Chapter-I
CHAPTER-I

INTRODUCTION

1. Introduction

2. Emotional Maturity
   2.1 Emotion
   2.2 Maturity
   2.3 Nature of maturity
   2.4 Emotional Maturity
   2.5 Characteristics of emotionally mature person:

3. Happiness:
   3.1 Definition of Happiness
   3.2 Determinant of happiness:
   3.3 Change in happiness:

4. Stress:
   4.1 Definition:
   4.2 Causes and Symptoms:
CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1. Introduction:
We live in competitive world. With all the responsibilities and demands of time travel, work and families placed upon us how can be genuinely happy and effective. Quick fix approaches load to develop which status and techniques. These skills and techniques lubricate the process of human interaction. However, in a long run they prove to illusive and deceptive. An individual with such quick fix approaches may climb the ladder of success bit faster but in the words of Erich Frame- “Today we come across an individual who behaves like an automation, who does not know or understand himself and the only person that he knows is the person speech whose synthetic smile has replaced genuine laughter and whose sense of dull despair has taken the place of genuine pain”. Two statements may be said concerning this individual. One is that he suffers from defects of spontaneity and individually which may see to be incurable. At the same time, it may be said by him he does not differ essentially from the millions of rest of us who walk upon this earth. Covey suggested that there are principles that govern human effectiveness, principles that govern human growth and happiness. They are fundamental.

As species we have evolved in such a way that we are designed to have certain distressing emotions such as anxiety, depression, jealousy or anger in certain circumstances because these reactions were adaptive for our ancestors. When faced with certain dangers or threats (e.g. snakes or
separation from a parent) our ancestors experienced anxiety. This motivated them to avoid the threat and so survive. When faced with loss of status or power in a social hierarchy or close relationships they experienced depression. This motivated others within their group not to challenge or attack them and so they survived. When faced with the threat of spousal infidelity, they, like us, experienced jealousy. This motivated them to be vigilant and protective of their spouses so that their children could survive when faced with obstacles to attaining a valued goal such as food or sex, they experienced anger. This motivated them to remove obstacles and so survive. We have inherited this distressing emotional legacy from our ancestors. Thus we all have some propensity to experience anxiety in the face of threat; depression following loss; jealousy in response to possible infidelity; and anger in response to obstruction. This distressing emotional legacy is an obstacle to happiness.

The most urgent problems of our society today are the problems we have made for ourselves. Miller ET. Al’s (1971) in recent years have made it clear, that the most perplexing problems faced, are social problems whose solution will require us to change our behavior and our social intuitions like World war, urbanization and population explosion. The family, which is the basic unit of society, has also undergone many changes which in turn have influenced the development of personality. We live in competitive world. With all the responsibilities and demands of time travel work and families placed upon us how can be genuinely happy and effective. Quick fix approaches load to develop which status and technique. These skills and techniques lubricate the process of
human interaction. But in a long run they prove to illusive and deceptive. An individual with such quick fix approaches may climb the ladder of success bit faster. Happiness and stress are correlated to each other. They interrupt our lives and behavior. At present time it is necessary to find out their effect among people.

2. Emotional Maturity

2.1 Emotion

Emotion is a state of special readiness for emergency action. It involves a change in the activity of the organs of circulation digestion and so on. It also involves a change in mental activity and often, a change in voluntary activity.

All of this the change of activity within the brain, the change in involuntary activity, or the effect on our organs; and the change in voluntary activity constitute emotion.

Emotion has many values in our life. It gives us extra power in physical emergencies. It provides a drive, a forcing in to action that is often very worth while. Emotion gives quality and color to our living moreover, mild present emotion seems to be good for us physically.

On the other hand we have the fact that emotions are sometimes harmful. For example, we are coming to realize more and more that fear and other unpleasant emotions are bad for the health. Moreover, since emotion means the release of extra energy, it follows that when that extra energy is not used for any good purpose it goes to waste.
Emotions, when strong, tend to disrupt our thinking. What is more, they are often a poor guide to action. We are apt to do something we shouldn’t do if we follow our emotions blindly.

Emotions can make us slaves to other people. An unscrupulous person can rouse our emotions, connect the action. We want with those emotions, and we will do what we want rather than what our own good judgment might tell us to do.

2.2 Maturity

The concept of maturity has not received a great deal of explicit attention in the literature. Delineation of libidinal development has been yielded the important formulation of the ‘Genital level’ and ‘object-interest (Freud, 1924)’, Recent emphasis on the conflict between the regressive, dependents, versus the progressive, productive forces in the personality has directed interest toward the more detailed mature of maturity.

2.3 Nature of maturity

❖ One of the most obvious pathways of development, long emphasized by Sigmund Freud and Franz Alexander, is from the parasitic, dependence of the fetus to the relative independence, of parent, with parental capacity for spouse and child.

❖ Intimately bound-up with the organism’s development from parasitism on the mother to relative independence from the parents is its increased capacity for responsibility and productivity and its
decreased receptive needs. Children learn to control their hostilities, their sexuality and other impulses, and to develop the orientations of maturity largely through the incentive of being loved.

❖ Third characteristic of maturity is relative freedom from the well-known constellation of inferiority, egotism and competitiveness.

❖ Another aspect of maturity consists in the conditioning and the training necessary for socialization and domestication.

❖ Hostile aggressiveness, using the term to include all sorts of anger, hate cruelty and belligerency, is always a sign of emotional irritation or threat.

❖ Another important attribute of maturity is a firm sense of reality.

❖ Another characteristic of maturity is flexibility and adaptability.

2.4 Emotional Maturity

One outcome of healthy emotional development is increasing "emotional maturity." Emotional maturity should be regarded as relative, not final or absolute. The process of maturing emotionally is never complete, for a person in fairly good health mentally continues to grow more "mauler" in his attitude toward life and toward himself as long as he lives. Therefore, when we say that a major aim of a good educational program is to help learners to gain in emotional maturity, what we mean is not the achievement of a certain and product that can be graded or rated on graduation day, but rather seeking to help the child in a process of development that continues long after most people leave school.
Many attempts have been made to define “emotional maturity”. In psychological writings the definition of maturity essentially involves emotional control has been a prominent feature in some definitions. According to this view, the emotionally mature person is able to keep a lid on his feelings. He can suffer in silence. He can bide his time in spite of present discomfort. He is not subject to swings in mood, he is not volatile. When he does express emotion he does so with moderation, decently, and in good order. He is not carried away by his feelings. He has considerable tolerance for frustration, and so on actually, in the writer’s opinion; a person can live up to all of these, prescriptions and still be an abjectly immature person as well as a very cold, unemotional person.

A Definition of emotional maturity that is in keeping with the facts of development and the potentialities involved in the process of development must stress not simply restriction and control but also the positive possibilities inherent in human nature. According to this view, emotional maturity involves the kind of living that most richly and fully expresses what a person has in him at any level of his development.

“Mature” emotional behaviour at any level of growth is that which most fully reflects the fruits of healthy development in all the interacting aspects of the growing person’s make up. An adequate description of emotional maturity must take account of the full scope of the individual’s capacity and powers, and of his ability to use and enjoy them. In its broadest sense emotional maturity means the degree to which the person has realized his potential for richness of living and has developed has
capacity to enjoy things, to relate himself to others, to live and to laugh; his capacity for whole hearted sorrow when an occasion for grief arises; his capacity for experiencing anger when faced with thwarting that would rile the temper of any reasonably tolerate or sensible person; and his capacity to show fear when there is occasion to be frightened, without feeling a need to use a false mask of courage such as must be assumed by persons afraid to admit that they are afraid.

Maturity is the stage attained by the process of growth and development and body change resulting from heredity rather than learning. The term maturity is used to describe behavioral or Physical changes which occur as a direct result of genetic action and which emerges as the human grows older. Gesell (1961) proposed a theory that nearly all development is controlled by motivation and so is independent of practice or experience. It is still thought by some psychologists that the development of much behaviour may be maturational (Hurlock 1968)

❖ Development normally proceeds in an orderly sequence.
❖ Development can be viewed in terms of stages, each having its own characteristics.
❖ Each new stage of development builds on and is limited by previous development, and in turn provides the foundation for the stages that follow.
❖ The pathway from infancy to maturity involves increasing differentiation, integration and complexity of structure and behaviour.
❖ There are both similarities and differences in the development of individuals.
Development may be normal or depending on the quality and interaction of genetic and environmental factors.

The terms growth, development, maturation and leering all refer to the physical, mental, social, intellectual, emotional and moral changes which a person experiences as he advances through life. Maturation refers to the changes -quantitative or qualitative. Which result form the natural unfolding of inherited tendencies or the actualization of innate potentialities? Maturation and learning are not mutually exclusive processes but are inextricably connected and dependent upon each other (Lolesmik 1970). The developmental level of the individual is the resultant of interaction of maturation (heredity) and learning (environment) over a period of time and be expressed in form of this equation (Ruch 1970) : Development Level - Maturation x Learning x Time.

The principles of development which follow are sources of knowledge about human behaviour, Development is continuous, development is complex, and development is unified, developmental patterns very. The relative effects of nature (heredity) and nurture (Environment) on a person's development is a matter which has interested psychologists for years. Human development is the product of the interaction of human's inherited potentialities and his environment. Cultures as well as biological and psychological force s gives rise to several developmental tasks which a person should achieve at a certain stage of his development (Binger, 1978, Stott, 1972).
Maturation refers to the growth of an organism that is determined primarily by genetic factors and occurs more or less independently of learning. These built-in maturational processes provide the potentials for the orderly progression of development, but these potentials can be realized only under favorable environmental conditions. Although a person's growth will be shaped in different ways in different cultures, certain characteristic trends can be seen in any society, primitive or advanced. These trends lead the individual toward responsible self-direction and the ability to participate in and contribute to society. There are 3 popular views of healthy development (Coleman 1976).

❖ Adequate frame of reference accurate reality. Possibility and value assumptions concerning oneself and one's worlds.
❖ Essential competencies, the mastery of needed physical, intellectual, emotional and social competencies.
❖ Self-direction—adequate self-identity, independence from social influences and stress tolerance to enable meaningful self-direction.
❖ Personal growth and self-actualization trends toward the development of one's potentials and self-fulfillment as a person.

There are 7 psychological conditions that foster healthy development (Gesell 1956, Piaget 1970) to be wanted, to be born healthy, to live in a healthy environment, to satisfaction of basic needs, to continuous loving care, to appropriate treatment for psychological and behavioral problems and difficulties, to acquire intellectual, emotional and social skills necessary to cope effectively in our society. The emotional warmth and acceptance, parental affection are positive...
and contribute factors in the development of such personality traits as self-esteem, self-reliance, independence, self control and self-regulation (Sears, Malcoby and Levin, 1967)

The concept of emotional maturity has not received a great deal of explicit attention in the psychological literature. The major characteristics of emotional maturity are relatively freedom form the well-known constellation of inferiority, egotism and competitiveness another aspects of emotional maturity consists in the processes of socialization matte consists in the processes of socialization and collateralization, hostile attitudes and aggressiveness are related to emotional maturity and emotional development, another important attributes of emotional maturity are firm sense of reality, flexibility and adaptability.

In the present circumstances, children, youth, and adults all are facing problems and difficulties in life and work. These conditions are giving rise to several psychosomatic problems such as anxiety, tension, conflicts, pressures, frustrations, strains and stresses and emotional upsets and disturbances, so the study of emotional development deals with interplay of biological, psychosocial and socio-cultural forces. Actually, emotional maturity is not only the effective determinant of personality but it also helps to control the growth and development of the person. The concept 'mature emotional behaviour' at any stage of development reflects the fruits of normal emotional development.
According to Smitson (1974) emotional maturity is a process in which the personality is continuously striving for greater sense of emotional health, both intra-psychically and intra-personally. Kalpan and Bran (1976) elaborated the characteristics of an emotionally mature person: he has the capacity to withstand delay in satisfaction of needs, he has the ability to tolerate a reasonable amount of frustration, and he has belief in long term slammed and is capable of delaying or revising his expectations in terms of demands of situations. An emotionally mature person has the capacity to make effective adjustment with himself, with family members, with peer in school or college, with fellows at work, in life and society.

2.5 Characteristics of emotionally mature person:

Hollingworth (958) mentioned some characteristics of emotionally mature person as follows:

❖ He is capable of responding in gradation or degree of emotional responses.
❖ He is capable to delay his responses as controlled with the impulsiveness.
❖ He is capable of handling self-pity.

According to Bernard (1959) who described some criteria of mature emotional behaviour:

❖ Inhibition of direct expression of negative emotions.
❖ cultivation of positive building emotions
❖ Development of higher tolerance for disagreeable circumstances.
❖ Increasing satisfaction form socially approved responses.
❖ Freedom form unreasonable fears.
❖ Understanding in according with limitations.
❖ Increasing dependence of action.
❖ Awareness of ability and achievement of others.
❖ Ability to err without feeling disgraced.
❖ Ability to carry victory and prestige with grace.
❖ Ability to delay the gratification of impulses.
❖ The enjoyment of day-to-day living.

The most outstanding mark of emotional maturity, according to Cole (1960) is ability to tolerate tension and stress, persisting the capacity for fun and recreation, enjoying play and responsibility with proper balance. According to McInnay (1959) the characteristics of an emotionally mature person are activity, appreciation of attitudes and behaviour of others, tendency to adopt the views, habits and hobbies of other and capacity to delay his own responses and gratification of needs. Seoul (1954) emphasized that it the emotional development of the individual is relatively complete, his adaptability is high, his regressive tendencies are low and his vulnerability is minimal. Therefore, the emotionally mature is not one who necessarily has resolved all conditions that aroused anxiety and possibility but it is continuously in process of seeing himself in clearer perspective, continually involved in a struggle to gain healthy integration of feeling, action and thought. Guilford (1958) proposed a matrix of temperamental factors with dimensions and areas of emotional maturity; general, emotional and social.
We should grow up emotionally as well as in other ways. Everyone of us has, of course, become more mature emotionally as we have become older. We don't lie down on the floor and kick our needs and scream. When we can't have our own way, we don't cry when things go wrong. Nevertheless, we should consider how emotionally mature we really are.

❖ Controlling our emotions: Emotional maturity is, first of all, being in control of our emotions - having our reason give approval for our action rather than having only an emotional backing for it. Poise is an accompaniment of emotional maturity. The poised person is the one who is always in control of his emotion. No awkward situation brings him embarrassment. He is never overeager, ever effusive, overmodest. Most of us, when thrown publicly into a situation which we don't know how to meet at the moment are apt to respond to it with some sort of emotional disruption, often with that of embarrassment. The poised person in contrast, has had enough variety in his experiences to learn to hang on to himself emotionally no matter what confronts him, no matter what demands are made on him.

❖ Making proper use of our emotions: Emotional maturity is, in the secondly place, making proper use of our emotions as the basis for action. It is true that mild emotion does give an added sense of well-being and for reason there is some justice in allowing the mild pleasant emotions to suffuse us just for the pleasure they give us in themselves. Such emotions are conductive to good health. Generally speaking, however, our emotional energy should not be the kind that burns and turns to ashes, but it should rather be the
kind that burns and flows in to action. In the emotionally immature person, emotion too often gives just heat and not energy. Such a person may be filled with sympathy for the slum dwellers in his city, but he won't use that energy for action. He may be highly indignant over corruption in politics, but his emotions while burn without giving any value.

- Being aware of our emotions: Emotional maturity is, in the third place being conscious of whether or not we are acting on the basis of emotion or thought of feeling or thinking. We may be depressed and discouraged and life may look hopeless to us: Yet, if we can be aware that it is emotion which is giving our whole situation its unpleasant tone and if we can then look at the facts realistically, we may find much that is comforting and encouraging. We may accept every idea that a radio commentator sets forth; yet, if we study the reasons for this acceptance, we may find that we have given him an emotional allegiance which has put us in a highly receptive mood. If we divorce our thinking from that emotion, we may find many of his idles unacceptable the light of our intelligence. We may say about something difficult: 'I can't do it: It may be only fear of the unknown that is speaking. If we recognize the emotion and discount it, we can see the situation, more clearly and we may find that it is something we can do with no great trouble. We may vote in class election with a sense of having made our choice with good judgment. In reality we may be acting only as our feelings of linking and disliking dictate and without any great intelligence at all. We should be aware of this fact so that we can do better the next time. It is highly important
that we always be aware of the part that emotion is playing in our allegiances, our actions, our judgments; for only when we known that, can we make sure that our divisions are intelligent and based on experience.

- Proper balance and fullness: Emotional maturity is, finally having the proper balance and fullness in our emotional life there are people who have an excess of emotion in one area or another. Some lavish it freely without judgment. They are as awe-stricken by an unusual magazine cover as by the Ground Canyon; they are as sympathetic towards a dog that is hungry as toward a child who is starving, they are as hurt by some one's failing to speak to them as by losing a dear friend. Some people let one emotion pervade all of their living one person is constantly filled with fear of one sort or another; one is excessively loyal toward her own family or her own friends; one is too quick to become angry; one is too easily depressed or too easily elated.

In contrast, there are people who are afraid of emotion and use too little of it they get no thrill form any kind of music. They are not exhilarated by any kind of natural beauty. Such as sunrise, sunset, storm or sunshine, red maples in autumn, new green in spring etc. Everything, literally, leaves them cold. Perhaps most serious is the fact that they feel little warmth toward people and know little or the joy of giving and often of receiving affection.
Some people seem to be more emotional than others of course we cannot depend upon appearances always, because convention decrees that we keep a calm and unruffled exterior no matter what is boiling up inside. Still it is true that, as with all human traits, we find all variations in emotionality, from the cold person who varies seldom departs from his ordinary calm to the person who is always reacting to everything with a rush of feeling.

Is emotionality inherited? - As with much of our personality make up, emotionality is the result of both inherited structure and environmental influence. As to the heredity bias of emotionality, the following theories have been advanced to explain why some people are more quickly aroused to emotions those others. The sympathetic and the parasympathetic systems in people are never perfectly balanced. If the sympathetic system is easily aroused to further activity, the person will be more emotional in his tendencies than he could be if the reverse were true variations occur also in the workings of the ductless glands. If the adrenal glands are overactive, we again have a person, who tends to be more emotional than would one with underachieve adrenal glands.

Emotions are linked with health, morbidity and mortality has existed for over two millennia (Stemberg, 1997). The overall balance of people’s to contribute to their subjective well-being (Diener, Sandvik and Pavat, 1991). Negative emotions When extreme, prolonged or contextual inappropriate-produce many grave problems, ranging form phobias and anxiety, disorders, aggression and violence, depression and suicide, eating disorders and sexual dysfunction, to a host of stress related physical disorders (Fredrickson and Brahigan, 200).
New evidence suggests that negative emotion may contribute to disease and death through immune dysregulation. Inflammation has recently been linked to a spectrum of conditions associated with aging, including cardiovascular diseases, osteoporosis, arthritis, types-Z diabetes, Alzheimer's disease, frailty and functional decline and periodontal disease (Ershler and Keller, 2000).

Although it is clear that negative emotions can intensify a wide variety of health threats, positive emotional have received considerably less attention, perhaps related to the prevailing view of physical and mental health as the absence of disease and negative emotions (Ryff and Singer, 1998), as well as the fact that positive emotions are fewer in number and less differentiated than negative emotions (Ellsworth and Smith, 1988).

Most commonly, the function of all positive emotion has been identified as facilitating approach behaviour (Cacioppo, priester and Berutson, 1993. Devidosn, 1993; Frijda, 1994) or continued action (Carver and Scheior, 1990; Clore, 1994). From this perspective, experience of positive emotions prompts individuals to engage with their environments and partake of activities, many of which are evolutionary adaptive for the individual, its species or both. Sensing that this traditional approach did not do justice to positive emotions, Fredreickson (1998) developed ‘the broad and build model’ that captures the unique effects of positive emotions.
3 Happiness:

Although some theory suggests that it is impossible to increase one's happiness, Lvubomirskv. Sheldon & Schkade, 2005 specifies conditions under which this may be accomplished. To illustrate the three classes of predictor in the model, they first review research on the demographic/circumstantial, temperament/personality, and intentional/experiential correlates of happiness. They then introduce the sustainable happiness model, which suggests that changing one's goals and activities in life is the best route to sustainable new SWB. However, the goals and activities must be of certain positive types, must fit one's personality and needs, must be practiced diligently and successfully, must be varied in their timing and enactment, and must provide a continued stream of fresh positive experiences. Research supporting the model is reviewed, including new research suggesting that happiness intervention effects are not just placebo effects.

Everyone wants to be happy. Indeed, happiness may be the ultimate fundamental 'goal' that people pursue in their lives (Diener, 2000), a pursuit enshrined as an Inalienable right in the US Declaration of Independence. The question of what produces happiness and well-being is the subject of a great deal of contemporary research, much of it falling under the rubric of 'positive psychology', an emerging field that also considers issues such as what makes for optimal relationships, optimal group functioning, and optimal communities. The question is whether it is possible to become lastingly happier in one's life; it is indeed possible to boost one's happiness level, and to sustain that newfound level.
3.1 Definition of Happiness

A number of possible definitions of happiness exist. The three proposed by Ed Diener in his landmark *Psychological Bulletin* (1984) article. The first is 'leading a virtuous life', in which the person adheres to society's vision of morality and proper conduct. This definition makes no reference to the person's feelings or emotions, instead apparently making the implicit assumption that reasonably positive feelings will ensue if the person toes the line. A second definition of happiness involves a cognitive evaluation of life as a whole. Are you content, overall, or would you do things differently given the opportunity? This reflects a person-centered view of happiness, and necessarily taps peoples' subjective judgments of whether they are satisfied with their lives. A third definition refers to typical moods. Are you typically in a positive mood (i.e., inspired, pleased, excited) or a negative mood (i.e., anxious, upset, depressed)? In this person-centered view, it is the balance of positive to negative mood that matters (Bradburn, 1969). Although many other conceptions of well-being exist (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999; Ryan & Frederick, 1997; Ryff & Singer, 1996), Ratings of life satisfaction and judgments of the frequency of positive and negative affect have received the majority of the research attention, illustrating the dominance of the second and third (person-centered) definitions of happiness in the research literature.

Notably, positive affect, negative affect, and life satisfaction are presumed to be somewhat distinct. Thus, although life satisfaction typically correlates positively with positive affect and negatively with
negative affect, and positive affect typically correlates negatively with negative affect, these correlations are not necessarily strong (and they also vary depending on whether one assesses a particular time or context, or the person's experience as a whole). The generally modest correlations among the three variables mean that an individual high in one indicator is not necessarily high (or low) in any other indicator. For example, a person with many positive moods might also experience many negative moods, and a person with predominantly good moods may or may not be satisfied with his or her life. As a case in point, a college student who has many friends and rewarding social interactions may be experiencing frequent pleasant affect, but, if he doubts that college is the right choice for him, he will be discontent with life. In contrast, a person experiencing many negative moods might nevertheless be satisfied with her life, if she finds her life meaningful or is suffering for a good cause. For example, a frazzled new mother may feel that all her most cherished life goals are being realized, yet she is experiencing a great deal of negative emotions on a daily basis. Still, the three quantities typically go together to an extent such that a comprehensive and reliable subjective well-being (SWB) indicator can be computed by summing positive affect and life satisfaction and subtracting negative affect.

Can we trust people's self-reports of happiness (or unhappiness)? Actually, we must: It would make little sense to claim that a person is happy if he or she does not acknowledge being happy. Still, it is possible to corroborate self-reports of well-being with reports from the respondents' friends and family. When this is done, reasonably good
agreement is usually found between self-reports and friend-reports, indicating that self-reports do correspond to something observable in the real world (Diener, 1994; Sandvik, Diener, & Seidlitz, 1993).

A cynic might ask: Does happiness even matter? Or, is the attempt to understand and promote happiness just another symptom of decadent Western culture's bourgeois self-obsession? In fact, happiness matters a great deal. A recent and comprehensive meta-analysis revealed a wide variety of benefits that accrue from positive emotion and well-being, including greater career success, better relationship functioning, increased creativity, enhanced physical health, and even longer life expectancy (Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2005). This meta-analysis amassed considerable longitudinal data supporting the proposition that happiness leads to success (rather than vice versa), thus, happiness is worth promoting, not only because it feels good, but because it is a wise social and public health investment.

In considering the research on happiness, we begin by examining some basic demographic and life-circumstantial variables that are associated with greater happiness. An obvious place to start is Income. Are wealthier people happier? The answer is 'yes, but not as much as you'd think'. In one meta-analysis of 85 studies, the correlation between income and happiness was only .17 (Haring, Stock, & Okun, 1984). Furthermore, this association typically has a curvilinear component, such that variations in income make the most difference at low levels of income; beyond a certain point of basic sufficiency, income has a smaller
effect (Arqyle, 1999; Plener & Biswas-Diener, 2002; Diener & Diener, 1995). Indeed, very well-off individuals are only slightly happier than the blue-collar workers they employ (Diener, Horwitz, & Emmons, 1985).

A somewhat larger effect of wealth has been observed at a between-country level of analysis, with citizens of richer countries typically describing themselves as considerably happier than citizens of poorer countries (Diener, Diener, & Diener, 1995). However, even this effect seems to be driven by a lack of basic self-sufficiency (i.e., unmet basic needs) in the poorest nations; among nations with adequate average income, national differences in SWB are driven by other factors besides gross domestic product, such as democratic government and support for equal rights (Diener et al., 1995). Another intriguing fact is that as countries become wealthier over time, their citizens' happiness does not increase (Diener & Oishi, 2000; Lane, 2000). Although many Americans have reached a level of affluence that would have amazed us 50 years ago (Easterbrook, 2003), happiness levels have not budged over those 50 years. This suggests that instead of focusing on enhancing gross domestic product, governments should instead focus on enhancing gross domestic happiness! And indeed, this is now the primary public policy goal of the Kingdom of Bhutan, a small country in the Himalayan Mountains. Money is a necessary, but not a sufficient, determinant of happiness.

What about other demographic predictors of happiness? Argyle (1999) concluded that chronological age has a small positive correlation with happiness, at least for some happiness measures (e.g., Charles,
Reynolds & Gatz, 2001: Diener & Suh, 1998). Although the relationship between age and happiness is complex and does not always emerge, both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies have found that older people tend to be happier than their younger peers. For example, a 22-year study of healthy veterans revealed that well-being increased over the course of these men's lives, peaked at age 65, and did not start significantly declining until age 75 (Mroczek & Spiro, 2005).

Education has an even smaller correlation with well-being than does age, which is mostly accounted for by the occupational status (as well as income) associated with greater education (Witter, Okun, Stock, & Haring, 1984). As this suggests, social status and class also have (small) effects on happiness. A slightly larger effect is found for marriage, with married people (especially women) being happier than unmarried people (Inglehart, 1990). Although this effect is due in part to happier people being more likely to attract marriage partners (Lyubomirsky, King & Diener, 2005). Religious people are also somewhat happier, although again, the effect is rather minor (cf. Ellison & Levin, 1998).

As this list illustrates, a surprising discovery of the research on demographic correlates of happiness is that overall such effects are small. Indeed, these life-circumstantial factors may account for less than 10% of the variance in happiness (Andrews & Withey, 1976). Although Diener (1984) suggested that the figure may be as high as 15%. This leads naturally to the question: What accounts for the rest? It appears that

24
biological, psychological, and behavioral variables must by some means determine the majority of happiness.

3.2 Determinant of happiness:

Perhaps the single most important determinant of happiness is genetics (Lykken & Tellegen, 1996? Tellegen et al, 1988). Simply put, some people arrive in this world with a predisposition to cheerfulness, optimism, and joy, whereas others are born with a predilection toward fearfulness, pessimism, and depression. Studies of twins separated at birth have yielded heritability estimates for happiness ranging from .40 to .70, with the most common figure around .50. This means that if you had been cloned at the time of your birth (or had had an identical twin, unbeknownst to you), with the clone (or twin) being raised in a different part of the world, your happiness today could be well predicted by the clone or twin's SWB! In personality trait terms, peoples' characteristic levels of neuroticism and extraversion (the traits most closely related to happiness) are already in place at birth, and will remain largely stable across the lifespan. These personality traits appear to be rooted, ultimately, in peoples' basic settings on core features of biological temperament, including approach, avoidance, activation, and inhibition (Buss & Plomin, 1984).

In short, an unsettling implication of the heritability data is that happiness cannot be changed. You and your clone will, of course, vary over time, sometimes falling below and sometimes rising above the happiness level predicted by your genes (although the particular genes involved are yet undiscovered). However, you will both tend to keep
returning to the same baseline level - a "regression to the mean" effect that is strong enough to generate the large correlation listed above - despite the fact that your within-person variations would likely be out of sync with one another. If happiness is indeed unchangeable, several implications follow:

(i) The "pursuit of happiness" guaranteed by the US Declaration of Independence is folly.

(ii) Positive psychology's attempts to promote and enhance peoples' happiness are futile.

(iii) Self-help books and the people who buy them are deluded, and

(iv) We might as well get used to and resign ourselves to the basic happiness level we are dealt.

Since 'what goes up must come down', trying to become happier may be doomed to failure, perhaps even leading to unnecessary unhappiness!

A related reason why happiness increase attempts may be futile is hedonic adaptation (see Frederick & Loewenstein. 1999a for a review). People are very good at adjusting to their circumstances, so that what was originally a source of joy (or irritation) becomes part of the unnoticed background, losing its power to impact them. Indeed, the well-known study of Brickman, Coates and Janoff-Bulman (1978) suggested that even recent lottery winners and paralysis victims tend to return to their original happiness baselines, after experiencing initial boosts or decrements, respectively. Gilbert, Pinel, Wilson. Blumberg and Wheatley (1998) have referred to a "psychological immune system' that protects people from suffering too long or maladaptive from negative events; unfortunately, this immune system may also prevent us from

26
experiencing lasting enhancements in happiness. As this reasoning suggests, happiness may operate like a homeostatic system; each individual may have a "set point" for happiness to which she keeps returning, in the same way that her body resists departures from weight and other metabolic set points.

3.3 Change in happiness:

If you want long-term changes in happiness, this is not impossible thing. First, recall that the heritability of happiness is only .50, a large number to be sure, but one that still allows considerable room to maneuver compared to other inherited biological features (such as eye color). Second, as previously mentioned, chronological age is positively (although modestly) correlated with happiness (Argyle, 1999). This finding in itself indicates that happiness can increase over a period of decades, rather than remaining permanently stable. Third, emerging longitudinal research suggests that despite the strong heritability of personality traits, people do tend to move towards more positive trait profiles as they age, in particular becoming lower in neuroticism as they approach middle age (Wood & Roberts, 2006). Research by Sheldon and colleagues suggests that one source of these positive age-related changes is older peoples' ability to resist social pressures and to pursue goals for more self-endorsed reasons, the result of a normative maturational process (Sheldon & Kasser, 2001; see also Carstensen, Isaacowitz, & Charles, 1999). Other reasons for optimism include the fact that psychotherapy can have a measurable and lasting positive impact upon peoples' mood and adjustment (Smith, Glass & Miller, 1980). The fact that some well-being interventions have shown a degree of success.
(Fava, Rafanelli, Cazzaro, Conti, & Grandi, 1998; Fava et al., 2005; Fordvce. 1977, 1983), and the fact that starting a happy marriage has been shown to have lasting positive impacts on happiness for some individuals (Lucas, Clark, Georgellis, & Diener, 2003). Further consistent with the notion that well-being can be permanently altered, Lucas (2007) summarized research showing that events such as divorce, death of a spouse, unemployment, and disability are associated with lasting negative changes in happiness. Although in one sense this is distressing news, in another sense it supports our argument that the set point is not destiny.

Lyubomirsky, Sheldon, & Schkade, 2005; Sheldon & Lyubomirsky, (2004) have argued that the remaining 40% of the variance must perforce by determined by what people do - that is, the activities with which people fill up their days, with greater or lesser degrees of success and enjoyment. Our model of sustainable happiness thus focuses in particular upon the various forms and qualities of intentional activity that people engage in, as the crucial determinant of variation in happiness. The model also specifies that people can sustain ably increase their happiness, if they appropriately and intentionally tailor their lives.

4. Stress:
4.1 Definition:

Stress is a psychological and physiological response to events that upset our personal balance in some way. When faced with a threat, whether to our physical safety or emotional equilibrium, the body's defenses kick into high gear in a rapid, automatic process known as the
"fight-or-flight" response. We all know what this stress response feels like: heart pounding in the chest, muscles tensing up, breathes coming faster, every sense on red alert.

Stress is a common human phenomenon. Stress in humans results from a complex interaction between the events of life and the perception of those events by an individual. The element of perception indicates the personality of an individual. As the personalities of individuals are distinctive, the reactions to stress of individuals are too. It is unique and personal to each of us like the individual's age, gender and genetic make up. Environmental factors, such as diet, drugs and temperature extremes also influence the response to stress.

Stress is an individual's physical and mental reaction to pressures. In the recent past, however, the word Stressor has been used for the stimulus that provokes a stress response. Stressors fall within five broad categories: personal, social, familial, work and the environment. These stressful events have been linked to a variety of psychological physical complaints.

4.2 Causes and Symptoms:
Stress can be caused by any event or occurrence that a person considers a threat to his or her coping strategies or resources. Stress is a wide variety of dissimilar situations that are capable of producing the stress response such as fatigue, effort, pain, fear and even success. So stress is a product of bio psychosocial aspect of human environment.
As per the Bio psychosocial Model of Stress, stress involves three components: an external component, an internal component, and the interaction between the external and internal components. The external component of the Bio-psychosocial Models of stress involves environmental events that precede the recognition of stress and can elicit a stress response. The internal component of stress involves a set of neurological and physiological reactions to stress. Hans Selye has defined stress as "nonspecific" in that the stress response can result from a variety of different kinds of stressors and he thus focused on the internal aspects of stress.

Stress goes through three phases: Alarm Reaction, Stage of Resistance and Exhaustion. He termed this set of responses as the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS). This general reaction to stress is viewed as a set of reactions that mobilize the organism's resources to deal with an impending threat.

The Alarm Reaction is equivalent to the fight or flight response and includes the various neurological and physiological responses when confronted with a stressor. When a threat is perceived the hypothalamus signals both the sympathetic nervous system and the pituitary. The sympathetic nervous system stimulates the adrenal glands. The adrenal glands release corticosteroids to increase metabolism, which provides immediate energy. The pituitary gland releases adrenocorticotropic hormone (ACTH) which also affects the adrenal glands. The adrenal glands then release epinephrine and nor epinephrine, which prolongs the fight or flight response.
The Stage of Resistance is a continued state of arousal. If the stressful situation is prolonged, the high level of hormones during the resistance phase may upset homeostasis and harm internal organs leaving the organism valuable to disease.

The Exhaustion stage occurs after prolonged resistance. During this stage, the body's energy reserves are finally exhausted and breakdown occurs. In humans, many of the diseases precipitated or caused by stress occur in the resistance stage and he refer to these as "diseases of adaptation" - These diseases of adaptation include headaches, insomnia, high blood pressure, and cardiovascular and kidney diseases.

The symptoms of stress can be either physical or psychological. Stress-related physical illnesses, such as irritable bowel syndrome, heat attacks, and chronic headaches, result from long term over-stimulation of a part of the nervous system that regulates the heat rate, blood pressure and digestive system.

Stress is a normal part of life. At one time or another, most people experience stress. The term stress has been used to describe a variety of negative feelings and reactions that accompany threatening or challenging situations. Selye calls this type of unpleasant and harmful stress as distress. However, not all stress reactions are negative. There are positive stressors too. Selye calls the positive form of stress as eustress. Stressors that produce eustress can enhance longevity,
productivity and life satisfaction. A certain amount of stress is actually necessary for survival.

The human response to stress is complex and multidimensional. Stress affects the individuals at several levels. Especially, if affects the human physiologically, emotionally and psychologically. Psychological effects of stress are associated with the onset of depression or anxiety. The repeated release of stress hormone produces adrenal axis and disrupts normal level of Serotonin, the nerve chemical that is critical for feelings of well-being. Certainly, on a more obvious level, stress diminishes the quality of life by reducing feelings of pleasure and accomplishment, and relationships are often threatened. Stress may also be a risk factor for suicide.

The effects of mental stress on heart disease are controversial. Stress, however, can influence the activity of the heart when it activates the sympathetic nervous system (the autonomic part of the nervous system that affects many organs, including the heart). Such actions and others could negatively affect the heart in several ways such as impair the clearance of fat molecules in the body and raising blood-cholesterol levels etc. In some people prolonged or frequent mental stress causes an exaggerated increase in blood pressure.

Stress can have varying effects on eating problems and body weight. Especially stress is related to weight gain and obesity. The release of Cortisol, a major stress hormone, appears to promote abdominal fat and may be the primary connection between stress and
weight gain. Cortisol is a glucocorticoid. And glucocorticoids, along with insulin, appear to be responsible for stress related food cravings. Some people suffer a loss of appetite and lose weight during periods of stress. In rare cases, stress may trigger hyperactivity of the thyroid gland, stimulating appetite but causing the body to burn up calories at a faster than normal rate.

The tensions of unresolved stress frequently cause insomnia, generally keeping the stressed person awake or causing awakening in the middle of the night or early morning; In fact, evidence suggests that stress hormones can increase during sleep in anticipation of a specific waking time.

Stress may cause physiological alterations, such as increased adrenal hormone levels or resistance in the arteries, which may interface with normal blood flow to the placenta. Maternal stress during pregnancy has been linked to a higher risk for miscarriage, lower birth weights, and increased incidence of premature birth. Some evidence also suggests that stress experienced by expectant mothers can even influence the way in which the baby's brain and nervous system will react to stressful events. Indeed, one study found a higher rate of crying and low attention in infants of mothers who had been stressed during pregnancy.

Stress affects the brain, particularly, memory but the effects differ significantly depending on whether the stress is acute or chronic stress also causes skin allergies, stress plays a role in exacerbating a number of skin conditions, including hives, psoriasis, acne rosacea, and eczema.
Unexplained itching may also be caused by stress. Chronic stress affects the immune system in complex ways, which may have various effects such as susceptibility to infections out of low white cell counts, gastrointestinal problems, irritable bowel syndrome, peptic ulcers, and inflammatory bowel disease.

Complete prevention of stress is neither possible nor desirable because stress is an important stimulus of human growth and creativity as well as an inevitable part of life. In additional specific strategies for stress prevention varies widely from person to person, depending on the nature and number of the stressors in an individual's life, and the amount of control he or she has over these factors. In general however a combination of attitudinal and behavioral changes works well for most patients. The best form of prevention appears to be patients. The best form of prevention appears to be parental modeling of healthy attitudes and behaviors within the family.