

LEVEL OF WELL-BEING AMONG WORKING AND NON-WORKING MARRIED WOMEN CONCERNING ADJUSTMENT: A COMPARATIVE STUDY

Sahira Bano,

Research scholar,

Department of physical education,

Rtm nagpur university.

Abstract: This study assessed the well-being and well-being among adult female working and non-working populations. This study was conducted as a community-based cross-sectional study among adult females of the working and non-working population during November and December 2018. For these purposes, 150 women, 75 workings (sportswoman), and 75 non-working (Housewives) were selected age groups ranging from 30-45 yrs. To measure, bell adjustment inventory and Friedman's well-being scale were used to measure the above variables. Descriptive statistic (mean; standard deviations) t- ratios were computed to compare the two groups in terms of the significance of mean differences. Results clearly show that there are significant differences in well-being and adjustment among Working and Non-Working Women.

Keywords: *Well-being, Working Women, Non- Working women Adjustment*

INTRODUCTION

The role of women in modern-day India can be known as a phenomenon. The transition of woman from the previous to existing is well worth mentioning. Women who once viewed being the masters in the artwork of the facet of family economics going thru translucence, majority of guys decide upon to marry a working lady. Apart from acquiring a pecuniary advantage, a working woman tends to understand their husbands better way as they face the comparable country of affairs at their workplace." Psychological well-being is described as the satisfaction of the life of a person. It consists of what lay human beings name happiness, peace, fulfillment, and lifestyle satisfaction, which affects the woman is vital in our social set up. She is the one who begins a household with a man; she is the one who stays assured even in the sad moments of life. She is the one who stands behind every successful man. She is the heart of the family. Life satisfaction is an overall assessment of feelings and attitudes about one at a particular point in time, ranging from negative to positive. It is one of three significant indicators of well-being are life satisfaction positive and negative effect. Although satisfaction with current life circumstances is often assessed in dinner, Suh, Lucas, and

smith include happiness which sometimes and interchangeably with satisfaction, the quantity of life, and subjective or psychological well-being.

As of the early 2000s, more mothers in the United States are working than ever before. In the mid-1990s, 58 percent of mothers age fifty, and nearly 75% of those with mothers between the age of 30-40 are on paid labor. The numbers of single mothers with full-time, year-round jobs increased from 39% in 1996 and 69% percent in 2002. The study conducted on motherhood today, more demanding challenges, less success, revealed that 46% of working mothers are interested in working part-time because of younger children. 60% of the working mothers feel that they out their frustration on their families. The burden is more severe when women are mothers of young children whose needs are primarily a mother's responsibility.

Vandewater et al. (1997) conducted a study on predicting women's well-being in midlife based on the importance of personality development and social role involvements. Increasing respect for the well-being of migrant workers is a matter of improving their living and working conditions and fostering community development at home and abroad (Pecoud & Guchteneire, 2006). Diminished positive psychological well-being has been associated with difficulties in coping with significant transitions in life (Abbot et al., 2008; Kwan, Love, & Ryff, 2003); an increase in distress symptoms (Rafanelli et al., 2000; Simon, 2002), an increase in negative self-evaluations, impaired work productivity, and neuroticism (Lindfors, Berntsson, & Lundberg, 2006). Alternatively, enhanced psychological well-being has been shown to predict successful identity formation (Vleioras & Bosma, 2005), serve as a buffer to stress, and improve coping with trauma (Ryff & Singer, 1998; Schnyder, Büchi, Morgeli, Sensky, & Klaghofer 1999; Showers & Ryff, 1996). Additional benefits of enhanced psychological well-being include an improvement in physical health (Keyes, 2005a; Lindfors & Lundberg, 2002), sleep quality (Friedman et al., 2005), and a decreased vulnerability to psychological damage from adverse events (Ryff & Singer, 2003). Enhanced psychological well-being has been shown to serve as a protective factor to various types of psychological distress and enhance one's ability to "bounce back" after hardships (Ryff & Singer, 1998; Ryff, Singer, Love, & Essex, 1998). Another research suggests that significant differences emerged in perceived healthiness and psychological well-being of the aged migrants residing in camp and non-camp. Significant differences were revealed for high and low perceived healthiness on psychological well-being. Perceived healthiness was significantly related to psychological well-being. (Sood and Bakhshi 2012) Cultural intelligence is a significant predictor of acculturative well-being and psychological well-being (Jan & Dar 2015). Gender significantly affected the three components of well-being (joviality, happiness, and sociability) but had no significant effect on emotional stability and self-esteem and the total well-being scores (Chouhan and Gupta, 2015).

Several studies have studied marital adjustment in working and non-working women. For example, Nathawat and Mathur (1993) found that working women reported significantly better marital adjustment and subjective well-being than homemakers; they also scored higher than homemakers in general health, life

satisfaction, and self-esteem measures. Lloyd (1980) found that socioeconomic status contributes to marital adjustment and believed that higher income is a significant factor. Similar findings have been supported by Adegoke (1987) and Rogers and May (2003), who reported that working-class women are generally more satisfied with their lives than non-working women. However, the difference between these findings could be attributed to cultural differences. However, certain studies have reported contradictory findings. Kausar (2003) studied the effect of personality traits and socioeconomic status on marital adjustment in working women and found no difference between marital adjustment of working women of low, middle, and high socioeconomic background and attributed that personality trait could be the factor liable for the marital adjustment in working and non-working female instead being the socioeconomic factor. Similar non-significant marital differences in working and non-working women of Port Harcourt metropolis were reported by Nigeria- Tamunoimama Jamabo and Ordu (2012).

Marital adjustment and psychological well-being are related to each other. Psychological well-being is mainly viewed as a positive functioning of an individual and is described as the person's quality of life. It includes what laypeople call "Happiness," "peace," "fulfillment," and "life satisfaction." Ryff (1991) states that convergence of similar features of positive psychological functioning constitutes the core dimensions of psychological well-being and these dimensions are autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with others' purpose in life, and self-acceptance. Ryff (1989) extensively explored the meaning of psychological well-being and thought that well-being could be made sense by breaking it down into six dimensions, contributing to people's experience of well-being. Each measurement of psychological well-being articulates different challenges as they strive to function positively. The present study focuses on well-being from the eudemonic approach, which emphasizes meaning and self-actualization and defines well-being in terms of the degree to which a person is fully functioning.

Kumar (2006) observes that conceptions of well-being are integrally related to how one views the nature of man and what perspective is valued. An increase in women's participation in the labor force over the past few decades has led to increased interest in employment effects on women's well-being. Women employment has been investigated as either beneficial (role enhancement hypothesis) or detrimental (role strain hypothesis) to women's psychological well-being. Women's jobs may be associated with better psychological functioning. This effect may be mediated by the over absorption of one's time and resources within a particular identity role (Elgar & Chester, 2007). Psychological well-being, particularly in the labor market and more specifically in women employees, has received much attention. Occupation is one of the most critical factors that bring many changes in women's lives. The work brings many expectations, pressures, time demands, and commitments that may affect women's mental health. Several researchers have studied the relationships between occupation and the mental health of women.

Thakur and Misra (1999) studied the well-being experiences of 196 employed and 54 unemployed women. It was found that the unemployed women received significantly more social support. Despite that, the well-being measures indicating mental health were better in employed women. Erlandson (2006)

examined psychological well-being in working with full-time and part-time jobs and reported that full-time employed women having a positive attitude about employment reported better psychological well-being than their counterparts. Sahu and Rath (2003) study self-efficacy and well-being in working and non-working women in urban areas and found a positive correlation between self-efficacy and well-being and added that marriage employment and parenthood are associated with good mental and physical health. Rastogi and Kashyap (2001) reported better mental health of the employed woman.

However, other contradictory findings have reported poor psychological well-being of working women. For example, some other researchers believe that the life of working women has been viewed as a difficult period of one's life compared to non-working women. One of the Indian surveys demonstrated statistics that indicate that 80% of working women's psychological state is not well in working women in Karnataka experiencing frustration and stress (14.22% in 1971, and 25.68% in 2001). Further, Ramesh (2009) conducted another study on working, and non-working women demonstrated that non-working women are more adjusted than working women emotionally, socially, and health-wise. Non-working women have more life satisfaction than working women. Similar findings have been reported by Hashmi, Khurshid, and Hassan (2007).

On the other hand, a comparative study was done on the psychological symptoms observed in the working women and homemakers were assessed on the psychological symptoms scanning scale, and findings showed that anxiety, phobia, paranoia, and psychosomatic subscales points and an average of symptoms were significantly higher in the housewives (Cilli et al., 2000). The literature overview suggests that working-class women are more satisfied and adjusted in their marital life (Nathawat & Mathur, 1993; Rogers & May 2003). As far as psychological well-being is concerned, lack of consensus seems about the findings. Some researchers believe that psychological well-being is better in the employed woman (Sahu & Rath, 2003; Thakur & Misra, 1999), while others hold different views (Cilli et al., 2000).

PROBLEM OF THE STUDY: Level Of Well-Being Among Working And Non-Working Married Women Concerning Adjustment: A Comparative Study

OBJECTIVES:

- 1) To assess the level of well-being and adjustment among working married women.
- 2) To assess the level of well-being and adjustment among non-working married women.
- 3) To compare well-being and adjustment among working and non-working married women.

Sample: It refers to the women working in government and private sectors (sportswoman) between 30-40 years. It refers to the educated women but not working staying at home between the age group of 30-45 years: working and Non-working married women available in the selected urban area in Haryana. The total sample size is 150 (75-working women and 75-non working women).

TOOLS: For the present study following measures would be used to assess adjustment and Well-Being,

The Adjustment Inventory (Bell, 1962): Bell adjustment inventory (adult form) was used to measure subjects' adjustment levels. It is a useful tool for evaluating adjustment in different spheres like home, health, social, emotional, and occupational. It is a self-report of the individual's life adjustment as they experience these events. The reliability coefficient for each of the five sections is - home adjustment .91, health adjustment .81, social adjustment.88, emotional adjustment .91, occupational adjustment .85, total score - .95. These were determined by correlating the odd-even items and applying the Spearman-Brown Formula.

Friedman Well-Being Scale (Friedman, 1992): The Friedman Well-Being scale consists of a series of 20 bipolar adjectives. It usually takes 2-3 minutes to complete. The instructions are quite simple and easy to administer self-. The Friedman Well-Being scale can be scored for several subscales: Emotional Stability (10 items; calm, relaxed, at ease; content, secure, steady, stable, unemotional, guilt-free, not-envious), Jovial (3 items; jovial, humorous, enthusiastic), Self-esteem/Self-confidence (3 items; self-confidence, assertive, self-assured), sociability (3 items; social neighborly, outgoing), and Happiness (1 item). Test-Retest Reliability is .73 for 95 Minnesota college students in the second college student sample. Spearman-Brown split-half Reliability is ranging from .63 to.97 A correlation of .61 between husbands and wives or couples living together strongly supports the external validity of the Friedman Well-Being Scale.

Administration: Though the measures used are group tests, these were administered individually in the present study. The tests were administered following instructions and procedures prescribed in separate manuals of the test. Testing sessions were conducted in a proper setting with adequate light, ventilation, and adequate seating arrangement.

Statistical analysis: The obtains data was statistically analyzed. Mean, Standards Deviation, and t- Ratios were computed to compare the two groups in terms of the significance of mean differences.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION:

Results discussions of the present study are as under:

Table – 1: Showing the Mean, SD and 't' value of Well-being among Working and Non-working woman

Variable	Working Woman (N=75) Mean	Working Woman SD	Non-working Woman (N=75) Mean	Non-working Woman SD	t-value
FWBC	42.28	19.04	28.92	9.50	5.68
FSOC	40.63	19.51	33.27	17.92	2.40
FSES	44.83	17.58	32.59	14.15	4.70
FJOV	41.89	17.15	26.48	10.62	6.35
FES	43.52	18.29	28.85	11.81	5.57
FHAPP	43.40	20.32	25.01	13.36	6.55

* P < 0.05 **P < 0.01

Table no.1 showing descriptive statistics of well-being in working women (W.W.) and non-working women (NWW) of Haryana. In case of well-being, the Non working women have scored significantly low than working women on all the six scales such as Well-Being Composite (WW Mean=42.28, SD=19.04; NWW Mean= 28.92, SD= 9.50; t= 5.68, p<.01), Sociability (WW Mean=40.63, SD=19.51; NWW Mean=33.27 SD= 17.92; t= 2.40 p<.01), Self-esteem/confidence (WW Mean=44.83, SD=17.58; NWW Mean= 32.59, SD= 14.15; t=-4.70 p<.01), Jovial (WW Mean=41.89 SD=17.15; NWW Mean= 26.48 SD=10.62; t= 6.35, p<.01), Emotional Stability (WW Mean=43.52, SD=18.29; NWW Mean= 28.85, SD= 10.81; t= 5.57, p<.01) and Happiness (WW Mean=43.40, SD=20.32; NWW Mean=25.01 SD=13.36; t= 6.55, p<.01). It posits that non-working women tend to be less self-assured, sure of themselves, confident and positive, more unsocial, socially avoidant, and distant, aloof, cold, non-loving, non-neighborly, tense, fearful, angry, sad, guilty, and precipitate. Working women tend to be feeling contented and sensitive in interpersonal kindred, passionate, -temperate practical, constant, sheltered, naive, forgiving, joyful, and positive in thoughts. Overall, non-working women tend to be low on well-being as compared to working women. It posits that non-working women tend to be less self-confident, self-assured, assertive and hopeful, unsocial, socially avoidant, and far-away, unfriendly, cold, non-loving, non-neighborly, nervous, fearful, annoyed, distressing, culpable, and impulsive. Working women tend to be feeling contented and sensitive in interpersonal relations, enthusiastic

-self-disciplined, practical, stable, secure, trusting, forgiving, joyful, and positive in thoughts because they interact with the outer world.

Table – 2: Showing the Mean, SD, and 't' value of adjustment among Working and Non-working woman

Variable	Non-Working Woman (N=75) Mean	Non-Working Woman SD	Working Woman (N=75) MEAN	Working Woman SD	t-value
HOME	14.25	4.53	7.77	4.50	21.01
Heal	14.72	5.77	6.50	4.34	17.99
SOCI	11.62	5.81	9.99	3.20	3.88
EMOTI	12.96	6.42	8.10	4.72	9.66
VACA	16.09	4.84	8.46	7.57	13.44

There has a significant difference between working and non-working married women in adjustment. So we can say that the adjustment of non-working women is lesser than the working woman. Housewife are said to be mild, submissive, and timid. They are unknown to the world as they stay at home. Their only real achievement is a happy and content family. They appear to be nervous in social situations as they do not work outside. A housewife has to adjust to each member of the family as they stay at home. Altercations are inevitable due to constant interactions. Feelings of hopelessness, worthlessness, and depression could arise due to their monotonous life. Their actual worth is often measured by their service to the family, which is not regarded as an achievement in the outside world. The working women are confident, bold, and intelligent. The working woman mostly holds a professional degree and intends to be a career woman. They are ambitious, give her career the top priority, and have less time to fulfill her home responsibilities. They employ staff for looking after her home and family.

Wright (1978), in his research, supports this finding; he concluded that both women who work outside in the home and full-time homemakers have benefits and costs attached to them. However, Adegoke (1987), Nathawat and Mathur (1993), and Rogers and May (2003) are of the view that employed class women are generally more satisfied with their lives and marriage than non-employed women. The difference between these findings could be attributed to cultural differences. Kala (1986) conducted a study on personality development and adjustment of pre-adolescent children born to working and non-working women and found that the girls of working women were better adjusted at home than those of non-working groups. Hot Jujats

(1990) conducted a study on working women's perception of their self and environment concerning job and life satisfaction and found that women in skilled labor were satisfied with semi-skilled and unskilled jobs. Dua (1991) conducted a study on adjustment familial role expectations and modernization of working and non-working women and found that working women yielded significantly higher mean values than their non-working counterparts on the variables of emotional adjustment. Iqbal et al. (2004)²⁷ studies the presence of anxiety in working and non-working women concerning their education, family system, and the number of their children. A purposive sample of 50 working women and 50 non-working women was taken. Both groups were matched on their age, education, occupation, and socioeconomic background. Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale was administered to all women to assess their anxiety. They were also interviewed to record the demographic information. Anxiety was observed in 57 percent of sampled women, 74 percent of non-working women, and 36 percent of working women. A statistically significant association between anxiety in women and education and the number of their children was found. No significant association was observed between women's anxiety and their family system. It was concluded that all non-working women should be supported morally and socially to spare some time for their entertainment and pleasurable activities outside homes to distract the monotony of routine work.

There is a significant difference in health adjustment between working and non-working married women. The U.S. Bureau of National Affairs has conducted several surveys asking women to rate the seriousness of 11 hazards thought to affect female workers. In 1995 the women respondents ranked them in the following order: 1) stress, 2) repetitive motions, 3) AIDS, 4) violence, 5) VDTs, 6) indoor air pollution, 7) hepatitis, 8) injury on the job, 9) reproductive hazards, 10) tuberculosis, and 11) other infectious diseases. A parallel list of 11 hazards thought to affect male workers would look very different. The daily 'multitask' requirement on working women is taking a toll on their health, with three-fourth of them in the age group of 32-58 suffering from some lifestyle, chronic and acute ailment, as per a survey done by ASSOCHAM for the International Women's Day. The ASSOCHAM study was based on a survey of 2,800 female corporate employees from 120 various companies/organizations across 11 broad sectors of the economy focused on the health issues of female corporate employees.

CONCLUSION

We can say that the adjustment of non-working women is lesser than the working woman. There was a significant difference in well-being among working and non-working women. It is widely acknowledged that being sportswoman is a challenging job, and high levels of mental health problems are seen in this population. Future research should focus on the reasons for these associations and develop potential interventions that help alleviate the stress associated with sportswoman and foster an environment that cultivates greater job satisfaction and support within the workplace. Mostow (1995)⁴⁴ compared housewives with a matched group of working women and revealed significant differences in social functioning

concerning work roles. The psychological benefits of outside employment have been widely substantial concerning middle-class and upper-class women. This study indicates that work may also have a protective psychological effect on women of lower socioeconomic status. When a working woman gets stressed out, many blame her job. But women who stay at home are more likely to suffer anxiety and to feel unhappy. Griffin et al. (2002) 50 revealed that the main reasons for the high frequency of unadjustability in non-working women could be their familial and social status, low control at home, low education, and their involvement in the limited number of roles. Women in our society have more household responsibilities, face domestic conflicts, abusive relationships, and enjoy less privilege, fewer rights, less social and economic freedom. They cannot escape their captors due to social and cultural pressures and rarely get an opportunity to dissipate their stress. The fact, however, remains that they face much-pronged problems stemming from socio-cultural values and traditions, illiteracy, political instability, and the erroneous interpretation of religion. Their housework is typically associated with unpaid, obligatory work. This, along with the lack of benefits and positive knowledge, may decrease mental well-being and an increase in anxiety, stress, and depression. All these stresses may cause low control at home, resulting in high anxiety in non-working women. Griffin JM et al. have also reported an increased risk of developing depression and unadjustability in women having low control at home.

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