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Subjective Well-Being of Majority and Minority People of Bangladesh as A Function of Their Gender, Education, Income and Employment Status

Muhammad, Noor

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**SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING OF MAJORITY AND MINORITY
PEOPLE OF BANGLADESH AS A FUNCTION OF THEIR
GENDER, EDUCATION, INCOME AND
EMPLOYMENT STATUS**



*A Thesis Submitted to the University of Rajshahi, Bangladesh, in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of
Philosophy in Psychology*

Supervisor

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May- 2008

Dedicated
To
My Dearest Son Noor Salaphy

DECLARATION

Except where full references have been given, the thesis contains the independent original work of the author.

This thesis has not been submitted before, nor it is being submitted anywhere else at the same time for award any degree or diploma.

Rajshahi University


31.05.08
(Noor Muhammad)

CERTIFICATE

Certified that the thesis entitled **SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING OF MAJORITY AND MINORITY PEOPLE OF BANGLADESH AS A FUNCTION OF THEIR GENDER, EDUCATION, INCOME AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS** submitted by **Noor Muhammad**, to the University of Rajshahi, for attaining Ph.D. degree in Psychology, has been done under my supervision. I recommend this Ph.D. thesis for evaluation.

May 2008

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The Author

ABSTRACT

The present study was designed to investigate the subjective well-being of majority and minority people of Bangladesh as a function of their gender, education, income and employment status. It involved a $2 \times 2 \times 3 \times 3 \times 2$ factorial design consisting of two levels of group status (Majority and Minority), two levels of sex (Male and Female), three levels of education (Undergraduate, Graduate and Postgraduate), three levels of income (High, Medium and Low) and two levels of employment status (Employed and Unemployed).

The following hypotheses were formulated to test in this study:

- i) The majority people would express better subjective well-being than the minority people.
- ii) Men would express better subjective well-being than women.
- iii) Highly educated people would express better subjective well-being than less educated people.
- iv) Subjects from high income group would express better subjective well-being than subjects from low income group.
- v) Employed people would express better subjective well-being than unemployed people.

A Bangla adaptation of short version of Subjective Well-being (SWB) Questionnaire of Nagpal and Sell (1985) was administered to measure subjective well-being of 360 majority and 360 minority respondents selected from six administrative areas of Bangladesh. Then the subjects were classified on the basis of their gender, education, income and employment status.

The data of the study were analyzed employing analysis of variance and t-test. The results of the study confirm the hypotheses. The subjective well-being of majority people was found to be significantly higher than that of minority people regardless of gender, education, income and employment status. The findings also suggest that the subjective well-being of male respondents was significantly higher than that of female respondents. In the results, subjective well-being was found to vary as a function of income, education and employment status of the respondents. The subjective well-being of high income group was found to be significantly better than that of medium and low income group. The subjective well-being of postgraduate respondents was significantly higher than that of graduate and undergraduate respondents. The results also suggest that the subjective well-being of employed respondents was significantly higher than that of unemployed respondents.

The interaction effects among group status, gender, education, income and employment status was also found to be statistically significant which suggest that the intensity of subjective well-being varies with the variation of any one of these factors.

Thus, the results of the study suggest that group status, gender, education, income and employment status are the significant independent variables of subjective well-being.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

Throughout history philosophers considered happiness to be the highest good and ultimate motivation for human action. Yet for decades, psychologists largely ignored positive subjective well-being, although human unhappiness was explored in depth. In the last decades behavioral and social scientist have corrected this situation and interested to investigate the relationship between SWB and other variables. Here the present investigator attempted to investigate subjective well-being of the majority and minority people of the Bangladesh as a function of their gender, education, income and employment status. Hence, the purpose of the chapter is to highlight the nature and operational definitions of subjective well-being (SWB), minority and majority people and also to provide a theoretical framework in support of the present study.

Nature of subjective well-being:

Subjective well-being is a field of psychology that attempts to understand people's evaluations of their lives. These evaluations may be primarily cognitive (e.g., life satisfaction or marital satisfaction) or may consist of the frequency with which people experience pleasant emotion (e.g., joy, as measured by the experience sampling technique) and unpleasant emotions (e.g., depression). Researchers in the fields strive to understand not just undesirable clinical states, but also differences between people in positive levels of long term well-being. Several social psychological concepts tap aspects of the quality of life indirectly, such as self-esteem, depression, locus of control, or alienation, but only life satisfaction and happiness have a "bottom-line" finality in term of consequences for the

individual. It is clear, however, that perceived happiness and satisfaction are closely related to these other concepts (Robinson, 1969).

Many philosopher and social scientists have concerned themselves with defining happiness or well being. Definitions of well being and happiness can be grouped into three categories.

First, well being has been defined by external criteria such as virtue or holiness. Coan (1977) received the varying conceptions of the ideal condition that have held sway in different cultures and eras. In normative definitions happiness is not thought of as a subjective state, but rather as possessing some desirable quality. Such definitions are normative because they define what is desirable. Thus, when Aristotle wrote the eudemonia is gained mainly by leading a virtuous life, he did not mean that virtue leads to feelings of joy. Rather Aristotle was prescribing virtue as the normative standard against which people's lives can be judged. Therefore, eudemonia is not happiness in the modern senses of the world, but a desirable state judged from a particular value framework. The criterion for happiness of this type is not actor's subjective judgement, but the value framework of the observer. A related meaning of the happiness given by Tatarkiewicz (1976) is success, which must be defined relative to some standard.

Second, social scientists have focused on the question of the leads people to evaluate their in positive terms. This definition of subjective well-being has come to be labeled life satisfaction and relies on the standards of the respondent to determine what the good life is. Although well-being from a subjective perspective has become a popular idea in the last century, this concept can be traced back several millennia. For example,

Marcus Aurelius wrote, “no man is happy who does not think himself so”. Shin and Johnson, (1978) have defined this form of happiness as “a global assessment of a person’s quality of life according to his own chosen criteria”. Andrews and Withey (1976) found that over 99% of their respondents had previously made such an assessment of their lives. A related set of definitions of happiness is that it is the harmonious satisfaction of one’s desires and goals (Chekola, 1975). If one is concerned with the person’s assessments of this, then it clearly falls within the realm of subjective well-being and is an idea related to satisfaction.

A third meaning of happiness comes closest to the way the term is used in everyday discourse as denoting a preponderance of positive affect over negative affect (Bradburn, 1969). This definition of subjective well-being thus stresses pleasant emotional experience. This may mean either that the person is experiencing mostly pleasant emotions during this period of life or that the person is pre-disposed to such emotions, whether or not he or she is currently experiencing them.

Subjective well-being can be defined as the individual’s current evaluation of her happiness. Such an evaluation is often expressed in affective terms; when asked about subjective well-being, participants will often say “I feel good”(Sehwartz & Strack, 1999).

Psychologists often use the term subjective well-being to refer to happiness. Mullis (1990) states that subjective well-being is related to personal goals, life expectations and the means to attain them. Diener and Diener (1994) define happiness as the cognitive and affective evaluation by the individual of his or her life. The cognitive evaluation refers to long-run life objectives satisfaction, while the affective

evaluation is associated with daily emotions experienced by the individual (Veenhoven, 1994).

Subjective well-being (SWB) refers to how people evaluate their lives and includes variables such as life satisfaction and marital satisfaction, lack of depression and anxiety and positive mood and emotions. The idea of subjective well-being or happiness has intrigued thinkers for millennia, although it is only in recent years that it has been measured and studied in a systematic way. A person's evaluation of his or her life may be in the form of cognition (e.g., when a person gives conscious evaluative judgments about his or her satisfaction with life as a whole or evaluative judgment about specific aspects of his or her life such as relation).

However, an evaluation of one's life also may be in the form of affect (people experiencing unpleasant or pleasant moods and emotions in reaction to their lives). Thus, a person is said to have high SWB if she or he experiences life satisfaction and frequently joy and only infrequently experiences unpleasant emotions such as sadness and anger. Contrariwise, a person is said to have low SWB if he or she is dissatisfied with life, experiences little joy and affection and frequently feels negative emotions such as anger or anxiety. The cognition and affective components of SWB are highly interrelated and only recently we are beginning to understand the relationship between various types of SWB.

Most people evaluate what is happiness to them as either good or bad, so they are normally able to offer judgments about their lives. Further more, people virtually always experience moods and emotions, which have a hedonic component that is pleasant, signaling a positive reaction or unpleasant, signaling a negative reaction. Thus, people have a level of

SWB even if they do not often consciously think about it and the psychological system offers virtually a constant evaluation of what is happening to the person.

Cardinal characteristics of SWB:

There are several cardinal characteristics of SWB (Diener, 1984).

First, the field covers the entire range of well-being from agony to ecstasy. It does not focus only on undesirable states such as depression or hopelessness. Instead, individual differences in the levels of positive well-being are also considered important. Thus, the field of SWB includes the undesirable states that are treated by clinical psychologists; it is not limited to the study of these undesirable states. In other words, the field is concerned not just with the causes of depression and anxiety, but also with the factors that differentiate slightly happy people from moderately happy and extremely happy people.

Second, SWB is defined in terms of internal experience of the respondent. An external frame of reference is not imposed when assessing SWB. Although many criteria of mental health are dictated from outside by researchers and practitioners (e.g., maturity, autonomy, realism), SWB is measured from individuals from their own perspective. If a woman thinks her life is going well, then it is going well with this framework. Again, this characteristic focuses on the respondent's point of view, differentiating the field of SWB from traditional clinical psychology. In the latter field, weight is given to people's own perceptions of their lives, but oftentimes people are seen to have a problem even if they themselves do not realize it. In the field of SWB, a person's beliefs about his or her own well-being are of paramount importance. Naturally,

this approach has both advantages and disadvantages. Although it gives ultimate authority to our respondents, it also means that SWB cannot be a consummate definition of mental health because people may be disrobed even if they are happy. Thus, a psychologist will usually consider measures in addition to SWB in evaluating a person's mental health.

Finally, SWB is the field that focuses on long-term states, not just momentary moods. Although a person's moods are likely to fluctuate with each new event, the SWB researcher is most interested in the person's moods over time. Often what leads to happiness at the moment may not be the same what produces long term SWB.

Components of subjective well-being

There are three primary components of subjective well being (SWB)-

- ▶ Satisfaction
- ▶ Pleasant affect and
- ▶ Low levels of unpleasant affect.

Subjective well-being structured such that these three components from a global factor of interrelated variables. Each of the three major facets of SWB can in turn be broken into subdivisions. Global satisfaction can be divided into satisfaction with the various domains of life such as reaction, love, marriage, friendship and so forth, and these domains can in turn be divided into facets. Pleasant affect can be divided into specific emotion such as joy, affection, and pride. Finally, unpleasant or unpleasant affect can be separated into specific emotions and moods such as shame, sadness, anger, and anxiety. Each of the subdivisions of affect can also be subdivided even further. Subjective well-being can be assessed at the

global levels or at progressively narrower levels, depending on one's purpose.

Another important area in assessing of SWB is the distinction between on-line measures of well-being (at the moment) versus global reports of longer time periods that are based on memory. If we randomly sample people's experiences over time, we can obtain a measure of their on-line levels of SWB. Often pagers, alarm watches, or hand-held computers are used for the random experience sampling method to assess whether most of a person's moments are pleasant or unpleasant? In contrast, we can also ask respondents for a retrospective, global evaluation. The distinction between the two types of SWB is heightened because certain "biases" exist when momentary affect is translated into global reports. That is, on-line or momentary moods are not reflected in a straightforward way when global judgements are requested. For instant, in formulating global judgements, people heavy weight the peak moment during an episode, and also strongly attend to how the episode ended. Fredrickson and Kahneman(1993) call this the peak/end rule. They that people show relative neglect for how long an episode lasted in evaluating how pleasant it was. An episode that ends well is more likely to be remembered positively, regardless of how pleasant it was earlier. Thus, we are beginning to develop an understanding of SWB defined as a series of happy moments versus happiness defined as global judgments. Although on-line and global SWB are related, they are not identical. The understanding of the causes of these two different modes of SWB is in its infancy, although this area does have applied implementations.

Subjective Well-being and Mental Health

Subjective well-being is not synonymous with mental health or psychological health. A delusional person might be happy and satisfied with his life, and yet we would not say that he possesses mental health. A person who is out of touch with her own motives and emotions might say she is happy, but we would not consider her to possess complete psychological health. Thus, SWB is not a sufficient condition for psychological well-being. Carol Ryff (1989; Ryff & Keyes, 1995) outlines additional characteristics beyond SWB (e.g., environmental mastery, personal growth, and purpose in life) that are important to mental health. Therefore, although we believe that SWB is important, it is not identical to psychological health.

SWB is a necessary condition for mental health

It appears that some people function well in many aspects of their lives, but are not particularly happy. Examples come to mind of individuals who are dysphonic, but who make significant contributions to society. Some might argue, however, that SWB is a necessary condition for mental health because a person cannot be functioning well if he or she is depressed for prolonged periods of time, or suffers from debilitating anxiety. We have not yet determined, however, the level of SWB that is optimal for mental health and good functioning.

Subjective well-being is only one aspect of psychological well-being. Nevertheless, the subjective frame of reference implicit in the concept of SWB has the strength of being based on the respondent's own internal perspective, and thus gives priority and respect to people's own views of their lives. Rather than a standard imposed by a mental health

professional, SWB grants importance to the experience of people. The focus on an internal perspective means that other criteria of well-being recognized by the community, philosophers, or by mental health professionals may not be met in every individual who has high SWB. Although we cannot say whether high SWB is essential for mental health, we can say that most people consider it to be a desirable characteristic.

Majority and Minority Group

The term majority and minority group must not be conceptualized only in term of size of the group. From a social psychological point of view, a majority group is a group in which the members have significantly high power, control and influence over their own lives than the members of a minority group. On the other hand, minority group is a group in which the members have significantly less power, control and influence over their own lives than the members of a dominant group (Simpson and Yinger, 1985; Schaefer and Lamm, 1992). Minority group is a population sub group possessing social or religious interests that differ from those of the larger group. Minority groups are subjected to various kinds of segregation and unfavorable treatment that may be legal, quasilegal or purely social (Atkinson et al., 1987). For the purpose of the investigation in the present study, Bengali Muslims represented majority group and Bengali Hindus constituted minority group.

► Characteristics of minority group

Eitzen (1982) find out some characteristics of minority groups. Such as-

1. Minority group is dominated by a more powerful group.
2. Minority group is composed of persons with similar characteristics that differ significantly from the dominant group.

3. Minority group member is stereotyped and systematically condemned by the dominant or majority group.
4. Minority groups are singled out of the differential and unfair treatment.

Creation of a Minority Group

► Migration

Transfer of population by emigration (leaving a country to settle in another). Immigration (coming to a country) may be voluntary (such as *Japanese Americans and other Asian Americans*) or it may be involuntary (such as *African Americans through slavery*). Immigrations can occur within a country such as the Great Black Immigration from the South to the North.

► Annexation

The incorporation or attachment of land that is contiguous to the nation; can result from war (such as *Mexican Americans in Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo*) or purchase such as (*Native Americans and Eskimos in Alaska*). With annexation, the dominant power generally attempts to suppress the language and culture of the minority groups.

► Colonialism

The maintenance of political, social, economic, and cultural domination over people by a foreign power for an extended period (Such as *Native Americans in the United States and Native Hawaiians*). Even to day Puerto Rico continues to be a colony. Colonialism is usually external but can also be internal.

Consequence of Minority Group Status**► Extermination**

Elimination of a people; includes genocide or the deliberate, systematic killing of an entire; describes White policies toward Native Americans; in 1850 Indian population was 600, 00 by 1850, it was 250,000.

► Expulsion

A dominant group may force a specific minority group to leave a certain area or even vacate a country; For example, the Us government drove virtually all Native Americans out of their tribal lands on to reservations.

► Secession

A group secedes to form a new nation or moves to an already establish nation where it becomes dominant; The American Colonization Society sought to form a new nation for *African Americans* in Liberia, some proposals also advanced establishing settlements in the western United States.

► Segregation

The physical separation of two groups in residence, workplace and social functions. Segregation can be legally imposed as it was under Jim Crow laws, or as Native Americans on reservation or it residential, social and educational segregation of Hispanic/Latino Americans and *African Americans*.

► Fusion

Result when a minority and a majority group combine to form a new group. Fusion does not require intermarriage, but it is similar to amalgamation or the cultural and physical synthesis of various groups

into a new people; only modest evidence of fusion in the United States, although there is a push by multiracial people to have a separate legal identity from either the minority or majority groups.

► **Assimilation**

Process by which a minority individual or groups takes on the characteristics of the dominant group. The process whereby individuals or groups of differing ethnic heritage are absorbed into the dominant culture of a society. Usually they are immigrants or hitherto isolated minorities who, through contact and participation in the larger culture, gradually give up most of their former culture traits and take on the new traits.

► **Pluralism**

Process by which a majority and minority individual or groups keep their separate identity.

However, Majority- Minority inter- relations appears as a vital social problem in Bangladesh. In fact India was divided mainly due to majority-minority problems in terms of Hindu- Muslim inter group relationship. Geo-surgery of Bengal on August 14, 1947 in West Bengal's an Indian territory and East Bengal as a province Pakistan was done due to hostile inter group behaviour between Bengali-Muslims and Bengali-Hindus. These phenomena indicate that majority- minority in term of Muslim and Hindus in Bangladesh is a social reality and reciprocal influence processes.

Theories of subjective well-being

Wilson (1967) stated that little theoretical progress in understanding happiness had been made since the time of the ancient Greeks. Although several notable theoretical advances have occurred in the last decade, progress is still limited. A closer connection between theory and research is sorely needed. This review focuses on some of the more provocative psychological theories related to happiness. These are -

Telic Theories:-

Telic or endpoint theories of subjective well-being maintain that happiness is gained when some state, such as goal or need, is reached. One theoretical postulate offered by Wilson (1960) is that the "Satisfaction of needs causes happiness and conversely, the persistence of unfulfilled needs causes unhappiness". Much of research on SWB seems to have been based on an implicit model related to needs and goals. The degree of resources presumably related to needs and desires is assessed and correlated with SWB. However, specific theoretical formulations are rare in this work.

Many philosophers were concerned with questions related to Telic theories. For example, they asked whether happiness is gained by satisfying one's desires or by suppressing them. Whereas hedonistic philosophers have recommended the fulfillment of desires, ascetics have recommended the annihilation of desire. Which desires and goals are more important, and what balance should be struck between different types of desires? Are certain desires deleterious to happiness? Perhaps one of the most important questions is whether happiness comes from already having one's desires fulfilled, from having recently achieved a

desire, or from the process of moving toward desired objects. Seitovsky (1976) stated, "Being on the way to those goals and struggling to achieve them are more satisfying than is the actual attainment of the goals".

Alternative Telic theories have been derived from different origins of the striving. In need theories, there are certain inborn or learned needs that the person seeks to fulfill. The person may or may not be aware of these needs. Nevertheless, it is postulated that happiness will follow from their fulfillment. In contrast, goal theories are based on specific desires of which the person is aware. The person is consciously seeking certain goals and happiness results when they reached (Michalos, 1980). Goals and needs are related in that underlying needs may lead to specific goals. A person may also have certain values that lead to specific goals. Needs may be universal such as those postulated by Maslow, or they may differ markedly from individual such as those proposed by Murray. There is widespread agreement that the fulfillment of needs, goals and desires is somehow related to happiness.

Maslow proposed a universal hierarchy of needs that emerges in the same order in all persons. Individual should experience SWB if they are fulfilling the needs at their particular level, although it is also possible that happiness might be higher for those at higher levels of the need hierarchy. Research findings on Maslow's theory are not encouraging (e.g., Lawler and Suttle, 1972; Wahba & Bridwell, 1976), so more work is needed before applying the theory to happiness. Murray postulated a large number of needs varying in their origin. People differ greatly in these needs, Diener, Larsen and Emmons (1984, 1986) found some support for the idea that people experience happiness when their particular needs are fulfilled. For example, individuals high in SWB perceived their

goals as more important and as higher in their probability of success (Emmons, 1986), whereas those low in SWB perceived more conflict between their goals (Emmons and King, 1988). Carver and Scheier (1990) further postulated that progress toward goals at a rate higher than the standard leads to positive affect, whereas progress at a rate higher than the standard leads to negative affect. Brunstein (1993) further found that a higher level of commitment, along with a sense of progress, contributed to higher SWB.

The success of people in meeting their goals also depends on their strategies and situational affordances (Cantor, 1994; Canto, Norem, Nieclenthal, Langston & Brower, 1987; Norem and Cantor 1986; Spencer & Norem, 1996). Norem and Ildingworth (1993), for instance, found that individuals high in strategic optimism performed the task better under a distraction condition. Cantor and Harlow (1994) further demonstrated that the congruence between life task pursuit and social context was related to positive emotional experience. These findings, therefore, illuminate the importance of flexible life task pursuit in attaining needs and goals. In the telic approach, SWB ought to follow from people using strategies that are compatible with their personality and their environment in pursuing their goals.

A number of universal human needs (e.g., for efficacy, self-approval, and understanding) have been proposed. If these are truly universal needs, then their fulfillment should correlate with happiness in all cultures. Reich and Zautra (1981) postulated that personal causation or efficacy is a ubiquitous source of positive affect, and Csikszentmihalyi and Figurski (1982) found that voluntariness is a positive aspect of experience. The importance of social support to happiness (Campbell et al., 1976)

suggests that this could be a ubiquitous need. An optimum level of arousal has also been proposed as a major source of happiness. Scitovsky (1976) maintained that the correct level of stimulation or novelty increases positive affect.

Goals and desires are usually thought of as more conscious than needs. Most individuals have had the experience of feeling happy when they achieve some important goal. However, a key question is whether goal fulfillment leads to longer-term differences in SWB between persons, rather than just short-term mood elevations. Some theorists (e.g., Chekola, 1975) argued that happiness depends on the continuing fulfillment of one's life plan, the total integrated set of person's goals. Some goals may be in conflict with others. Thus, according to the life plan approach, happiness depends on two key related factors: harmonious integration of one's goals and fulfillment of these goals.

In a vein similar to the life plan approach, Palys and Little (1983) hypothesized that people have personal projects or concerns and that these projects can be integrated into a total project system. They measured these projects and found that dissatisfied people were committed to goals that held the prospect of long-term reward, but that had little short-term reinforcement or enjoyment. Their projects were difficult and long term. More satisfied individuals had projects that were more enjoyable, less difficult, and more important at that time.

According to telic approach, there are several things that can interfere with SWB. First, individuals may desire goals that bring short-term happiness but have long-term consequences that are deleterious to happiness because they interfere with other goals. Second, people's goals

and desires may be in conflict, and thus it is impossible to satisfy them fully. Because their needs or desires might be unconscious, it would be difficult to identify and integrate them if they were in conflict. Third, individuals could be bereft of happiness because they had no goals or desires. Finally, people may be unable to gain their goals because of poor conditions or skills, or because the goals are so lofty.

There are several shortcomings to the current telic approaches. They have rarely been formulated in a clear way and then tested. Many of these approaches are not falsifiable. Needs or goals are sometimes described in a circular way, depending on the observations the concept is to explain. Clear measures of needs and goals are needed, and longitudinal methodologies would help indicate whether achieving the goals actually heightens SWB. Gordon (1975) compared the importance of various types of resources and examines how the need for these may have developed in childhood. Theoretical works such as this is needed in which various types of goals or needs and their fulfillment are related to various types of SWB. Formulations such as Bentham's law of diminishing marginal utility can be tested empirically in relation to SWB. One limitation to the law of marginal utility is that it seems to apply to some things (e.g., money), but not to others (e.g., skills).

An individual's life tasks or goals are influenced by the developmental phases, cultural goals and individual needs (Cantor & Kihlstrom, 1989). In the U.S.A., academic success and intimacy are representative life tasks among college students, whereas social participation is a prototypical life task among retirees (Cantor & Harlow, 1994). Most relevant to SWB research is that a shift in life tasks is accompanied by changes in the dominant predictors of SWB. Specially, for college students, satisfaction

with grades and satisfaction with romantic relationship were strong predictors of overall life satisfaction (Emmons & Diener, 1985). On the other hand, work satisfaction was a major predictor among working adults, and social participation was a significant predictor of overall life satisfaction for retirees (Harlow & Cantor, 1996). As such, although the level of life satisfaction is fairly stable (e.g., Magnus, Diener, Fujita & Pavot, 1993), factors predicting SWB may change over time. Therefore, it is important to examine shifts in correlates of SWB across life span to understand processes of SWB.

Although the above telic approaches treat different goals as equivalent in terms of their ability to produce SWB, it is possible that the contents of goals differ in terms of efficacy in producing SWB. In other words, some types of goals may be more beneficial than others. Veenhoven (1991) proposed that aims related to universal human needs are those that produce long-term SWB. According to this approach, people can not be happy when experiencing chronic hunger, danger or isolation. In this view, some goal strivings and success may not produce SWB because they are based on superficial desires that are not based on intrinsic human needs. In contrast, obtaining food and other biological needs is more likely to be predictive of SWB, according to Veenhoven.

Economic theory and well-being

According to the economic definition of well-being, higher levels of income are associated with higher levels of well-being. As income increases a greater number of needs are satisfied and a higher standard of well-being is attained. Esterlin (1974) sustains that the impact of income on subjective well-being depends on standards that change over time according to the individual's expectations and social comparisons. Thus,

factors such as the relationship between the present and former economic situation and the individual's wealth in relation to that of reference individual's (Meadow, 1992) could influence a person's happiness regardless of his or her income level (Diener and Diener, 1996; Pardo, 1968, 1982).

Venhuve (1988, 1991) assumes a relationship between basic needs satisfaction and subjective well-being. People with higher income levels can easily satisfy their basic needs (food, housing, health, etc.) and therefore, attain a higher subjective well-being. Venhuve's approach suggests the existence of a threshold level where income impact on subjective well-being is not important.

Brickman et al; (1978) focus on the emotional capabilities of individuals to adapt the positive and negative events. Thus, individuals with higher adaptation capabilities tend to be happier (even in situations of low-income levels).

According to aspiration theory the degree of satisfaction/ dissatisfaction experienced by a person is related to the ratio of his/her satisfied desires to his/her total desires. Individuals who believe that their desires are fully satisfied tend to be happier than individuals who think they have unsatisfied desires, regardless of their income levels. This approach to the concept of happiness takes into consideration not only the degree of satisfied needs (which is presumably related to income) but also the individual's total desires (which are also presumably related to income).

Social Comparison Theory

Richard Esterlin (1974) proposed that nations do not differ in SWB because people within nations compare only to each other on attributes such as income. Therefore, although richer people within a nation are likely to be happier than poorer people in that country, nations ought not to differ in SWB. Furthermore, based on the imposed social comparison approach, the average in any nations ought to be neutral in SWB because about half of the people will be above average and about half will be below average. Research demonstrates, however, that most people have SWB above neutral (Diener and Diener, 1996). In the U.S.A. for example, about 85% of the people report a positive level of SWB. In some domains such as family life, even higher percentages report satisfaction. For global SWB, investigators have replicated the “most people are of happy effect” using measures other than global self-reports (e.g., memory measures, experience sampling informant reports). More surprising is the fact that even disadvantaged persons such as disabled and chronically mentally ill individuals who report SWB above the neutral point. Representative surveys conducted in industrialized nations reveal the same pattern, with most societies falling in the slightly to moderately happy range. We do not yet know why most respondents report positive SWB—whether this is because most people live in generally positive life circumstances or whether most people have a biological set-point that returns them to pleasant affect. Nevertheless, these data seem to cast doubt on Esterlin’s thesis. Another damaging piece of evidence is that nations do not differ in predictable ways in SWB. Other evidence also cast serious doubt on imposed social comparison approaches to SWB. They show that people with similar characteristics that live around

fortunate or unfortunate others do not differ as predicted by the idea of imposed social comparisons. For example, people with similar income who live either in wealthier or in poor neighborhoods do not differ in the way predicted by the idea of imposed social comparisons (Diener, Sandvik, Seidlitz and Diener, 1993). People who had a moderate income, for instance, were about equally happy whether they lived either in a poorer or wealthier neighborhood area. Social comparison does not automatically produce happiness when one is around others who are inferior on some characteristics. Instead, the data supports a coping model of social comparison in which people selectively choose others with whom to compare (Taylor, Wood, & Lichtman, 1983; Will, 1981; Wood, Taylor, & Lichtman, 1985). In some cases, people even create an imaginary person with whom to compare in order to achieve their objectives. The coping is that people can look to others to help motivate them, to boost their moods, and gain specific knowledge. People can increase their SWB by attending to others who are either superior or inferior to them. Thus the idea that, SWB is usually influenced by whether we are better off than those who are immediately around us seems oversimplified.

Theories of coping

Theories of coping are based on the idea that in order to cope with problems, happy people initiate thoughts and behaviours that are adaptive and helpful, whereas on average unhappy people cope in more destructive ways. For example, happy people are more likely to see the bright side of affairs, pray, directly struggle with problems and seek help from others,

whereas unhappy people are more likely to engage in fantasy, blame others and themselves, and avoid working on problems (McCrae & Costa, 1986). What is not yet known is whether these coping styles are the cause or effect of SWB.

People might increase their SWB by the control of their thoughts. For example, perhaps SWB can be increased by believing in a larger meaning or in the universe. Support for this proposition comes from findings showing that on the average religious people are happier than non-religious people (e.g., Ellison, 1991, Myers, 1992; Pollner, 1989). Further, SWB is higher if a person concentrates on attainable goals and does not focus attention exclusively on distant, one can heighten SWB by being optimistic about one's future (Scheier & Carver, 1993). It is not known whether these cognitive factors correlate with SWB because of the influence of some third variable such as temperament, or whether cognitions have an independent long-term influence on SWB.

Context Theories of SWB

Some theories such as Veenhoven (1991) maintain that SWB is caused by the satisfaction of basic, universal human needs. He maintain that people can only be happy if needs such as hunger, warmth and thirst are fulfilled. In contrast, context theories emphasize those factors, which influence SWB, are variables across both time and individuals, and that how good or bad life events are considered to be is based on the circumstances in which people live. The relevant context varies in different theories. In adaptation theories, for example, the relevant context is the person's past

life, whereas in social comparison model the context is considered to be social others of whom the target individual is aware. Other contexts that can influence SWB are the person's ideas and imagining counterfactual alternative situations. Finally, in goal approach, the context is believed to be the person's conscious aims. In each of the context models, whether something is good or bad and how good or bad it is, is thought to be based on changeable factors rather than on biological universals.

Judgment Theories

A number of theories postulate that happiness result from a comparison between some standard and actual conditions. If actual conditions exceed the standard, happiness will result. In the case of satisfaction, such comparisons may be conscious. However, in the case of affect, comparison with a standard may occur in a nonconscious way. Although judgment theories usually do not predict what events will be positive or negative, they do help to predict the magnitude of affect that events will produce. One way to partition the judgment theories is based on the standard that is used. In social comparison theory, one uses other people as a standard. If a person is better off than others, that person will be satisfied or happy (Carp & Carp, 1982; Emmons et al., 1983; Michalos, 1980). In adaptation (Brickman, Coates, & Janoff-Bulman, 1978) and the range-frequency theory (Parducci, 1968, 1982), a person's past life is used to set the standard. If the individual's current life exceeds this standard, that person will probably be happy. The individual may also acquire a standard in other ways. For example, the individual might

aspire to a certain level of attainment based on self-concept or based on what that person is told by his or her parents.

Although standards may come about in different ways according to each theory, in each case they are used as the basis for judging conditions. In social comparison theories, proximal others are usually weighted heavily because of their salience. However, Derner, Cohen, Jacobsen & Anderson (1977) demonstrated that even people who are remote in time can be used as a standard of comparison if they are made salient. Seidman and Rapkin (1983) reviewed evidence that suggests social comparisons can influence mental health, and Will (1981) showed that downward comparisons with less fortunate persons can increase SWB. Kearnl (1981-1982) found that believing others live in the poor circumstances could enhance one's life satisfaction. Esterlin (1974) argued that the amount of income that would satisfy people depend on the income of other in their society. One shortcoming to extant social comparison theories is that they do not make clear when a person will need to comparisons with others. As Freedman pointed out, for something such as sex, social comparison may not be important to happiness because people have an standard based upon their own values or needs. However, Emmons et al.; (1983) found that social comparison was the strongest predictor of satisfaction in the most domains.

Adaptation to events means that when they first occur, events can procedure either happiness or unhappiness, depending on whether they are good or bad. However, over time the events lose their power to evoke affect. The person adapts to good conditions so they no longer evoke

happiness, and a similar adaptation process occurs for bad events. Adaptation theory is based on a standard derived from an individual's own experience. If current events are better than the standard, the individual will be happy. However, if the good events continue, adaptation will occur; the individual's standard will rise so that it eventually matches the newer events (Brickman & Campbell, 1971). Thus, according to the adaptation theory recent changes produces happiness and unhappiness because a person will eventually adapt to the overall level of events. Therefore, this theory predicts that changes in income and so forth are much more important to happiness than is the average level of the events. An individual's standard will eventually move up or down to any level or circumstance; it is only departures from this level that can produce affect.

Brickman et al.; (1978) reported that lottery winners are no happier and quadriplegics no less happy, than normal controls. They interpreted these findings by suggesting that people adapt to all events, no matter how fortunate or unfortunate. Wortman and Silver (1982) confirmed this conclusion with longitudinal data. They found that spinal cord-injury victims were extremely unhappy after their accidents. However, their affect quickly began moving back toward happiness, suggesting that adaptation was occurring rapidly even to this extreme misfortune. Cameron (1974) and Feinman (1978) also reported evidence indicates that other handicapped groups are as happy as controls. Detail descriptive longitudinal data on adaptation are needed: How long does it take to adapt, to what conditions do people adept? What amount of time or accumulation of experiences is included in one's standard and how are

more recent events weighted? The *psychological process* underlying adaptation also warrants further consideration. It seems unlikely that people will completely adapt to all conditions. Positive factors such as health or income do not correlate with SWB. It may be that adaptation reduces, but does not eliminate, the effect of circumstances. Although adaptation seems to be a powerful process, its limits or the parameters that influence it are not well understood.

Parducci (1968) developed a provocative theory of happiness based on laboratory models of human judgment. The range-frequency model predicts a precise standard against which incoming events are judged. In a laboratory setting, this theory outperforms adaptation level approaches. The model has the most interesting implications for persons who have a skewed distribution of events. It predicts that the greatest happiness will occur for those who have a negatively skewed distribution of events. As explained earlier, the average level of goodness of the events happening to a person does not influence happiness because the person adapts to the events. However, the range-frequency model establishes the standard of comparison point approximately halfway between the midpoint of the range and the median of the events happening to the person. Events above this point will make the person happy. A person with a negatively skewed distribution will be happy a majority of the time because most events will fall above this comparison point. The absolute level of goodness of the events does not matter, but the shape of the distribution is crucial. A positively skewed distribution of events will produce unhappiness a majority of the time. Thus, a person with a few ecstatic moments in their lives may be doomed to unhappiness. As

areas. In addition, they found that although making a negative standard salient led to increase satisfaction, it also led to more negative affect. Thus, the positivity of affect did not simply increase as satisfaction judgments rose.

Another question related to judgment theories deals with when each type of comparison takes precedence. For example, when will social comparison be most important and when will adaptations or one's own prior conditions that are more important? The work of Emmons et. al.; (1983) and Dermer et.al.; (1979) suggests that social comparison may be important to many satisfaction judgments. However, one's own prior experience may usually have more influence on affect. A final question concerning these theories deals with their limits. Critics have dubbed the social comparison approach to happiness with the appellation, "if everyone has a pain, ten mine does not hurt). Clearly, there must be limits to the influence that comparison to standards can have. Note that judgement theories do not indicate how events come to have a particular hedonic value prior to the judgement, that is, why some events are good and why some are better than others.

parducci (1968) noted, "if the best can come only rarely, it is better not to include it in the range of experiences at all". This prediction contradicts the common sense idea that some very happy times can enrich one's life. One strength of the range-frequency theory is that its predictions are very specific and thus testable.

One popular form of judgement theory is aspiration level, which maintains that happiness will be depend on the discrepancy in a person's life between actual conditions and aspirations (e.g., Carp & Carp, 1982). McGill (1967) and Wilson (1960) agreed that happiness depends on the ratio of fulfilled desires to total desires. According to this theory, high aspirations are as much a threat to happiness as are bad conditions. As the ancient Cyrenaics noted, no person can be rich whose desires for money can never be met. The level of aspirations presumably comes from an individual's previous experience, goal and so forth. Esterlin (1974) outlined the dramatic differences in aspirations for income between people in various countries. Recall that Gibbs (1973) attributed the declining happiness of more fortunate blacks in the U.S. to the rising aspirations of this group. Although there is evidence that supports the idea that the discrepancy between actual conditions and the level a person aspires to correlates with happiness, this relationship does not appear to be strong (Emmons et al., 1983; Gerrard, Reznikoff, and Riklan, 1982; Kammann, 1982; Wilson, 1960).

One question related to all judgement theories is whether comparisons occur only within in domains (e.g.; income) or generalize across domains. Dermer et al.; (1979) found that comparison did not generalize to all

areas. In addition, they found that although making a negative standard salient led to increase satisfaction, it also led to more negative affect. Thus, the positivity of affect did not simply increase as satisfaction judgments rose.

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CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of the literature relating subjective well-being as well as majority and minority people. First, we focus briefly on some empirical studies investigating the relationship between subjective well-being and different socio-demographic factors. We then highlight some of the empirical studies about subjective well-being of the majority and minority people. It is expected that this review of the previous research in the above given areas would provide a useful background for the development of the present study.

Subjective well-being (happiness) has been extensively studied by the psychologists for many decades. Psychologists have studied the psychological and emotional nature of human beings to explain and understand the sources that cause happiness or the lack of it. They have tried to identify what makes an individual happy. Is happiness a trait or state? Do people stay happy? What characteristics do happy people have? What influences people's happiness? Is happiness related to factors such as gender, group status and age? Is education, income, type of employment and civil status related to happiness? Information from surveys and statistical techniques are combined to provide answers to these questions.

Income

There is an overwhelming amount of evidence that shows a positive relationship between income and SWB. (Larson, 1978). This relationship exists even when other variables such as education are controlled. As might be expected, satisfaction with income is an important condition

which is found to be related to happiness (Braun, 1977; Campbell et al., 1976). In addition to those studies reviewed by Larson, many others have found objective income to be related to SWB (e.g., Alston, Lowe & Wrigley, 1974; Andrews & Withey, 1976; Bortner & Hultsch, 1970; Clemente & Sauer, 1976a; Freudiger, 1980; Kimmel, Price & Walker, 1978; Mancini & Orthner, 1980; Riddick, 1980). Although the effect of income is often small when other factors are controlled, these other factors may be ones through which income could produce its effects (e.g., better health). Easterlin (1974) reviewed 30 cross-sectional studies conducted within countries, in every study, wealthier persons were happier than poorer persons in that country and this effect was often strong.

However, when one turns to other types of data, an interesting picture emerges. Although persons in wealthier countries report higher SWB than persons in poorer countries (Easterlin, 1974; Gallup, 1976-1977; Silver, 1980), this effect may be weaker than within-country differences, although a rigorous analysis effect sizes has not been reported. Japan is not much happier than India and Latin American countries are in some respects happier than European countries. However, the data over time are most revealing. They indicate that as real income increases within a country, people do not necessarily report more happiness. Data over time are available from the U.S. for the years 1946 through 1978 (Campbell, 1981; Easterlin, 1974). During that period, real income in the U.S. rose dramatically (even after taxes and inflation), but there was absolutely no increase in average reports of happiness. In every year the surveys were taken, wealthier persons were on the average happier than poorer persons, but there was no increase in happiness over the years in either the high, average, or low-income groups. Indeed, the data reported by Campbell

suggest a general downward drift in happiness from 1957 to 1978 in all but the lowest income quartile. This pattern occurred during a period of tremendous economic growth. These data suggest the possibility that the influence of income is largely relative; it is not the absolute level of goods and services that a person can afford. People who are wealthier than others tend to be happier, but as the overall level of income rises, happiness does not necessarily rise with it.

Because it does not appear that absolute levels of income are critical to happiness, there are several plausible, but unexplored hypotheses as to why persons with higher incomes within a country are happier than those with lower incomes.

First, income has an effect only at extreme levels of poverty, but once the basic needs are met, income is no longer influential (Freedman, 1978). This hypothesis seems to be contradicted by the U.S. data, which show similar levels of happiness for poor persons in 1946 and in 1970, even though basic needs were met to a much greater extent in the latter period. However, the data of Campbell et al. (1976) indicate that income had less effect within the United States in 1978 than in 1957, raising the possibility that the United States was reaching a plateau for the effect of income.

Second, factors such as status and power that covers with income may be responsible for the effect of income on SWB. However, these are relative within a society and therefore do not increase as real income increases.

Third, a related explanation is that the effect of income is direct, but depends on social comparison. People may only know how satisfied they should be by comparing their situation with that of others.

Finally, it is possible that income has not only direct benefits, but also some disabilities that tend to balance the positive effects. For example, higher incomes over time may also be related to increased pollution, congestion, stress or other negative influences that may prevent SWB from rising with income. However, this explanation does not explain the tendency for wealthier countries to have happier inhabitants.

Given the concern for economic development throughout the world, the questions concerning income and happiness are immensely important ones. We now need research into the processes that control this relationship. Data over time from countries besides the U.S. need to be examined, as well as longitudinal data on individuals. In addition, questions about income distributions, not just mean levels, are probably quite important. Seidman and Rapkin (1983) have shown that although the prevalence of mental illness increases in economic downturns, this effect is greatest in heterogeneous communities in which recession does not affect everyone equally. Similarly, Morawetz (1977) has shown that a community with less equal incomes was less happy than a community with more equal incomes. The findings of Liang, Kahana & Doherty (1980) suggest that feelings of distributive justice and relative deprivation mediate the effect of income. These studies suggest that it is not only purchasing power or mean levels of income that are important, but the overall distribution of income, including the range and skew that influences SWB.

Many studies have been conducted to the relationship between person's economic well-being and subjective well-being. Psychologists not only have tried to identify the existing relationship between income and happiness but they have also tried to determine the nature of the

relationship and the importance of economic well-being influence over subjective well-being. In most studies a positive relationship is found (Mullis, 1990; Venhoveen, 1988, 1991; Headey, 1991; Douthitt et al., 1992). However the results show an extremely weak relationship. Diener et al.,(1999) report that wealthy countries seem much happier than poorer countries.

Myers (2000) states that the correlation between happiness and income is relatively weak in the United States, Canada and Europe. Further, Diener, Horwit'z and Emmons (as cited in Myers, 2000) surveyed 49 of 100 wealthiest Americans. The results showed that the wealthiest individual were only a little happier than the average individuals. In fact, the wealthy group of the people admitted that being rich can make you happy or it can make you unhappy, depending on how the money is used, in addition, a study investigated the happiness levels of lottery winners (Briekman, Coates and Janoff Bulman, 1978). Participants were asked about their general background, how winning had changed their lives, their levels of happiness in the past, present and their expectations for the future and also ratings of pleasantness on every day tasks such as watching television or talking to a friend. The results showed that the winners and the control group did not differ significantly in their happiness levels in the past, present or future. Further, the lottery winners found the everyday activities to be significantly less pleasant than the controls did.

Many studies have considered the relationship between real income and subjective well-being. Easterlin (1995, 1996) sets out three broad features in the data. First, within a particular country, persons with relatively higher incomes consistently report themselves somewhat happier than do

people with lower incomes. Second, across countries, national average real incomes and average measures of subjective well-being are positively correlated but subject to diminishing returns. Third and most relevant, rising average incomes in the developed countries are not accompanied by any clear increase in self-reported subjective well-being. According to Easterlin, "there has been no improvement in happiness in the United States over almost half a century in which GDP per capita more than doubled" (1995) while between 1958 real per capita income in Japan multiplied by a staggering five-fold but there was no improvement in mean subjective well-being (1995).

Frank (1999) argues that the expanded choices that come with economic growth could potentially be used to improve subjective well-being and other indicators of the quality of life. But the evidence suggests that the bulk of additional real expenditures are not being used for such purposes. The result is the weak link between subjective well-being and real income observed in the data for affluent countries. In their study of happiness in the United States, Blanchflower and Oswald find that family per capita real income is positively associated with individual happiness, although "the amount of happiness bought by extra income is not as large as some would expect" (2000). All these no suggests that if lower inflation did eventually lead to material living standards a few percent higher than they other wise would have been, they expect the gains in average subjective well-being to be modest. There are possible explanations as to why money alone will not make an individual significantly happier. The first explanation is that people easily habituate to their income level. It only takes a short while for a newly promoted individual to earn for another big rise.

Secondly, the majority of the people tend to assess their own income and possessions in term of what others earn and possess. The final reason is that wealth may be beneficial to life; however it alone is not enough to attain overall happiness (Cskszentmihalyi, 1999).

Sorensen (2000) conducted 286 empirical studies on the association of socio-economic status (SES), social network and competence with subjective well being in the elderly .All three aspects of life circumstances are positively associated with SWB. Income is correlated more strongly with well being than education.

Hagerty and Veenhoven (2003) found positive significant correlation between changes in income and well-being and no significant negative correlation. They concluded that the well-being in nations is rising over time, but that the effects of income on well-being are larger in poorer than in richer nations. However, other researchers have concluded that huge increases in income in wealthy nations, often a doubling or even tripling of real income, have often been accompanied by virtually no increases in well-being in these nations (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2002; Easterbrook, 2003; Easterlin, 1995; Oswald, 1997).

Donovan and Halpern (2003) discussed the changes in well-being that have occurred in a number of nations, explaining that in some cases well-being has risen, in others it has fallen, and in still others it has zigzagged up and down. Furthermore, Frey and Stutzer (2002b) reported that the same income in the United States, adjusted for inflation, bought more happiness in 1973 than in 1995. In other words, in rich nations more and more income has been required over time to remain at the same level of well-being. As we have already noted, increases in income in wealthy

societies have been accompanied by smaller (even nonexistent) rises in wellbeing than have accompanied income increases in poor nations (Hagerty & Veenhoven, 2003). This pattern is consistent with the decreasing marginal utility of money (i.e., the impact of an added dollar decreases as the total amount of money increases). In contrast, there was a strong trend for well-being to drop in the former Soviet bloc nations when communism was forsaken and incomes dropped precipitously (Inglehart & Klingemann, 2000; Schyns, 2003). Losing income may have a greater influence on well-being than gaining income does.

One reason that increasing income does not increase well-being is probably that rising income creates escalating material desires, so that as time passes, the same level of income that once seemed satisfactory results in frustration, and hence less well-being (Frey & Stutzer, 2002b; van Praag & Frijters, 1999). Stutzer showed that well-being depends to some degree on the gap between income and material aspirations. Graham and Pettinato (2002) found that in poor nations there are “frustrated achievers” who, despite rapid increases in income, become less happy because their aspirations grow even more quickly than their incomes. Unfortunately, there are no studies of whether increases in well-being that stem from non-economic sources can serve to stimulate economic gains.

Per capita wealth and income are not the only economic variables associated with well-being. For instance, Di Tella, MacCulloch, and Oswald (2001) found that inflation is a negative predictor of the well-being of nations; low inflation also predicts satisfaction with the governing party (Frey & Stutzer, 2002a). High unemployment predicts the ill-being of nations (Frey & Stutzer, 2002a).

Surprisingly, the level of welfare benefits in a nation does not seem to buffer the effects of unemployment on well-being (Ouweneel, 2002), and Veenhoven (2000) found that the level of social-security benefits in nations was not associated with well-being. Alesina, Di Tella, and MacCulloch (2000) reported that in Europe greater inequality of income is associated with lower well-being, but that in the United States only liberals are made less happy by inequality. Thus, the effects of societal characteristics depend to some extent on the ideological views of respondents.

In 1995 Diener, Diener, and Diener reported that human rights in nations correlated with average well-being. Unfortunately, income was also highly correlated with human rights, so that it was difficult to disentangle the influences from one another. Nations with democratic governments score high on individual well-being (Donovan & Halpern, 2003). Furthermore, Inglehart and Klingemann (2000) reported a very strong correlation of .78 between the extent of democracy in nations and their levels of well-being.

Effective and trustworthy governance also correlates with the well-being of nations, and these effects are over and above those of democracy (Helliwell, 2003b). When there is low corruption and effective rule of law, people report greater life satisfaction (Helliwell, 2003a). Freedom has also been found to have a substantial relation to the well-being of nations (Inglehart & Klingemann, 2000). Veenhoven (2000) found that economic freedom had a stronger effect on wellbeing in poor nations than in wealthy nations, whereas political freedom was more important in wealthier nations than in poor nations.

Welzel, Inglehart, and Klingemann (2003) argued that socioeconomic development, “emancipative cultural change” that increases personal freedoms, and democratization develop together in nations. These factors broaden human choice and control by increasing resources and providing legal rights to freedom of choice. These factors in turn are those that Diener, Diener, and Diener (1995) found predict the well-being of nations—income, human rights, and individualism.

Although too many choices (Schwartz, 2004) can undermine well-being, it appears that human rights and democracy benefit well-being. Stable political organization is needed for well-being, and might be even more crucial in the short run than democratic governance. When the former Soviet bloc nations, once stable dictatorships, became unstable democracies, their well-being dropped substantially (Helliwell, 2003a; Inglehart & Klingemann, 2000). Veenhoven (2002) indicated that in the 1990s, out of 68 nations, Russia, Georgia, Armenia, Ukraine, and Moldavia had the lowest enjoyment of life, from 3.0 to 4.2 on a scale from 1 to 10. This suggests that instability is a source of suffering. However, because the massive changes in the former Soviet bloc countries included faltering economies and large drops in real income, a change in the economic and political systems, and abandonment of a pervasive ideology, it is difficult to isolate the causes of their reduced well-being.

A mild decline in well-being occurred in Belgium from the 1970s to the 1990s, perhaps because of economic factors, but also possibly because the nation split into a federation (Inglehart & Klingemann, 2000). The lowest well-being value ever recorded, 1.6 on a 10 point scale of life satisfaction, occurred following the overthrow of the government of the

Dominican Republic. Thus, instability in nations seems to result in lowered levels of well-being.

Although high personal income is associated with well-being, the relation between these two variables is intricate. People who report that they are happy subsequently earn higher incomes than people who report that they are not happy; a finding that calls into questions the direction of causality between income and well-being. To further complicate matters, as the richer nations have grown in wealth, sometimes dramatically, they have usually experienced only small increases in well-being. Respondents in materially poor societies at times have substantial levels of life satisfaction. Rising expectations and desires to some degree cancel the psychological benefits of greater income. Furthermore, there are negative outcomes related to money, such as the deleterious effects of materialism on happiness and the high stress levels felt by adolescents from rich families. The context, in which income is experienced, including ideology and people's material desires and values, moderates its effects on wellbeing. Individuals may achieve higher happiness for themselves by earning higher incomes, when they move upward relative to their material desires and relative to others. However, as everyone's income rises in affluent societies, rising income does not seem to provide a well-being dividend. Thus, there is a clear divergence between economic and well-being indicators, which points to the need for a system of national well-being indicators to complement the economic indicators already in place.

Dozens of cross-sectional studies reveal that there is a positive correlation between individuals' incomes and their reports of well-being. However, Veenhoven (1991) found that the within-nation correlations between income and well-being are stronger in poorer than in wealthier societies,

and this effect has been replicated by other researchers (Diener & Diener, 1995; Diener & Oishi, 2000; Schyns, 2003). For example, Diener, Sandvik, Seidlitz, and Diener (1993) reported the income and well-being correlation to be .13 in the United States, whereas Biswas-Diener and Diener (2001) found that this correlation was .45 in the slums of Calcutta. Similarly, Diener and Diener (1995) discovered a stronger relation between financial satisfaction and life satisfaction in poor than in wealthy countries.

Furthermore, as one moves up the income scale in wealthy nations such as Switzerland (Frey & Stutzer, 2002a) and the United States (Diener et al., 1993), there are progressively smaller differences in well-being between successively higher income categories. Helliwell (2003a) found that because of the declining effect of income as one moves up the income ladder, significant variations in well-being occurred in the higher income brackets only in poor nations. In wealthier nations, increases in income were not matched by continuing increases in well-being.

Researchers attempting to determine the causal influence of income on happiness have examined both lottery winners and participants in negative-income-tax experiments, as well as longitudinal data. (In the negative-income-tax experiments, the federal government supplemented the income of certain low-income people who were randomly assigned to have their income brought up to a certain level. Over time, these people and a control group were tracked for various outcomes.)

Although Brickman, Coates, and Janoff-Bulman (1978) found that a small number of lottery winners were not significantly happier than a matched comparison group, S. Smith and Razzell (1975) found that

bettors who won large soccer betting pools in England were significantly more likely to report being very happy than the comparison group. In negative-income-tax studies in which some participants received higher welfare benefits than others, however, greater stress was associated with increased incomes (Thoits & Hannan, 1979). This finding dovetails with one of Smith and Razzell's, because they found that although lottery winners were on average higher in well-being than nonwinners, winners described certain stressors in their lives that resulted from their increased wealth. Thus, the lottery and negative-income-tax studies, which approximate true experiments, present a mixed picture on whether increases in income increase wellbeing. If income influences well-being, one would expect that in longitudinal studies, income changes would be followed by changes in well-being. Diener and Biswas-Diener (2002) found that this pattern did not occur in the majority of studies they reviewed. In recent analyses of a large panel study in Germany, we found that people with slowly rising incomes show high levels of well-being, and that individuals with comparable mean levels of income but high year-to-year fluctuations show substantially lower levels of life satisfaction.

In this study, people with dramatic rises in income showed increasing well-being; although initially they were lower in well-being than the slow-rise group, by the end of the study their well-being had increased to reach the level of the slow-rise group. People experiencing large downward shifts in income showed large declines in life satisfaction.

Income increases might bring costs as well as benefits. For example, Clydesdale (1997) found more divorce in people whose income had risen than among people whose income was stable. Furthermore, substantial

increases in one's income are likely to bring disruptions to one's life, and these might be either positive or negative. This might explain, for example, the mixed results of negative-income-tax and lottery studies.

Longitudinal data indicate that part of the typical correlation between income and well-being is due to well-being causing higher incomes, rather than the other way around. Happy people go on to earn higher incomes than unhappy people. Diener, Nickerson, Lucas, and Sandvik (2002) discovered that higher cheerfulness in the first year of college correlated with higher income 19 years or so later, when respondents reached their late 30s; this effect was greatest for those who came from the most affluent families. Marks and Fleming (1999) found that well-being predicted later income in an Australian sample of young adults, and Staw, Sutton, and Pelled (1994) uncovered a weak, but significant, tendency of pleasant emotions at an initial assessment to predict pay at a later time, in an analysis that controlled for income at the initial assessment. Finally, Graham, Eggers, and Sukhtankar found that happiness predicted future income even after they controlled for current socioeconomic and demographic variables. Thus, longitudinal findings indicate that some part of the association between income and happiness is likely due to happy people going on to earn more money than unhappy people. Kenny (1999) has extended this reasoning to the growth rate of the wealth of nations.

Negative Outcomes of Wealth and Materialism an edited volume by Kasser and Kanner (2004) has detailed the detrimental effects of materialism, defined as placing a high importance on income and material possessions. The authors documented the problems experienced by materialistic individuals relative to less materialistic individuals: lower

self-esteem and greater narcissism, greater amounts of social comparison (i.e., comparing oneself with other people, sometimes for the purpose of evaluating oneself) and less empathy, less intrinsic motivation, and more conflictual relationships (Kasser, Ryan, Couchman, & Sheldon, 2004). Nickerson, Schwarz, Diener, and Kahneman (2003) found that materialism predicted later lower well-being, but that this effect was smallest for those people who earned a high income. Across nations, placing a higher importance on money is associated with lower well-being (Kirkcaldy, Furnham, & Martin, 1998). Materialism might lead to lower wellbeing because materialistic people tend to downplay the importance of social relationships and to have a large gap between their incomes and material aspirations (Solberg, Diener, & Robinson, 2004). In the study by Nickerson et al., it appeared that placing too much value on money had its negative effect in part because it interfered with social relationships.

However, the causal arrow may go the other way: Unhappiness may drive people to focus on extrinsic goals such as material wealth. Srivastava, Locke, and Bartol (2001) found that materialism was damaging to well-being insofar as it arose from a desire to gain power or flaunt wealth, but not if it arose from a desire for freedom or family security. Malka and Chatman (2003) found that intrinsically oriented individuals (i.e., people who enjoy tasks for their own sake) were less happy than extrinsically oriented individuals (i.e., people who enjoy tasks for the external rewards they bring) at higher income levels. Because people who value income tend to earn more money than people who do not, the deleterious effects of materialism can be offset to some degree by the positive experience of a higher income (Nickerson, Kahneman, Diener, & Schwarz, 2004).

Not only materialism, but wealth itself has been found in a few studies to produce negative effects. Hagerty (2000) found that when personal income was statistically controlled, individuals living in higher-income areas in the United States were lower in happiness than people living in lower-income areas. This suggests that wealthy individuals are fortunate if they live in middle-class areas rather than in wealthy enclaves. Similarly, Putnam (2001b) found that higher statewide income was associated with lower well-being once individual income was statistically controlled. The negative effects of wealthy communities might partly be explained by their higher materialism. In a longitudinal study in which students were followed through high school and beyond, Csikszentmihalyi and Schneider (2000) found that adolescents from affluent suburbs were on average less happy, and reported lower self-esteem, than those from middle-class neighborhoods and inner-city slums. Because the measures were direct, based on recording of moods as they occurred, the results of this study are particularly compelling. The negative effects of affluence on adolescents were reviewed by Luthar (2003), who suggested that high expectations for achievement and relative isolation from adults can both lead to lower well-being among teenagers from financially well-off families. Luthar maintained that aspects of the wealthy lifestyle, such as privacy and competition (which can lead to lack of interpersonal intimacy), can harm the well-being of adults as well. Thus, high income is not an unalloyed benefit.

Age

Early studies found that young people were happier than old (Bradburn & Caplovitz, 1965; Gurin, Veroff & Feld, 1960; Kuhlen, 1984; Wessman, 1957). In relatively recent years, however, a number of researchers have

found virtually no age effects (Alston et al., 1974; Andrews & Withey, 1976; Cameron, 1975; Sauer, 1977; Spreitzer & Synder, 1974) and several more have found a positive correlation between age and satisfaction (Bortner & Hultsch, 1970; Cantril, 1965; Clemente & Sauer, 1976a; Medley, 1980). Braun (1977) found that younger respondents reported stronger levels of both positive and negative affect, but those older subjects reported greater levels of overall happiness. Given the confusing nature of the findings, Adams (1971) wrote, "the inconsistency of findings in regards to chronological age indicates that it is, at best, a very gross index of group characteristics". In support of this, a meta-analysis of studies conducted prior to 1980 revealed that the correlation between age and SWB was near zero, regardless of whether other variables were controlled (Stock, Okun, Raring & Witter, 1983).

There are a number of considerations to keep in mind when trying to understand these findings. First, some studies such as those reviewed by Larson (1978) use narrow age ranges, so that the correlation only reflect the ups and downs within those years. Second, most studies have not controlled for other factors that tend to cover with age (Cameron, 1975). Third, the large-scale studies have been cross-sectional, not longitudinal and therefore may reflect cohort differences, not age differences (Knapp, 1976). Finally, the differences may reflect in the constructs being measured. Campbell et al., (1976) reported mat satisfaction and their Index of General Well-being correlated positively with age, whereas reports of being very happy decreased with age. Campbell et al. (1976) found that older persons reported greater satisfaction in every domain except health. Most results show a slow rise in satisfaction with age, but it seems that positive and negative affect are experienced more intensely

by the young. Thus, young persons appear to experience higher levels of joy but older persons tend to judge their lives in more positive ways.

In recent years investigators have begun to focus not so much on age per se but on life cycle patterns (e.g. Estes & Willensky, 1978; Harry, 1976; Medley, 1980). Life stages are examined that create characteristic demands and rewards for persons. A number of studies, both cross-sectional and longitudinal, have given attention to the relationship between age and affect. Ferring and Filipp (1995) reported longitudinal declines in intensity of positive affect over a year in a sample of old-old people, but no such decline in a young-old sample. They also reported a similar decline in frequency of positive affect in the old-old group, but not in the young-old group. In another longitudinal study using an exclusively elderly, Smith and Baltes (1993) also reported a decline in frequency of positive affect as people aged. Like Ferring and Filipp (1995) this sample used young-old and old-old, but no one at middle or in young adulthood. Vaux and Meddin (1978), in a cross-sectional study using another exclusively elderly sample, found no age difference in positive affect.

Gender

Although women report more negative affect, they also seem to experience greater joys (Braun, 1977; Cameron, 1975; Gurin et al., 1960). So that little difference in global happiness or satisfaction is usually found between the sexes (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Campbell et al., 1976; Goodstein, Zautra & Goodhart, 1982; Gurin et al., 1960; Olsen, 1980; Palmore & Kivett, 1977; Sauer, 1977; Toseland & Rasch, 1979-1980). Nevertheless, two studies have reported a modest interaction with age. It appears that younger women are happier than younger men and

older women are less happier than older men (Medley, 1980; Spreitzer & Snyder, 1974). Although the crossover appears to occur around age 45, the difference between the sexes is never great.

Eaton and Kessler (as cited in Diener et al., 1999) reported that men and women are basically equal in happiness levels, however it becomes complicated when depression levels are taken into account. For instance, women are more likely to be depressed than men, therefore happiness levels should be lower for women than men. A possible explanation is that women experience more intense positive and negative emotions (Diener et al., 1999). A study conducted by Fujita, Diener and Sandvik (1991) reported that the reason men and women have similar happiness ratings despite women's greater likelihood of depression is because women's more intense positive emotions composite for their higher negative affect.

Mroezek D.K. and Kolarz C.M. (1998) found three important differences between men and women in explaining positive effect. First, Education was related to positive effect in men, but not women. Higher levels of education were associated with less positive affect among men, controlling for all other variables in the model. Education was unrelated to positive affect in women. Second, having experiences a heart attack was a significant and negative correlate of positive affect for women but was unrelated to the outcome in men. Third and perhaps most important, the previously reported nonlinear (positively accelerating) effect of age on positive affect held only for women. The non-linear effect was not significant for men. Rather, a simple positive linear relationship characterized the relationship between age and positive affect for men. Of these three differences, only the heart attack affect replicated across both

random samples for men and women. Thus, we must interpret these differences with caution. Nonetheless, it raises the possibility that the variables that predict positive affect for men are not same or those for women.

Three important differences between men and women have also been reported by the investigators in explaining negative effect on the study variables by men and women. Again, three important differences appear. First, education was a significant predictor for women, but not men. Women with higher education had lower negative affect, but no men who showed no relation between these two variables. Both of these cross-validated. Second, relationship stress was associated with greater negative affect for women, but not men.

Among men, relationship stress was unrelated to negative-affect and this lack of effect held accrues both of the cross-validation samples. Finally, the relationship between age and negative affect differed for men and women. The liner and negative relationship found in the general sample held only for men. Older men had lower negative affect than younger men, although this relationship did not cross-validate. Age was unrelated to negative affect among women, and this held across both cross-validation samples. Again, although not all of these associations and non-associations replicated, our findings raise the possibility that the combination of variables that best explains the individual differences in affect is not the same for men as for women. Furthermore, age appears to be central to these patterns of difference. Men and women showed different patterns for both positive and negative affect.

Employment

Campbell et al. (1976) found that unemployed people were the unhappiest group, even when income differences were controlled. This suggests that unemployment has a devastating impact on the SWB for many persons that go beyond the obvious financial difficulties involved. Catalano and Dooley (1977) have shown that regional unemployment rates are strong longitudinal predictors of mood. Bradburn reported evidence that unemployment influences the well-being of both men and women. However, it does not appear that homemakers are less happy than those who work in salaried jobs (Wright, 1978). Job satisfaction appears to be related to SWB. However, this literature is voluminous and the reader is referred to several excellent sources: Cohn (1979); Near, Rice & Hunt (1978, 1980); Rice, Near & Hunt (1979, 1980); Weaver (1978).

An active research area in the analysis of well being is unemployment. Standard result across all of social science is that the unemployment report significantly lowers well-being scores than other labor force groups and that unemployment matters far more than the associated lower income would imply (Feather 1990 and Fryer and Payne, 1986). Recent work in economics has used large-scale data sets to address this question (Clark and Oswald, 1994 and Di Tella et al., 2001). The Psychological impact of unemployment was found to be lower for specific groups. Those who lived in high unemployment regions and high unemployment households (social norm of unemployment or an unemployment culture: Clark (2001b). Those who had been unemployed more often in the past habituation to unemployment (Clark, Georgellis and Sanfey, 2001).

Andrew E Clark (2001) stated that an unemployed man would have the same level of well being as an employed man in a region with 20-25% unemployment. The household results work in the same way unemployment hurts, but it hurts less when it is shared with others. He also calculate that an unemployed man in a household where all other adults work and an unemployed man in a household where all others are unemployed have roughly the same level of well-being. He also calculates this impact to be zero for a man who has been unemployed for 60%, for 60% of the time active in the labor market over the past three years.

Much more needs to be done to understand adaptation and how human beings choose their comparison other. Employing multivariable regression technique Andrews (2002) estimated well-being equations using data on both the employed and the unemployed of the following form:

$$W_i = \alpha + \beta_1 U_{e_i} + \beta_2 U_{e_i}^* + \beta_3 (U_{e_i} * U_{e_i}^*) + Y'X + \varepsilon_i$$

Where W_i is the well-being score of individual i , U_{e_i} is a dummy variable showing whether the respondent is unemployed and $U_{e_i}^*$ is the comparison unemployment rate. This latter variable is introduced both as a main effect and interacted with the individual's own unemployment status. Considering $U_{e_i}^*$ as regional unemployment's it may well be that higher regional unemployment reduces the well-being of those in employment, but increases the well-being of the unemployed. Jobless people may not blame themselves as much when they see many around them also out of work. We thus expect β_3 to have a positive coefficient: an individual's own unemployment has a smaller Psychological impact

when the individual is in a high unemployment region/household, or when the individual has been unemployed more often in the past.

These research findings suggest that unemployment always has a strong and well defined negative impact on well being. However, this impact is mitigated by the unemployment of others and by one's own past unemployment β_3 is positive and significant.

Many researchers have found that the unemployed have lower levels of well-being (e.g., Clark & Oswald, 1994; Di Tella et al., 2001; Helliwell, 2003a) and higher levels of suicide (Kposowa, 2001) than the employed. Shams and Jackson (1994) reported that the longer individuals were unemployed, the lower their well-being, and Viinamaeki, Koskela, and Niskanen (1996) found increasing levels of depression over time in the unemployed. Clark (2001) found that unemployment was associated with more negative effects in communities where unemployment was low than in communities where unemployment was high. But might unhappy people be more likely to be unemployed than happy people? That is, might unhappiness cause unemployment? Two studies on the same large longitudinal data set (Clark, Diener, Georgellis, & Lucas, 2004; Lucas, Clark, Georgellis, & Diener, 2004) suggest that people who are later unemployed do not start out with low life satisfaction. Rather, their life satisfaction drops dramatically around the time of their layoff. Furthermore, they do not recover to their former levels of life satisfaction even after several years, even after most of them have obtained a new job with pay almost equal to their pay before being laid off. These findings suggest that the unemployed are "scarred" by the experience of losing their jobs. Creed and Macintyre (2001) found that unemployed people

experienced lowered well-being because they lacked time structure and feelings of purpose.

Education

Studies have also been conducted to investigate the relationship between happiness and education. Campbell's (1981) data suggest the education had an influence on SWB in the U.S. during 1957 to 1978. However, the effects of education on SWB do not appear to be strong (Palmore, 1979; Palmore & Luikart, 1972) and seem to interact with other variables such as income (Bradburn & Caplovitz, 1965). Several studies have found that there is no significant effect when other factors are controlled (Clemente & Sauer, 1976a; Spreitzer & Snyder, 1974; Toseland & Rasch, 1979-1980) and several studies have indicated more positive effects for women (Freudiger, 1980; Glenn & Weaver, 1981b; Mitchell, 1976). After suggesting that education has some positive influence, Glenn and Weaver cautioned that "the estimated effects on males of all levels of education and of college on both sexes are especially likely to be disappointing". Campbell's (1981) analysis suggests that although education may serve as a resource for the person, it may also raise aspirations and alert the person to alternative types of life.

Ayesha Mahmuda (1998) reported that Psychological well-being varied according to different levels of education, in the results of her study respondents with no formal education were found to have poorest Psychological well-being and respondents having highest education were found to have better Psychological well-being : In explaining the results of her study she argued that since illiterate people are more prejudiced they can hardly see new roles. Their narrow outlook prevents them to

understand and benefit from change. They usually stick to traditional occupational roles, which fail to promise them a better economic and social status. Consequently, no congruence exists between the individual's wishes and needs and environmental demands and opportunities. That means illiterate respondents fail to enjoy both objective and subjective components of well-being. As a result, they suffer from psychological impairment instead of psychological health, which is reflected in their poor psychological well-being.

Respondents having highest educational degree were found to have better psychological well-being. The reason may be that highly educated people usually possess broader and modern outlook, which brings improvement in their quality of life. It is generally believed that education develops the rational faculties of human beings so that they can have independent thinking and their actions are not governed by any stereotype norms or principles. This type of training helps the individual to change the dogmatic beliefs and to insulate rational thinking. However, there remains a general feeling that educated persons have more secular ideas as compared to illiterate persons, which affect their thought and behavior pattern. For this educated people prefer to take up jobs which promise them better economic and social status. This in turn helps them to achieve standard of living. Moreover, as educated people can understand their psychological, social and physical environments in a clear and scientific way so they feel confident in dealing with unexpected or crisis situations and also have confidence in future. Thus educated people can enjoy both the objective and subjective components of well being and can match between their expectations and perceived reality: So they have a greater sense of accomplishment, independent life and of going ahead. Consequently, they enjoy greater satisfaction and become happier in the

overall life perspectives. This is similar to the common belief that with high education, independent life, vocation and good income one is likely to perceive one's wishes fulfilled to a larger extent (Nagpal and Sell, 1985) and thus it causes to have a more positive outlook toward everyday life activity.

Personality

Personality is suggested as an influence on happiness by the long popular belief that temperament is more important to subjective well-being than are the number of person's external blessings (Taterkiewicz, 1976). This reasoning is indirectly supported by the fact that individual demographic variables rarely account for more than a few percent of the variance in SWB and taken together probably do not account for much more than 15% percent of the variance. In fact Andres and Withey (1976) gave a figure less than 10% of the variance in SWB accounted for by all the demographics they assessed. A number of studies have appeared in recent years than the influence of personality on SWB. Because these studies are usually conducted with fewer broadly representative samples than those that examine demographic factors, the conclusion should only be given credence if the results are replicated across a number of studies with varying types of samples. When one aspects this criterion, several personality variables show consistent relationships to SWB.

High self-esteem is one of the strongest predictors of SWB. Many studies have found a relationship between self-esteem and SWB (Anderson, 1977; Czaja, 1975; Drumgoole, 1981; Ginandes, 1977; Higgins, 1975; Kozma and Stones, 1978; Peterson, 1975; Pomerants, 1978; Reid and Ziegler, 1980; Vancoevering, 1974; Wilson, 1960), although this effect

has been weak or complex in several studies (Reid and Ziegler, 1977; Wessman and Ricks, 1966; Wolk & Talleen, 1976). Campbell et al. (1976) found that satisfaction with the self showed the highest correlation with the life satisfaction of any variable. An intriguing finding that self-esteem drops during period of unhappiness (Laxer, 1964; Wessman and Ricks, 1966). This indicates that the relationship between mood and self-esteem may be bi-directional and an important question is why self-esteem drops when people are unhappy.

Another personality trait that has been consistently related to happiness is internality, a tendency to attribute outcomes to one self rather than to external causes. This variable assessed by Rotter's Locus of Control scale has been found to relate to SWB in a number of populations (Baker, 1977; Brandt, 1980; Sundre, 1978). Nevertheless, one might wonder whether there would be certain environments or cultures in which externality would lead to higher SWB. If the events happening to a person were negative (e.g., failure) it might be better to attribute them to outside forces. Similarly, if one lives in an environment in which there is little freedom, an external orientation may be related to happiness, and this conclusion is supported by the findings of Felton and Khana (1974). A variable that is related to internality is the degree of perceived choice or control in a person's life, and this has consistently been covered with happiness (Eisenberger, 1981; Knippa, 1979; Morganti, Nehrke, & Hulicka, 1980; Reid and Ziegler 1980). When subjects rate their efficacy, personal resources, or competence, these also relate to SWB (Bortner & Huitsch, 1970; Campbell et al., 1976; Nobirini, 1977; Rux, 1977). However, the direction of causality is very uncertain between internality and happiness. It may be that people with an external locus of control are that way due to unfortunate life circumstances, which also lead to unhappiness. Similarly,

people who have more control over their lives may also live in more fortunate circumstances.

Extraversion and related constructs such as sensation seeking and sociability have been found to covary with SWB (Gorman, 1972; Joshi, 1964; Smith, 1961; Tolor, 1978). However, our own findings reveal that it is the sociability aspect of extraversion that correlates with positive mood, not the impulsivity components (Emmons, & Diener, 1983). Costa and McCrae (1980) found that extraversion correlates with positive affect, whereas neuroticism is related to negative affect. Others also found that neuroticism (Cameron, 1975; Hartmann, 1934) is related unhappiness. Costa and McCrae suggest that extraversion and neuroticism are two basic dimensions of personality that lead to positive affect and negative affect, respectively.

Group status

Studies have also been conducted to investigate the relationship between group status and subjective well-being. Blacks have usually been found to be lower on SWB than whites in the U.S. (Alston et al. 1974; Andrews & Withey, 1976; Bortner & Hultsch, 1970; Bradburn, 1969; Freudiger, 1980; Wessman, 1957), although this effect has not been found universally (Messer, 1968). Because Blacks and Whites in general differ on age, education, income, marital status and urbanity, it is important to control these factors if one wants to know if group status per se has an effect. When this is done, an effect is still found, but it seems to depend on the gender and age of subjects (Campbell et al., 1976; Clemente & Sauer, 1976b; Spreitzer & Snyder, 1974). It appears that, aside from factors such as urbanity and lower income, being black carries additional

factors that lower SWB, but only for certain groups of blacks. Indeed, Campbell et al. (1976) concluded that older blacks in their national sample were happier than older whites. Thus, whereas on the average being black may lead to slightly lower SWB, this conclusion must be clearly qualified by other factors, in addition, the predictors of SWB may differ for blacks and whites (Sauer, 1977).

Campbell et al. (1976) showed that, although blacks reported less happiness than whites from 1957 through 1972, both showed comparable decreases in happiness during this period. However, Gibbs (1973) has analyzed data from 1946 to 1966 and found that elite black (more educated, higher income, higher status) decreased sharply in their happiness during this period, whereas there was no comparable decline among white elite's. Thus, despite apparent political advances made by blacks in the U.S. in the decades following World War II, there was no concomitant increase in happiness. Indeed, the blacks who might have most benefited from increased equality were those who became most unhappy, in contrast, black farm workers reported high levels of happiness throughout this period. One hypothesis is that, with the political awakening of more educated blacks, their aspirations and hopes exceeded the gains that were actually made.

One caution is in order concerning the group status, education and other data related to specific subgroups in national samples. The sub-samples of these groups are often quite small (e.g., 10 to 30 persons) and thus the conclusions are quite tentative.

From the results of two studies on immigrants and ethnic minority group Maykel Verkuyten (2008) reported that aside from factors such as lower

income, lower education and poorer health an ethnic minority member carries additional factors using data from two studies the author conducted that ethnic minority group members (Turkish and Dutch) have lower general life satisfaction than a comparable majority group, because they are less satisfaction with their in the country of settlement. In addition two studies showed that the higher perceived structure discrimination was associated with lower life satisfaction in the country of settlement, but also with higher ethnic group identification that, in turn, made a positive contribution to general life satisfaction.

A study (John Dovidio, and Yolanda Flores Niemann, 1998) was conducted to examine the experiences of APA members employed by university psychology departments, of which 234 were white, 84 were Black, 59 were Asian and 48 were Hispanic. The findings suggest that faculty of color experience lower levels of job satisfaction than their white counterparts, especially when they're the only minority faculty member in a department. Even when the authors controlled for academic rank, the pattern of dissatisfaction among minority faculty remained powerful. Most dissatisfied were Black and Hispanic faculty members, who reported feeling the most singled out and alone in their departments.

Working to counteract such feelings of isolation, many psychology departments are seeking to hire more faculty of color and help them feel more connected. In addition, in an effort to help, APA's Commission on Ethnic Minority Recruitment, Retention and Training in Psychology (CEMRRAT) has produced three booklets that offer advice on how to successfully diversify psychology departments.

Niemann, speculates, discontentment is likely highest among solo minority faculty because 'the fewer of you there are, the more you stand out, You're treated differently because you're seen first as a minority, and only second as a psychologist and researcher,' says Niemann.

In addition, solo faculty often feel pressured to represent their group on every departmental committee while still teaching a full load and producing stellar research they work twice as hard in an effort to dispel negative racial stereotypes, she and Dovidio note. A lack of support from others in their group makes the burden even heavier, they say.

'Solo faculty feels like they're in a glass house, being monitored all the time,' says Dovidio. 'There's a dilemma here because a department may think it's wonderful that they've hired one African-American person, but at the same time they may be putting that person at risk.'

Given the low number of minority faculty in psychology less than 10 percent many find themselves alone in their departments, the authors say. A quarter of the African-American and Hispanic faculty in their study were lone minority representatives, compared with 15 percent of Asian-American faculty. African-Americans and Hispanics were the least satisfied, likely because they're the most stigmatized minority groups, according to the study's authors. By comparison, Asians were the most satisfied minority group, probably because they're less often solo or the victims of negative stereotyping, say the authors.

According to data from the National Center for Education Statistics, 5 percent of all college and university faculty are black and 4 percent are

Asian. The numbers for Hispanic faculty are slightly lower at 3 percent, and American Indian/Alaskan Native faculty trail behind at 0.4 percent.

Despite their low numbers, not all faculty of color have negative experiences, however, notes Samuel Turner, PhD, of the Medical University of South Carolina. Their experiences vary 'from person to person and across universities,' he says. Niemann and Dovidio agree, noting the several factors that mediate satisfaction: the number of faculty of color in the department, the extent to which the department values research on minority issues and the degree to which the department encourages connections with other minority faculty. Problems that are unique to a minority group' tokenism and overwork, for example are often invisible to the majority group, say Dovidio and Niemann.

To avoid those experiences, and the accompanying lack of sympathy, many minority faculties gravitate toward positions either in highly integrated departments or, for African-Americans, in traditionally black universities, says Dovidio. When such positions aren't available, however, they accept positions in less integrated departments, says Dovidio. And, considering the history of race relations in the United States, he says, they're liable to ask, 'Why am I the only one?'

If they think they're selected purely for race, they'll doubt their own abilities. Likewise, if their colleagues think they're selected for race, their colleagues may doubt their abilities as well, says Dovidio. There's 'erosion on both sides,' he says.

Some minority faculty also feel that their research on such issues as race relations, prejudice, racial identity and stereotypes is not valued as highly

as more traditional research, such as cognition studies, says Niemann. One Asian-American faculty member at a major research university believes that the only reason he successfully won tenure and promotion is because he researches the mainstream issue of sexual aggression in addition to multicultural issues.

But minority faculty shouldn't have to win credibility through mainstream research, says psychologist Ray Winbush, PhD, director of the Race Relations Institute at Fisk University. The fact that a faculty conducting ethnic research risk negative tenure evaluation suggests that psychology 'maintains its roots in white supremacist ideology,' he says.

Three studies examined minority group members' attitudes toward other, similar minority groups (White and Michael T. Schmitt (2006). They predicted that minority group members would differentiate between multiple outgroups with asymmetric horizontal hostility (White & Langer, 1999), a pattern of expressing relatively unfavorable attitudes toward an outgroup that is similar to and more mainstream than the minority ingroup. They replicated White and Langer's pattern of horizontal hostility among members of minority political parties in Greece (Study 1). When the mainstream majority was made a salient part of the intergroup context, vegetarians' attitudes toward vegans became more positive, and vegans' attitudes toward vegetarians more negative (Study 2). In Study 3, mainstream salience made Dartmouth College students' relative evaluations of a similar, more mainstream college more negative, whereas priming a superordinate minority identity made them more positive. Results suggest that asymmetric horizontal hostility results from the motivation to differentiate one's minority ingroup from a similar, more mainstream group in comparative contexts anchored by the

mainstream majority outgroup. Despite this, they know little about relations between similar minority groups.

A consistent finding in the experimental and field research literature on intergroup discrimination is that members of numerically smaller (minority) groups discriminate more than members of numerically larger (majority) groups (Mullen, Brown, & Smith, 1992). However, Geoffrey J. Leonardelli and Marilynn B. Brewer (2001) conducted a research which investigate the reasons for the frequently obtained finding that members of numerically minority groups exhibit greater intergroup discrimination than members of majority groups and also sought to determine the conditions under which members of both majority and minority groups' exhibit intergroup discrimination. Experiment 1 examined the role of group identification and found that discrimination by members of a majority group was equivalent to that of minority group members when identification was experimentally induced. Experiments 2 and 3 examined further the underlying bases for minority and majority discrimination.

The findings were consistent with predictions derived from optimal distinctiveness theory (Brewer, 1991), identification with the in-group was found to be a necessary condition underlying intergroup discrimination, but motivations for discrimination varied as a function of satisfaction with in-group size and distinctiveness. Although enhanced discrimination by members of minority groups relative to members of majority groups has been demonstrated in a number of contexts, the motivations that underlie this difference in in-group bias have not been fully explored. One explanation is that discrimination by minority group members may reflect the insecurity associated with categorization in a relatively

disadvantaged or vulnerable group (Ellemers, Doosje, van Knippenberg, & Wilke, 1992; Sachdev & Bourhis, 1984, 1991; Simon, 1992; Simon & Brown, 1987). Perhaps minority group members discriminate to reduce or compensate for the insecurity associated with belonging to a smaller group; majority group members, by contrast, discriminate less because they find security in their group size and have less need to increase the level of in-group advantage.

A second explanation is that discrimination by minority group members reflects the greater in-group salience associated with their smaller size (Bettencourt et al., 1999; Mullen et al., 1992). One version of this explanation proposes that members who belong to these more salient minority groups will discriminate more than members of majority groups simply because minority members are more focused on the in-group than are majority group members.

In a test of this hypothesis, Bettencourt et al. found that perceptions of in-group salience did mediate the effects of group size on in-group bias. Not only was in-group salience positively associated with in-group bias, but controlling for in-group salience reduced the effect of in-group size on in-group bias to non significance. Clearly, this evidence illustrates that group salience plays a role in the effect of group size on discrimination.

All rights of reproduction in any form reserved. This explanation is lacking, however, is a motivational component; group salience may play a role in intergroup discrimination by directing group focus, but salience itself does not necessarily provide a motivational explanation for the relatively greater discrimination exhibited by minority group members. It is not clear whether in-group focus in the case of minority groups

enhances insecurity and anxiety, which then motivates discrimination against the out-group or whether in-group focus enhances positive in-group identification which motivates discrimination in favor of the in-group.

Building on the in-group salience explanation, the theory of “optimal distinctiveness” (Brewer, 1991, 1993) provides a basis for understanding what motivational state might be associated with membership in a relatively small, salient in-group. In contrast to explanations that assumes that minority group membership constitutes a less valued or more vulnerable social identity than majority group membership, optimal distinctiveness theory suggests that minority status may be a source of positively valued social identity. This theory posits that people prefer groups that provide sufficient inclusiveness within the group and sufficient differentiation between the in-group and out-group, and groups that meet both needs will engage strong in-group identification and associated in-group favoritism. Optimal distinctiveness theory proposes that minority identities meet both needs because of their greater distinctiveness in contrast to large majority groups. Thus, when individuals are placed into a minority group, they are predicted to be more satisfied and more likely to identify with that group than individuals assigned to a large majority group.

Social identification and group satisfaction are both expected to create the conditions under which minority and majority group members’ exhibit in-group favoritism. First, social identification is expected to be a necessary (although not a sufficient) antecedent of in-group bias. It has been demonstrated in a number of research contexts that members of minority groups are more identified with their group than are majority members

(Abrams, 1994; Blanz et al., 1995; Brewer & Weber, 1994; Ellemers & van Rijswijk, 1997; Simon & Brown, 1987; Simon & Hamilton, 1994, Experiment 1). According to optimal distinctiveness theory, minority group members should not only be more identified but also more satisfied with their in-group than majorities, and it is this positive valuing of the in-group that is assumed to underlie their ingroup bias. On the other hand, members of nondistinctive majority groups are predicted to be less satisfied with their membership and more likely to disengage from that social identity. This disengagement makes it unlikely that group members will exhibit discrimination in the form of in-group favoritism. From this perspective also, the lesser discrimination on the part of members of majority groups reflects a failure to identify with that group and hence little or no motivation for in-group bias. Although in-group identification per se is not necessarily a sufficient explanation for inter group discrimination, discrimination on behalf of fellow group members is unlikely unless identification has been engaged.

As a first step in examining the implications of optimal distinctiveness theory for understanding the motivations underlying differences in in-group bias by members of majority and minority groups, our initial experiment tested the idea that differential identification with the in-group is one determining factor. Specifically, Experiment-1 was designed to test directly the hypothesis that, in the absence of identity induction, individuals assigned to majority categories identify less with their group than individuals assigned to a minority category. The experiment also tested the prediction that differences between majority and minority group discrimination would be eliminated if majority group members were induced to identify with their assigned category.

Further experiments were then designed to explore the conditions under which minority and majority members would exhibit bias and the different motivations that might underlie discrimination as a function of in-group size and distinctiveness.

Altogether, the evidence from the three studies supports derivations from optimal distinctiveness theory as an explanation of why minorities generally discriminate more than majorities. In addition, this research clarified the roles of group satisfaction and identification as predictors of minority and majority discrimination. Instead of feeling threatened, individuals react positively to classification in a minority (as compared to a majority) categorization (Experiments 2 and 3). Group identification was shown to be a relevant antecedent to minority and majority discrimination, but not sufficient as an explanation for the degree of in-group bias (Experiment 1). More central to the bias exhibited by minority and majority members, was group satisfaction, which positively predicted minority in-group bias and negatively predicted majority in-group bias (Experiment 2). Furthermore, this differential satisfaction corresponded to differences in discrimination motives for minority and majority members (Experiment 3).

Challenging the Primacy of Enhancement Motives Optimal distinctiveness theory offers an explanation for minority in-group identification that does not rely solely on self-enhancement motives. Because of their relative distinctiveness, minority groups satisfy needs for both inclusion and differentiation—identity needs that are presumed by the theory to be independent of the need for self-enhancement. While some researchers argue that enhancement represents the dominant self-motive (Sedikides, 1993; Sedikides & Strube, 1997), we argue that

individuals seek distinctive group identities as much as positive group identities. All other things being equal, individuals will prefer group memberships that are both positive and distinctive, but when the two motives are in competition, it is not at all clear that the enhancement motive dominates.

Indeed, there is considerable evidence that group identification is stronger among members of distinctive stigmatized social groups than among members of larger, higher status groups (Crocker, Luhtanen, Blaine, & Broadnax, 1994; Simon, Glassner-Bayerl, & Stratenwerth, 1991; Simon, Hastedt, & Aufderheide, 1997). In one test of the relative impact of enhancement and distinctiveness motives, Brewer et al. (1993) placed participants into groups that differed in size and status and, in addition, manipulated activation of the need for differentiation.

In-group identification was assessed by evaluative ratings of the in-group on dimensions unrelated to the status differential. The results of the experiment produced a three-way interaction between in-group size, status, and the differentiation manipulation on in-group valuation. Under conditions when no need for differentiation was aroused, ingroup enhancement was predicted by both size and status, with participants classified in a low-status minority category showing the greatest evidence of enhancement-motivated in-group positivity. When participants' need for differentiation was aroused, however, in-group valuation was entirely predicted by group size: Minority members exhibited ingroup favoritism while majority members did not, regardless of the status of the group. The results of the present experiments complement the findings of Brewer et al. by indicating that minority group size per se engages in-group

identification independent of any need for self-enhancement. This identification precedes, rather than follows, differences in discrimination.

This article argues that optimal distinctiveness theory best explains when and why minority and majority group members discriminate. This research also speaks more generally to the “self-esteem hypothesis” of intergroup discrimination, a hypothesis with an uncertain history. The self-esteem hypothesis refers to the general idea that intergroup discrimination is motivated by desire to enhance or restore individual self-esteem. Although it has been claimed to be derived directly from social identity theory (a claim made by Abrams & Hogg, 1988), among social identity theorists the hypothesis appears to be without an advocate. Turner (1999) explicitly rejects the self-esteem restoration hypothesis as a principle of social identity. Abrams and Hogg (1988) themselves criticized the logic and empirical evidence for the self-esteem hypothesis and proposed an alternative motivational model of in-group bias in its place (Hogg & Abrams, 1993). Yet, despite the theory’s lack of representation, a recent review (Rubin & Hewstone, 1998) demonstrated that the self-esteem hypothesis is firmly entrenched in the social psychological literature on intergroup relations. The present studies add to the growing documentation (e.g., Aberson, Healy, & Romero, 2000; Crocker & Luhtanen, 1990; Hogg & Turner, 1987; Seta & Seta, 1992, 1996; Sidanius et al., 1994; Smith & Tyler, 1997) that discrimination is not entirely motivated by low or threatened self-esteem and, if anything, is a reflection of positive collective self-esteem. The evidence also addresses what is often considered another social identity explanation for differences in minority and majority group discrimination (Sachdev & Bourhis, 1984, 1991; Simon, 1992; Simon & Brown, 1987). This perspective argues that minority group membership constitutes an

“insecure identity” relative to the secure identity provided by majority group membership and it is this insecurity that prompts minorities to discriminate in order to restore a more positive collective identity. Minority group members reported being more satisfied with their group than majority group members. In addition, satisfaction was found to be positively related to discrimination on the part of members of a minority group, but negatively related for majority group members, suggesting that this alternative social identity account also cannot explain why minority group members discriminate.

Given the theoretical differences, social identity theory and optimal distinctiveness theory complement each other, especially with regard to the basis for majority group member discrimination. A central theoretical principle of social identity theory is that “when social identity is unsatisfactory, individuals will strive either to leave their existing group and join some more positively distinct group and/or to make their existing group more positively distinct” (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Similarly, optimal distinctiveness theory argues that, given the nondistinct status of the majority group, members of majority groups will first try to disengage from their group, but given that they are highly engaged with their group, they will seek. Some of these researchers have argued that Tajfel himself (1981) claims that numerical minorities are more disadvantaged (or less secure) than numerical majorities. To be clear, Tajfel (1981) defined minority groups according to their disadvantaged status, not group size, and even argued that some numerical majorities (Blacks in South Africa) are considered “minorities.” Specifically, Tajfel adopted Wagley and Harris’ (1958) perspective on minorities: “The principle guiding the definition selected by Wagley and Harris (and many other social

scientists) is not to be found in numbers but in the social position of the groups to which they refer as minorities. This is a sensible approach to the problem” (p. 310; original emphasis included). To clarify, while there are circumstances under which numerical minority membership will be less valued than numerical majority membership (see end of General Discussion), such a hypothesis does not appear to be based on Henri Tajfel’s (1981) perspective of minority groups. Thus, although the presumed underlying motivation (positive evaluation versus differentiation) is somewhat different, the two theories generate converging predictions under some conditions.

The original goal of the three studies reported here was to examine why members of minority groups often display more in-group bias and discrimination than members of majority groups. The results supported the idea that affirmation of a positive social identity provides a better account for minority group bias than the need to restore threatened self-esteem. Further, the absence of discrimination among members of majority groups seems to reflect low levels of in-group identification rather than the presence of a secure positive social identity.

Although we have emphasized that our findings implicate motives other than self-enhancement underlying in-group bias and intergroup discrimination, it is also clear from our results that some level of self-involvement with the in-group category is a necessary precondition for eliciting in-group bias. When levels of group identification are low (as with large majority groups in a minimal group context), no motivations for discrimination are activated. However, when identification is

sufficiently engaged, both minority and majority group members' exhibit in-group favoritism on a zero-sum allocation measure. There was evidence, however, that discrimination is driven by different underlying motives for individuals identified with minority versus majority groups. Contrary to the premises of the self-esteem restoration hypothesis, it is discrimination by majorities (not minorities) that appears to be motivated by a need to restore or achieve positive distinctiveness for the in-group.

This difference in motivational basis implies that the locus of in-group bias (Brewer, 1979) may be different for the two kinds of group members. For members of minority groups, discrimination may reflect a desire to benefit the in-group, without regard to outcomes for the out-group. For majority group members, however, the goal may not be to benefit the in-group per se but to increase the difference between positive outcomes for the in-group compared to the out-group. Conceivably, these two different types of in-group bias may have very different implications for intergroup behavior and the prospects for reducing social discrimination.

As indicated at the outset of this article, we are interested here in the effects of in-group size per se, independent of other types of status differences that may exist between social groups. In the laboratory it is possible to manipulate information about relative group size without (explicitly) conveying any evaluative implications of this size difference. In the real world, however, minority size is frequently (though not always) associated with disadvantages in status, resources, culture, and power within the overall societal context. In that case, the motives for

positive social identity and for distinctiveness can be seen as pulling in opposite directions as determinants of in-group identification and satisfaction. Nonetheless, members of minority groups often exhibit high levels of in-group identification and positive collective self-esteem (e.g., Crocker et al., 1994). In this case, intergroup discrimination may serve in-group protective functions (Branscombe, Schmitt, & Harvey, 1999) as well as or in addition to identity affirmation. The point to be made is that there is no simple one-to-one relationship between in-group identification and intergroup discrimination.

Once group identification has been engaged, in-group biases may serve functions of in-group enhancement, protection, identity affirmation, or differentiation as well as self-interest, depending on the context of intergroup relationships that exists at the time.

CHAPTER 3

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The preceding review of the literature reveals that subjective well being has been studied extensively by different investigators in different contexts. Psychologists have investigated the psychological and emotional nature of human beings to explain and understand the sources that cause happiness or lack of it. Studies have been conducted to relate happiness to factors such as gender, education, income and employment status. Different investigators reported that there is no significant relationship between gender and subjective well-being. A large number of studies have found positive relationship between income and SWB (Larson, 1978). Satisfaction with income is also found to be positively related to SWB (Braun, 1977; Campbell et al, 1976).

Employment status has been found to be positively related to subjective well-being (Feather, 1990; Fryer and Payne, 1986). Different investigators reported from the results of their studies that unemployment lowers SWB of both men and women (Bradburn 1969). Job satisfaction is also found to be related to subjective well-being.

Studies have also been conducted to investigate the relationship between SWB and education. Campbell from the data of his studies suggested that education had an influence on SWB in U.S.A. But the effect of education seems to interact with other variables such as income, gender, employment status etc. (Bradburn and Caplowvitz, 1965). Several studies have also found no significant effect of education on SWB when other factors are controlled (Clemente and Sauer, 1976a; Spreitzer and Snyder, 1974; Toseland and Rasch, 1979-1980). On the other hand, some of the studies indicate more positive effect for women. However, Ayesha

Mahmuda (1998) reported a positive relationship between SWB and levels of education. In the results of her study, respondents with no formal education were found to have poorest psychological well-being and respondents having highest education were found to have better psychological well-being.

However, only a few number of studies have been conducted so far to investigate the SWB of majority and minority people. Almost all of these studies have been conducted on Blacks and Whites in America. Blacks were usually found to be lower on SWB than the Whites (Alston et al 1974; Andrews and Withey, 1974). In most of these studies the investigators failed to control the variables like age, education, income, marital status and employment status. In a few number of studies the effects of these factors were controlled. In the results of these studies blacks were found to have lower SWB than the whites, but it seems to depend on gender and age. From the results of these studies it appears that blacks may carry some additional factors that lower their subjective well-being,

The present investigator feels that there is need for conducting research to identify these additional factors, which may be responsible for lowering the subjective well-being of minority people. Moreover, almost all the studies on SWB of majority and minority people have been conducted in America. But in order to draw a clear cut conclusion about the subjective well-being of majority and minority people there is need for conducting research in the countries besides U.S.

Hence, the present investigator intends to conduct similar study on subjective well-being of majority and minority people in context of

Bangladesh. The broad objective of the study is to investigate the subjective well-being of majority and minority people of Bangladesh with reference to their gender, education, income and employment status. Specific objectives of the study may be stated as follows:

- To investigate whether there is any difference between the subjective well-being of majority and minority people.
- To examine whether there is any variation in subjective well-being of majority and minority people as a function of their gender.
- To investigate whether there is any variation in subjective well-being of majority and minority people as a function of their education.
- To examine whether there is any variation in subjective well-being of majority and minority people as a function of their income.
- To investigate whether there is any difference between the subjective well-being of majority and minority people as a function of their employment status.

Hypotheses of the study:

On the basis of the findings of previous studies, theoretical perspective and above discussion, the following hypotheses were formulated to test in the present study:

- H₁:** The majority people would express better subjective well-being than the minority people.
- H₂:** Men would express better subjective well-being than women.
- H₃:** Highly educated people would express better subjective well-being than less educated people.
- H₄:** Subjects from high income group would express better subjective well-being than subjects from low income group.
- H₅:** Employed people would express better subjective well-being than unemployed people.

In order to verify these hypotheses the following things were observed:

1. If the SWB of the majority respondents is significantly higher than that of minority respondents.
2. If the SWB of male respondents is significantly higher than that of female respondents.
3. If the SWB of highly educated respondents is significantly higher than that of less educated respondents.
4. If the subjective well-being of high income group is significantly higher than that of low income group.
5. If the subjective well-being of employed respondents is significantly higher than that of unemployed respondents.

6. If there is any interaction effects of group status and gender on subjective well-being.
7. If there is any interaction effects of group status and education on subjective well-being.
8. If there is any interaction effects of group status and income on subjective well-being.
9. If there is any interaction effects of group status and employment status on subjective well-being.
10. If there is any interaction effects of group status, gender and education on subjective well-being.
11. If there is any interaction effects of group status, gender, education and income on subjective well-being.
12. If there is any interaction effects of group status, gender and employment status on subjective well-being.
13. If there is any interaction effects of group status, education and employment status on subjective well-being.
14. If there is any interaction effects of group status, gender education, employment status on subjective well-being.
15. If there is any interaction effects of group status, gender, income and employment status on subjective well-being.
16. If there is any interaction effect of group status, gender, income, education and employment status on subjective well-being.

CHAPTER 4

METHODS

METHODS

Design of the study

The study would conduct a comparative investigation on subjective well-being of majority and minority people of Bangladesh as a function of their gender, education, income and employment status. The independent variables would be group status, gender, education, income and employment status. The dependent variable would be the scores on subjective well-being scale. Thus, the study would utilize 2x2x3x3x2 factorial design consisting of two levels of group status (Majority and Minority), two levels of gender (Men and Women), three levels of education (Under graduate, Graduate and Post graduate), three levels of income (Low income, Middle income and High income) and two levels of employment status (Employed and Unemployed).

Measuring Instrument

Selection of measuring instruments is a difficult job. It depends on several considerations. Firstly, objective of the study is the basic consideration for instrument selection. Secondly, the samples used in the study may be the determining factor that the investigator might take into account. Thirdly, the amount of time at the investigator's disposal should get priority in selecting measuring instruments. Fourthly, personal competence of the investigator and ethical consideration for using the scale may account for selecting a particular type of measuring instrument. Lastly, the accuracy for scoring the data, the feasibility of using appropriate statistical technique and the interpretation of results may

influence the instrument selection in a psychological study. In view of above considerations the following measuring instrument was selected.

The Bangla version of the Subjective Well-being Questionnaire:

The scale was originally developed by Nagpal and Sell (1985). The authors identified eight theoretical areas of concern by using factor analysis. These are:

1) Subjective well-being positive affects:

Here, items were included on specific life concerns such as health, education, work, standard of living, family and friends, as well as some items reflecting the perception of well-being in an overall perspective.

2) Subjective well-being negative affects:

Most of the items here were inverses of the questions relating to positive affect. Some items reflected the most frequently reported complaints in 'Psychological cases'. This intended to elicit the respondent's general unhappiness and his/her worries or regrets about particular life concerns.

3) Mental mastery over self and environment:

Here it was assumed that a respondent's feeling of his/her performance in matters requiring the exercise of mental mastery might also be an important area.

4) Rootedness & belongingness:

It was hypothesized here that the perception of sharing values, beliefs and qualities of inner life might also form a special dimension of well-being.

5) Structural and cohesive aspects of the family:

The structural aspects of family life and democratic functioning in the family are related to each other and have a substantial impact on well-being.

6) Density of social network:

Items in this area were meant to elicit information on perceived well-being from the social networks other than the family group.

7) Security in health and socio-economic crisis:

The questions in this area were meant to cover the respondent's feelings of security in the case of various crisis situations.

8) Expectation achievement harmony:

Items in this area were meant to explore an area of well-being thought of as particularly important, viz., the extent to which long-term expectations in life has been met by actual achievements.

The questionnaire consists of 82 items covering the above-mentioned areas. Thus, it measures eight dimensions of subjective well-being. The aim of these questions was to evoke patterns of emotional evaluation. In contrast, the questions relating to negative affect that elicited the respondent's unhappiness or worry or regret about a particular life concerns. In general, the questions were structured in a manner to permit three response categories, sometimes four. The scale represents very positive affirmation (e.g., very happy); positive feelings (e.g., quite happy); neutral or negative assertion (e.g., not so happy); and in some cases not applicable. Similarly, the response categories on the negative questions like worry over some things very much, to some extent, not so

much were meant to cover a very bad feeling up to neutral or positive feelings. Thus, the response scales were drafted to discriminate between the moments of positive or of negative feelings about the concern in question, the end point in each case being a state without feelings.

Scoring of the subjective well-being questionnaire

The different categories of responses are scored according to the following manner-

SI.	Response categories	Score
1.	Very good, Very happy, Very much, Most of the times Quite deeply, Quite often, Yes	1
2.	Quite good, Quite happy, To some extent, No	2
3.	Not so good, Not so much, Not so happy, Hardly ever,	3
4.	Not applicable	4

Items of the questionnaire will be scored 1, 2, 3 or 4 according to response categories indicated by the respondents in the test booklet. The response categories of 76 items were 1 to 3 and 6 items were 1 to 4. So, the maximum possible score for a respondent is 252 and the minimum is 82. The middle score point of the scale is 167(possible score range and middle point of each of the eight dimensions have been shown in appendix-D.) A respondent's total score is the sum of the numerical values of responses to all items. High total scores indicate poor subjective well-being and low total scores indicate better subjective well-being.

Some information about the Bengali version of the subjective well-being Questionnaire:

Bengali version of the subjective well-being Questionnaire of Nagpal and Sell (1985) was developed by Hamida Akter Begum¹ (1990). In developing the Bengali version of the questionnaire, each item was translated and adapted in Bengali version and was judged by three psychologists and an English language expert of Dhaka University independently. The final form of the questionnaire was adopted on the basis of agreement of all the judges. This Bangla version of the subjective well-being questionnaire was earlier used in different studies (Mahmuda, A., 1998; Begum, H.A. and Mahmuda, A. 1999; Khan, M.H.A. 2004) in Bangladesh before using it in the present study.

Interviewers/Research Team:

The researcher himself and ten students of M.Sc. final year in psychology of Rajshahi University were interviewers. All of the students were male and were properly trained in social studies. They were also given requisite training for the present research. The researcher collected data from Dhaka and Rajshahi districts. The remaining data were collected either by the researcher himself or with the help of his research team from others four districts.

¹ Professor Hamida Akter Begum, author of the Bangla version of the Subjective Well-being Questionnaire of Nagpal and Sell (1985) provides a copy to the present author personally for use in the present study. She also provides some information regarding Bangla version.

Sample:

A total of seven hundred and twenty respondents were used as subjects in the present study. Half of them (360) were Muslims and remaining half (360) were Hindus. They were selected from six administrative areas of Bangladesh (i.e.; Dhaka, Rajshahi, Chittagong, Khulna, Sylhet and Barisal). Their age ranged from 25 to 40 years and all of them were married. The break up of the sample distribution of majority and minority respondents according to their gender, education, income and employment status have been presented in table 1,2,3 & 4 respectively.

Table-1: Break up of the sample distribution according to gender.

Gender	Majority	Minority	Total
Male	180	180	360
Female	180	180	360
Total	360	360	720

Table-2: Break up of the sample distribution according to education.

Education	Majority	Minority	Total
Undergraduate (S.S.C.-H.S.C.)	120	120	240
Graduate (B.A.-B.A.Hons.)	120	120	240
PostGraduate (M.A.-Ph.D.)	120	120	240
Total	360	360	720

Table-3: Break up of the sample distribution according to income.

Income	Majority	Minority	Total
Low income (Bellow Tk 6000)	120	120	240
Middle income (Tk 6001-1500)	120	120	240
High income (AboveTk 15000)	120	120	240
Total	360	360	720

Table-4: Break up of the sample distribution according to employment status.

Employment Status	Majority	Minority	Total
Employed	180	180	360
Unemployed	180	180	360
Total	360	360	720

Procedure:

In the initial phase of data collection, the researcher went to the respondents and had an informal talk with them in order to ensure a good rapport. After establishment of rapport, the purpose of visit was briefly explained to them and they were requested to fill up a personal data sheet. When the personal data was filled up, the booklet of the Bengali version of the subjective well-being questionnaire was given to them. As the subjective well-being questionnaire is self-administering, no specific instruction was given to the literate respondents. The respondents went through the instruction given on the front page of the booklet. The instruction given on the front page of the booklet was as follows.

“People are different. They live in a variety of situations and they do not feel the same way about life and the world around them. From a practical viewpoint, it is important to know how different persons feel with regard to their day to day concerns such as their health, family, work etc. Such knowledge is necessary if an improvement in the quality of life of people is to be brought about.

This is a questionnaire on how you feel about some aspects of your life and about your life as a whole. Each question may be answered by any one of the given categories by putting a circle O around the number which seems to represent your feelings best. For example, in the first question if you feel your general health is very good and you feel physically fit, please put circle around the response ‘very good’ 1. At that times you may find that your feelings is not represented perfectly by any

one of the given response categories. In such cases, just choose the one closest to that you think.

You may find that some question appear repetitive. Nonetheless, please answer them all. You do not need to have your answers agree with each other.

This questionnaire may appear rather long to you. But if you work as fast as you comfortably can, you will find that it doesn't really take very long to fill in.

All information given by you will be treated as confidential and will be used only for research work. Thank you"

After the respondents had completed their task according to the instructions, the questionnaire booklets were collected from the respondents.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

RESULTS

The study was attempted to conduct an empirical investigation on subjective well-being of majority and minority people of Bangladesh with reference to gender, education, income and employment status. The independent variables were group status, gender, education, income and employment status. The dependent variable was subjective well-being of the respondents.

Bangla version of the Subjective Well-Being Questionnaire of Nagpal and Sell (1985) was administered on equal number of majority and minority respondents. The overall Subjective Well-Being was determined for each respondent. The score of each respondent on each of the eight dimensions was also computed separately.

In order to analyze the relationship of subjective well-being with group status gender, income, education and employment status the overall scores of SWB scale were subjected to a $2 \times 2 \times 3 \times 3 \times 2$ ANOVA involving two levels of group status (majority and minority), two levels of gender (Male and Female), three levels of income (High income, Medium income and Low income), three levels of education (Undergraduate, Graduate and Post graduate) and two levels of employment status (Employed and Unemployed). The results of ANOVA have been presented in table-5.

Table-5: Summary of ANOVA representing group status, gender, education, income and employment status.

Source of variations	Sum of squares.	df	Mean squares	F
A: Group status (Majority, Minority)	34151.99	1	34151.99	290.38**
B: Gender(Male, Female)	3472.93	1	3472.93	29.53**
C: Education (Under Graduate, Graduate, Post Graduate)	2514.41	2	1257.21	10.69**
D: Income(Low, Medium, High)	3154.48	2	1577.24	13.42**
E: Employment status (Employed, Unemployed)	3728.77	1	3728.77	31.7**
AB	474.62	1	474.62	4.04*
AC	1130.88	2	465.44	4.81*
BC	30349.16	2	15174.5	129.02**
ABC	196697.56	2	98348.78	836.23**
AD	240.71	2	120.36	1.02
BD	107.51	2	53.76	0.46
ABD	84.18	2	42.09	0.36
CD	990.17	4	247.54	2.14
ACD	1067.34	4	266.84	2.26
BCD	99634.53	4	24908.64	211.79**
ABCD	241468.41	4	60367.11	513.28**
AE	15433.574	1	15433.574	23.82
BE	511.74	1	511.74	2.88
ABE	2458.14	1	2458.14	20.90**
CE	1970.41	2	985.21	8.83**
ACE	3399.68	2	1696.34	14.43**

BCE	92167.64	2	46083.82	391.84**
ABCE	227023.78	2	113511.89	965.156**
DE	146.68	2	73.34	0.63
ADE	113.63	2	56.82	0.48
BDE	6.27	2	3.14	0.3
ABDE	238317.52	2	119158.76	1013.17**
CDE	384.76	4	96.19	0.82
ACDE	238052.14	4	59513.04	506.02**
BCDE	124552.47	4	31138.12	264.76**
ABCDE	242505.75	4	60626.44	515.49**
Within cells	76212.25	648	117.61	
Total	1882524.084	719		

**Denotes significant at 0.01 level and * Denotes significant at 0.05level.

The results indicate that the main effects for group status, gender, education, income and employment status are statistically significant. Interaction effects between group status and gender, group status and education, education and employment status are also found significant. Interaction effects among group status, gender and education; group status, education and income; group status, gender and employment status; group status, education and employment status; gender, education and employment status are also statistically significant. The interaction effects among four variables like group status, gender, education and income; group status, gender, education and employment status; group status, gender, income and employment status; gender, education income and employment status are also found to be significant. In addition, highly significant interaction effects are found among five variables.

Main effect of group status (A):

The results of ANOVA reported in table-5 show a highly significant main effect of group status ($F=290.38$, $df=1,648$; $p<0.01$). Table-6 contains the mean scores, standard deviation and results of t-test between majority and minority groups. The table show that the overall subjective well-being score was significantly higher for minority people than majority people.

Table-6: Mean, standard deviation, t- ratio and level of significance for SWB of minority and majority respondents.

	Respondents	Mean	SD	t-ratio	Level of sig.
SWB (overall)	Minority	165.15	12.75	27.898	0.001
	Majority	136.19	17.18		

These results suggest that regardless of sex, education, income and employment status the subjective well-being of majority respondents is significantly higher than that of minority respondents.

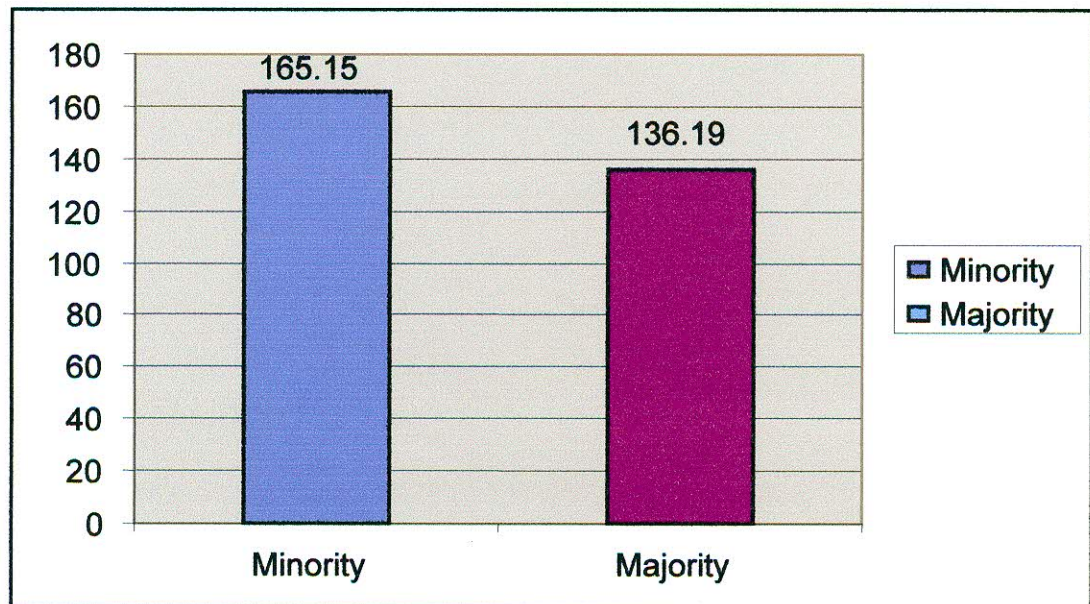


Figure-1: A comparative bar-diagram of mean scores of majority and minority groups.

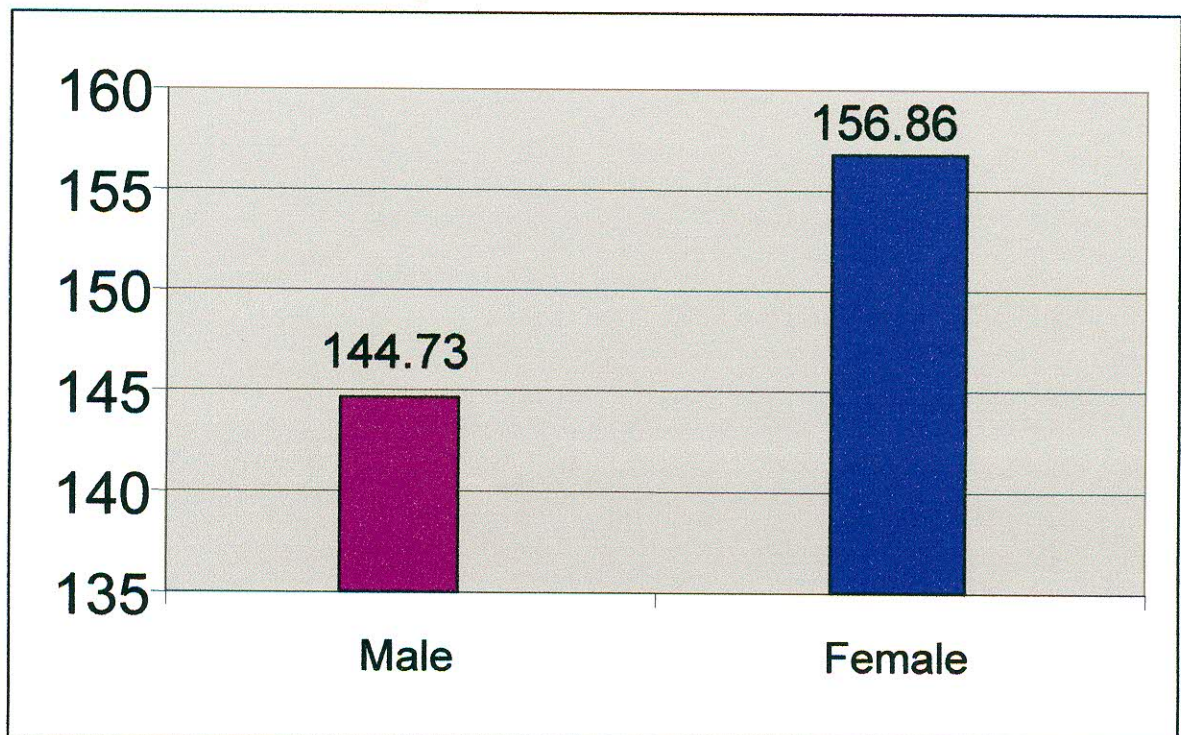
Main effect of Gender (B):

The summary of ANOVA reported in table-5 indicates that the main effect of gender is highly significant ($F=29.53, df=1,648; p<0.01$). The mean scores, standard deviation, and t-test between male and female respondents have been presented in table-7.

Table-7: Statistical comparisons between male and female groups.

SWB (overall)	Mean	Standard Deviation	t-ratio	Level of sig.
Female	156.86	17.74	11.09	0.001
Male	144.73	22.38		

These results suggest that regardless of group status, education, income and employment status the subjective well-being of male respondents is higher than in female respondents.

**Figure-2:** A comparative bar-diagram of mean scores of male and female groups.

Main effect of education (C): The results of ANOVA reported in table-5 also indicate that the main effect of education is highly significant ($F=10.69$, $df=2,648$; $p<0.01$). The mean scores for the three levels of education and the results of t- tests among them have been presented in Table-8.

Table-8: Statistical comparisons among the different levels of education.

Types of education compared	N	Mean	SD	t	Level of sig.
Under graduate (S.S.C.-H.S.C.)	240	159.28	17.14	7.89	0.001
& Graduate (B.A.-B.A.Hons)	240	148.51	21.58		
Under graduate (S.S.C.-H.S.C.)	240	159.28	17.14	11.80	0.001
& Post Graduate (M.A.-Ph.D).	240	144.71	21.43		
Graduate (B.A.-B.A.Hons) &	240	148.51	21.58	3.187	0.002
Post Graduate (M.A.-Ph.D).	240	144.71	21.43		

The table shows that subjective well-being is significantly higher in post graduate respondents than in graduate and undergraduate respondents. The table also shows that SWB is significantly higher in graduate group than in undergraduate group. Thus, the result suggests that SWB is directly related to levels of education of the respondents.

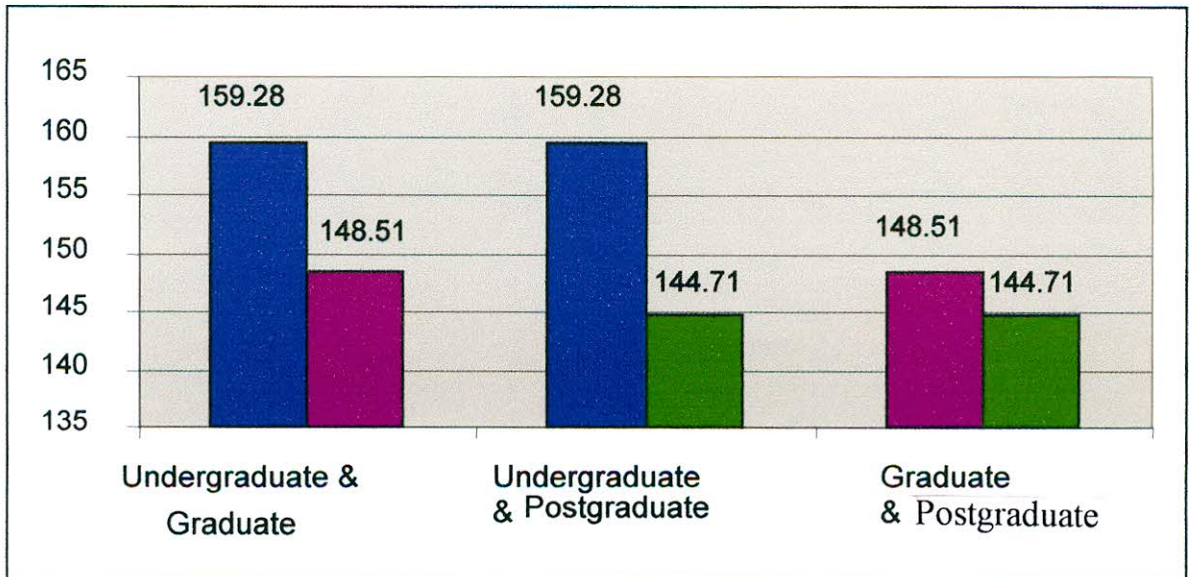


Figure-3: A comparative bar-diagram of mean scores of different education groups.

Main effect of income (D): The results of ANOVA reported in table-5 also indicate that the main effect of income is highly significant ($F=13.42, df=2, 648; p<0.01$). The mean scores for the three levels of income and the results of t- tests among them have been presented in Table 9.

Table-9: Statistical comparisons among different income groups.

Types of income groups compared	N	Mean	SD	Df	t-ratio	Level of sig.
Low and Middle	240	163.42	16.70	478	12.78	0.001
	240	150.41	20.07			
Low and High	240	163.42	16.70	478	21.95	0.001
	240	138.86	18.52			
Middle and High	240	150.41	20.07	478	12.27	0.001
	240	138.86	18.52			

The table shows that SWB is significantly higher in high income group respondents than in medium and low income group respondents. The SWB is also found to be higher in medium income group respondents than in low income group respondents. Thus, the results suggest that subjective well-being is directly related to the levels of income of the respondents.

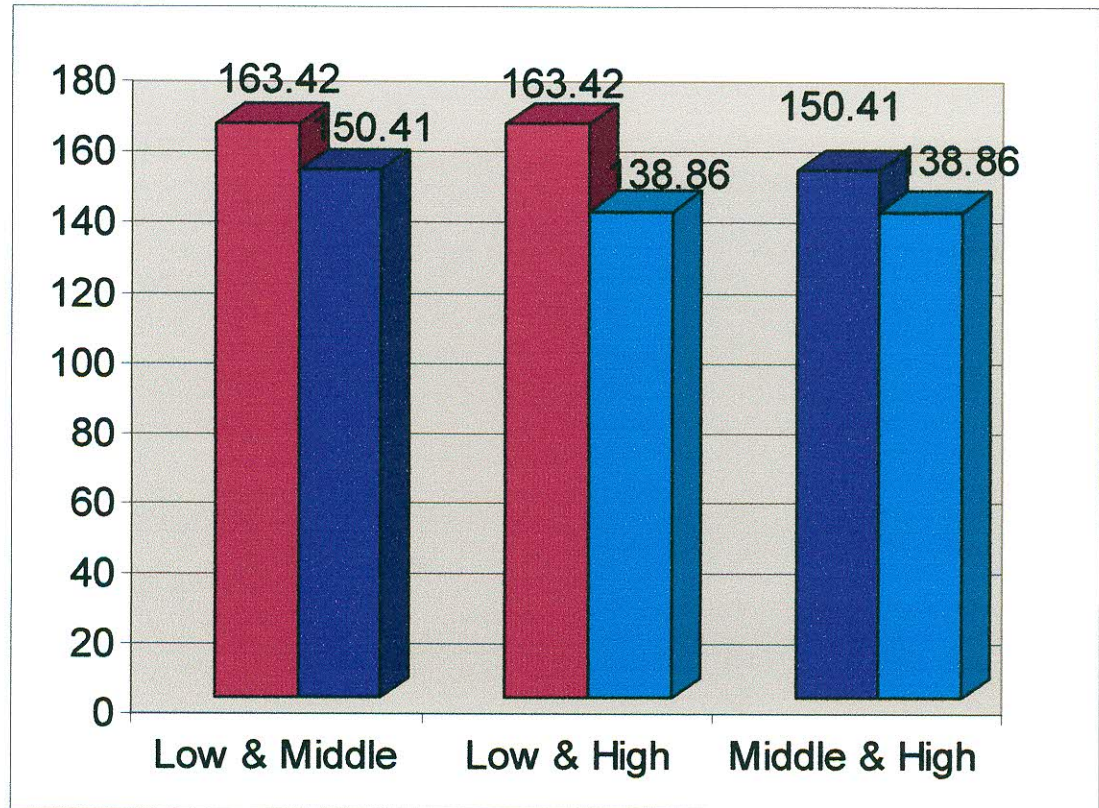


Figure-4: A comparative bar-diagram of mean scores of different income groups.

Main effect of employment status (E):

It can be seen in Table-5 that the main effect of employment status is statistically significant at 0.01 levels. The results presented in table-10 suggest that the SWB is significantly higher in employed group than in unemployed groups.

Table-10: Statistical comparisons between employed and unemployed groups.

SWB(overall)	Mean	SD	t-ratio	Level of sig.
Unemployed	158.56	20.91	8.72	0.001
Employed	143.23	18.14		

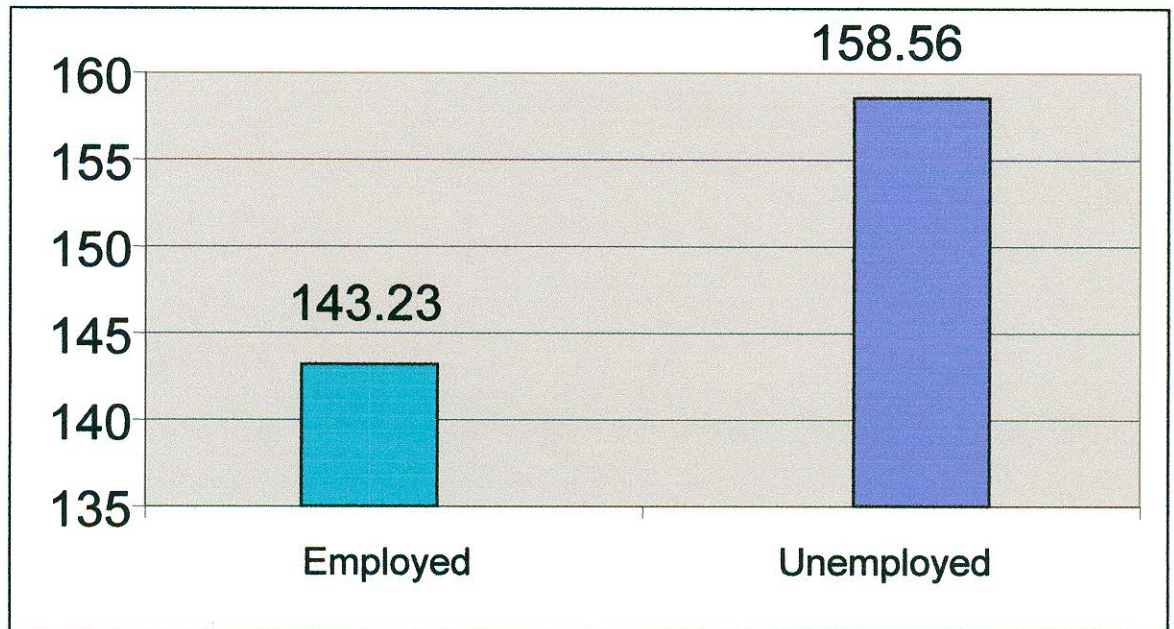


Figure-5: A comparative bar-diagram of mean scores of employed and unemployed groups.

Interaction effects

Group status × Gender (AB):

The interaction effect (presented in table-5) between group status and gender is statistically significant ($F=4.04$, $df=1,648$; $P<0.05$).

Comparisons were also made between majority male and minority male and between majority female and minority female respondents employing t-test. Results have been presented in table-11.

Table-11: Comparisons between majority male and minority male groups, majority female and minority female groups.

Compared group	Mean	Standard deviation	t-test
Majority Male	126.23	13.14	30.39**
Minority Male	163.39	11.68	
Majority Female	146.15	14.83	16.13**
Minority Female	167.56	13.44	

The table shows that the mean score of minority male respondent is significantly higher than that of majority male respondents. These results suggest that majority male respondents express better subjective well being than minority male respondents. The table also shows that the SWB of majority female respondents is better than that of minority female respondents.

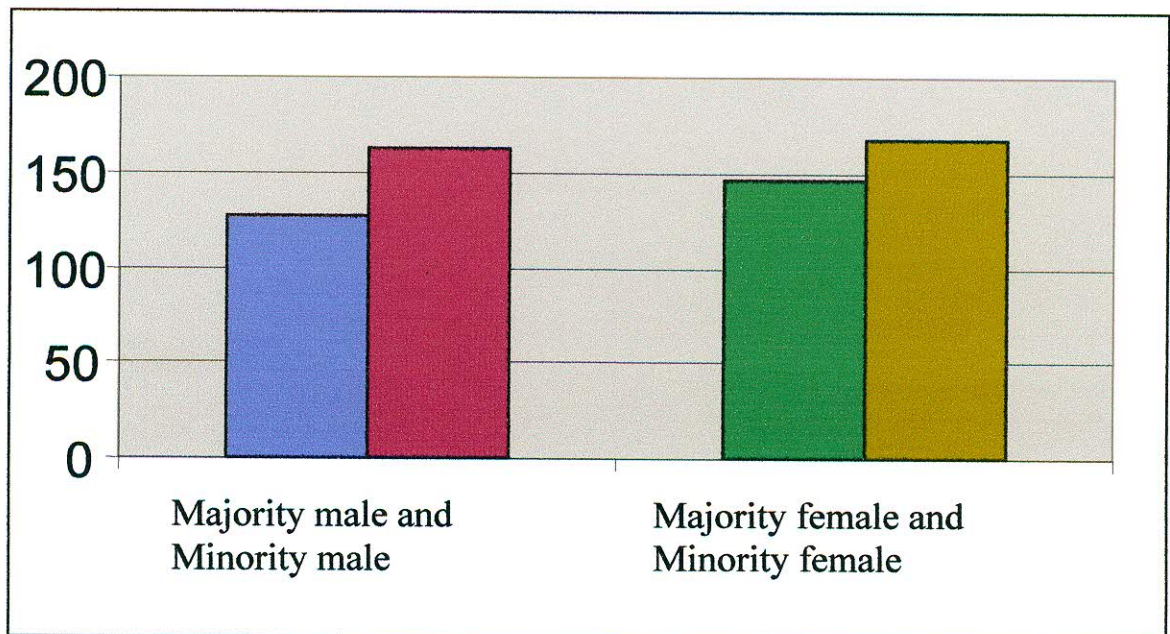


Figure-6: A comparative bar-diagram of mean scores of majority male and minority male groups, majority female and minority female groups.

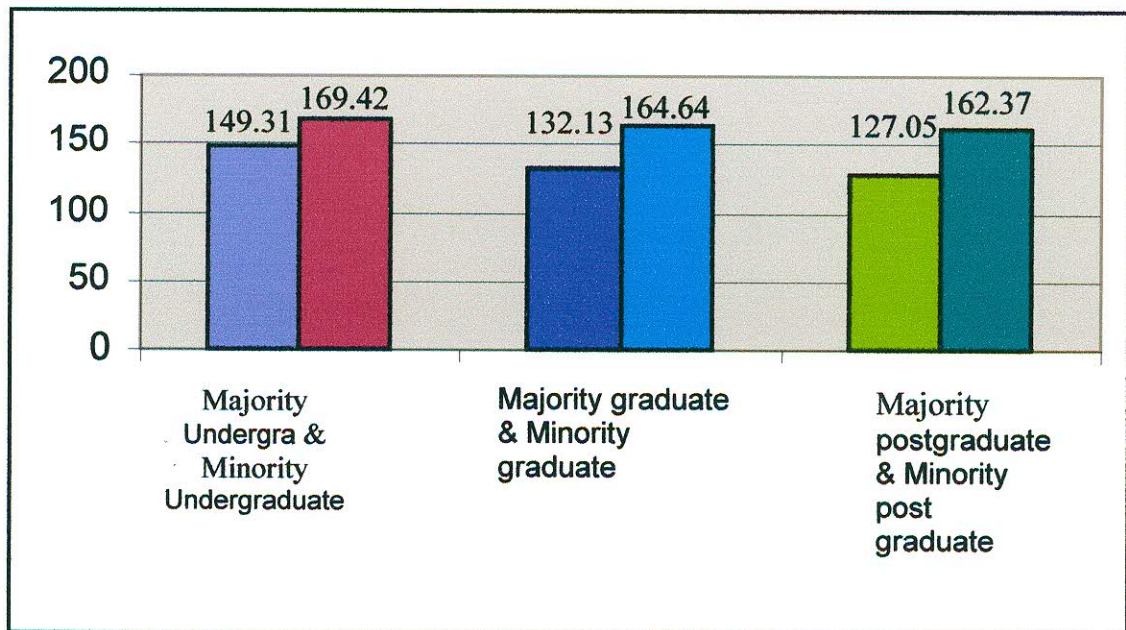
Group status × Education (AC):

Table-5 shows that a two-way interaction effect between group status and education is statistically significant ($F=4.81, df=2,648; P<0.05$). The results of t-tests presented in table-12.

Table-12: Results of t-test among different cell means.

Compared group	Mean	SD	t-test
Majority undergraduate	149.31	14.35	11.29**
Minority Undergraduate	169.42	13.28	
Majority Graduate	132.13	15.05	17.57**
Minority Graduate	164.64	13.64	
Majority post graduate	127.05	13.49	22.49**
Minority post graduate	162.37	10.58	

Table-12 shows that majority respondents express significantly better subjective well-being than minority respondents at every level of education.

**Figure-7:** A comparative bar-diagram of different cell means.

Group status × Employment status (AE):

It will be seen from Table-5 that the interaction effect of group status and employment status is significant at 0.01 level.

Table- 13: Results of t-test between majority employed & minority employed groups and majority unemployed & minority unemployed groups.

Compared group	Mean	SD	t-ratio
Majority Employed	147.14	16.26	1.39
Minority Employed	149.18	14.12	
Majority Unemployed	141.50	16.64	21.59**
Minority Unemployed	170.15	9.64	

** denotes 0.01 level of significance.

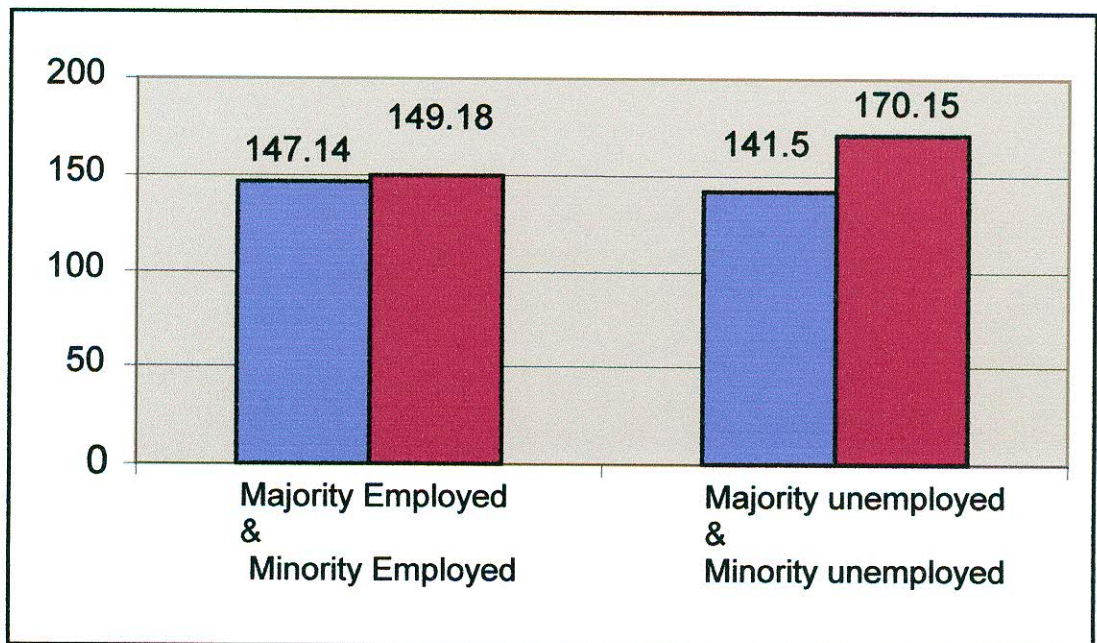


Figure-8: A comparative Bar-diagram of mean scores of majority employed and minority employed groups, minority unemployed and minority unemployed groups.

The results of t-test presented in table-13 indicate that there is no significant difference between majority employed and minority employed respondents. But majority unemployed respondents express better SWB than minority unemployed respondents.

Gender × Education (BC):

The Table-5 indicate that the interaction effect between gender and education is highly significant ($F=129.02, df=2,648; P<0.01$).

Group status × Gender × Education (ABC):

The interaction effect presented in table-5 among group status, gender and education is highly significant ($F=836.23, df=2,648; P<0.01$). Comparisons were also made among different cell means employing t-test.

Table- 14: Results of t-tests among different cell means.

Compared group	Mean	SD	t-ratio
Majority male undergraduate.	127.80	16.03	11.99**
Minority male undergraduate.	162.22	15.44	
Majority male graduate.	125.69	12.69	16.63**
Minority male graduate.	165.43	13.47	
Majority male postgraduate.	123.95	11.16	18.33**
Minority male postgraduate.	162.27	11.27	
Majority female undergraduate.	147.38	14.68	6.68**
Minority female undergraduate.	164.68	13.65	
Majority female graduate.	140.97	13.49	9.36**
Minority female graduate.	163.80	13.22	
Majority female postgraduate.	123.28	12.13	17.86**
Minority female postgraduate.	161.16	11.05	

**Denotes significant at 0.01 level and * Denotes significant at 0.05level.

Results of t-test presented in table-14 suggest that the majority male respondents expressed better SWB than minority male respondents at every level of education. The results also show that the majority female respondents have better SWB than minority female respondents at every level of education.

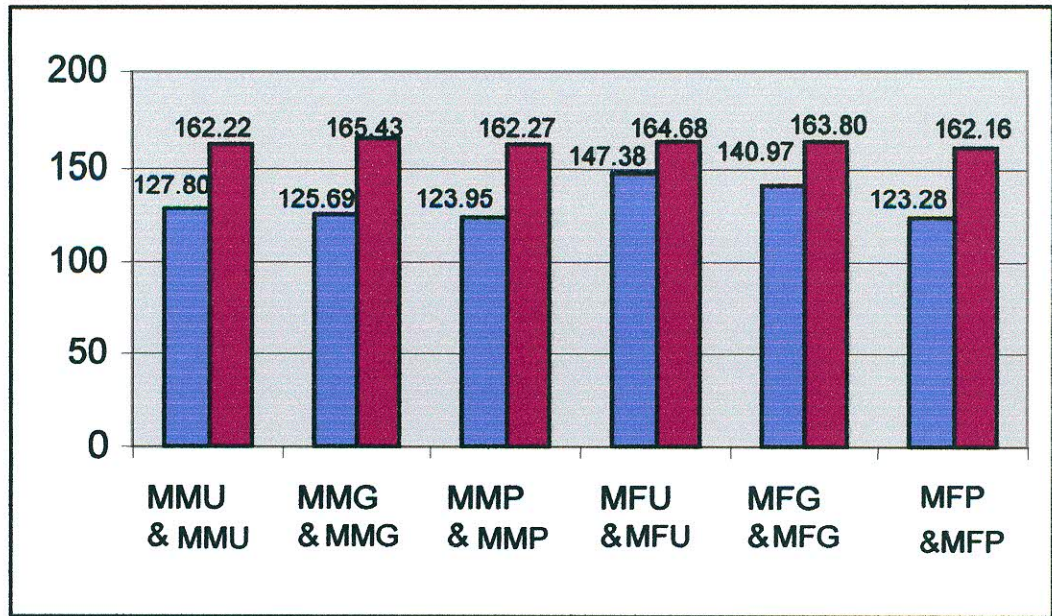


Figure-9: A comparative Bar-diagram of different cell means.

Gender × Education × Income (BCD):

The results of ANOVA presented in Table-5 that the interaction effect among gender, education and income is significant at 0.01 level.

Group Status × Gender × Education × Income (ABCD):

A four way interaction effect among group status, gender, education and income (table-5) is highly significant ($F= 513.28, df =4,648; P<0.01$). Results of t-test among different cell means have been presented in table-15.

Table-15: Results of t-tests among different cell means.

SL	Compared group	Mean	SD	t-ratio
1	Maj. male undergrad.low-income	130.27	13.29	10.08**
	Mino. male undergrad.low-income	153.37	5.03	
2	Maj. male undergrad.mid-income	117.09	13.46	8.82**
	Mino. male undergrad.mid-income	161.13	5.99	
3	Maj male undergrad.high-income	118.38	10.48	8.33**
	Mino male undergrad.high-income	152.64	6.20	
4	Maj. female undergrad.lowincome	159.18	9.93	5.75**
	Mino. female undergrad.lowincome	175.71	8.97	
5	Maj. female undergrad.mid-income	140.15	7.03	10.21**
	Mino. female undergrad.midincome	168.33	7.62	
6	Maj. female undergrad.high-income	134.05	10.87	6.93**
	Mino. female undergrad.high-income	155.33	9.05	
7	Maj. male graduate low-income	125.63	14.29	9.56**
	Mino. male graduate low-income	173.66	10.31	
8	Maj. male graduate mid-income	134.25	11.73	9.15**
	Mino. male graduate mid-income	163.5	5.73	
9	Maj. male graduate high-income	114.39	8.69	11.89**
	Mino. Male graduate high-income	149	7.83	
10	Maj. Female graduate low-income	146.73	13.86	7.45**
	Mino. female graduate low-income	176.25	10.56	
11	Maj. Female graduate mid-income	142.33	4.39	12.57**
	Mino. female graduate mid-income	171.38	7.16	
12	Maj. Female graduate high-income	13.14	10.71	8.54**
	Mino. female graduate high-income	155	9.91	
13	Maj. male post-grad. low-income	136.14	18.37	3.18*
	Mino. Male post-grad. Low-income	164.29	14.58	
14	Maj. male post-grad. Mid-income	129.33	8.24	18.25**

	Mino. Male post-grad. Mid-income	168.75	8.14	
15	Maj. male post-grad. High-income	121.20	11.23	16.35**
	Mino male post-grad. high-income	152.76	8.45	
16	Maj. Female post-grad. low-income	141.57	14.41	9.4**
	Mino. female post-grad low-income	156	10.25	
17	Maj. Female post-grad. mid-income	136.73	15.99	2.64*
	Mino. female post-grad. Mid-income	156.5	16.16	
18	Maj. Female post-grad. High-income	136.22	6.18	4.82**
	Mino. female post-grad. high-income	156.33	10.89	

Table-15 contains the cell means and the results of t-tests among them. The table shows that majority male respondents from undergraduate group expressed subjective well-being significantly higher in intensity as compared to minority male respondents from undergraduate group at every level of income. Similar results have also been found in case of graduate and post graduate group respondents.

The results (table-15) also suggest that majority male respondents from low income group expressed subjective well-being significantly higher in intensity as compared to minority male respondents from low income group at every level of education. Similar results have also been found in case of graduate and post graduate group respondents.

An inspection of table-15 indicates that the subjective well-being of female majority respondents was significantly higher in intensity as compared to minority female respondents at every level of education regardless of income. The subjective well-being of female majority respondents was significantly higher in intensity as compared to minority female respondents at every level of income regardless of education.

Group status × Gender × Employment status (ABE):

The Table- 5 shows a highly significant interaction effect (presented in table-5) among group status, gender and employment status ($F=20.90$, $df=1,648$; $p<0.01$). Results of t-tests among different cell means have been presented in table-16.

Table-16: Results of t-tests among different cell means.

SL	Compared group	Mean	SD	t-ratio
1	Majority Male Employed	121.78	11.67	15.96**
	Minority Male Employed	151.96	8.53	
2	Majority Male Unemployed	131.22	12.72	19.61**
	Minority Male unemployed	168.28	9.20	
3	Majority Female Employed	141.32	14.94	7.06**
	Minority Female Employed	156.36	10.83	
4	Majority Female Unemployed	149.88	13.76	15.34**
	Minority Female Unemployed	174.43	10.06	

**Denotes significant at 0.01 level.

Table-16 indicates that the majority male respondents from employed group exhibit better SWB than minority male respondents from employed group. The SWB of majority male respondents from unemployed group is better than that of minority male respondents from unemployed group. In case of female respondents similar results have also been found.

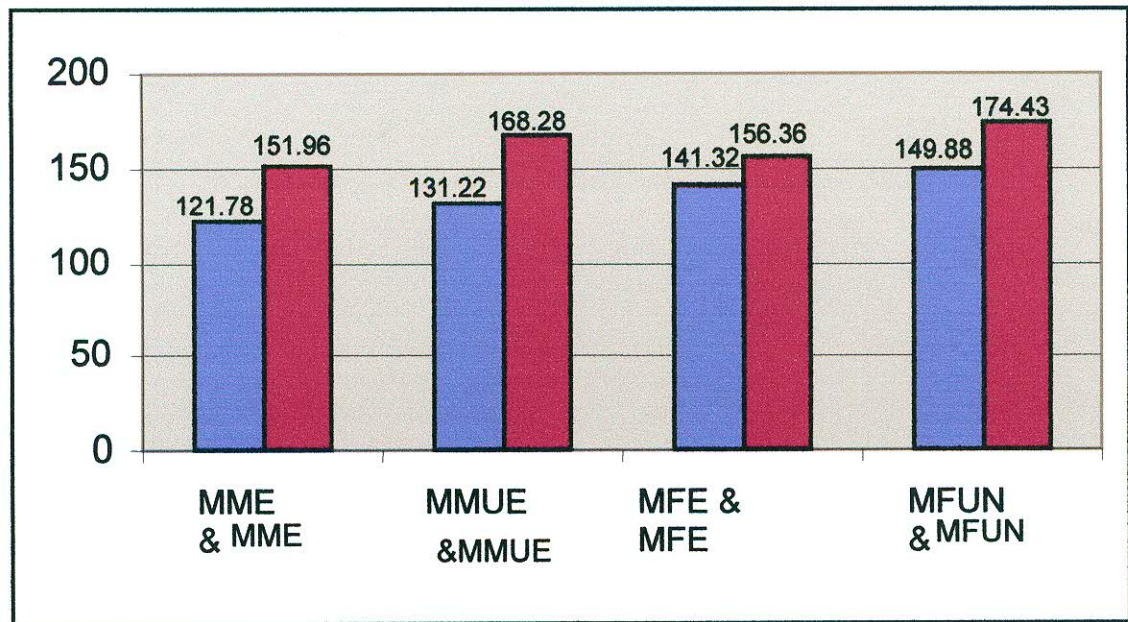


Figure-10: A comparative Bar-diagram of different cell means.

Education \times Employment Status (CE): The interaction effect between education and employment status is found to be significant at 0.01 levels (table-5).

Group status \times Education \times Employment Status (ACE):

A three-way interaction effect is significant at 0.01 levels (Table-5). Results of t-tests among different cell means have been presented in table-17.

Table-17: Results of t-tests among different cell means.

SL	Compared Group.	Mean	SD	t-ratio
1	Majority Undergraduate employed	142.73	14.39	4.02*
	Minority Undergraduate employed	156.78	10.19	
2	Majority Graduate employed	135.52	17.40	7.83**
	Minority Graduate employed	154.40	10.78	
3	Majority Post-graduate employed	123.03	11.84	15.87**
	Minority Post-graduate employed	153.03	8.51	
4	Majority Undergraduate Unemployed	149.33	20.02	6.40*
	Minority Undergraduate Unemployed	164.56	11.34	
5	Majority Graduate Unemployed	130.96	11.40	20.96**
	Minority Graduate Unemployed	172.26	10.20	
6	Majority Post-graduate Unemployed	133.36	13.89	14.21**
	Minority Postgraduate Unemployed	166.18	8.83	

**Denotes significant at 0.01 level and * Denotes significant at 0.05level.

Table-17 suggests that majority undergraduate respondents from employed group express better SWB than that of minority undergraduate respondents from employed group. Results of t-test suggest that the majority graduate respondents from employed group express better SWB than that of minority graduate respondents from employed group.

Table-17 also suggests that majority postgraduate respondents from employed group exhibit better SWB than minority postgraduate respondents from employed group. Similar results have also been found in case of unemployed respondents.

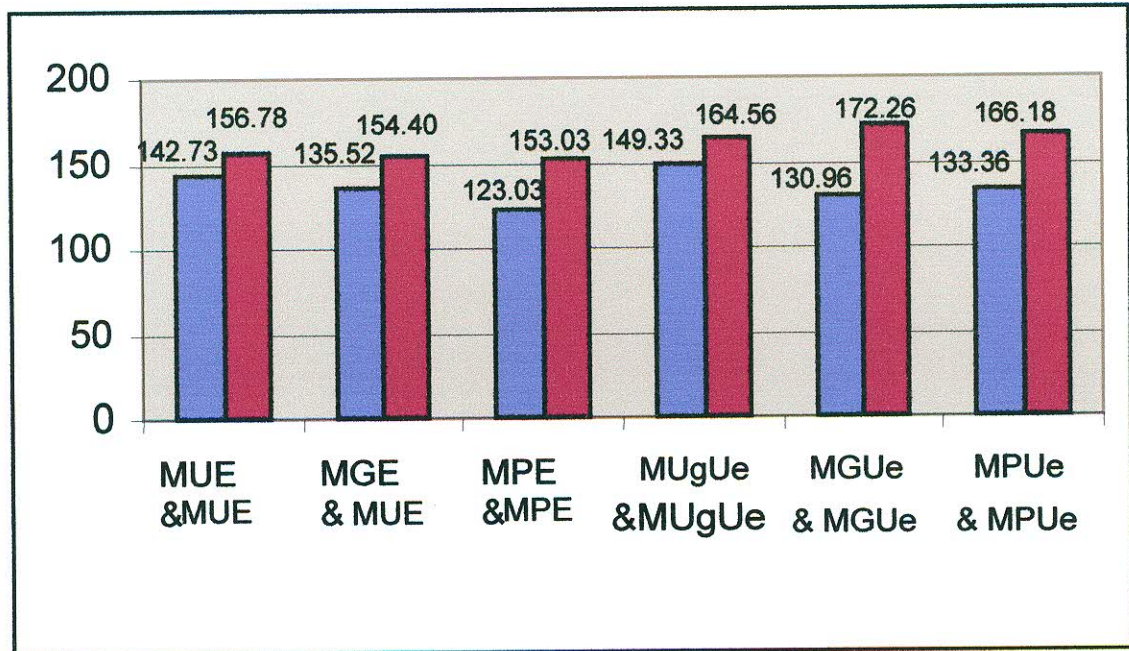


Figure-11: A comparative Bar-diagram of different cell means.

Gender × Education × Employment status (BCE): There is a highly significant interaction effect among gender, education and employment status.

Group status × Gender × Education × Employment status (ABCE): A four-way interaction effect among group status, gender, education and employment status is significant at 0.01 levels (table-5).

Table-18: Results of t-tests among different cell means.

SL	Compared Group	Mean	SD	t-ratio
1	Majority male undergra. Empl.	115.36	9.97	7.02*
	Minority male undergra. Empl.	146.34	11.09	
2	Majority male undergrad.unem.	128.92	16.20	6.54*
	Minority male undergrad.unem.	166.07	12.49	
3	Majority male grad.empl.	128.22	10.06	11.92**
	Minority male grad.emplo.	170.43	10.52	
4	Majority male grad.unem.	130.91	12.01	16.23**
	Minority male grad.unem.	152.07	9.09	
5	Majority male postgrad.empl.	123.03	11.84	17.46**
	Minority male postgrad.empl.	153.07	8.51	
6	Majority male postgrad.unem.	134.37	12.97	12.76**
	Minority male postgrad.unem.	162.18	8.83	
7	Majority female undergra empl	142.47	15.84	3.26*
	Minority female undergra empl	155.97	9.11	
8	Majority female ungrad.un empl	150.72	14.13	13.10**
	Minority female ungrad unempl	174.83	10.49	
9	Majority female grad empl	140.74	14.89	5.76*
	Minority female grad empl	154.91	9.75	
10	Majority female grad unempl	141.7	4.47	12.15**
	Minority female grad unempl	173.41	8.78	
11	Majority female postgra empl	140.8	17.86	3.82*
	Minority female postgra empl	153.22	10.60	
12	Majority female postgra unempl	114.36	9.97	7.62**
	Minority female postgra unempl	145.37	9.09	

Table-18 contains the cell means and the results of t-tests among them. The table shows that male majority respondents from undergraduate group expressed subjective well-being significantly higher in intensity as compared to male minority respondents from undergraduate group at every level of employment status. Similar results have also been found in case of graduate and post graduate groups.

The results (table-18) also suggest that male majority respondents from employed group expressed subjective well-being significantly higher in intensity as compared to male minority respondents from employed group at every level of education. Similar results have also been found in case of unemployed groups.

An inspection of table-18 indicates that the SWB of female majority respondents was significantly higher in intensity as compared to minority female respondents regardless of employment status at every level of education. The SWB of female majority respondents was significantly higher in intensity as compared to minority female respondents regardless of education at every level of employment status.

Group status × Gender × income × Employment status (ABDE): The interaction effect (reported in table-5) among group status, gender, income and employment status is significant at 0.01 level.

Table-19: Results of t-tests among different cell means.

SL	Compared group	Mean	SD	t-ratio
1	Majority male low-inc. Empl.	117.94	13.93	8.26**
	Minority male low-inc. Empl.	150.22	9.58	
2	Majority male low-inc. unem.	122.73	9.8	8.54**
	Minority male low-inc. unem.	147.5	6.89	
3	Majority male mid-inc.empl.	114.5	9.23	10.88**
	Minority male mid-inc.emplo.	149	7.83	
4	Majority male mid-inc. unem.	128.97	11.08	2.31*
	Minority male mid-inc.unem.	170.64	10.52	
5	Majority male high-inc .empl.	119.68	11.32	16.51**
	Minority male high-inc empl.	152.03	8.44	
6	Majority male high-inc.unem.	130.78	10.42	9.16**
	Minority male high-inc.unem.	167.08	9.3	
7	Majority female low-inc. empl	133.34	14.18	3.33*
	Minority female low-inc. empl	149.5	7.80	
8	Majority female low-inc.un empl	146.56	8.97	6.66**
	Minority female low-inc. unempl	172.25	9.48	
9	Majority female mid-inc. empl	152.62	9.48	2.14*
	Minority female mid-inc. empl	158.84	6.68	
10	Majority female mid-inc. unempl	141.08	6.72	14.75**
	Minority female mid-inc. unempl	173.24	7.78	
11	Majority female high-inc empl	130.62	15.53	6.44**
	Minority female high-inc empl	158.2	8.64	
12	Majority female high-inc unempl	141.74	4.67	10.17**
	Minority female high-inc unempl	174.68	10.91	

Table-19 contains the cell means and the results of t-tests among them. The table shows that male majority respondents from low income group expressed subjective well-being significantly higher in intensity as compared to male minority respondents from low income group at every level of employment status. Similar results have also been found in case of medium and high income groups.

Table-19 also suggests that male majority respondents from employed group expressed subjective well-being significantly higher in intensity as compared to male minority respondents from employed group at every level of income. Similar results have also been found in case of unemployed groups.

An inspection of table-19 indicates that the SWB of female majority respondents was significantly higher in intensity as compared to minority female respondents regardless of employment status at every level of income. The SWB of female majority respondents was significantly higher in intensity as compared to minority female respondents regardless of income at every level of employment status.

Group status × Education × Income × Employment status (ACDE):

There is statistically significant interaction effect among group status, education, income and employment status ($F=506.02, df=4,648; P<0.01$).

Table-20: Statistical comparisons among different cell means.

SL	Compared group	Mean	SD	t-ratio
1	Majority Undergra. Low-inc. Emplo.	153.45	5.37	0.58
	Minority Undergra. Low-inc. Emplo.	155.54	11.62	
2	Majority Undergra. Mid-inc. Emplo.	117.09	13.46	8.82**
	Minority Undergra. Mid-inc. Emplo.	161.13	5.99	
3	Majority Undergra. High-inc. Emplo.	118.38	10.48	8.33**
	Minority Undergra. High-inc. Emplo.	152.64	6.20	
4	Majority Undergra. Low-inc. Unemplo.	159.18	9.93	5.75*
	Minority Undergra. Low-inc. Unemplo.	175.71	8.97	
5	Majority Undergra. Mid-inc. Unemplo.	140.15	7.03	10.21**
	Minority Undergra. Mid-inc. Unemplo.	168.33	10.87	
6	Majority Undergra. Post-inc. unemplo.	134.05	10.87	6.93*
	Minority Undergra. Post-inc. unemplo.	155.33	9.05	
7	Majority grad. Low-inc. Emplo.	125.63	14.29	9.56**
	Minority gra. Low-inc. Emplo.	173.66	10.33	
8	Majority grad. Mid-inc. Emplo.	134.25	11.73	9.15**
	Minority gra. Mid-inc. Emplo.	163.5	5.73	
9	Majority grad. High-inc. Emplo.	114.39	8.69	11.89**
	Minority grad. High-inc. Emplo.	149	7.83	
10	Majority grad. Low-inc. Unmplo.	142.73	13.85	8.42**
	Minority grad. Low-inc. Unmplo.	176.25	10.56	
11	Majority grad. Mid-inc. unemplo.	142.33	4.39	12.57**
	Minority grad. Mid-inc. unemplo.	171.38	7.16	
12	Majority grad. High-inc. Unmplo.	130.14	10.71	8.26**
	Minority grad. High-inc. Unmplo.	154.35	9.91	

13	Majority Postgra. Low-inc. Emplo.	135.24	17.62	2.41*
	Minority Post. Low-inc. Emplo.	154.29	14.58	
14	Majority Postgra. Mid-inc. Emplo.	129.33	7.78	11.20**
	Minority Post. Mid-inc. Emplo.	153.75	8.14	
15	Majority Post. High-inc. Emplo.	121.20	11.23	1.98
	Minority Post. High-inc. Emplo.	139.47	8.45	
16	Majority Post Low-inc. Unemplo.	141.57	5.03	3.96*
	Minority Post. Low-inc. Unemplo.	156.03	10.35	
17	Majority Post. Mid-inc. Unemplo.	136.73	15.99	1.51
	Minority Post Mid-inc. Unemplo.	146.56	12.16	
18	Majority Post High-inc. Unemplo.	135.22	6.18	5.11**
	Minority Post High-inc. Unemplo.	156.33	10.74	

**Denotes significant at 0.01 level and * Denotes significant at 0.05level.

Table-20 contains the cell means and the results of t-tests among them. The table shows that male majority respondents from undergraduate group expressed subjective well-being significantly higher in intensity as compared to male minority respondents from undergraduate group at every level of employment status. Similar results have also been found in case of graduate and post graduate groups.

The results (table-20) also suggest that male majority respondents from low income group expressed subjective well-being significantly higher in intensity as compared to male minority respondents from low income group at every level of education. Similar results have also been found in case of medium and high income groups.

An inspection of table-20 indicates that the SWB of female majority respondents was significantly higher in intensity as compared to minority female respondents regardless of income at every level of education. The

SWB of female majority respondents was significantly higher in intensity as compared to minority female respondents regardless of education at every level of income.

Group status × Gender × Education × Income × Employment status (ABCDE):

The interaction effect among group status, gender, education, income and employment status is highly significant ($F=515.49, df=4,648; P<0.01$).

Table-21: Results of t-tests among different cell means.

SL	Compared group	Mean	SD	t-ratio
1	Majority Male Undergra. Low-inco. Emplo.	132.23	12.74	7.62**
	Minority Male Undergra. Low-inco. Emplo.	162.93	7.78	
2	Majority Male Undergra. Low-inco. unemplo.	131.22	14.18	8.85**
	Minority Male Undergra. Low-inco. unemplo.	171.78	9.66	
3	Majority Female Undergra. Low-inco. Emplo.	159.78	10.85	-0.33
	Minority Female Undergra. Low-inco. Emplo.	158.66	11.87	
4	Majority Female Undergra. Low-inco. Unemplo.	145.01	10.51	3.97**
	Minority Female Undergra. Low-inco. Unemplo.	175.71	8.98	
5	Majority Male Gradu. Low-inco. Emplo.	133	14.18	3.49**
	Minority Male Gradu. Low-inco. Emplo.	149.5	7.40	
6	Majority Male Gradu. Low-inco. unemplo.	119.38	10.85	12.93**
	Minority Male Gradu. Low-inco. unemplo.	176.28	9.17	
7	Majority Female Gradu. Low-inco. Emplo.	163.8	12.99	2.43*
	Minority Female Gradu. Low-inco. Emplo.	176.25	10.58	
8	Majority Female Gradu. Low-inco. Unemplo.	147.56	9.84	6.40**
	Minority Female Gradu. Low-inco. Unemplo.	173.26	10.58	
9	Majority Male Postgradu. Low-inco. Emplo.	136.6	24.37	1.47

	Minority Male Postgradu. Low-inco. Emplo.	150	7.92	
10	Majority Male Postgradu. Low-inco. unemplo.	136.67	17.92	4.58**
	Minority Male Postgradu. Low-inco. unemplo.	171.48	9.85	
11	Majority Female Postgradu. Low-inco. Emplo.	150.63	8.23	-0.05
	Minority Female Postgradu. Low-inco. Emplo.	150.44	7.47	
12	Majority Female Postgradu. Low-inco. Unemplo.	140.33	6.56	10.44**
	Minority Female Postgradu. Low-inco. inemplo.	174.07	8.89	
13	Majority Male Undergradu. Mid-inco. Emplo.	130.75	8.42	4.75*
	Minority Male Undergradu. Mid -inco. Emplo.	149.29	8.20	
14	Majority Male Undergradu. Mid -inco. Unemplo.	130.9	12.97	11.55**
	Minority Male Undergradu. Mid -inco. unemplo.	169.25	8.00	
15	Majority Female Undergradu. Mid -inco. Emplo.	153.61	11.47	1.71
	Minority Female Undergradu. Mid -inco. Emplo.	159	6.34	
16	Majority Female Undergradu. Mid -inco. Unemplo.	141.05	6.11	14.72**
	Minority Female Undergradu. Mid -inco. Unemplo.	173	8.71	
17	Majority Male Gradu. Mid -inco. Emplo.	124.9	9.30	6.74**
	Minority Male Gradu. Mid -inco. Emplo.	152.4	8.96	
18	Majority Male Gradu. Mid -inco. unemplo.	128.98	11.36	13.27**
	Minority Male Gradu. Mid -inco. unemplo.	164.93	7.83	
19	Majority Female Gradu. Mid -inco. Emplo.	143.67	3.39	13.59**
	Minority Female Gradu. Mid -inco. Emplo.	171	6.9	
20	Majority Female Gradu. Mid -inco. Unemplo.	143.6	11.36	3.43*
	Minority Female Gradu. Mid -inco. Unemplo.	160.67	13.34	
21	Majority Male Postgradu. Mid -inco. Emplo.	132.01	8.58	4.76**
	Minority Male Postgradu. Mid -inco. Emplo.	151	8.07	
22	Majority Male Postgradu. Mid -inco. unemplo.	132.91	14.23	10.12**
	Minority Male Postgradu. Mid -inco. unemplo.	164.98	19.68	
23	Majority Female Postgradu. Mid -inco. Emplo.	148.8	17.79	3.13*

	Minority Female Postgradu. Mid -inco. Emplo.	167.64	10.39	
24	Majority Female Postgradu. Mid -inco. Unemplo.	141.5	5.02	8.8**
	Minority Female Postgradu. Mid -inco. Unemplo.	170.12	8.02	
25	Majority Male Undergradu. high-inco. Emplo.	114.13	9.07	8.04**
	Minority Male Undergradu. high -inco. Emplo.	148	12.03	
26	Majority Male Undergradu. high -inco. Unemplo.	135.06	12.79	9.16**
	Minority Male Undergradu. high -inco. Unemplo.	167.94	7.25	
27	Majority Female Undergradu. High -inco. Emplo.	134.38	10.64	7.92**
	Minority Female Undergradu high-inco. Emplo.	154.74	8.29	
28	Majority Female Undergradu. High-inco Unemplo.	142.76	8.67	7.80**
	Minority Female Undergradu. high-inco. Unemplo.	171.15	9.86	
29	Majority Male Gradu. high -inco. Emplo.	114.39	8.69	11.46**
	Minority Male Gradu. high -inco. Emplo.	149	7.83	
30	Majority Male Gradu. high -inco. unemplo.	134.28	14.02	8.62**
	Minority Male Gradu. high -inco. unemplo.	168.69	8.17	
31	Majority Female Gradu. high -inco. Emplo.	133.4	9.75	7.88**
	Minority Female Gradu. high -inco. Emplo.	154.86	9.06	
32	Majority Female Gradu. high -inco. Unemplo.	144.8	9.03	7.69**
	Minority Female Gradu. high -inco. Unemplo.	167.5	7.87	
33	Majority Male Postgradu. high inco. Emplo.	121.69	11.45	16.07**
	Minority Male Postgradu. high -inco. Emplo.	153.03	8.34	
34	Majority Male Postgradu. high -inco. unemplo.	130.79	10.48	9.16**
	Minority Male Postgradu. high -inco. unemplo.	168.08	9.3	
35	Majority Female Postgradu. high -inco. Emplo.	130.61	15.53	5.56**
	Minority Female Postgradu. high -inco. Emplo.	155	8.44	
36	Majority Female Postgradu. high -inco. Unemplo.	141.73	4.47	9.84**
	Minority Female Postgradu. high inco. inemplo.	174.6	10.90	

**Denotes significant at 0.01 level and * Denotes significant at 0.05level.

Table-21 contains the cell means, standard deviations and the results of t-test among them. An inspection of table-21 reveals that the subjective well-being of both majority people varies with the variation of gender, education, income and employment status. The table also indicates that the subjective well-being of majority people is significantly higher than that of minority people at every level of these variables with few exceptions.

In addition, comparisons were also made between majority and minority group on the basis of scores obtained in each dimension of SWB employing t-test. The result have been presented in table-22.

Table-22: Means, standard deviations, t-ratios and level of significance for dimension wise SWB of minority and majority respondents.

Dimensions of SWB scale	Respondents	Mean	SD	't'-ratio	Level of sig.
SWB Positive Affect	Minority	32.74	6.84	22.59	0.001
	Majority	22.76	5.56		
SWB Negative Affect	Minority	27.07	6.13	-17.52	0.001
	Majority	36.27	7.23		
Mental Mastery	Minority	31.60	5.95	31.94	0.001
	Majority	19.19	4.75		
Rootedness and Belongingness	Minority	16.02	3.27	14.81	0.001
	Majority	12.44	3.67		
Structural and Cohesive Aspects	Minority	15.84	3.12	16.86	0.001
	Majority	11.88	3.48		
Density of Social Network	Minority	15.57	3.08	15.63	0.001
	Majority	11.9	3.52		
Security in Health and Socio-Economics Crisis	Minority	12.25	2.44	12.58	0.001
	Majority	9.61	3.7		
Expectation – Achievement Harmony	Minority	14.37	3.84	9.24	0.001
	Majority	12.16	3.36		

The table shows that the subjective well-being of majority people was significantly higher than that of minority people in case of all dimensions.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The present study was designed to investigate the subjective well-being (SWB) of majority and minority people in Bangladesh as a function of their gender, education, income and employment status. The independent variables were group status, gender, education, income and employment status. The dependent variable was subjective well-being of the respondents. For collecting data a Bangla version of Subjective Well-Being Questionnaire of Nagpal and Sell (1985) was administered on 360 majority and 360 minority respondents. Scores were computed for overall SWB as well as for each of the eight dimensions separately. The relationships were analyzed employing $2 \times 2 \times 3 \times 3 \times 2$ ANOVA involving two levels of group status (Majority and Minority), two levels of gender (Male and Female), three levels of income (Low, Medium and High), three levels of education (Undergraduate, Graduate and Postgraduate) and two levels of employment status (Employed and Unemployed).

Five hypotheses were formulated to examine in this study. The first hypothesis states that the majority people would express better subjective well-being than the minority people. It was expected that the overall SWB score would be significantly higher for minority respondents than that of majority respondents. The results of the study (Table-5) indicate significant main effect for group status ($F=290.38$, $df=1, 648$, $p<0.001$). The results also (Table-6) show that the mean score of the majority respondents was significantly lower than that of the minority respondents. These results suggest that regardless of gender, education, income, and employment status the majority people have better subjective well-being than the minority people. Thus, the obtained results confirm our first hypothesis.

In explaining this finding, it can be mentioned here that minority group members have significantly less power, control and influence over their own lives than the members of a dominant group. They may feel that they are dominated by the majority group. In that case, they are not able to satisfy their basic needs. The previous studies indicate that SWB is primarily caused by the satisfaction of basic needs (food, housing, health etc.), universal human needs. People can only be happy if basic needs such as hunger, warmth, and thirst are fulfilled (Veenhoven, 1991). The Aspiration theory suggests that the degree of dissatisfaction or satisfaction experienced by a person is related to the ratio of his or her satisfied desires to his or her total desires. SWB is gained when goals and needs are reached (Diener, 1984). Individuals who believe that their desires are fully satisfied tend to be happier than individuals who think they have unsatisfied desires. Minority people usually think that they are deprived and segregated from the society, they are always in financial crisis to fulfill their basic needs. Another explanation is that minority group members are stereotyped and systematically condemned by the dominant or majority group. They are also singled out for differential and unfair treatment. That's why; they do not arrive at a higher level of subjective well-being.

The second hypothesis states that the subjective well-being of male respondents is better than that of female respondents. It was expected that the overall SWB scores would be significantly higher for female respondents than that of male respondents. The results of the study (Table-5) indicate significant main effect for gender ($F=29.53, df=1, 648, p<0.001$). The results also (table-7) show that the SWB score of the female respondents is significantly higher than that of the male

respondents. These results suggest that regardless of group status, education, income and employment status the subjective well-being of male respondents is better than the female respondents. Thus, the obtained results confirm our second hypothesis. A possible explanation of this finding is that women are more likely to be depressed than men. Women experiences more intense positive and negative emotion. Therefore, happiness level should be lower for women than men (Diener et al., 1999; Fujita, Diener and Sandvik, 1991). The Mroczek and Kolarz (1998) gave another explanation. They reported that education is the causative factor for getting this difference. Education is a significant factor for women. Women with higher education have lower negative affect that indicates the better subjective well- being.

The third hypothesis was that the subjective well-being of highly educated respondents is better than that of less educated respondents. It was expected that subjective well-being score would be less for highly educated respondents than that of less educated respondents. The results of the study (Table-5) indicate a highly significant main effect for education ($F=10.69, df=1, 648, p<0.001$). The results also (Table-8) show that the SWB of the postgraduate respondents is significantly higher than that of undergraduate respondents and graduate respondents. The subjective well-being was also found to be higher for graduate respondents than for undergraduate respondents. These results suggest that regardless of group status, gender, income and employment status, the highly educated people's subjective well-being is better than that of less educated people. Thus, the obtained results confirm our third hypothesis.

These results are supported by the findings of the previous studies. For example, Freudier (1980), Glenn and Weaver (1981) and Mitchell (1976) found in their studies that education has more positive effects on psychological well-being. Ayesha Mahmuda (1998) reported that psychological well-being varied according to different levels of education. In the results of her study respondents with no formal education were found to have poorest psychological well-being and respondents having highest education were found to have better psychological well-being.

In favor of this finding, it can be argued that highly educated people usually possess broader and modern outlook, which brings improvement in their quality of life. It is generally believed that education develops the rational faculties of human beings so that they can have independent thinking and their actions are not governed by any stereotype norms or principles. This type of training helps the individual to change the dogmatic beliefs and to insulate rational thinking. However, there remains a general feeling that educated persons have more secular ideas as compared to illiterate persons, which affect their thought and behavior pattern. For this, educated people prefer to take up jobs, which promise them better economic and social status. This in turn helps them to achieve standard of living. Moreover, as educated people can understand their psychological, social and physical environments in a clear and scientific way so they feel confident in dealing with unexpected or crisis situations and also have confidence in future. Thus, educated people can enjoy both the objective and subjective components of well being and can match between their expectations and perceived reality. Therefore, they have a greater sense of accomplishment, independent life and of going ahead. Consequently,

they enjoy greater satisfaction and become happier in the overall life perspectives. This is similar to the common belief that with high education, independent life, vocation and good income one is likely to perceive one's wishes fulfilled to a larger extent (Nagpal and Sell, 1985) and thus it causes to have a more positive outlook toward everyday life activity.

The fourth hypothesis states that the subjective well-being of high income group is better than that of low income group. The results (table-5) show that the main effect for income was highly significant ($F=13.42$, $df=2,648$; $P<0.001$). The result also (Table-9) shows that the SWB of the high-income group is significantly higher than that of low and middle income group. These results suggest that regardless of group status, gender, education and employment status the high-income group's subjective well-being is better than that of low -income group. Thus, the obtained results confirm our fourth hypothesis.

These results are supported by the findings of Esterlin (1995,1996). The investigator reported that the persons with relatively higher income were consistently somewhat happier than those with lower income. In 1995 Diener and Diiener, reported that income was highly related with human rights. So, those who are the members of low income group, they did not fulfill their minimum requirements of life. As a result, their subjective well-being decreases (Sorensen, 2000).

These findings appear to fit the theoretical model of economic variables (theories) of Subjective Well-being (i.e., Absolute theory, Adaptation theory, Aspiration theory). These findings also appear to fit the theoretical model of Coping, Context and Telic or End point theories. The

Absolute theory (Veenhoven, 1988, 1991) states that people with higher income levels easily satisfy their basic needs (food, housing health etc) and therefore, attain a higher SWB. On the other hand, Telic or Endpoint theory posits that SWB is gained when goals and needs are reached (Diener, 1984). Again, the Context theory of SWB states that SWB is caused by the satisfaction of basic, universal human needs. For example, people can only be happy if basic needs such as hunger, warmth, and thirst are fulfilled (Veenhoven, 1991). The Aspiration theory suggests that the degree of dissatisfaction or satisfaction is experienced by a person is related to the ratio of his or her satisfied desires to his or her total desires. Individuals who believe that their desires are fully satisfied tend to be happier than individuals who think they have unsatisfied desires. The low-income group people are always in financial crisis to fulfill their basic needs. So they do not attain a higher subjective well-being and their SWB status is degenerated.

Again, in Adaptation theory Brickman et al., (1978) pointed out that individuals with higher adaptation capabilities tend to be happier. It was found in many studies (Henderson & Gillespie, 1978; Ahmed & Ramalingum, 1983; Broota and Singh, 1986) that the emotion or adjustment capabilities of the poor people are unstable or in poorer conditions. They fail to adapt properly with life conditions and they become unhappy.

On the other hand, the theories of Coping mention that the happy people cope with their problems in constructive ways, initiate thoughts and behaviour that are adaptive and helpful. But the unhappy people cope with destructive ways. It was observed in many studies that the poor

people have unsatisfied needs and desires due to their financial crisis. They have lost their sexual desire, suffer from malnutrition, health deterioration (Washtom et al., 1984; Sharma, 1983) etc. and so they become most unhappy persons in the society. Therefore, they fail to cope with their problems in constructive ways and initiating proper thought and behaviour. Thus, they do not attain a standard of Subjective Well-being.

The fifth hypothesis of the study was that the Subjective Well-being of employed people is better than that of unemployed people. It was expected that the SWB score for employed people would be lower than that of unemployed people. The results indicate (Table-5) a significant main effect for employment status ($F=31.71, df=1,648; P<0.001$). The results (Table-10) also show that the mean score of employed group is significantly lower than that of unemployed group. Thus, the results suggest that regardless of group status, gender, education and income the employed people have better subjective well-being than the unemployed people. These results confirm the fifth hypothesis.

These findings have been supported by Clark et al., (1994) and Di Tella et al., (2001). These investigators found a strong negative impact of unemployment on subjective well-being. Campbell et al., (1976) found that employed people are the happiest group, which is consistent with our findings. Therefore, in fine it can be said that employed people are happier than that of unemployed people.

The interaction effects of the five variables (group status, gender, income, education and employment status) are also found to be statistically significant which is consistent with the main effect. These results suggest that the subjective well-being vary with the variation of any one of these factors in case of both majority and minority people.

Thus, the results of the study suggest that subjective well-being of the majority people is significantly higher than that of the minority people. The study also shows that subjective well-being of both majority and minority people varies with the variation of their education, income and employment status. It has also been observed that in every level of education, income and employment status subjective well-being of the majority people is significantly higher than that of the minority people. It indicates that some other factors than education, income and employment status might be responsible for the lower level of subjective well-being of the minority people as compared to majority people. Probably, the feelings that they are minority, feelings of insecurity and feelings of deprivation are these causal factors. However, in order to reach a conclusion about the influence of these factors on subjective well-being of the minority people further research is necessary.

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APPENDICES

Appendix- A
Personal Information
ব্যক্তিগত তথ্য

- | | |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------|
| ১. বয়স: | ২. লিঙ্গ |
| ৩. পেশা: | ৪. শিক্ষাগত যোগ্যতা (নিজের) |
| ৫. পিতার শিক্ষা: | ৬. পিতার পেশা: |
| ৭. মাতার শিক্ষা: | ৮. মাতার পেশা: |
| ৯. মোট মাসিক আয়: | |
| ক. চাকুরী থেকে আয়: | খ. ব্যবসা থেকে আয় |
| গ. অন্যান্য উৎস থেকে আয়: | |

Appendix- B

জীবনযাত্রার বিভিন্ন দিক সম্পর্কিত প্রশ্নমালা

নির্দেশনা

মানুষ বিভিন্ন পরিবেশে বাস করে। তাছাড়া তাদের মধ্যে বিস্তর পার্থক্য রয়েছে। তাই জীবন ও আপন জগৎ সম্বন্ধে সকলের অনুভূতি এক রকম হয় না। স্বাস্থ্য, পরিবার, কাজ-কর্ম ইত্যাদি প্রাত্যহিক বিষয়গুলো নিয়ে তাঁরা কি ভাবেন সে সম্বন্ধে জানা প্রয়োজন। জনগণের জীবনযাত্রার মান উন্নয়নের জন্য এ বিষয়ে জ্ঞানলাভের প্রয়োজনীয়তা অনস্বীকার্য।

জীবনের বিশেষ বিশেষ দিক এবং সার্বিক জীবন সম্বন্ধে আপনি কি মনে করেন সে- সম্বন্ধে জানার জন্যেই প্রশ্নমালাটি প্রণয়ন করা হয়েছে। এতে অনেকগুলো প্রশ্ন রয়েছে। প্রতিটি প্রশ্ন মনোযোগ সহকারে পড়ুন এবং প্রদত্ত উত্তরের মধ্যে যে উত্তরটি আপনার নিজের বলে বিবেচনা করেন সেটিকে বৃত্ত O দিয়ে চিহ্নিত করুন। উদাহরণস্বরূপ, প্রথম প্রশ্নের ক্ষেত্রে, যদি আপনি মনে করেন আপনার সাধারণ স্বাস্থ্য ভালো এবং শারীরিকভাবে যোগ্য, তবে অনুগ্রহ করে প্রদত্ত উত্তরের মধ্যে “খুব ভালো” ১ বৃত্তাবদ্ধ করুন। অনেক সময় মনে হতে পারে প্রদত্ত উত্তরের কোন উত্তরই আপনার অনুভূতির সাথে পুরোপুরি মিলছে না। সে ক্ষেত্রে যেটি আপনার উত্তরের সবচেয়ে কাছাকাছি মনে হয় সেটিকে চিহ্নিত করুন।

আপনার দেয়া তথ্যের গোপনীয়তা সম্পূর্ণভাবে রক্ষা করা হবে এবং তা কেবল মাত্র গবেষণা কাজে ব্যবহার করা হবে। কাজেই সম্পূর্ণ খোলা মনে উত্তর দিয়ে আমাদের প্রচেষ্টাকে সাফল্যমণ্ডিত করে তুলুন।

ধন্যবাদ।

প্রশ্নমালা

১. আপনার নিজের সাধারণ স্বাস্থ্য এবং শারীরিক যোগ্যতা সম্পর্কে আপনার অভিমত কি?

- (১) খুব ভাল
- (২) মোটামুটি ভাল
- (৩) তেমন ভাল নয়

২. আপনার শিক্ষাগত যোগ্যতা নিয়ে আপনি কতটুকু সুখী?

- (১) খুব সুখী
- (২) মোটামুটি সুখী
- (৩) তেমন সুখী নই
- (৪) প্রয়োজ্য নয়

৩. আপনার চাকুরী বা সম্পত্তি যদি খোয়া যায় তবে কি আপনি অপরের পর্যাণ্ড সাহায্য পাবেন বলে বিশ্বাস রাখেন?

- (১) খুব বেশী
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন বেশী নয়

৪. আপনার পরিবারিক জীবন কেমন মনে হয়?

- (১) খুব ভাল
- (২) মোটামুটি ভাল
- (৩) তেমন ভাল নয়

৫. আপনার সাথে আপনার স্বামী/ স্ত্রীর সম্পর্ক সম্বন্ধে আপনি কি মনে করেন?

- (১) খুব ভাল
- (২) মোটামুটি ভাল
- (৩) তেমন ভাল নয়
- (৪) প্রয়োজ্য নয়

৬. আপনার সাথে আপনার সন্তানদের সম্পর্ক কেমন?

- (১) খুব ভাল
- (২) মোটামুটি ভাল
- (৩) তেমন ভাল নয়
- (৪) প্রয়োজ্য নয়

৭. আপনার সাথে আপনার বন্ধু- বান্ধবদের সম্পর্ক কেমন?
- (১) খুব ভাল
 - (২) মোটামুটি ভাল
 - (৩) তেমন ভাল নয়
৮. চার পাশের লোকজন আপনাকে পছন্দ করে বলে কি আপনি মনে করেন?
- (১) খুব বেশী
 - (২) কিছুটা
 - (৩) তেমন ভাল নয়
৯. আপনার কাজ কর্মে আপনি মনোযোগী হতে পারেন কি?
- (১) খুব বেশী
 - (২) কিছুটা
 - (৩) তেমন বেশী নয়
১০. সংকটময় পরিস্থিতিতে আপনি কি নিজেকে শান্ত রাখতে এবং নিজেকে নিয়ন্ত্রণে রাখতে পারেন?
- (১) খুব বেশী
 - (২) কিছুটা
 - (৩) তেমন বেশী নয়
১১. কোন পরিস্থিতি আশানুরূপ না হলে সে-পরিস্থিতিকে মোকাবেলা করতে পারেন বলে আপনার মনে হয় কি?
- (১) বেশীর ভাগ সময়
 - (২) মাঝে মাঝে
 - (৩) প্রায় কখনই নয়
১২. পরিবারের সদস্য, বন্ধু-বান্ধব অথবা প্রতিবেশীর মধ্যে এমন কেউ আছে কি যার সাথে আপনি প্রয়োজনে খোলাখুলি আলাপ করতে পারেন?
- (১) খুব বেশী

(২) কিছুটা

(৩) তেমন বেশী নয়

১৩. জরুরী অবস্থায়, যেমন, আপনার সব কিছু যদি পুড়ে অথবা চুরি হয়ে যায় তখন আপনার আত্মীয়-স্বজন অথবা বন্ধু-বান্ধব আপনাকে সাহায্য করবে বলে আপনি বিশ্বাস করেন কি?

(১) খুব বেশী

(২) কিছুটা

(৩) তেমন বেশী নয়

১৪. অনেকটা স্বর্গীয় সুখের মত প্রচন্ড সুখের অনুভূতি কি আপনার কখনো হয়েছে?

(১) বেশীর ভাগ সময়

(২) মাঝে মাঝে

(৩) প্রায় কখনই নয়

১৫. আপনার কি মাঝে মাঝে মনে হয় যে আপনার চার পাশের পরিবেশ এবং আপনি নিজে একই শক্তির একটি অংশ?

(১) খুব বেশী

(২) কিছুটা

(৩) তেমন বেশী নয়

১৬. আপনার লক্ষ্যে আপনি একা নন, এই বিশ্বাস কি আপনাকে আত্ম-বিশ্বাস ও শক্তি যোগায়?

(১) খুব বেশী

(২) কিছুটা

(৩) তেমন বেশী নয়

১৭. বৃহত্তর দলের (নিজ পরিবার ছাড়া) মূল্যবোধ, আগ্রহ অথবা বিশ্বাসের অংশীদার হতে পারা কি আপনি আভ্যন্তরীণ শক্তির উৎস বলে মনে করেন?

(১) খুব বেশী

(২) কিছুটা

(৩) তেমন বেশী নয়

১৮. আপনিও বিশ্বমানব পরিবারের একজন একথা ভেবে মাঝে মাঝে কি আপনি সুখ অনুভব করেন?

- (১) প্রায়ই
- (২) মাঝে মাঝে
- (৩) কদাচিৎ/ কখনও নয়

১৯. আপনি কি আপনার জীবনে ধর্মীয় সার্থকতা খুঁজে পান?

- (১) ভীষণভাবে
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন বেশী নয়

২০. আপনি কি মনে করেন আপনার জীবনকে আপনি যেভাবে পরিচালিত করতে চান সেভাবে চালিত করার ক্ষমতা আপনার আছে?

- (১) বেশীর ভাগ সময়
- (২) মাঝে মাঝে
- (৩) প্রায় কখনই নয়

২১. সংকটের সময় (যা আপনার স্বাভাবিক জীবনযাত্রা ব্যাহত করতে পারে) আপনি পরিস্থিতির যথার্থ মোকাবেলা করতে পারেন বলে কতখানি আত্মবিশ্বাসী?

- (১) খুব বেশী
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন বেশী নয়

২২. আপনি আপনার জীবনে যা কিছু অর্জন করেছেন সে-সম্পর্কে আপনি কি মনে করেন?

- (১) খুব ভাল
- (২) মোটামুটি ভাল
- (৩) তেমন ভাল নয়

২৩. সাম্প্রতিক কালে আপনি যা করেছেন তাতে সামগ্রিকভাবে আপনি কতটা সুখী?

- (১) খুব ভাল
- (২) মোটামুটি ভাল

(৩) তেমন ভাল নয়

২৪. সবকিছু মিলে এখন আপনার দিনকাল কেমন যাচ্ছে বলে মনে করেন?

(১) খুব ভাল

(২) মোটামুটি ভাল

(৩) তেমন ভাল নয়

২৫. এখন যেভাবে সবকিছু চলছে তাতে ভবিষ্যতে খাপ খাওয়ানোর ব্যাপারে আপনি কতটুকু আত্ম-বিশ্বাস অনুভব করেন?

(১) খুব বেশী

(২) কিছুটা

(৩) তেমন বেশী নয়

২৬. অতীতের তুলনায় আপনার বর্তমান জীবনকে কেমন মনে করেন?

(১) খুব সুখী

(২) মোটামুটি সুখী

(৩) তেমন সুখী নয়

২৭. অন্যদের তুলনায় আপনার জীবনকে কেমন মনে করেন?

(১) খুব সুখী

(২) মোটামুটি সুখী

(৩) তেমন সুখী নয়

২৮. আপনি আপনার জীবনকে কি চিত্তাকর্ষক বলে মনে করেন?

(১) খুব সুখী

(২) মোটামুটি সুখী

(৩) তেমন সুখী নয়

২৯. আপনি কি আপনার জীবনধারাকে উপভোগ্য বলে মনে করেন?

(১) খুব বেশী

(২) কিছুটা

(৩) তেমন বেশী নয়

৩০. আপনি আপনার জীবনকে কি মূল্যবান মনে করেন?

(১) খুব বেশী

(২) কিছুটা

(৩) তেমন বেশী নয়

৩১. আপনার পরিবার স্বামী/ স্ত্রী উভয় কি উপার্জনক্ষম সদস্য?

(১) হ্যাঁ

(২) না

(৩) প্রযোজ্য নয়

৩২. আপনার পরিবারে পারিবারিক আয় কিভাবে খরচ করা হবে সে-সম্পর্কে সদস্যদের মধ্যে ভাল সমঝোতা আছে কি?

(১) বেশীর ভাগ সময়

(২) মাঝে মাঝে

(৩) প্রায় কখনই নয়

৩৩. আপনি কি মনে করেন আপনার পরিবারের অধিকাংশ সদস্য ঘনিষ্ঠভাবে একে অপরের কাছাকাছি?

(১) খুব বেশী

(২) কিছুটা

(৩) তেমন বেশী নয়

৩৪. যখন আপনার পরিবারে বিয়ে পাত্র/ পাত্রী নির্বাচন, শিক্ষা, ব্যবসা, প্রভৃতি কোন গুরুত্বপূর্ণ বিষয়ে সিদ্ধান্ত নেয়ার প্রয়োজন হয় তখন পরিবার প্রধান পরিবারের সদস্যদের সাথে আলাপ আলোচনা করে কি?

(১) বেশীর ভাগ সময়

(২) মাঝে মাঝে

(৩) প্রায় কখনই নয়

৩৫. আপনি কি মনে করেন আপনি যা করছেন তার জন্য আপনার পরিবার আপনাকে মনের জোর যোগাচ্ছে?

- (১) খুব বেশী
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন বেশী নয়

৩৬. অধিকাংশ সমস্যা সমাধানে আপনার পরিবারকে বিশেষ সহায়ক বলে বিবেচনা করেন কি?

- (১) খুব বেশী
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন বেশী নয়

৩৭. গুরুতর অসুস্থ অবস্থা আপনার পরিবার আপনাকে কিরূপ দেখাশুনা করবেন বলে আপনি মনে করেন?

- (১) খুব বেশী
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন বেশী নয়

৩৮. কোন সদস্যের সংকটাপন্ন অবস্থায়, যেমন কেউ যদি বয়সের কারণে অকর্মণ্য হয়ে পড়ে, তাহলে আপনার পরিবার পুরোপুরি তার ভরণপোষণ করবে বলে আপনি মনে করেন?

- (১) খুব বেশী
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন বেশী নয়

৩৯. আপনি যদি মারা যান বা কখনও অক্ষম হয়ে পড়েন তখন আপনার ছেলেমেয়েদেরকে যথার্থ সাহায্য করতে কেউ থাকবে না একথা ভেবে আপনি মাঝে মাঝে দুশ্চিন্তাগ্রস্ত হন কি?

- (১) খুবই

- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন বেশী নয়
- (৪) প্রযোজ্য

৪০. আপনি কি আপনার পারিবারিক জীবন নিয়ে উদ্বিগ্ন হন?

- (১) বেশীর ভাগ সময়
- (২) মাঝে মাঝে
- (৩) কদাচিৎ

৪১. আপনাদের স্বামী/ স্ত্রীর সম্পর্ক নিয়ে, আপনি কি মাঝে-মাঝে উদ্বিগ্ন হন?

- (১) খুবই
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) খুব কম
- (৪) প্রযোজ্য নয়

৪২. আপনি কি মাঝে মাঝে আপনার সাথে আপনার সন্তানদের সম্পর্ক নিয়ে উদ্বিগ্ন হন?

- (১) খুবই
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) খুব কম
- (৪) প্রযোজ্য নয়

৪৩. প্রকৃতপক্ষে আপনার যত বন্ধু আছে আপনি তার চেয়ে অধিক সংখ্যক বন্ধু পেতে চান কি?

- (১) খুবই
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন নয়

৪৪. আপনি কি মাঝে মাঝে একজন প্রকৃত ও অন্তরঙ্গ বন্ধুর অভাব অনুভব করেন?

- (১) খুবই
- (২) কিছুটা

(৩) তেমন নয়

৪৫. আপনার চার পাশের মানুষ আপনাকে পছন্দ করছে না এটা কি আপনার সার্বক্ষণিক চিন্তার বিষয়?

(১) খুবই

(২) কিছুটা

(৩) তেমন নয়

৪৬. আপনি কি মনে করেন আপনার বন্ধু-বান্ধব/ আত্মীয়-স্বজন আপনার বিপদে সাহায্য করতে এগিয়ে

আসবে?

(১) খুবই

(২) কিছুটা

(৩) তেমন নয়

৪৭. যার ওপর আপনার সম্পূর্ণ আস্থা রয়েছে এবং যার সাথে আপনি আপনার ব্যক্তিগত বিষয় ও

সমস্যাবলী নিয়ে খোলাখুলি আলাপ করতে পারেন এমন কোন ব্যক্তির অভাব অনুভব করেন কি?

(১) খুবই

(২) কিছুটা

(৩) তেমন নয়

৪৮. যে জনগোষ্ঠী পারস্পরিকভাবে বন্ধু ভাবাপন্ন এবং সাহায্যকারী, আপনি কি নিজেকে তাদের একটি

অংশ বলে মনে করেন?

(১) খুবই

(২) কিছুটা

(৩) তেমন নয়

৪৯. যদি আপনার পরিবারে কিছু ঘটে তবে আপনি আপনার প্রতিবেশীদের সাহায্য পাবেন বলে মনে

করেন কি?

(১) খুবই

(২) কিছুটা

(৩) তেমন নয়

৫০. গুরুতর অসুস্থতায় বা দুর্ঘটনার সময় আপনার আত্মীয়-স্বজন কিংবা বন্ধু-বান্ধব আপনাকে দেখাশুনা করবে বলে কতখানি বিশ্বাস করেন?

- (১) খুবই
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন নয়

৫১. আপনি কি আপনার শরীরের বিভিন্ন অংশের যত্নগায় ভোগেন?

- (১) অধিকাংশ সময়
- (২) মাঝে মাঝে
- (৩) কদাচিৎ

৫২. আপনি কি হৃদপিণ্ডের ধড়পড়ানিতে অস্বস্তিবোধ করেন?

- (১) অধিকাংশ সময়
- (২) মাঝে মাঝে
- (৩) কদাচিৎ

৫৩. মাথা বিম-বিম করার অনুভূতি আপনার বিরক্তি ঘটায় কি?

- (১) অধিকাংশ সময়
- (২) মাঝে মাঝে
- (৩) কদাচিৎ

৫৪. আপনি কি মনে করেন যে আপনি খুব অল্পতেই ক্লান্ত হয়ে পড়েন?

- (১) অধিকাংশ সময়
- (২) মাঝে মাঝে
- (৩) কদাচিৎ

৫৫. ভাল ঘুম না হওয়ার কারণে কি আপনি অসুবিধা বোধ করেন?

- (১) অধিকাংশ সময়

(২) মাঝে মাঝে

(৩) কদাচিৎ

৫৬. আপনি কি মাঝে মাঝে আপনার স্বাস্থ্য সম্পর্কে উদ্বেগ হন?

(১) খুবই

(২) কিছুটা

(৩) তেমন নয়

৫৭. আপনি আপনার ইচ্ছানুযায়ী বিশ্রাম নেওয়ার ব্যাপারে কি অসুবিধা বোধ করেন?

(১) খুবই

(২) কিছুটা

(৩) তেমন নয়

৫৮. আপনি যখন কিছু চিন্তা করেন বা কিছু করতে চান তখন মনোনিবেশ না করতে পেরে অস্বস্তিবোধ করেন?

(১) খুবই

(২) কিছুটা

(৩) তেমন নয়

৫৯. কোন কিছু আপনি যেভাবে মনে করেন যদি সেভাবে না ঘটে তবে কি আপনি সহজে ভেঙ্গে পড়েন?

(১) খুবই

(২) কিছুটা

(৩) তেমন নয়

৬০. আপনি কি সহজেই উত্তেজিত বা সংবেদনশীল হয়ে পড়েন?

(১) খুবই

(২) কিছুটা

(৩) তেমন নয়

৬১. আপনি কি ছোট খাটো বিষয়ে প্রয়োজনাতিরিক্ত ভেঙ্গে পড়েন?

- (১) খুবই
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন নয়

৬২. ছোট খাটো বিষয়ে আপনি মাঝে মাঝে আপনার মেজাজ ঠিক রাখতে পারেন না, এটাকে কি আপনি সমস্যা বলে মনে করেন?

- (১) খুবই
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন নয়

৬৩. সমালোচনা করলে আপনি সহজেই ভেঙে পড়েন কি?

- (১) অধিকাংশ সময়
- (২) মাঝে মাঝে
- (৩) কদাচিৎ

৬৪. উদ্বেগ এবং মানসিক চাপের কারণে আপনি কি বিরক্তিবোধ করেন?

- (১) অধিকাংশ সময়
- (২) মাঝে মাঝে
- (৩) কদাচিৎ

৬৫. আপনি যা করছেন তাতে আপনার আত্মবিশ্বাসের অভাব আছে বলে কি আপনি উদ্ভিগ্ন?

- (১) অধিকাংশ সময়
- (২) মাঝে মাঝে
- (৩) কদাচিৎ

৬৬. আপনার জীবনের বিভিন্ন অবস্থা আপনার নিয়ন্ত্রণের বাইরে বলে মনে হয় কি?

- (১) অধিকাংশ সময়
- (২) মাঝে মাঝে
- (৩) কদাচিৎ

৬৭. আপনি যা সম্পন্ন করতে চেয়েছেন তা সামান্য পরিমাণে সম্পাদিত হওয়ায় আপনি কি মাঝে মাঝে

উদ্বিগ্ন হন?

- (১) খুবই
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন নয়

৬৮. আপনি যা পাওয়ার যোগ্য বলে মনে করেন তার চেয়ে কম সাফল্য অর্জন করেছেন বলে কি উদ্বিগ্ন হন?

- (১) খুবই
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন নয়

৬৯. বিনা কারণে আপনি কি মাঝে-মাঝে দুঃখ অনুভব করেন?

- (১) খুবই
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন নয়

৭০. আপনার পরিবারে সদস্যদের মাঝে মনোমালিন্য ও দ্বন্দ্বের কারণে কি আপনি মাঝে মাঝে উদ্বিগ্ন হন?

- (১) খুবই
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন নয়

৭১. আপনি কি আপনার ভবিষ্যত নিয়ে উদ্বিগ্ন?

- (১) খুবই
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন নয়

৭২. আপনি কি মাঝে মাঝে আপনার মানসিক সুস্থতা নিয়ে উদ্বিগ্ন হন?

- (১) খুবই
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন নয়

৭৩. আপনার জীবনের নিরানন্দময় বা একঘেয়েমিপূর্ণ বলে কি আপনি মনে করেন?

- (১) খুবই
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন নয়

৭৪. আপনি কি মনে করেন আপনার জীবন দুঃখময়?

- (১) অধিকাংশ সময়
- (২) মাঝে মাঝে
- (৩) প্রায় কখনই নয়

৭৫. আপনার জীবন কি অপ্রয়োজনীয় বলে মনে করেন?

- (১) খুবই
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন নয়

৭৬. আপনি কি মনে করেন আপনার যে-সব জিনিস প্রয়োজন তার অধিকাংশই আপনার আছে?

- (১) খুবই
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন নয়

৭৭. আপনি কি মনে করেন আপনার প্রত্যাশিত সামাজিক মর্যাদা ও জীবন যাত্রার মান অর্জন করতে পেরেছেন?

- (১) খুবই
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন নয়

৭৮. আপনি যা করতে চান তা কি সাধারণত: সম্পাদন করতে পারেন?

- (১) অধিকাংশ সময়
- (২) মাঝে মাঝে
- (৩) প্রায় কখনই নয়

৭৯. আপনার যা করতে ইচ্ছা তা করবার স্বাধীনতার ক্ষেত্রে আপনি প্রত্যাশিত সাফল্য অর্জন করেছেন বলে মনে করেন কি?

- (১) বেশ খানিকটা
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন নয়

৮০. আপনি যতটুকু সাফল্য লাভ করেছেন এবং এগিয়ে যাচ্ছেন সে-সম্পর্কে আপনি কিরূপ মনে করেন?

- (১) বেশ খানিকটা
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন নয়

৮১. আপনার সার্বিক জীবনযাত্রাকে বিবেচনা করে আপনি কি মনে করেন যে, এটাই সে-জীবন যেভাবে আপনি চলতে চেয়েছিলেন?

- (১) খুবই
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন নয়

৮২. যাবতীয় প্রচেষ্টার পর এখন আপনি কি মনে করেন যে আপনি জীবনে যথেষ্ট কৃতকার্য হয়েছেন?

- (১) খুবই
- (২) কিছুটা
- (৩) তেমন নয়

Appendix- C

English version of the Subjective Well-being Questionnaire

Instruction

People are different. They live in a variety of situations and they don't feel the same way about life and the world around them. From a practical viewpoint, it is important to know how different persons feel with regard to their day-to-day concerns such as their health, family, work, etc. Such knowledge is necessary if an improvement in the quality of life of people is to be brought about.

This is a questionnaire on how you feel about some aspects of your life and about your life as a whole. Each question may be answered by any one of the given categories by putting a circle around the number which seems to represent your feelings best. For example, in the first question if you feel your general health is very good and you feel physically fit, please put a circle around the response 'very good' I. At times you may find that your feeling is not represented perfectly by any one of the given response categories. In such cases, just choose the one closest to that you think. You may find that some questions appear repetitive. Nonetheless, please answer them all. You don't need to have your answers agree with each other.

This questionnaire may appear rather long to you. But if you work as fast as you comfortably can, you will find that it does not really take very long to fill in.

All information given by you will be treated as confidential and will be used only for research purposes.

QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS

1. How do you feel about your physical health and physical fitness?

Very good	1
Quite good	2
Not so good	3

2. How happy are you with the education you have received?

Very happy	1
Quite happy	2
Not so happy	3
Not applicable	4

3. Do you confident that you will be helped out adequately by some one in case you lose your job or your property?

Very much	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

4. How do you feel about your family life?

Very good	1
Quite good	2
Not so good	3

5. How do you feel about the relationship you and your family wife/husband have?

Very good	1
Quite good	2

Not so good	3
Not applicable	4

6. How do you feel about the relationship you and your children have?

Very good	1
Quite good	2
Not so good	3
Not applicable	4

7. How do you feel about the relationship you and your friends have?

Very good	1
Quite good	2
Not so good	3

8. Do you think other people around you like you?

Very much	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

9. Are you able to concentrate well on things you are doing?

Very much	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

10. Are you able to remain calm and control yourself even in critical situation?

Very much	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

11. Do you feel you can arrange situations even when do not turn out as expected?

- | | |
|------------------|---|
| Most of the time | 1 |
| Sometime | 2 |
| Hardly ever | 3 |

12. Do you have someone, e.g., family member, a friend or a neighbor, to whom you can talk freely when you feel like it?

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| Very much | 1 |
| To some extent | 2 |
| Not so much | 3 |

13. Do you feel confident that relatives or friends will help you out if there is an emergency?

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| Very much | 1 |
| To some extent | 2 |
| Not so much | 3 |

14. Do you sometimes experience moments of intense happiness almost like a kind of ecstasy or bliss?

- | | |
|-------------|---|
| Quite often | 1 |
| Sometimes | 2 |
| Hardly ever | 3 |

15. Do you sometimes feel that you and the things around you belong very much together and are integral parts of a common force?

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| Very much | 1 |
| To some extent | 2 |

Not so much	3
-------------	---

16. Do you consider it a source of confidence and strength for you that you are not alone in what you are aiming for?

Very much	1
-----------	---

To some extent	2
----------------	---

Not so much	3
-------------	---

17. Do you consider it a source of inner strength for you that you belong to a bigger group of people (other than the family) with whom you share common values , interests or beliefs?

Very much	1
-----------	---

To some extent	2
----------------	---

Not so much	3
-------------	---

18. Do you sometimes experience a joyful feeling of being of mankind as of one large family?

Quite often	1
-------------	---

Sometimes	2
-----------	---

Rarely/ever	3
-------------	---

19. How do you feel about the religious fulfillment in your life?

Quite deeply	1
--------------	---

To some extent	2
----------------	---

Not so much	3
-------------	---

20. Do you feel you have control over your life the way you want to?

Most of the time	1
------------------	---

Sometime	2
Hardly ever	3

21. Do you feel confident that in case of crisis (any thing which substantially upsets your life situation) you will be able to cope with it face it boldly?

Quite deeply	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

22. How do you feel about what you have accomplished in your life?

Very good	1
Quite good	2
Not so good	3

23. On the whole how happy are you with the thing you have been doing in recent year?

Very happy	1
Quite happy	2
Not so happy	3

24. Taking all thing together how do you feel things are these days?

Very good	1
Quite good	2
Not so good	3

25. The way things are going now do you feel confident in coping with the future?

Very much	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

26. Compared with the past do you feel with the present life is:

Very happy	1
Quite happy	2
Not so happy	3

27. Compared with others do you feel your life is:

Very happy	1
Quite happy	2
Not so happy	3

28. Do you feel your life is interesting?

Very much	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

29. Do you feel your life is enjoyable?

Very much	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

30. Do you feel your life is worthwhile?

Very much	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

31. In your family, are husband and wife both earning members?

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| Yes | 1 |
| No | 2 |
| Not applicable | 3 |

32. In your family, is there a good agreement on how family income should be spent?

- | | |
|------------------|---|
| Most of the time | 1 |
| Sometime | 2 |
| Hardly ever | 3 |

33. Do you think that most of the members of your family feel closely attached to each?

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| Very much | 1 |
| To some extent | 2 |
| Not so much | 3 |

34. When there is an important decision to be taken in your family, like choice of a marriage partner, choice in education, business, etc., are other members consulted by the head of the family?

- | | |
|------------------|---|
| Most of the time | 1 |
| Sometime | 2 |
| Hardly ever | 3 |

35. Do you consider your family a source of confidence for you in what you are doing?

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| Very much | 1 |
| To some extent | 2 |
| Not so much | 3 |

36. Do you consider your family a source of help to you in finding solutions to most of the problems you have?

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| Very much | 1 |
| To some extent | 2 |
| Not so much | 3 |

37. Do you think you would be looked after well by your family in case you were seriously ill?

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| Very much | 1 |
| To some extent | 2 |
| Not so much | 3 |

38. Do you consider that the family would be fully supporting any members in times of a crisis, e.g., if a family becomes disabled with old age?

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| Very much | 1 |
| To some extent | 2 |
| Not so much | 3 |

39. Do you sometimes worry that there is nobody who would really help your children if you were unable to do so or if you would be no more?

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| Very much | 1 |
| To some extent | 2 |
| Not so much | 3 |
| Not applicable | 4 |

40. Do you worry about your family life?

- | | |
|------------------|---|
| Most of the time | 1 |
| Sometime | 2 |
| Hardly ever | 3 |

41. Do you sometimes worry about the relationship you and your wife/husband have?

- | | |
|----------------|----|
| Very much | 1 |
| To some extent | 2 |
| Not so much | 3 |
| Not applicable | 4. |

42. Do you sometimes worry about the relationship you and your children have?

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| Very much | 1 |
| To some extent | 2 |
| Not so much | 3 |
| Not applicable | 4 |

43. Would you wish to have more friends than you actually have?

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| Very much | 1 |
| To some extent | 2 |
| Not so much | 3 |

44. Do you sometimes feel that you miss a real close friend?

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| Very much | 1 |
| To some extent | 2 |
| Not so much | 3 |

45. Is it a source of preoccupation for you that the people around you do not like you?

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| Very much | 1 |
| To some extent | 2 |
| Not so much | 3 |

46. Do you feel your friends/relatives would help you out if you were in need?

Very much	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

47. Do you miss a person you can have full confidence in and with whom you can talk about personal matters and problems?

Very much	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

48. Do you feel part of a group of people who are mutually friendly and supportive?

Very much	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

49. If something were to happen to your family, do you think your neighbors would provide help?

Very much	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

50. Do you feel confident the relatives and/or friends will look after you if you are severely ill or meet with an accident?

Very much	1
-----------	---

To some extent	2
Not so much	3

51. Do you suffer from pains in various parts of your body?

Most of the time	1
Sometime	2
Hardly ever	3

52. Are you disturbed by palpitation/ a thumping heart?

Most of the time	1
Sometime	2
Hardly ever	3

53. Are you disturbed by feelings of giddiness?

Most of the time	1
Sometime	2
Hardly ever	3

54. Do you feel you get tired too closely?

Most of the time	1
Sometime	2
Hardly ever	3

55. Are you troubled by disturbed sleep?

Most of the time	1
Sometime	2
Hardly ever	3

56. Do you sometimes worry about your health?

Very much	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

57. Do you find it is difficult to relax when you want to?

Most of the time	1
Sometime	2
Hardly ever	3

58. Are you disturbed by the fact that your mind gets disturbed when you want to do something or think of something?

Very much	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

59. Do you easily upset if things do not turn out as expected?

Very much	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

60. Do you feel easily irritated, too sensitive?

Very much	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

61. Do you think the minor things upset you more than necessary?

Very much	1
To some extent	2

Not so much	3
-------------	---

62. Do you consider it a problem for you that you sometimes loss your temper over minor things?

Very much	1
-----------	---

To some extent	2
----------------	---

Not so much	3
-------------	---

63. Do you get easily upset if you are criticized?

Most of the time	1
------------------	---

Sometime	2
----------	---

Hardly ever	3
-------------	---

64. Do you feel disturbed by feeling of anxiety or tension?

Most of the time	1
------------------	---

Sometime	2
----------	---

Hardly ever	3
-------------	---

65. Are you worried over the lack of confidence you have in what you are doing?

Most of the time	1
------------------	---

Sometime	2
----------	---

Hardly ever	3
-------------	---

66. Do you experience that the circumstances of your life are beyond your control?

Most of the time	1
------------------	---

Sometime	2
----------	---

Hardly ever	3
-------------	---

67. Do you sometimes worry about accomplishing so little of what you want to accomplish?

Very much	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

68. Do you worry about having less success in life than you thing you observe?

Very much	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

69. Do you sometimes feel sad without reason?

Very much	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

70. Do you sometimes worry over disharmony and conflicts between members of your family?

Very much	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

71. Do you worry about your future?

Very much	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

72. Do you sometimes worry about your mental wellbeing?

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| Very much | 1 |
| To some extent | 2 |
| Not so much | 3 |

73. Do you feel about your life is boring?

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| Very much | 1 |
| To some extent | 2 |
| Not so much | 3 |

74. Do you feel about your life is miserable?

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| Very much | 1 |
| To some extent | 2 |
| Not so much | 3 |

75. Do you feel about your life is useless?

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| Very much | 1 |
| To some extent | 2 |
| Not so much | 3 |

76. Do you feel you have most of the things you need?

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| Very much | 1 |
| To some extent | 2 |
| Not so much | 3 |

77. Do you think you have achieved the standard of living and the social status that you had expected?

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| Very much | 1 |
| To some extent | 2 |
| Not so much | 3 |

78. Do you normally accomplish what you want to?

Most of the time	1
Sometime	2
Hardly ever	3

79. Do you think you have achieved what you have expected in terms of the freedom to do what you want to do?

Very much	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

80. How do you feel about the extent to which you have achieved success and are getting ahead?

Very good	1
Quite good	2
Not so good	3

81. Considering your life as a whole do you think it is the life you want most to live?

Very much	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

82. Considering all the efforts you have made, do you think you should have accomplished more in life?

Very much	1
To some extent	2
Not so much	3

Appendix-D

Item distribution and possible score range

Dimensions	Item number	No. of items	Score		
			Minimum	Middle	Maximum
SWB Positive Affect	1 2 4 5 6 7 8 22 23 24 26 27 28 29 30	15	15	31.5	48
SWB Negative Affect	40 41 42 45 51 52 53 54 55 56 64 65 67 69 71 72 73 74 75	19	19	39	59
Mental Mastery	9 10 11 20 21 25 27 58 59 60 61 62 63 66	14	14	28	42
Rootedness and Belongingness	14 15 16 17 18 19 48	07	07	14	21
Structural and Cohesive Aspects	31 32 33 34 35 36 70	07	07	14	21
Density of Social Network	12 13 43 44 46 47 49	07	07	14	21
Security in Health and Socio-economics Crisis	3 37 38 39 50	05	05	10.5	16
Expectation – Achievement Harmony	68 76 77 78 79 80 81 82	08	08	16	24