or flight response”, which is the
body’s response to a threat or danger. But whereas Cannon saw the “fight or flight” syndrome as a positive mechanism that the body uses to protect itself, Selye realized the hugely important fact that if the stress reaction goes on for too long, it causes damage to the body and leads to illness. Another of Selye’s enduring legacies is that he borrowed the word “stress” from the field of engineering (where it refers to external mechanical forces, strains and tensions) to describe this reaction in the body. Walter Cannon had earlier introduced the term “stress” to medicine but it was certainly Selye who popularized it.

Another of Selye’s unique and important findings was that the stress response in the body was the same irrespective of the cause or source of stress. He called these sources “stressors”.

Stress in engineering is known as ‘the ratio of the internal force brought into play when a substance is distorted to the area over which the force acts’ (Hinkle, 1973). In common parlance, however, the terms ‘stress’ and ‘strain’ are used synonymously in a non-scientific manner. The popularity of this concept has dwindled in the physiological field where it was first introduced, but the use of stress terminology continues to flourish in the psychological and social sciences. During the last 30 years the term stress has come to be widely used in relation to work organizations (Agarwala, Malhan and Singh, 1979).

The concept of stress in the modern sense is rarely found in the traditional texts of Indian culture and traditions, such as Carak Samhita, Patanjali’s Yogasutras and Bhagwad Gita. However, a number of concepts developed by ancient Indian scholars relate to or appear similar to the
phenomenon of stress. Some of these, for example, are ‘dukha’ (pain, misery or suffering), ‘klesa’ (afflictions), ‘kama or trisna’ (desires).

Rao (1983) very succinctly traced the origin of stress in Indian thought. Going back to the samkhya and yoga systems, he has pointed out that there are two Sanskrit words, ‘klesa’ and ‘dukha’ which approximate stress. Physiological stresses are born out of imbalances between the three fundamental physiologic constituents, namely, ‘vata’, ‘pitta’ and ‘kaph’.

There are many different definitions of stress, which make its study difficult. The term has different meanings for researchers in various disciplines. The biologists refer to things such as heat, cold and inadequate food supply as being sources of stress. Human biologists add to this microbial infection and taking of toxic substances. Social scientists, on their part, are more concerned about people’s interaction with their environment and the resulting emotional disturbance that often accompanies it. (Hinkle, 1987). The exact concept of ‘stress’ has become elusive because of its vague definitions.

Most researchers have not defined stress before delving into its endocrinological, physiological and psychological effects. Some have skirted the issue by defining stress empirically by its certain effects. This approach has left the impression that stress can be anything to anyone and that it can contribute virtually to any disease. (Goldstein, 1995).

“Stress, in addition to being itself, and the result of itself, is also the cause of itself”. (Ellis & Thompsom 1983).
Somewhere between the stressor and its effects lies the subjective, phenomenological experience of stress itself—Such an experience lies outside the realm of objective inquiry. Accordingly, behaviours classified as stress effects can also be categorized as the effects of anxiety, the effects of conflict, etc. Insofar as expression of emotion, performance deterioration or symptom manifestations are concerned, stress is interchangeable with any of these other concepts. (Breznitz & Goldberger, 1982)

Stress has sometimes been described as an increase in catecholamine levels, a change in adrenal weight, or as a score on a life event scale or subjective reaction index. (Steinberg & Ritzmann, 1990).

Stress is 'perception'. It is the demands that are imposed upon us because there are too many alternatives. Stress is caused by being conscientious and hardworking (Selye, 1979). There is general agreement that stress refers to a response of the organism to a noxious or threatening condition (Pearlin, 1982).

Stress is a familiar concept to us since it is an inescapable part of life. We feel we know what stress is because we experience it in its various forms in everyday life. We recognize it when we are faced with the prospect of having to pay an overdue bill, have an argument with another motorist, become frustrated with the boss, anticipate surgery at the dentist, or await a driving test. We speak of stress in general terms because it incorporates so many areas of our lives (Dobson, 1983).
Stress may be viewed as the body’s response to any real or imagined event perceived as requiring some adaptive response and/or producing strain (Eliot, 1988).

Stress can be considered as any factor, acting internally or externally, that makes it difficult for one to adapt to and also induces increased effort on the part of the person concerned to maintain a state of equilibrium both internally and with the external environment. (Humphrey, 1992)

The process of coping with life’s pressures and problems and the negative feelings generated by them also generate stress (Thompson, Murphy & Stradling, 1994). Stress is caused by a multitude of demands (stressors), such as an inadequate proportion of balance between what we need and what we are capable of, and what our environment offers us and also what it demands of us (Levi, 1996).

Stress is external pressure and tension is the resulting the internal pressure (Saunders, 1997).

We have all had experiences – triggered by any number of situations – where our bodies go into a temporary state of “high alert”. This is what the stress reaction is meant to do; turn on for short periods of time in situations of real or anticipated danger and then turn off when the danger has passed.

Unfortunately in today’s world that is not what happens. Our stress reactions are activated far too often and by situations that are not physically dangerous or life threatening: rush hour traffic, rude customers, being put on
hold, computers that misbehave just when you have almost finished a document.

We also react to ongoing situations: heavy workloads, deadlines, job insecurity, financial worries and relationship problems. The result is that we switch on our stress reactions much more often and for much longer periods of time than nature originally intended. The resulting wear and tear on our bodies are not only unpleasant, but also unhealthy. We inherited the stress reaction from our caveman ancestors and, because of its protective nature, it was passed down genetically through the millennia (Darwinism in Action). Think of a caveman confronting a wild animal. In an instant, our forebear had to mobilize enough energy to either fight or run away from the threat to his physical safety. This is the classic “fight or flight response”, mediated by adrenaline, cortisol, and other stress hormones that prompted our predecessor to either defend himself or flee.

This is the same reaction we experience today – and, while it is crucial in a real crisis, it is inappropriate for our day-to-day experiences. Not only that most of our stressors are not life-threatening but also fighting or running away from them are not exactly acceptable responses to most of them.

Dr. Hans Selye defined stress as, “the non-specific response of the body to any demand made upon it.” The demand can be a threat, a challenge or any kind of change that requires the body to adapt.

“Firstly, the stress reaction is in your body, not in the situation. The stress reaction is what happens in your
body in response to those situations. Secondly, the stress reaction is neither good nor bad in itself. It depends on the circumstances”.

Hans Selye coined new words for these. He called good stress, “eustress” (from the Greek root, “eu” which means “well”). Stress is good when it protects us in times of danger or helps us to adapt in times of change. It is inevitable and necessary for survival. But it serves us in other ways as well. It is the good stress that helps us study for exams or work toward a deadline. It is what the athletes rely on to perform well in competition and what helps the actors to give a brilliant performance on the stage. It motivates and stimulates us in our work, inducing us to be productive and creative.

Stress becomes a problem (“bad stress”), when there is too much of it when it lasts for too long, or when it comes too often. This is when stress starts to create unpleasant symptoms and eventual damage to the body. Hans Selye called it “distress”. Technically, when we speak about negative stress, we should use the word, “distress” but people generally consider “stress” as bad stress only although negative events result in greater detrimental effects than positive ones. (Sarason et al., 1978).

Stress means different things to different people. To a mountaineer it is the challenge of pushing physical resources to the limit by striving to achieve a demanding goal. To the homeward bound motorist it can be the hassles of heavy traffic and obnoxious exhaust fumes. To a student it can be the
examination pressure. We all experience stress from time to time. It is a normal, unavoidable part of life.

A stress-free existence is, just a pipe-dream, a mirage. Hans Selye has aptly commented: "Complete freedom from stress is death"! The pressures of modern living ensure that stress is always lurking in the background because we live in an imperfect and unpredictable world.

However, this phenomenon is not as simplistic as it sounds. Different individuals subjected to the same stressful event may react differently, with responses ranging from extreme to mild to nil.

Although the causes of stress are myriad, we could loosely categorize them under two headings: common and uncommon stressors. Common stressors comprise disease, academic stress (heightened during examinations), marital discord, separation or divorce, career stress, bereavement and unemployment. The uncommon ones include overcrowding, commutation, sleep deprivation, shifts (home, school, career), malnutrition, drug abuse, phobias, excessive exercise, noise pollution, et al.

It is not just adults who fall prey to stress. Modern lifestyles are exacting a toll on impressionable kids and unsuspecting teenagers too. In other words, a fairly large number of children has stress problems, related to studies and unrealistic parental expectations. And there are huge numbers of stressed teenagers. These are cases related to academics, relationships, parental expectations, drug and alcoholic abuse and even sexual experimentation that
backfires. Examination stress is phenomenally high, especially during the board examinations.

One can experience either external stressors or internal stressors. External stressors include adverse physical conditions (such as pain or hot or cold temperatures) or stressful psychological environments (such as poor working conditions or abusive relationships). Humans, as well as animals, are subject to external stressors.

Internal stressors can also be physical (infection, inflammation) or psychological. An example of an internal psychological stressor is intense worry about a harmful event that may or may not occur. As far as anyone can tell, internal psychological stressors are rare or absent in most animals except humans.

Stressors can also be defined as short-term (acute) or long-term (chronic) stressors.

Acute stress is the reaction to an immediate threat, commonly known as the fight or flight response. The threat can be any situation that is experienced, even subconsciously or falsely, as a danger. Common acute stressors include noise, over-crowding, isolation, hunger, danger, infection and an imagined threat or a remembered a unpleasant event.

Under most circumstances, once the acute threat has passed, the response becomes inactivated and levels of stress hormones return to normal state, a condition called the relaxation response.
Frequently, however, modern life poses on-going stressful situations that are not short-lived and the urge to act (to fight or to flee) remains suppressed. Stress, then, becomes chronic. Common chronic stressors include continuous or highly taxing work, long term relationship problems, loneliness, and persistent financial worries.

Frustration caused by sexual deprivation, social or peer pressure to conform, and the struggle for professional advancement all cause stress. It was Sigmund Freud (1856-1939) who pointed out that if psychic energy is unable to meet its original objective, it fixes upon an alternative. This impulse leads to sublimation. This can also lead to stress. While the individual adapts to the situation, if pressures become unbearable or persistent, he may enter a state of chronic stress. The physiological symptoms become more pronounced, demanding immediate attention and help. Common symptoms are chronic exhaustion, physical illness, anger and depression. A sense of fatigue and exhaustion over-whelms the individual concerned. When these feelings and physiological symptoms persist over a period of time, the individual enters the stage of crisis. One feels oppressed, becomes highly pessimistic and develops self doubting tendency. In such a situation one also develops an ‘escape mentality’. Peptic ulcers, tension headaches, chronic backaches, high blood pressure and sleeping problems are some of the prominent symptoms that characterize this stage. They may become acute in course of time.

A poor diet is a major source of stress. The high and increasing incidence of ‘digestive problems’ amply show that diet is a significant
determinant of our health. Experts in the field of nutrition agree that bad dietary habits can create constant stress. This is due to the fact that awareness about the importance of nutrition has declined in today’s society.

Researchers have also shown that there are two complementary dietary processes that go on in the human body — nourishing and cleansing. If we do not regulate them with proper dietary habits, the body gradually builds up toxins which are the basis for many mental and physical problems. Therefore, we must regulate the ‘what’, ‘when’ and ‘how’ of our diet in order to prevent stress caused by unhealthy dietary habits. In Indian medicine, particularly in Ayurveda, much emphasis has been placed on the influence of diet on the body as well as on the mind. The mind has to play a great role in digestion of food and metabolism. The bilateral approach, i.e., influence of diet or nutrition on the psyche and, in turn, of the psyche on diet, has a well established rational basis. A series of new researches in this area has shown that malnutrition is the legitimate cause of nutritional stress which produces several diseases, such as, kwashiorkor and marasmus. It also influences the biochemical composition of the developing brain, viz. levels of various components like DNA, RNA, protein and lipid which vary with increased nutritional stress (i.e., malnutrition).

Exposure to the conditions of environmental stress, such as extreme cold (or, cold stress) is known to change the concentration of body fluids, haematology, stress hormones, cortisol and norepinephrine. Ramasarma et al. (1977), in their attempt to study enzyme changes through exposure to cold,
found three different effects of increased norepinephrine on hepatic enzyme systems. They concluded that the innervated liver tissue responded to increased norepinephrine under stress conditions by modifying the concentration of enzymes in cytosol and organelles. In this process, the receptors on the cell membrane and some cytosolic components were, also affected, involved implicated. Deb (1977) experimented on toads. He studied the effect of cold stress on changes in physiological adjustments in their body fluids and haematology. He observed a notable change, i.e., an increase in plasma volume but a reduction both in total body water and RBC count. Exposure to cold caused a reduction in total adrenal lipids and phospholipids.

Infact, it is the normal function of the brain to bring about thermoregulation at thermoneural ambient temperatures. When the individual is exposed to an excessive degree of cold, cold stress results which leads to a breakdown of normal thermoregulatory processes without an irreversible damage to brain functions in different grades of hypothermia. Chinna (1977) studied the changes in the brain regulatory mechanism in man resulting from acute exposure to cold. The study revealed considerable variation of neural responses in human subjects depending upon the background of their previous exposure and training to bear cold stress. Also, responses of the different parts of the brain at different body temperatures varied depending upon whether the temperature was being raised or lowered in the subnormal temperature zone.

Udupa et al. (1977) studied surgical stress and its influence on certain body biochemicals in the case of human beings. The blood of each subject was
collected one day prior to surgery and on the fourth and tenth post-operative days. Similarly, twenty four hours urine samples of each subject were collected prior to surgery and daily up to the tenth post-operative day. The blood samples revealed that the levels of catecholamines on the fourth and tenth post-operative days did not differ much from the pre-operative counts. However, urinary catecholamines and choline excretions were markedly enhanced following the surgery. The nonadrenalin excretion was more marked than adrenalin. These observations are suggestive of enhanced sympatho-adreno-regulatory and adrenocortical activity during the early post-operative phase.

A considerable amount of industrial toxicants, synthetic chemicals and their residues which tend to change the chemical nature of our environment enter — everyday into the earth's atmosphere and aquatic environment. The stress due to such pollutants causes acute and long-term metabolic alterations in tissues.

Vishwanathan and Seth (1977) suggested that toxicant dust such as silica and particularly asbestos have an adverse biological effect on the lungs through interaction with its membrane. Second, dust of inhaled mangenesium dioxide (MnO₂) gets transported to the brain where it rests and produces neurological symptoms resembling Parkinsonism. Third, manganese poisoning also alters the level of neurotransmitters and changes the activities of mitochondria and lysosomal enzymes. Last, iron deficient animals accumulate more manganese and exhibit greater toxicity.
A review of these studies indicates that stress due to environmental and industrial chemicals causes acute and long-term metabolic alterations and mammalian tissues exhibit differential sensitivity. The presence of toxicants or their derivatives in the body may lead to long-term physiological/metabolic adaptations. It may be suggested that a detailed study of such metabolic adaptations in specific tissues will provide clues to the understanding of the molecular mechanism of toxicity. In addition, it may also help in developing diagnostic and prophylactic measures based on altered levels of enzymes and normal chemical constituents under environmental stress.

It is being increasingly recognized that stress is one of the components of every kind of disease and not just of those labelled as ‘psychosomatic’. In fact, researchers like Schmalo and Engel (1967), Holmes and Rahe (1967), Grant et al. (1974) have established this point beyond doubt that there exists a positive relationship between stressful life events and subsequent illnesses.

Shejwal (1984a) conducted a study on the college students of 16 to 22 years related to their respective stressful life experiences. The analysis revealed that 52% of the students reported stress experiences related to conflicts at home and with friends. Death of close ones was reported to be stressful by 47% while 23% experienced stress related to curricular activities, 18% experienced stress in relation to changes in financial status while 11% experienced stress in relation to plans for the future.

Investigating the impact of life stress on mental health, Kumari & Prakash (1986) observed a trend for life events to increase with age regardless
of the sex of the subject and for younger age groups to experience more psychological distress owing to it.

Agarwal and Naidu (1988) conducted a study on the impact of desirable and undesirable events on health of students. They endorsed the events they had experienced in the previous one year and rated them for the amount of distress and change involved. The correlation for undesirable events was higher than that for desirable and ambiguous events. It was also observed that distress was a more sensitive measure of stressfulness in comparison to change and undesirable events which significant predictors of strain.

In another study, Biswas et al. (1995) investigated the adjustment patterns, stressful life events and their relationship to psychological disturbances during the middle childhood period among eighteen psychologically disturbed and eighteen psychologically non-disturbed children (aged 8-11 years). All subjects completed a socio-demographic data sheet, an adjustment inventory and a stressful life events checklist. Findings of the study revealed that psychological disturbances, adjustment problems and stressful life events had a significant relationship with one another in the entire sample. It was also found that in comparison to the non-disturbed group, the disturbed children experienced more adjustment problems in the areas of health, school, self and home with higher number of stressful life events during the past one year.

The classroom is not a mere aggregate of pupils. The class is more than the sum of individual pupils. The class as a group is unique and has
characteristics or properties that go beyond the individual pupils who comprise the class. This simple idea is brought home to us from the nature of one's own body. We are composed of several living cells with different properties of their own. But as individuals we are not mere aggregate of the cells. Thus we are comprised of several sub-systems and we are also an organic system that is more than the systems that comprise us. The classroom thus is a system and each pupil and each teacher constitutes the sub-systems. The class as a unit has properties that are not the same as properties of the sub-systems. In the classroom we have interactions between the individual pupils and also between the pupils and the teacher. It is these interactions that have a significant meaning for the teacher. The same set of pupils with a different teacher may have different interactions. In order to understand the classroom interactions we must understand the role one is expected to perform; the role of the pupils and the role behaviour of other members of in the group. The teacher has a role to perform and his/her behaviour should be in keeping with his/her role. If the teachers behave differently from the role behaviour that is expected from them they may not be behaving normally. There is always a reference group with which the role behaviour is compared and judged to be appropriate or otherwise. The pupils learn in situations of the classroom in the context of group interaction. The pupils competence is judged in terms of the opinions of the members of the group. Thus, all judgements are relative but not absolute. The process of evaluating one's performance by comparison with other members of the group leads to competitive atmosphere. In certain societies
such as the United States of America this competitive atmosphere is promoted and much encouraged. In a fundamental society this is reflected by the socio-cultural factors of the society. Other societies may not value competition highly which would affect the classroom atmosphere differently. The teachers should grasp the basic fact that learning in the classroom is not independent of the influences of the class. This emphasizes the importance of classroom climate. If the class is made up of pupils who are hostile to one another the total atmosphere would be different from a classroom in which all the members are cooperative.

Students soon learn that the college setting presents a formidable challenge to successful performance. Its heavy academic demands in terms of course load, assignments and competition for grades together with the impersonal nature of so many of the large classes are relatively new and potent stressors to most of the entrants. The effects of these stressful circumstances are multiple and sometimes disastrous.

The problems that arise out of an individual's school experience can not and should not be ignored or minimized. No matter how well the school is organized, how excellent the curriculum, or how proficient the teaching personnel, problems will arise as individual students attempt to adjust to school life.

After a young person has been admitted to the college of his choice, he is confronted by problems that are closely connected with his achieving success, not only as a student but also as a member of the college group.
Efficient methods and conditions of study, compulsions of learning examination-passing techniques, value of curricular offering, participation in extra-classroom activities and the necessity of engaging in part-time work while attending college may all cause anxiety in the college student.

Equally perplexing to these young people may be the matters that concern their relationships with their teachers and schoolmates. How friendly should be their attitudes towards their teachers? What may they expect from their teachers and advisers? To what degree should they engage in the social activities of the school? To what extent should they form intimate relationships with fellow students?— These are some of the trying but vital issues that a college student has to deal with.

We must keep in mind that an adolescent brings to his college life a set of habit patterns and interests that have been developing gradually through his childhood and that have been and still are much influenced by his home relationships. Often a young person’s habitual attitude towards himself and other people may make his attempt to adjust to the college life very difficult.

Just as individuals have personalities, so too do the organizations. Organizations, like people can be characterized as, for example, rigid, friendly, warm, innovative or conservative. These traits, in turn, can then be used to predict attitudes and behaviours of the people within these organizations.

Just as tribal cultures have totems and taboos that dictate how each member will act towards fellow members and outsiders, in the same way organizations too have customs that govern their members’ behaviour. Just
what organizational culture is, how it has an impact on a member's attitudes and behaviour, where it comes from and whether it is manageable or not each one of them is of significance for a new-comer.

When people join an organization, they bring with them the values and beliefs that they have already acquired. Quite often, however, these values and beliefs are not sufficient to help them to succeed in the organization. They need to learn how that particular enterprise is run. The training imparted at the place of attempts to psychologically strip down the new recruits and then restructure their way of thinking.

An organization comprises five components: structure, culture, system, leadership behaviour and members' psychological needs. Interactions between these components result in the formation of organizational climate, that emphasizes the role of perception of organizational components as an intervening variable.

The origin of the concept of organizational climate as a mature and popular concept is about three and a half decade old. But the linkage of this concept is with the work of early theorist, Kurt Lewin, in mid 30s, of the last century. He for the first time, emphasized the impact of environmental factors on behaviour which was subsequently made amply evident in the research literature. He argued that while characterizing psychological field one has to consider the specific items such as particular goals, stimuli, social relations besides more general characteristics of the field as the atmosphere or the amount of freedom that is maintained all these characteristics of the field as a
whole are of paramount importance. Koffka (1935) in his works or attempted to differentiate between the geographical climate and behavioural environments. He viewed that the geographical environment consists of physical and social environment where as behavioural environment is as perceived by the person and the way he reacts to it. He argued that the behaviour of people could be understood more meaningfully if it was related to behavioural environment. Murray (1938) was of the view that the behaviour of a person cannot be correctly understood without reference to the environment because it is the interaction that takes place between him and his environment that shapes his behaviour. The organizational researchers in 1940s and 1950s were influenced by the sociological theorists so they focused on the structural aspects of the organization. The early researchers defined organizational structure as a characteristic of the organization and their measurement was primarily concerned with the physical characteristics of the organizations that the people noticed or observed. Another definition was proposed by Forehand and Gilmer (1964), who also adopted structuralists view and, hence, defined organizational climate as a set of characteristics that describe an organization and distinguish it from other organizations. According to them, they are relatively enduring and influence the behaviour of the people associated with the organization concerned.

Edgar Schein, who is probably most closely associated with the study of organizational culture, defines it as:
"A pattern of basic assumptions – invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration – that has worked well enough to be considered valuable and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems".

More recently, Joanne Martin has emphasized the differing perspectives of cultures in organizations. She observes:

"As individuals come into contact with organizations, they come into contact with dress norms, stories people tell about what goes on, the organisation’s formal rules and procedures, its formal codes of behaviour, rituals, tasks, pay systems, jargon, and manifestations of organizational culture".

However, she adds that there is another perspective of culture as well:

"When cultural members interpret the meanings of these manifestations, their perceptions, memories, beliefs, experiences, and values will vary, so the thus interpretations will differ – even of the same phenomenon. The patterns of configurations of these interpretations, and the ways they are enacted, constitute culture".

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Based on these characteristics, Campbell et al., defined organizational climate as an attribute specific to a particular organization that may be induced from the way that organization deals with its members and its environment.

Wallace (1970) defines culture as “those ways of behaviour or techniques of solving problems which, being more frequently and more closely approximated than other ways; (which) can be said to have high probability of use by individual members of society”. These very ‘ways’ and ‘techniques’ comprise intervening social and cultural variables in the stress-health relationship.

Likert (1967) emphasizes about intervening variables, which are nothing but climate variables. According to him, climate is a linkage between structural attributes of an organization and its effectiveness.

Culture consists of the customs, manners, values, beliefs, religious behaviours, social and intellectual characteristics of a society which mould an individual personality.

Litwin and Stringer (1968) defined organizational climate as a set of measurable properties of work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by the people who live and work in this environment and are assumed to influence their motivation and behaviour. They were of the view that organizational climate arouses certain motives of the people, like achievement, gaining power etc. and it can be categorized as per the motives and can be measured in terms of certain dimensions responsible for arousing these motives.
Human beings operate or function within the frame of a society and culture alone would sound as too simplistic to make any statement about socio-cultural effects on human behaviour. They are universal in beliefs, attitudes, values, motivations, cognitions, personality and, for that matter, the entire spectrum of behaviour of individuals. They have their origin in an individual’s need to live in groups for his survival and these groups develop ways of adaptation appropriate to environmental demands which get stabilized over time. This being a continuous and dynamic process, the ‘personality’ of every ‘culture’ keeps changing with time and changes if the group decides to migrate to a new place. Just as for a psychologist the terms society and culture are abstractions, it is possible to look at the individual also as an abstraction rather than a concrete reality for the simple reason that he shares with others common biological structures, common psychological, social and cultural entities of behaviour. It is this perspective that brings in the role of cultural variables in stress and illness.

According to Taguiri (1968) organizational climate refers to quality of the members of the organization and can be described in terms of values or the meanings of a particular set of characteristics of the environment.

Baumgartel (1971) described organizational climate as a product of leadership practices, communication patterns, and enduring systematic characteristics of the working relationships between the people and any division or section of a particular organization.
Pane (1971) suggested that organizational climate may best be described as moral concept reflecting the content and strength of the prevalent values, norms, attitudes, feeling and behaviour of the members of the social system.

Schneider and Hall (1972) defined organizational climate as perceptual as well as individual attributes. They emphasized climate as a summary of global perceptions held by the individuals about their organizational environment. The summary perceptions reflect on interaction between personal and organizational characteristics. Climate in this approach is considered as intervening variables because it is caused by discrete experience of both the organization and the individual, which in turn causes the latter’s behaviour.

Pritchard and Kararick (1973) observed that some dimensions of organizational climate moderate the individual’s characteristics performance and satisfaction relationships.

According to Hellriegel and Slocum (1974) climate is a set of organization sub-system attributes that may be inferred from the way an organization or any of its sub-system deals with its members. For example specific situational attributes such as unstructured role prescriptions, unclear reward contingencies, and non-directive leadership might be transformed into a set of situational influences described as conflicting and ambiguous climate. These specific situational attributes result in specific climate characteristics, described as considerations warmth supports etc.

Schneider (1975) defined climate as a set of macro-perceptions derived from micro-perceptions of specific events, conditions, and experiences in the
psychological process of abstraction and concept formation. Thus, he stressed
that climate should be considered as an area of research, rather than as a
construct with a particular set of dimensions.

According to James et al. (1976) organizational climate refers to the
individuals cognitive description of the situation. It involves a psychological
processing of specific perception into more abstract depiction of
psychologically meaningful influences in the situation, or that tends to be more
closely related to the situational characteristics that have relatively direct and
immediately ties to the individual experience. Moreover, it is multi­
dimensional with a central core of dimensions that apply across a variety of
situations. Thus, they prefer to call organizational climate as psychological
climate.

Pareek (1988) gave very comprehensive definition of organizational
climate. According to him an organization has structures, systems, norms,
value, and traditions, culture, leader’s behaviour and psychological needs of its
members which interact with one another and create a situation that can arouse
various motives in various degrees. The people associated with the
organization then develop a behabviour that is related to these motives. We call
such a psychological climate of an organization as motivational climate.

By definition, culture is “that complex whole which includes knowledge
belief, art, morals, law, custom and any other capability and habit acquired by a
person as a member of society” (Tylor 1871, cited in Helman, 1984). Culture
determines how an individual views his world and how he behaves in it in
relation to other persons, natural and physical environment as well as supernatural forces. Management of the misfortunes is a part of cultural training and there are institutionalized ways of dealing with stresses and sufferings of various sorts.

Most of the concepts which involve society and culture are necessarily defined by the given society and culture. Hence, culture-specific definitions are found of health, illness, abnormality and normality. For instance, while it is a matter of great pride and prestige to have an increasing number of skulls strung around one’s neck in a hunting community it is deemed as a criminal act in a civilized society. Even in matters related to the diagnosis of psychiatric or counseling cases it is equally necessary to consider the client’s socio-cultural background as well as that of the psychiatrist or counsellor himself.

Since the achievement of organizational goals much depend on healthy and conducive organizational climate; the psychologists, organizational behaviour people and management experts always try to improve it by promoting better relationship among the members of an organization. This improved relationship results in improved motivation, morale, satisfaction and performance. If its members do not get support from their seniors or they become dissatisfied then they may switch over to some other organization.

Development of a congenial organizational climate is a long term process and it should be protected by the management otherwise it may be ruined and, consequently, organizational goals may also be hampered. A sound organizational climate itself becomes a motivator for its members.
Though organizational climate has gained recognition in the field of organizational behaviour, there is no single definition of it on which behavioural scientists agree. Several definitions have come into light in the research literature with diverse explanations.

It was in mid 70s when James and Jones (1974) made significant contributions to climate research. They laid down different approaches in climate research.

Dessler (1976) attempted to classify various approaches of organizational climate into three categories: structural, subjective and synthetic. Structural approach states organizational climate in terms of enduring features of an organization that differentiate it from other organizations and significantly influence the behavioural patterns of its members. Subjective approach defines organizational climate with reference to the feelings of the members associated with the organization. Synthetic approach emphasizes both structural and subjective components. This approach maintains that organizational climate is the perception of its members regarding the leadership styles, communication system and other significant environmental factors, that influence their beliefs, values, attitudes and motivation (Litwin and Stringer, 1968). Thus perceptions, emotions, and actions of its members are linked with such factors as structure, reward, autonomy, consideration, warmth, openness and support.

Organizational culture has a number of important characteristics. Some of the most readily agreed upon are the following:
1. *Observed behavioural regularities:* When organizational participants interact with one another, they use common language, terminology, and rituals related to deference and demeanor.

2. *Norms:* There exist certain standards of behaviour including guidelines on how much work to do, which in many organizations come down to "Do not do too much; do not do too little".

3. *Dominant values:* There are major values that the organization advocates and expects the participants to share. Typical examples are high product quality, low absenteeism and high efficiency.

4. *Philosophy:* There are well-defined policies that set forth the organisation’s norms about how employees and/or customers are to be treated.

5. *Rules:* There are strict guidelines related to getting along in the organization. Newcomers must learn those "ropes" in order to be accepted as full-fledged members of the group.

6. *Organizational climate:* This is an “overall” feeling that is conveyed by the physical layout, the way participants interact, and the way members of the organization conduct themselves with customers or other outsiders.

   Organizational culture represents a common perception held by the organisation’s members. This feature was made explicit when we defined culture as a system of shared meaning.
Most large organizations have a dominant culture and numerous sets of sub-cultures. A dominant culture expresses the core values that are shared by a majority of the organization's members. When we talk about an organization's culture, we are referring to its dominant culture. It is this macro view of culture that gives an organization its distinct personality. Sub-cultures tend to develop in large organizations to reflect common problems, situations, or experiences that members face. These sub-culture are likely to be defined by departmental designations and geographical separation. The purchasing department, for example can have a sub-culture that is uniquely shared by the members of that department. It will include the core values of the dominant culture plus additional values unique to the members of this department.

A strong culture is characterized by the organization's core values being both intensely held and widely shared. The more the members accept the core values and the greater their commitment to those values, the stronger the culture gets. Consistent with this definition, a strong culture will obviously have a greater influence on the behaviour of its members than will a weak culture.

A strong organizational culture increases behavioural consistency. High formalization in an organization creates predictability, orderliness, and consistency. A strong culture achieves the same end without the need for any written documentation. Therefore, we should view formalization and culture as two different roads to a common destination. The stronger an organization's
culture, the less the management need to be concerned with developing formal rules and regulations to guide employee behaviour.

Favourable organizational climate can be created through quality leadership, fair rewards, trust, opportunity for growth, smooth communication, better control, healthy work atmosphere and members’ enthusiastic participation (Muchinsky, 1977). Other factors that make organizational climate more favourable are a member’s feeling of personal worth, and shouldering of greater more responsibility as they also want to be listened to and treated as an equal and their needs and problems to be properly considered by the organization.

In creating effective organizational climate participation of its members in decision making should be given due weight-age because it helps in the development of strong mutual trust, confidence, sharing of responsibility and good interpersonal relationships. If it is done, management can expect greater quality output; it will also reduce absenteeism and member’s grievances.

Moran and Volkwein (1992) who explored the interaction of group members as a key determinant of organizational climate, posit that the predominant influence on these interactions is the shared knowledge and meanings presented by the organisation’s culture.

Some of the researchers have suggested that role conflict and role ambiguity are caused by organizational structure. Usually two types of organizational structures prevail: organic and mechanistic. Important features of organic structure include – implicit goals and directions, open
communication, control and authority, low formalization and feedback, whereas mechanistic structure is characterized by different hierarchies for control, authority, and communication, greater formalization, task differentiation, professional expertise, vertical interaction and loyalty to seniors.

Least participation of its members in decision making process, ineffective communication, restrictions, rigid rules and regulations are the major sources of stress in an organization.

Tesluk et al. (1997) reviewed the literature on the influence of organizational culture and climate on individual creativity. Although often treated interchangeably, culture and climate are distinct constructs operating at different levels of meaning. Yet, they are also closely inter-related. Culture comprises beliefs and values held by the management and communicated through norms, stories, socialization processes, and observations of managerial responses to critical events. The beliefs and values that typify a culture for creativity become manifested in organizational structures, practices, and policies which guide and shape individual creativity by creating a climate that communicates organizational goals regarding creativity and means to achieve them.

There is considerable diversity of approach among the researchers regarding the concept, dimensions and the measurements of organizational climate. Although there have been many studies related to it over the last three decades but they have raised as many questions as they have answered. It may
refer to the environment within a department, a major company unit such as a branch plant, or an entire organization. We cannot see organization climate or touch it but it is there. Just like the air in the room it covers and affects everything that occurs in an organization. In turn, the climate itself is affected by almost everything that happens in an organization.

When we see climate in a broader perspective, we find each climate has its own culture, traditions, and methods of action which in their totality constitute climate. There are a large number of organizations which tend to attract and keep people who fit its climate so that its pattern are to some extent perpetuated. As we see people may choose to move to a certain geographical climate of sea, mountains, or desert they also choose organizational climate which is suitable for them. Thus, organizational climate which serves as the guidelines for dealing with the people has a major influence on motivation, productivity as well as on the entire work group. Therefore, a sound climate is a long term proposition.

Culture performs several functions within an organization. First, it has a boundary-defining role; that is, it creates distinction between one organization and others. Second, it conveys a sense of identity for organization members. Third, culture facilitates the generation of commitment to something larger than one's individual self-interest. Fourth, it enhances social systems' stability. Culture is the social glue that keeps the organization together by providing appropriate standards for what employees should say and do. Finally, culture
serves as a sense-making and control mechanism that guides and shapes the attitudes and behaviour of its members.

Culture enhances organizational commitment as well as the consistency of employee behaviour. These clearly are beneficial for an organization. It tells its members how things are done and what's important. But we shouldn't ignore the potentially dysfunctional aspects of culture, especially of a strong culture.

While organizational cultures can develop in a number of ways, the process usually involves some version of the following steps:

1. A single person (founder) has an idea for a new enterprise.
2. The founder brings in one or more other key people and creates a core group that shares a common vision with the founder. That is, all in this core group believe that the idea is a good one, is workable, it deserves taking and is worth the required investment of time, money and energy.
3. The founding core group begins to act in concert to create an organization by raising funds, incorporating, locating space, building and so on.
4. At this point, others are brought into the organization and a common history begins to be built-up.

Each individual perceives the organization in diverse ways depending upon the context and sets of information available about it.

Basha & Usharkee (1997) examined the relationship between each individual; perception of organizational climate and his experience of stress.
and stress coping strategies. They reported that there was a negative relationship between the perception of organizational climate and the amount of stress experienced.

The associations between scientific eminence and the quality of both the doctorate-granting department and the employing institution have received considerable attention from the sociologists of science, particularly with regard to social satisfaction and accumulation of advantage. (Cole & Cole, 1973; Crane, 1967; Merton, 1968). The notion of accumulative advantage suggests that individuals who enter prestigious graduate departments have an initial advantage in aptitude motivation, and quality of their undergraduate training over those admitted to less distinguished research-oriented graduate departments which gives these individuals still further advantage. With this head start, the graduates of prestigious departments have a greater probability of obtaining positions in distinguished institutions where they may have still further advantage of having superior research facilities, lighter teaching loads and outstanding graduate students and colleagues.

In support of this hypothesis, Cole & Cole (1973) in a study of academic physicists found significant correlations between both the reputation of a graduate school department and of the current institution and various measures of eminence, including citations. Productivity is also related to the quality of excellence of the current institution (Crane, 1967).

Fortunately, adolescent attitudes are subject to change. There is a definite relationship between family attitude and adolescent behaviour. A
feeling of insecurity at home is reflected in a teenage boy or girl’s attitude of distrust or fear of the school situation. Inadequate or unintelligent guidance during early adolescence or the necessity of subordinating one’s interests to the wishes of parents or advisers may produce adverse results.

It is only through frank and objective discussion with the young person himself of his interests and talents that satisfactory school planning can be done. It should be noted that where adolescent readjustment seems desirable, best results are usually obtained when there is close and sympathetic understanding and good will between the parents and school advisers.

Teen-age boys and girls live a very intense life in college and take themselves and their activities much more seriously than what the parents generally assume. If the parents and educators were to meet their obligations conscientiously and intelligently, many fears and worries of youth could be lessened or even eliminated. In this way a more pleasant and profitable college life would be assured to the adolescents.

In all communities new college environment, new faces, new subjects of study and new social and recreational activities stimulate the young teenager towards new forms of behaviour. However, as he attempts to adjust his childhood behaviour patterns to his new experiences, it may raise conflicts and accompanying emotional disturbances.

College students (especially girls) sometimes develop “crushes” on a teacher of the same sex or become infatuated with a teacher of the opposite sex. These abnormal interests of students in their teachers often become serious
problems among college girls, especially if there are few or no young men on
or near the campus. Some college girls give an appearance of being interested
in their middle-aged college professors in order to flatter the latter into giving
them good grades.

Usually a student does not fear a teacher for what he actually does but
rather for what he may do. He wants to feel secure in the respect and affection
of the teacher. Consequently, he may be stimulated to study hard because he
does not want to disappoint his teacher. He feels sorry when he fails to answer
correctly in the class, not only because he will get poor marks but also because
he fears that he there-by may lose the esteem of his teacher.

Some individuals are afraid or the classroom situation so much that,
even though they know the answer to a question, they become tongue tied and
are unable to express it when asked to do so. These students need help in
overcoming their emotional disturbance.

Sometimes able students who do well in classroom recitations fear
examinations. They become upset and not only they lose their appetite but also
their ability for effective thinking at the time of the test. When this happens, as
history is usually found that connects this condition to his home, the pressure of
the parents, his study habits and the like.

A teenager often becomes increasingly nervous in college because of
pressures experienced in the home. In some instances emotional disturbance of
this type leads to a speech defect like stammering.
Many young people express a fear of examinations that they actually do not experience. However, they talk much about the difficulties of the examinations and their fear of failing to graduate them.

Both, the various types of stresses and the climate of an institution affect an individual’s psychological well-being and academic performance.

Various branches of psychology such as clinical, social, industrial, communal, humanistic and etc. all aim at promoting human well-being. For that reason, increasing attention is being paid to improving health, confidence, ability, performance, adjustability, inter-relationship, domestic life, social life, industrial and agricultural productivity skills and sense of satisfaction, pleasure and happiness; in other words, the quality of life all levels.

Health, be it mental and / or physical, has been found to be a culturally anchored concept. Culture often defines what is mental and, as clinical psychologists have come to agree, mental illness or abnormality varies in its manifestation and definition along the dimension of society and culture. Similarly, this concept has inter-individual and intra-individual variations. That is, while the idea of well-being varies from person to person, it changes within the same individual with age, information (knowledge) and personality variations.

WHO defined health as “a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease and infirmity”. This is in accord with the Indian thought expressed in Ayurveda by Susrutu (Sus. Sutra 15-44). “He that is possessed of the proper balance of the vitia, the metabolic
heat, the body-elements and the excretory functions and who is possessed of absolute clarity of the spirit, the senses and the mind, is said to be enjoying perfect health’ (cited in Caraksamhita vol.1. 1949, p. 577).

The roots of the concept of well-being can be traced from the beginning of human civilization. Since times immemorial men have prayed “Sarva Sukhinah bhavantu” (Let all enjoy well-being). For centuries the emphasis has been on the negative aspect of well-being as emancipation from suffering-suffering from the consequences of events of actions, or suffering from the tensions of desire. The opening verse of the Shrimad Bhagavat speaks of freedom from three kinds of sufferings (Tapa-traya) physical sufferings (adhibhautika tapa), psychogenic suffering (adhyatmika tapa) and sufferings originating from the unknown forces (adhidaivika tapa). The verses that follow dilate on psychogenic sufferings or Kleshas, those in which human beings get engulfed owing to the development of disordered (Sauri) personalities caught in anxiety, producing illusory fixations or attachments. The physical sufferings involved in disease, old age and death had moved Buddha to look for resources for emancipation from them, for satisfaction of what Murray (1938) has called: “the need harm-avoidance”.

Since antiquity, it has constituted one of the greatest subjects in the field of philosophy of life as eudoemonics (eg., Aristotle’s Ethica Nicomachea). Happiness is supposed to be the good fruit of religion. The very holy purpose of Jesus Christ’s Sermon on the Mount is to bring about true well-being of mankind. So is the teaching of Shyakmuni who became Buddha under the
Bodhi tree on the bank of the Nairanjana River. “By their fruits shall ye know them” may not be only with regard to any particular religion. It can also be applicable to other great religions in the world. In almost every religion it is claimed that, “by the grace of people’s devout faith in the respective religion or religions, walking with love on the righteous way should lead to their true well-being or to true worthiness of life” (Nishizawa, 1998, p.1).

The work on subjective well-being or psychological well-being is carried out under the broad topic of quality of life. Studies in this area have proliferated in recent years.

According to Campbell and others (1970), the quality of life is a composite measure of physical, mental and social well-being. Happiness and satisfaction involving many life situations, such as health, marriage, family, work, financial situation, educational opportunity, self-esteem, creativity, belongingness and trust in others all are covered by this. The term like subjective well-being, happiness, life satisfaction and quality of life are often used interchangeably. But the subjective well-being or psychological well-being is a very important aspect of quality of life not quality of life itself. Levi (1987) defined well-being as a dynamic state of mind characterized by a reasonable amount of harmony between an individual’s abilities, needs and expectations and environmental demands and opportunities. Three features of subjective well-being have been identified: a) It is based on subjective experience instead of the objective conditions of life; b) It has a positive as well
as negative effect; and c) It is a global experience as opposed to experience in any particular narrow domain, such as work-place. (Okun and Stock, 1987).

Well-being is viewed as a harmonious satisfaction of one’s desires and goals (Chekola, 1975).

It is defined as ‘the subjective feeling of contentment, happiness, satisfaction with life” with one’s role in the world of work, sense of achievement, utility, belongingness and absence of feeling distress, dissatisfaction or worry etc.”, (Verma and Verma, 1989). (Verma and Verma 1989) put emphasis on the term “subjective” well-being because they maintain that the above mentioned aspect cannot be evaluated objectively. General well-being is part of the broad concept of positive mental health; it is just not a mere absence of disease or infirmity (Verma, 1988). Verma (1988) opines that the absence of psychological ill-being/ill-health does not necessarily mean presence of psychological well-being. A person can have both conditions poor, both conditions good or, any one of them good, with all its accompanying results.

Mental or psychological well-being refers to both cognitive and affective aspects (Schlosser, 1990). Psychological well-being means a person’s evaluative reactions to his or her life – either in terms of life satisfaction, ‘cognitive evaluation’ or affect ‘ongoing emotional reactions’ (Diener and Diener, 1995).

The concept of well-being is rather difficult to define fully since it includes affective, cognitive and motivational aspects of life experiences with
subjective feeling of satisfaction. There are so many terms such as 'satisfaction', 'happiness', 'hope', 'optimism', 'positive mental health', and 'quality of life' which are often interchangeably used as equivalent of well-being. These are the examples of the constructs which are sometimes involved in cause-effect studies, sometimes in prediction criterion studies, and sometimes in search for common variance and clustering studies. It is to be noted that 'happiness', and 'satisfaction' are two words which are often regarded as equivalent of well-being. Happiness and satisfaction involve many life situations, such as health, marriage, family work, financial situation, educational opportunity, self-esteem, creativity, sense of belongingness, and trust in others.

Satisfaction is an over-riding concept which goes beyond the context in which terms like restoration of homeostasis and drive reduction are used. Cantril (1965) found the term more suitable for describing an experience which is unique to human being and is permeated with value overtones. Grichtiang (1983) investigated happiness (satisfaction construct) and gave valuable information with regard to the issue of its domain, scope and degree. The meaning of the term happiness was restricted by him but its ambiguity was also pointed out. The enunciation of domain scope and degree was an attempt to clarify its meaning concomitants.

Subjective well-being can be simply defined as the individual's current evaluation of his/her happiness. Such an evaluation is often expressed in affective terms. For example, when asked about subjective well-being,
participants will often say, “I feel good” (Schwartz and Strack, 1999). Subjective well-being is thus, at least in part, a proxy for a global affective evaluation.

Subjective well-being can be defined as subject’s physical mental soundness (www.dcri.duke.edu/patient/glossary.jsp). Another definition says that state of human existence in which a person’s basic needs are adequately met and satisfied. (www.undp.org/rbec/nhdr/1996/georgia/glossary.htm).

Well-being is a contented state of being happy and healthy and prosperous; (wordnet.princeton.edu/perl/webwn)

The well-being or quality of life of a population is a matter of great importance and concern in economic and political science. There are many components of well being. A large part is standard of living, the amount of money and access to goods and services that a person has; these can be fairly easily measured. Others like freedom, happiness, art, environmental health, and innovation are far harder to measure. This has created an inevitable imbalance as programs and policies are created to fit them easily. (en.wikipedia.org/wiki/well-being).

Increase in income does not lead to increase in subjective well-being (Keely, 2000).

Most people define themselves as being happy, regardless of their material wealth (Diener and Diener, 1996).

Extremely minor incidents influence estimates of SWB (Schwartz and Strack, 1999).
Most people assume that the external circumstances of others are powerful determinants of subjective well-being, in spite of the fact that such circumstances would have little effect on their own SWB (Schkade and Kahneman, 1999).

Psychological well-being is a somewhat malleable concept which is to do with people's feelings about everyday life activities. Such feelings may range from negative mental states or psychological strains such as anxiety, depression, frustration, emotional exhaustion, unhappiness, dissatisfaction to a state which has been identified as positive mental health (Jahoda, 1958; Warr, 1978). Scanning many studies on the perceived quality of life. Campbell (1980) distinguished three types of well-being: affect, strain and satisfaction. The concepts of psychological well-being and mental health, by and large, are used as interchangeable by majority of the researchers. It is widely recognized that the concept of mental health focuses on an ideal state emphasizing “positive well-being” of the WHO charter rather than on disease, statistical criteria. Negative components of psychological well-being are relatively easily assessed through self-reports of anxiety, depression, frustration, etc. but it is difficult to assess positive components of well-being.

Well-being is essentially an experience, although a stimulus error often makes it appear as a state of things. Indeed, any objective state of things, to that constitutes a state of one’s well-being, must be experienced by one-self as satisfying. Roger’s (1959) has emphasized man’s reality is what he experiences and perceives with a certain degree of dependable predictability, and one's
satisfaction consists in the satisfaction of one's need as experienced in the field as perceived. Well-being, however, is not merely a self-based experience. It is primarily affective and is largely of the nature of a feeling and essentially a positive or pleasant feeling, a state of happiness or satisfaction.

Well-being may also be induced by qualities of one's own or other's behaviour. The sources of well-being are different in childhood, adolescence, youth, middle-age and old age. Well-being is also associated with the historical period in which one lives, the part of the world to which one belongs, one's nation, country, religion, occupational group, organization and family as well as one's own personality. People also draw a lot of sense of well-being from those with whom they come in contact physically, socially, intellectually or otherwise.

There is much confusion about the relation between well-being and quality of life. The WHO defines quality of life as the condition of life resulting from a combination of effects of complete range of factors such as those determining health, happiness (including comfort in physical environment and satisfying occupation), education, social and intellectual attainments, freedom of action, receiving justice and freedom of expression. Well-being is often regarded as a broader concept which includes standard of living, level of living, and quality of life that is, subjective well-being. Standard of living is indicated by income, occupation, condition of residence, sanitation and nutrition. It also covers the level of provision of health, educational, recreational and other services. The level of living is shown by nine
components: health, quality of food consumed, education, occupation and working conditions, housing, social security, clothing, recreation, availability of leisure and enjoyment of human rights. These objective characteristics are assumed to influence human well-being. In 1996 the WHOQOL group proposed a broader range of criteria for subjective quality of life comprising 24 facets. The subjective definition of quality of life considers that each individual has the right to decide whether his or her life is worthwhile.

Several methodological issues are involved in studying the concept of psychological well-being. The negative aspects of well-being, like anxiety, depression etc. can be assessed through rating scales, self reports, projective test as well as some objective test of personality like MMPI. But the more positive aspects of well-being like happiness, satisfaction, etc., defy measurement, although attributes of positive mental health have been discussed and are being applied widely in psychiatry. (Maslow, 1973).

Warr (1978) had examined 3 kinds of measures of psychological well-being. First tests reported anxiety about the specific features of everyday life; second, about specific features of life in general; and third obtains material about positive and negative effect. The last component of well-being was studied by Bradburn on a large sample survey in USA. He found positive and negative affects were uncorrelated; rather the two dimensions were related to quite a different set of variables. Positive affect was associated with higher levels ‘social contact and mere exposure to new experiences’. Negative affect was found to be associated with various indices of anxiety, fear of nervous
breakdown, physical symptoms of illness, whereas the positive affect was not. Several research studies carried out in USA, and UK have broadly confirmed Bradburn’s results (Costa and Mc. Crae, 1980; Bryant and Veroff, 1982). Warr further pointed out that several facets of well-being are conceptually and statistically distinct but overlapping. Well-being is not the same as ‘happiness’ although the latter is a component of the former. External factors such as sex, employment position, age, education, work orientation have varying influence on different facets of well-being; for eg., Warr (1978) concluded that unemployed people reported significantly lower well-being and more anxiety than their employed counterparts. However, employment position was related to aspects of well-being only for high-orientation groups and not for those in the middle-aged groups.

Reviewing the 1956-77 literature on psychological well-being, Kozma & Stones (1978) have pointed out that even in the west, multidimensional approach to this construct have been used. The major research issues include diverse conceptualization of well-being. The differences in experimental procedure employed and the relationship between well-being and a host of related variables such as personality and health, Kozma and Stones advocated a narrow conceptualization of well-being in terms of ‘current happiness’.

Over the last two decades, considerable evidence has accumulated suggesting that stressful life events are linked to low psychological well-being or ill health (eg., Bhatti and Channabasavann 1985; Chandrika and Anantharaman, 1982; Cohen and Williamson, 1991; Kasl & Cooper, 1987;
Gautam and Kamal, 1990; Kulhara & Prasad Rao, 1986; Ochaney and Sen, 1987; Pestonjee, 1992; I. Sharma & Ram, 1988; D.K. Sharma, Satija & Nathawat, 1985; Slack and Vaux, 1988; Snyder and Ford 1987; S. Sharma, 1988a). Although the stress-illness relationship is well established, it is also obvious that not all individuals respond with health/well-being problems when exposed to major life changes. The magnitude of the stress-illness association is often low, with stress typically accounting for rarely more than 10% of the variance in the illness indicators (Leventhal & Tomarken, 1987).

Well-being was found to be related to life events, life changes that occurred in every individual’s life, (Pavett 1986; Soloman, 1987).

It has been established through research that psychological well-being is strongly associated with self-acceptance, autonomy and environmental mastery (Ryff, 1989).

Psychological well-being may be measured as it relates to the reported absence of pathological issues or the reported presence of a positive self-concept. Zautra and Reich (1981) recognized that psychological well-being is typically measured as the absence of distress, but they fail to account for more positive life experiences. Cook (1990) also illuminates that distress may be expressed differently by the sexes. Women tend to report more depression, anxiety, eating disorders, and phobias, antisocial behaviour, and suicidal tendency. Men are more likely to exhibit alcoholic and illicit drug use problems. In this same vein, Briscoe (1982) found that men are less likely to report a rise in unpleasant feeling.
Life in urban cities has been compared to a war zone. Garbarino, Kostelny, and Dubrow (1991) cite increasing levels of gang violence, lack of basic health care, inadequate food, inferior schooling, and social isolation as factors that make the context of urban poverty stressful. Economically disadvantaged adolescents report greater numbers of negative life events (Gad, Treadwell and Johnson, 1980). Those students who manage to successfully meet expected academic and clinical performance goals may be thought of as having adjusted to academic and clinical demands and stress.

Yet, unresolved stress stemming from internal and external program stressors eventually may exact a personal toll from some students. Stress researchers generally agree that an individual’s well-being is influenced not only by the amount of stress experienced but also by how well the individual copes with stress (Edwards, 1988; Lazarus, 1977; Paykel and Cooper 1992; Pearlin and Schooer, 1978) Patterns of maladaptive coping eventually may lead students to experience personal crises (Boss, 1987; Burr, 1982; McCubbin & McCubbin, 1987; Strean, 1986). For instance stress may affect an individual’s ability to learn effectively (Madders, 1989), may frustrate comprehension, interfere with learning, and perhaps even undermine motivation for academics and training. An unresolved level of maladaptive coping eventually may damage a student’s psychological and physiological well-being (Hyndman, 1980; Karasek, 1981; Marmot and Madge, 1987; McCrady and Frankenstein, 1986; Wallace, Levens, and Singer, 1988). No one completes graduate-level education in any field without experiencing
significant stress Graduate programs, however, that combine classroom work and research (i.e., thesis, dissertation) with a clinical training component create perhaps more potential stress than traditional gratitude programs.

Education plays a vital role in the building of society. Modern societies cannot achieve their aims of economic growth and higher cultural standards without making the most of the talents of their citizens. Higher education is undoubtedly the principal means of developing talents in the individuals. In spite of the rapid expansion in higher education, it is still denied to a large proportion of people who are capable of it. A considerable number of people do not benefit fully from higher education and hence their achievements are poor.

The achievements students make in academic and in various other fields like games, sports, extra co-curricular activities play a major role in the development and progress of a nation. Attainment of academic goals has assumed enormous importance in view of its practical value. It forms the main basis of admission and promotion into a class. It is also important for obtaining a degree and getting a job. Parents, teachers and the government all want that our adolescents make better academic achievement in schools and colleges because they are the future of our country.

The concept of achievement refers to the fact that subject is not merely executing a task without assistance but is trying to perform well with the aim of eliciting positive reinforcement for his demonstrated competence in the field. Academic achievement means the achievement a student makes in school or
college or university namely his/her marks in the examination which is the criterion for judging the performance of a student. Academic achievement is also known as scholastic achievement.

According to Remmers and Gage (1955) scholastic achievement is the degree to which the pupil has moved towards the objective of the school. From the definition it is clear that the academic achievement measures the extent to which individuals have acquired certain amount of knowledge, skills, concepts and abilities as a result of instructions and training received at the school or college level.

Harold E. Mitzel (1982) said, “achievement is often defined in relation to the concept of aptitude by a single contrast, measuring the learning that takes place during a definable course of instruction is achievement testing measuring the outcomes of very lengthy and diffuse set of learning experiences in aptitude testing."

Good (1973) explains the academic achievement means, “knowledge attained or skills developed in the school subjects, usually designated by test, scores or by marks assigned by teachers or by both”.

Academic achievement can be described as the attainment or accomplishment of a student in some area or particular branch of knowledge, after certain period of training (Verma and Upadhyay, 1981). The achievement scores indicate toward the future success of the students in particular fields.

Academic achievement is an index of the amount learned during the course. The results of final examination are the best indicator of amount
learned, even though individuals were not equal in proficiency at the beginning of the learning task. Based upon several considerations, it was concluded that, at present, the best indicator of amount learned in many classroom situations is the grades or results of the final examinations. Higher grade in the class will be an indicator of better learning and knowledge. It is also evident that better grades will facilitate promotion to the higher class and also getting employment.

There are many students who pass the examination, yet they fail to achieve as much as they can in terms of their abilities. These students are known as under-achievers. They are the persons who are quite capable, but fail to achieve in conformity with their capacities for several reasons.

Most of the times choices regarding careers are made on the basis of academic achievement. In most of the educational institutions facilities for providing better education to the students are being continuously increased and modernized. However, it is found that students differ remarkably in their respective academic achievements. These differences are thought to be due to certain psychological and environmental factors. Many researches in the field of education have been conducted related to the academic achievement of students and stress, anxiety, frustration, personality factors, creativity skill, etc. (Gough, 1953; Mehta, 1973; Sharma, 1979; Hock, Kohlmann, Egloff, 1997).

Academic performance of a student has been considered as an aspect of his total behaviour. It is determined and influenced by the dynamic processes of one’s personality. It has been found that the patterns of academic
performance are related to certain aspects of personality structure. Certain factors that influence academic achievement have been identified. There are: general intelligence, study habits, SES, family influences, home environment, parental aspirations and rewards, personality characteristics, sex – differences, quality of teaching, school process and school environment, education for physical agility and peer influences.

Academic achievement is seen as an adaptive behaviour. If a student, in spite of his adequate intelligence, fails to achieve, this may be due to a specific attempt on his part to adjust to some psychological situation.

Several factors affect the academic achievement of the students. Intelligence, interest aptitude, hard labour, method of learning etc. are some of the important factors which play a significant role in scholastic achievement of students. Apart from the above mentioned factors, some other psychological factors have also been found to affect the academic achievement. For e.g., Griffiths (1945), Goodstein and Heilbum (1958) using college students as subjects and Gough (1953) using high school students as subjects found personality factors to affect the achievement scores.

It is now a scientifically established fact that academic achievement is inextricably bound up with, and dependent upon student's intelligence and ability. Success and failure in academic performance cannot, therefore, be defined and measured without a reference to them. But, this is of crucial importance, that achievement which is inexplicable exclusively in terms of
intelligence depends upon certain non-intellectual factors, such as environmental conditions and social conditions.

It is significant, however, that students who drop out, either through formal disqualifications or of other reasons, do not lack in intellectual ability, nor do most of them lack adequate preparation. Their trouble stems rather from emotional problems which result in poor motivation.

The manner in which a student could get along with his classmates, the extent to which he is accepted or rejected and the significance which he attaches to such responses from others, the character of his relationship with his teachers, and the extent to which level he might be under stress, all these factors may interfere with his capacity to grasp and absorb the academic experiences.

Every student has certain attitudes towards his educational institution. Much of their adjustment with these institutions depends upon the attitude that they developed. These attitudes sometime act as barriers in their further educational development. Similarly they develop certain attitudes towards their teachers, class-mates, and towards the academic atmosphere of the institute.

University education is a complex behaviour situation requiring a variety of adjustments and abilities. Factors associated with academic performance can be environmental and/or psychological. In each of these, there are conditions which aid or impede the functioning of individuals in any profession or context. For instance, individual's transactions in his early
childhood or in later life with the environment may set-up certain emotional-motivational barriers to success. Therefore, in any investigation of success and failure in university students, it is essential to understand both the characteristics of the individual factor as well as the situational forces that surround him and his functioning. It requires viewing the individual functioning in a particular sub-culture, i.e., background of his life.

The teaching procedures followed in an institution serve to define the student-teacher role and have much to do with determining the activities expected of both the students and the teachers. Based on the prescription of these roles, the faculty builds up certain expectancies. Formulation of the student roles normally serves as the basis for the judgement of the faculty. If the student is able to fulfil these roles (as judged by the faculty), he is considered as successful, or if he falls short of the expectancies, he is declared a failure. Study habits also affect academic performance. Besides study habits, it was found to be related to general personality adjustment such as home, health, social and emotional condition. Also, it bore positive relationship with the background factors like position in the family, father's occupation, hobbies, and the vocational and educational plans of the students for the future.

When a child is deprived of love and affection continuously, he develops hostility towards others and feels that the parents and other members of the society, even his classmates are against him. Failure to achieve may be an expression of his hostility towards others. Attitudes of hostility and rebelliousness and various other personal problems are negatively related to
academic achievement. Emotional adjustment is of paramount importance in academic pursuits of a collegian. A definite relationship was found to be existing between the levels of achievement and related adjustment factors. The degree to which an individual student is able to work out good and effective relations with his parents, teachers, peers and other members of the society is demonstrably an important component of school achievement or academic. Research on academic achievement tends to demonstrate that school success or failure is a function of the total personality of the child with its various systems, qualities, behavioural trends and tendencies, problems and patterns of adjustment, which are the complex products of an interaction between the individual himself and other persons in his environment involving differential and various emotional operations.

There exists close relationship between anxiety and educational achievement. Anxiety is negatively correlated with academic achievements (Akhtar, 1978). A close relationship between home, emotional, social adjustment and academic achievement was established by Jamuar (1961). Personality characteristics influence one's achievements (Tripathi, 1965). However, academic achievement scores were found to be unaffected by adolescence worries. Personality factors significantly determined educational achievement of adolescents (Bhatnagar, 1966, 1969). High level of emotionality adversely affected academic pursuit (Savage, 1966; Eysenck and Coopson, 1969). Achieving students had a more adequate level of both personal and social adjustment than the under-achievers (Singhal, 1974).
The results of various studies show that of all the forces that have significant impact upon the individuals, stress is an important source of variation not only in one's academic attainments but also on his health, happiness and efficiency.

In India relatively few studies have been conducted on the effect of stress on adolescent students and thereby on his academic achievement. Some studies include sex-difference as a factor in stress level among adolescents (Kumar and Prakash, 1986) while others do not endorse it. (Shejwal and Ram, 1983). It has been shown by some researchers that stress did affect academic achievement adversely but some opposed this view with equal amount of evidence.

However, despite this difference or opinion, one feels that there is great weight in the view that stress is an important factor in producing an extremely serious educational problem, namely, the discrepancy between performance in the examination and the inherent potential. Psychological stresses have been found to be the cause of under achievement and/or academic failure in many potentially able students (Panchanathan and Shanmugaganesan, 1992). The whole future of a student depends on achievement in high school and 10+2 level. Teachers pay special attention to adolescents so that they can achieve in accordance to their abilities.

In coming time adolescents will have to face great stress as competition is becoming tougher each day. So, if stress is spotted early in academic career
of adolescents and assistance is offered by parents, teachers and psychiatrists, then they can perform satisfactorily.

College life can be stressful, but still, it is surely one of the most memorable experiences in a person’s life. It represents a critical developmental phase of the life of the late adolescents and young adults (Chickering, 1969). The daily hassles of college ranges from sleeping and eating habits to increased workloads and new kind of responsibilities. College students, especially freshmen, are a group particularly prone to stress due to the transitional nature of college life (Towbes and Cohen, 1996). They must adjust to being away from home, in most cases, for the first time, maintain a high level of academic achievement and adjust to a new social environment. College students, regardless of year in school, often deal with pressures related to finding a job or a potential life partner. These daily stressors do not cause anxiety or tension by themselves. Instead, stress results from the interaction between stressors and the individual’s perception and reaction to those stressors (Romano, 1992). When faced with these numerous responsibilities and roles and pressures, a student may feel stressed and fail to do justice to what he is there for, in this case the school education. The amount of stress experienced may be influenced by the individual’s ability to effectively cope with stressful events and situations (D’Zurilla and Sheedy, 1991).

College students have many obstacles to overcome in order to achieve their optimal academic goals. It takes a lot more than just studying to make his college career successful. Different stressors such as time management,
financial problems, sleep deprivation, social activities, and for some students even having children, can all pose their own threat to a student's academic performance. The way that academic performance is measured is through the ordinal scale of grade point average (GPA). A student's GPA determines many things such as class rank and entrance to graduate school. Much research has been done looking at the correlation of many stress factors that college students' experience and their effect on their GPA. Such stress factors have been named by Hatcher and Prus (1991) as academic situational constraints. Their study takes into account a variety of factors that can diminish a student's academic performance. Factors such as fraternity and sorority activities, job responsibilities, or having a boyfriend or girlfriend all impinging upon their valuable time. One extraneous variable that was taken into account was that at most universities students involved in activities such as fraternities or sororities, and also athletics, have to maintain an acceptable GPA. This factor by itself could attribute to these students GPAs being higher than that of an average college student.

The living situations that college students experience are varied due to the diversity of housing options and environments available. Some of the aspects of college students living environments may act as stress factors in their lives. The stress related to there living situations has several sources including relationships with roommates, suitemates, and neighbours; the condition of the rooms, apartments, or houses that students inhabit; and the neighbourhood, area on campus, and general living environment. These sources of stress
undoubtedly have an impact upon the students’ lives but in what way and to what extent, that is debatable.

There are also a number of health-related factors that can contribute to a student’s academic performance, and therefore have an effect on his or her GPA.

The mind and body are so interrelated that psychological stress is related to physical health and vise versa (Gruber, 1975). People can, to a certain extent, control their level of physical health through maintaining regular exercise, eating a healthy diet, minimizing drug and alcohol use, and sleeping to an adequate and regular extent. The amount of exercise, nutritional routines, and also the amount of social support the student perceives all can and do contribute to a student’s academic performance (Hammer et al., 1998). Exercising too much or not at all can also influence his academic performance. But, at the same time, taking time out of frequent study hours to work out pulls away from grades as well. A frequent occurrence on college campuses is students’ becoming almost addicted to physical exercise, turning a healthy behaviour into one that is psychologically unhealthy. College campuses often present samples of dichotomous behaviour with regard to health. On the one hand, the college students are often young and active, particularly those involved in athletics. Whereas, on the other hand, college students often abuse drugs and do not maintain healthy diets or sleep patterns. The nature of college students’ lifestyles surely has an impact on the students’ lives beyond mere physical fitness. For example, studies have shown that healthy sleep habits and
taking proper breakfast are positively related to the college experience and student performance (Trockel, Barnes, and Egget, 2000). Exercise has also been found to have relationships with variables other than physical fitness such as mental performance (Grubes, 1975), and substance abuse has been negatively correlated with the students' achievement (Field, Diego, and Sanders, 2003). From studies such as these it can be inferred that health is related to several aspects of students' lives, particularly their academic performance.

The relationship of health variables on academic performance is of particular interest because, for college students, academic achievement is of utmost importance as it is a determining factor for their acceptance into graduate schools and, also, good grades in college have been shown to be significantly related to career success (Tan, 1991). It is also undeniable that academic performance is related to several factors other than intelligence. Events or situations outside of the classroom can have significant impacts on the college students' academic pursuits. The level of health of students' lifestyles as discussed above is intimately related to their academic career, and stress is definitely a variable that pre-indicates a student's performance. The role of stress related to the students' living situations is particularly of great significance.

Several scholarly studies have shown that there is a close relationship between living situations and a students education. Schrager (1986) showed that the interpersonal environments that arise within different living groups
have an impact on the college students' academic performance. For example, students who are living in residence halls tend to do better academically than those living in off-campus apartments or fraternity and sorority houses (Blimling, 1999). It is suspected that this phenomenon is in part due to the living group and the resulting social environment peculiar to off-campus apartments and fraternity and sorority houses. Additionally, the academic motivation of a students' roommate has been shown to have a positive impact on that students' academic achievement (Blai, 1972).

There are probably several factors generating this relationship between the living situation and academic achievement. One of these factors may be stress associated with living situation. For instance, it may be the case that living off-campus is more stressful than living in residence halls and that this indirectly influences one's academic performance. Also, students who are more successful academically normally create less stress for their roommates and, thus, allow them to perform better. The idea that stress may be a force behind these relationships is supported by a study conducted by King (1998) that showed that for pre-college-age students, levels of conflict within the family living situation is negatively related to academic performance. On the basis of this theory, it can be safely stated that the stress of family conflict in some way affects negatively a student’s academic performance. Stress of living situation may be similarly related to academic performance of college students, but this specific relationship has not been thoroughly examined. However, the role of
another variable, health, in predicting academic performance has been studied extensively.

The subject of health can be broken down into a variety of variables such as exercise, nutrition, drug and alcohol use and sleep, and most studies have chosen to examine each one of these variables. For example, Gruber (1975) has shown that, for younger children, there appears to be a clear positive relationship between physical fitness and academic performance. This study was extended by Field, et al. (2001) to include older children, and a similar relationship was found. In order to identify the factors involved in this relationship, Gruber (1975) further studied the physiological responses of animal subjects to exercise. He found that enriched activity in animals' environments and exercise produced positive changes in brain anatomy and chemistry. More specifically, exercise has been shown to increase serotonin levels (Nash, 1996). Nash (1996) also found that exercise resulted in increased performance on cognitive tasks. This relationship between exercise and cognition in animal subjects may be the result of the described changes in brain chemistry induced by exercise. Similar physiological responses may occur in humans as well. In the very extensive study conducted by Field, et al. (2001) it was found that high levels of exercise among students were related to several characteristics. Frequent exercise predicted closer relationships with parents, lower levels of depression, less frequent drug use and higher academic performance (2001). This study reinforces the notion that mind and body are inter-related, sometimes in unexpected ways. Since parent-child relationships :
are also often associated with stress, this study also suggests that levels of stress may be related to health factors such as exercise.

Another aspect of health that has been shown to be related to academic performance is nutrition. One aspect of the relationship between diet and academics concerns the consumption of a breakfast meal. Taking breakfast appears to predict high grade point averages (Trockel et al. 2000), and it seems to influence recall ability and short-term spatial memory (Benton and Sargent, 1992). Another health variable to be considered is related to the drug and alcohol use. Field et al. (2003) found that there is a negative relationship between academic performance and substance abuse (specifically cigarette, alcohol and marijuana use). The final aspect of health that has to be related to academic performance is sleep. Trockel et al. (2000) showed that sleeping for long hours throughout the week and going to bed late on weekends predicts lower academic success when compared to students with more healthy sleep patterns. It should be noted, however, that these results may be further confounded by the use of alcohol.

Although several studies, including those discussed above, have examined variables that are associated with academic performance, the research concerning academic performance and its predictors is by no means complete. Most of the studies that have been conducted so far narrowly focus on one topic, such as exercise, and choose to ignore related issues such as diet (e.g. Grouber, 1975). Other studies are extremely broad, such as those concerning the place of residence (e.g. Blimling, 1999), thus failing to produce
results specific enough to be useful. For example, some of them (e.g., Blimling, 1999) have shown that the condition of the place of residence is related to one's academic performance, but few studies have focused on the specific factors that influence this relationship. Stress of living situation is one of these factors that has not been examined in detail. Concerning health, some studies introduce confound by excluding certain variables (e.g., Trockel et al. 2000). For example, some studies that relate sleep to academic performance fail to examine the frequency of drug and alcoholic drinks consumed and, thus, do not know if their results are actually due to the drug abuse or sleep alone (e.g., Trockel et al. 2000). Although some of these limitations are unavoidable when using correlational research methods, still there is further room for study of college lifestyles and experiences.

Based on the previous research, there might be a relationship between the stress of living situation and a college student's academic performance. Most studies concerning the relationship between the level of health and the academic performance of college students have not been comprehensive in that they have not examined exercise, diet, drug and alcoholic use, and sleep simultaneously. Additionally, owing to the complex relationship between body and mind, it seems likely that the level of stress of living situation and the level of health of college students' lifestyles do influence each other. This study was designed to examine these topics and to fill the gaps in the previous research studies. It is hypothesized that, among college students, there is an inverse relationship between the stress of living situation and academic performance.
and a positive relationship between the level of health of lifestyle and academic performance. It is further hypothesized that low levels of stress resulting from living situations and high levels of health of students' lifestyles together positively contribute to optimal academic achievement.

This study does not aim at taking into account a main factor that a lot of college students have to deal with, that is, having children and families to care for. Today more and more people are deciding to return to college after being out in the work force. Coming back to college puts high demands on older people, who sometimes have a family. This factor by itself could contribute to a lower GPA, but, unexpectedly, a particular study related to this factor arrived at a contrary conclusion. What helped these students was the support that they found within the University, support such as childcare services, and also courses in how to hone superior studying skills (Hammer, Grigsby, and Woods, 1998). One extraneous factor in the study of family and school demands was that most of the students surveyed were only part-time students and therefore not a representative sample of the general college population.

In a study in 2000 Trockel, Barnes, and Egget found that the students who have children to take care of can often find themselves being held up outside the class for reasons like their children's illness or not having the proper child care readily available. Grades, motivation and earlier GPA can also be the reasons for low class attendance (Devadoss and Foltz, 1996). With attendance having a major influence on academic performance, even to the point of some professors using it as a requirement to pass a course, it is a great
indicator of a student's overall GPA. One major prediction of class attendance is a student’s GPA prior to enrolling in the class. Students who have done better in previous classes are likely to attend classes more frequently. Other factors in class attendance include the level of courses the student is taking. On an average, junior and senior level courses have a higher attendance record than freshman and sophomore courses (Devadoss and Foltz, 1996). One finding that is contradictory to that of other studies is that students who work and are financially independent are more likely to attend classes and take their education more seriously. This may be due to the fact that having to pay for their education themselves makes them value their college careers more than students who do not have to pay for it themselves.

There are many other factors that can cause stress and influence a student's academic performance and therefore affect his or her overall GPA. The factors include exercise, nutrition, sleep, work and class attendance. A college student may find him or herself in a juggling act, trying to support a family, taking care of job responsibilities, and at the same time trying to make the most of the college career. All of these factors can affect the grades of students, which ultimately affect the rest of their lives.

All of the factors that have been reviewed in the literature on this topic can contribute to a college student’s level of stress. By themselves these constraints may have no effect at all on a student, but when combined, a student could perceive them as stressful, and the stress factors could have a dramatic effect on his academic performance. With too many stress factors
present and with limited resources of time and energy, a student could easily feel overwhelmed. What one student perceives as stressful may not be so to another student.

Some students may perceive factors such as nutrition, exercise routines, sleep patterns, social activities and work as stressors that they need to overcome in order to achieve a higher academic standing. On the other hand, other students may not perceive these life situations as factors of stress at all. Stress itself has been proven to be a factor affecting a college student’s GPA. Moreover the way the student perceives his or her stress can determine how much stress the student is actually under.

Nutrition is also a problem with college students. Students may have difficulty finding the time to prepare proper meals. Most of the students who are just learning to live on their own, may find cooking of meals quite a challenging job. Finding time to go to the grocery store at least once every couple of weeks in itself can be a demanding task. This is because of the fact that there is little storage space in an the average dorm room, and, hence, much food storage is not possible. (Trockel et al.2000).

The effects of perceived social support are mixed. Some studies have shown that the amount of social support available from the university and from the outside contributors like family, friends and mentors can make a huge impact on a student’s success. Support such as emotional, academic and financial are tremendous contributive factors in the success of a college student. The years spent at college can be a stressful and life-changing
experience. What will your family and friends, and the university – all make the years very crucial. If the student has a family that involves his or her own children, the support of everyone is needed even more, to achieve the goal of graduation. Trockel et al. 2000).

The correlation between hours worked in a week and GPA seems obvious. The more the time spent at work, the less the time that a student can find for his/her studies. Having to hold on a job and still be a college student is indeed a constant source of stress (Calderon, Hey, and Seabert, 2001). Also, mentally juggling the two roles of worker and a college student can itself be stressful. Finding the time to work a full or part time job and take it seriously, and also to keep focus on academic studies is bound to be stressful. Being exhausted from working the night before can cause a poor attendance record and also give a student less time to study, resulting in a poor academic performance.

The most important contribution to the protection of stress that was found was the effect of sleep on students’ GPA. One study that took into account the earlier research work that had been done in the area of sleep, was related not just to the college students but also to the general population. Kelly, Kelly and Clanton (2001) “classified sleepers into three categories. (1) Short sleepers, individuals who, when left to set their own schedule, slept six or fewer hours (2) Average sleepers, individuals who slept seven or eight hours and (3) long sleepers, individuals who slept nine or more hours out of twenty
four”. The study found that people who were considered to be long sleepers reported higher GPAs.

One thing that this study did not take into account was that some past research on sleep suggests that people who sleep fewer hours a night may have psychological maladjustment. Sleeping shorter amounts of time has shown to increase factors such as anxiety and stress, which have been associated with academic performance (Kelly et al. 2001). These factors cause students problems by causing shortened attention span and also increasing the number of errors that they make in tests.

Another study took the hours of sleep correlation with GPA to another level by taking other factors into account, such as, the amount of sleep a student gets on the weekends and during the week; the average time that a student gets up in the morning during the week, and his waking time on the weekends. Trockel, Barnes, and Egget (2000) found that variables such as late weekday wake-up and later weekend wake-up times were associated with a lower GPA. This study seems to take the research further from previous study, by asking questions specifically related to the amount of sleep obtained and the time of the morning that a student wakes up.

Another health-related factor that can influence student’s GPA is class attendance. Attendance itself can be related to stress factors like insufficient sleep, job responsibility, illness and also having a family or children to care for. Having a class at seven in the morning can be a huge problem for students
deprived of sleep, especially for those who have to attend the classes during the day and work at night.

Most students ranked insufficiency of sleep as their number one factor in their level of stress, followed by problems with roommates, and social activities, which have been proven to be the stress factors that a majority of students had to deal with. Finding a good middle-ground between what is expected of you as a college student in the social area, and what is definitely expected of you in the academic area, can be a constant uphill battle for a great deal of students. Too much activity in the social area can have detrimental effects on a student's GPA, with poor class attendance, and inadequate sleep leading to a downfall in the area of grades. The third ranking stress factor was working a part-time job. Each hour a student spends at work that he or she could be studying, can take away from utilizing his/her full academic potential.

In contrast to the research by Deci and Ryan (1985), and by Fortier, Vallerand and Guay (1995), other research studies indicate that socio-economic advantage plays a definite and significant role in mediating academic performance.

Schultz found that academic performance differences among minority children in urban schools are significantly related to levels of socio-economic advantage these students experience. In other words, despite intellectual ability, minority children who enjoy more socio-economic advantage are typically found to perform better academically than students with less advantage.
The level of achievement could be predicted with the help of several (family) background variables excepting father's educational position. Mathur (1963) has noted that SFS is significantly correlated to educational achievement, intelligence and conduct of a student. The relationship between SES factor and academic achievement keeping the effect of intelligence constant nearly 96% of students who discontinued education attribute the reason to poor economic condition of the family. On the basis of parents' education, occupation family income, type of lodging, size of the family and cultural level of home, students belonging to higher qualitative group show significantly higher achievement.

It appears from a number of investigations that some environmental characteristics may also explain the discrepancies between aptitude and achievement. Thus certain aspects of the home background (Socio cultural aspects consisting of social activities, cultural objects in the home and the cultural values and attitude of parents) greatly affected academic achievement of a student. Attainment of a good grade points to be related to socio-economic status. Klausmeier (1958) compared certain physical, behavioural, and environmental characteristics of high and low achieving students and observed that two environmental factors were different for the two groups. One was the parental occupation and the other was the sex ratio in the class.

With all the hassles that a student faces in college, it is good to have close friends to help them cope with the pressures. It was found that students who had a strong sense of community on campus perceived a high degree of
support, involvement, and achievement at the university (Berger, 1997). They may form relationships with many people, and it would help them. Even in some cases, romantic relationships, or intimate dating, would be formed. According to Paul and White (1990), being behaviourally intimate involves acting in a trustworthy way, being sensitive and responsive to the other’s feelings, being able to make a commitment to the relationship, striving for equity and mutuality and working to communicate effectively. Zimmer-Gimmbeck, Siebenbruner, and Collins (2001) found that participation in dating relationships has some positive effects on emotional health for adolescents. But that, also leads to another hassle-maintaining the relationship.

In 2001, a study was conducted by Quatman, Sampson, Robinson, and Watson that examined the dating status and academic achievement and motivation in high school students in California. They researched the relationships between dating status and academic achievement, as well as academic motivation, depression, and self-esteem. They found that the students that dated more frequently had a lower academic performance. This study supported the fact that there is a significant relationship between dating status and academic achievement.

Concerns about dating are prevalent and often related to serious problems among the college students (Prisbell, 1986). While having a romantic partner may have benefits for emotional health, it appears that being overly involved in dating relationships is associated with more negative affects on psychosocial functioning and health of the person concerned (Baumeister,
A study was also conducted by Quatman, Sampson, Robinson and Watson (2001) among high school students in California. Their research also found a significant relationship between frequent dating and lower academic performance. Even though college life brings more responsibilities than high school, dating status and school motivation remain the same.

Relationships and college activities somehow do not seem to fit in the same field. On the one hand, the student is spending time with his potential life-partner, while on the other, he is busy trying to fulfill other responsibilities, like maintaining grades, finding a job, studying, and coping with everyday stress.

As Prisbell (1986) noted, concerns about dating are prevalent and often related to serious problems among college students. This could be because of the time the dating students spend with their partners, they might feel that this would curtail the time for their studies.

Teachers exert a great influence upon young students and often are remembered for long by the latter more or the influence they had upon their personality developments than for the help given in the learning programme. The teacher-student relationship must be strictly adhered to. Some times girl students develop certain tender feelings for teachers of the opposite sex which creates embarrassment sit for the teachers concerned.

These abnormal interests of the students in their teachers often become serious problems among college girls. Some college girls give an appearance
of being interested in their middle aged college professors in order to flatter the
later into giving them good grades.

Sometimes students of the university are being exploited by politicians
to serve their own selfish interests. Thus, their studies are affected. When they
are eventually undeceived, frustration is the result. Some of other the important
causes of frustrations are wrong choice of subjects, poverty, non-availability of
prescribed books, defective teaching methods etc.

A poor achiever may not really be a poor pupil. He may have failed or
underachieved for several reasons like problems of health, problems of home,
psychological problems etc. The low achievement of the pupil at college may
have other consequences also. He may be looked down upon in his home by his
parents and siblings. This in turn may lead to other serious psychological
problems. He may feel dishearted and may even become a truant and later
develop delinquencies.