Chapter - II

Review of Literature

• Working status and Frustration
• Working status and well being
• Working status and Emotional Maturity
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• Frustration and Emotional Maturity

This chapter consists of literature focusing on a range of issues salient to frustration, psychological well-being and emotional maturity in relation to women’s working status.

Working Status and Well-being

Riffat Sadiq and Amena Zehra Ali (2014) conducted study to examine the psychological ill-being in married working women as a consequence of dual responsibility they pay at home and workplace. A sample of about fifty (N=50) married working women was compared with fifty (N=50) married non-working women. The entire sample was taken from general population. Data was gathered using Semi-Structured Brief Interview Form, General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-28), Anger and Hostility, subscales of Aggression Questionnaire (AQ). Obtained data was statistically analyzed by computing frequencies, percentages and independent t-test. Independent t-test, show that married working women significantly reported more somatic complaints (t= 2.00, df = 98, p< .048), social
dysfunction (t = 2.31, df = 98, p < .023), anger (t = 2.10, df = 98, p < .038) and hostility (t = 2.27, df = 98, p < .025) than non-working married women. However, working and non-working married women did not significantly differ on the variables of insomnia (t = .773, df = 98, p < .441) and depression (t = .709, df = 98, p < .375). Paying dual responsibility at home and workplace is quite hectic causing psychological problems among married working women.

Bhosale SJ (2014) focused on the subjective component of well-being across professional groups of women in his study. The study was conducted on one hundred working females from five different professions were selected as they were interested to participate in this study. The professions included executives, teachers, administrators, doctors and engineers. Life Orientation Questionnaire (LOQ) developed by Sahoo was used to measure subjects’ happiness. While different domains of well-being namely life satisfaction, satisfaction with general area of life functioning, positive affect experience and negative affect experience were compare across different groups of working women it was shown that doctors and teachers experience maximum happiness whereas administrators experience the least. Engineers and executives were placed in intermediate position. Based on result it was suggested that Working women face the daily hardships and stressors are as a part of their life but their adverse effects are countered by their work place and social interactions with others act as a buffers.

Srimathi, N. L., and Kiran Kumar, (2010) examined the level of psychological well-being among working women in different professions. A total
of 325 women working in different organizations – industries, hospitals, banks, educational institutions and in call centres/BPOs were randomly selected. They were administered Carol Ryff’s Medium Form of Psychological Well Being Scale. Results revealed that women employees working in industries had least psychological well-being in all the sub factors and total psychological well-being scores, followed by women working in health organizations. Women employees working in banks had medium level of psychological well-being scores. Women teachers had highest total Psychological Well Being scores and also in the entire sub factors of Psychological Well Being. Each subscale of PWB is correlated significantly and positively with rest of the sub scales.

According to Kiran Sahu and Dheerja Singh (2014) mental health is a state of well-being in which an individual realizes his or her own abilities, can cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and is able to make a contribution to his or her community. In this positive sense, mental health is the foundation for individual well-being and the effective functioning of a community. Mental health is that behaviour, perception and feeling which determines a person’s overall level of personal effectiveness, success, happiness and excellence of functioning. It depends on the development and retention of goals that are neither to high not low to permit realistic successful maintenance of belief in one’s self as worthy, effective human being and Marital adjustment is the state in which there is an overall feeling in husband and wife of happiness and satisfaction with their marriage and with each other. The aim of the present study is to find out the level of Mental Health and Marital Adjustment among working
and non-working Married Women. Further to find out difference between working and non-working married women regarding mental health and marital adjustment. For this purpose 200 women (100 working and 100 non-working) were selected. To measure Mental health Pramod Kumar’s Mental health Inventory (6) and to measure Marital adjustment O.P. Mishra and S.K. Srivastava’s Marital adjustment Inventory (8) were used in the present study; result indicated that both working and non-working women have higher level of Mental health and Marital adjustment. No significant differences are found in mental health as well as in marital adjustment of working and non-working married women.

Nathawat and Mathur (1993) did a study in India about marital adjustment and subjective well-being in Indian-educated housewives and working women. Their results indicated that working women had better marital adjustment and subjective well-being. Working women reported high scores on general health, life satisfaction and self-esteem measures & lower scores on hopelessness, insecurity and anxiety whereas the housewives had lower scores on negative affect than the working women.

Working Status and Frustration

Pinky Saxena (2009) compare frustration among working and non-working was conducted to know the frustration level of Working and Non-Working Women, The results revealed that working women have higher scores than the non-working women. The first area of Frustration is Aggression. Working women mean is (M=25.20) and (S.D. =5.02) while Non- working women mean is (M=21.77) and (S.D. =4.61) and (t= .082). This mean is that working women are
more aggressiveness than the non-working women. This conflict develops when an organism is simultaneously stimulated by two aversive stimuli in a situation where movement away from either stimulus results in approaching the other aversive stimulus. Working women mean is (M=24.67) and (S.D. =4.97) while Non- working women mean is (M=21.63) and (S.D. =4.65) and (t=.75). The third dimension of Frustration is Fixation (FIX). Fixation may occur due to frustration of the normal expression of instinctual drive, or it's over gratification or trauma and weakness the ego of the individual.

Hina Ahmed Hashmi, Maryam Khushid and Ishtiaq Haman (2007) studied on Marital Adjustment, Stress and Depression among Working and Non-Working Married Women in Islamabad, Pakistan. The aim of the study to investigate the marital adjustment, stress and depression among 150 (working married women = 75, non-working married women = 75) working and non-working married women with age ranged between 18 to 50 years. Beck Depression Inventory and Stress Scale were used. The results indicate that non-working married women are better adjusted in their married life than working married women. Along with this they also do not feel depression and stress in their married life as compared to working married women. It indicates that depressed married woman have to face marital adjustment problems in her married life. Findings indicate that working married women who are engaged in multiple roles have to face sever stressful situations. The findings also indicate that graduate non-working married women feel more depression in their daily life and in home task than the women who get education above than graduation.
Harshpinder and Paramjit Aujla (2006). A study on Physiological and Psychological Stressors among Working and Non-Working Women, Punjab, India to assess their psychological and physiological stressors. The data were collected from 75 working and 75 non-working women from four localities of Ludhiana city. Results indicated that common factors of stress in both categories were unfinished tasks, compulsion of doing disliked activities, death of close relative, improper sleep. In working women, stressors were ‘pleasing others’ (mean score 0.92) and overburden of work (1.04), whereas in non-working women stressors were ‘wrong working posture’ (0.97) and ‘non – involvement in decision making by family’ (1.02). This study shows that working women were more stressed as compared to non-working women. Working respondents (mean score 0.73) were found to be more affected by this stressor as compared to non-working respondents (0.68). A significant difference was also observed in case of respondent’s non involvement in decision making by the family. Non-working (mean score 1.02) scored more and gave third rank to this stressor as compared to working respondents who gave seventh rank to it. On an average, working-women were experiencing more physiological and psychological factors of stress.

Usha R Rout, Cary L Looper, Helen Kerslake. (1997) compare the Working and non-working mothers to assess the employment has positive or neutral effects on women’s health. This pilot study examines whether these positive effects could also be found in employed mothers by comparing working mothers with non-working mothers on measures of mental health, self-esteem, and mother role satisfaction. Also this study assesses the stress experienced by
these mothers and examines the coping strategies used by them. The working mothers had better mental health and reported less depression than the non-working mothers. The most frequently reported source of stress for working mothers was not having enough time to do everything, whereas for non-working mothers lack of social life was a major stressor.

A comparative study conducted by Murray CL, Gienz, Soleberg SM. (2003) to assess the mental health of employed and unemployed women in Canada. The purpose of this study was to assess the impact of unemployment on the mental health of women in the context of massive unemployment. Comparisons were made between the level of mental distress experienced by unemployed and employed women, in two areas of Newfoundland, Canada that were affected by the northern cod moratorium. In addition, the relationships between women's mental distress and a number of variables were explored. Questionnaires were administered to 112 unemployed and 112 employed women three years after the moratorium began. The unemployed women reported significantly poorer mental well-being in the year prior to data collection. At the time of the study, however, both groups of women were experiencing high levels of distress. Among the working women, past experience with unemployment and level of education had significant correlations with their mental well-being.

Avery, Clark C (1986) conducted study on Sexual dysfunction and disorder patterns of working and nonworking wives. The sexual dysfunction and disorder patterns of 218 married working and nonworking women were compared in a retrospective analysis of couples presenting for sexual and marital therapy at
the Masters & Johnson Institute. Results indicated that women who were pursuing careers of an ongoing, developmental nature were twice as likely to present with a primary complaint of inhibited sexual desire as women who were employed in jobs that emphasized the immediate organization of activities, or women who were unemployed outside of the home. "Career" women were also significantly more likely to present with veganism’s than the other two groups of subjects. "Job" and "Unemployed" women were more likely to complain of concerns related to orgasmic return than "Career" subjects. The results were interpreted in terms of psychological and interpersonal stressors characteristic of married couples when wives pursue careers, and also in terms of the impact of traditional values regarding sexuality when wives are not involved in careers.

**Working Status and Emotional Maturity**

Velayudhan, A.; Velayudhan, Kemlit (2013) compared working and Non-Working women on their Emotional Intelligence. The sample consists of 120 women of which 60 were working and 60 were not working were drawn from Staff Quarters. The results indicated that Emotional Intelligence does not significantly differ between Working and Non-Working women. In some dimensions, working women were better on qualities such as Accurate Self-Assessment, Self Confidence, Achievement orientation, Initiative, Inspirational leadership, Influence and change Catalyst compared to Non-working women.

Asha. P and Suneetha J. Hangal (2010) studied the general wellbeing and emotional intelligence of working and non-working women. Examines the positive mental health of working and non-working women. PGI General Well-
being Measure (1989) by Verma and Verma, and Emotional Intelligence Scale (2001) by Hyde, Dethe and Dhar were administered to a sample of 120 women (60 working and 60 non-working) in the age group between 25 and 60 years from the city of Hubli, Karnataka. The results showed that there is no significantly difference between the working and non-working women with regard to general well-being. However, the two groups differ significantly in the overall emotional intelligence, and in the dimension of self-awareness, self-motivation, emotional stability, commitment and empathy (significantly high).

Dinesh Kumar, J M Deo, and KumariSonam, (2011) investigated the impact of working and non-working status of women on emotional intelligence (EI) as well as on desire for social freedom as also to examine the differential impact of emotional intelligence, social freedom and working -non-working status on women’s personal space, data was collected from 100 working and 100 non-working women using Mangal’s Emotional Intelligence Inventory (EII) and Bhushan’s Women’s Social Freedom (WSF)scale together with experimental measures of personal space. The obtained results revealed that i) Working women excelled over non-working women in terms of emotional intelligence (EI) and desire for social freedom, and ii) the respondents belonging to high EI group, high desire for social freedom group and working group preferred smaller personal space (PS). Findings have been discussed in the light of related literature.

Kiranben Vaghela (2014) studied the effect of Working and Non-Working Women on Emotional Maturity. For this Total number of sample was 60 in which 30 working women from the age group of 20 to 40 years. And 30 non working
women were taken the same age group. For the data collection Emotional maturity scale developed by Roma Pal (1988) was used for data analysis and concluded result ‘t’ test was used. For this dimension implies that in positive sense there was significant difference between working and non-working women. The result indicate the working women significantly differ on Emotional maturity score as compared to non-working women ,working women have shown better Emotional Maturity compared to non-working women .

**Frustration and Psychological Well-being**

R.BALAJI (2011) revealed that Family–work conflict and work–family conflict are more likely to exert negative influences in the family domain, resulting in lower life satisfaction and greater internal conflict within the family. He further reviled that variables such as the size of family, the age of children, the work hours and the level of social support impact the experience of Work family conflict and Family work conflict. As per result these variables have significant effect on psychological distress and wellbeing of the working women.

Adegoke, T. G., (2014) examined the effects of Occupational stress on psychological well-being of police employees. The study adopted the descriptive survey, using 250 police employees from five local government areas of Ibadan metropolis, Nigeria. The three instruments used were authored-constructed questionnaires by adapting relevant scales to measures the studied variables. Data were analyzed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistical method. Results obtained from this study showed that there were significant effects of work-stress, frustration and depression on psychological well-being of police
employees in Ibadan metropolis. Based on these findings, it was recommended that the government and police organization should endeavours to find means of managing psychological attributes such as emotional labour, psychological well-being, work-stress and social networks of their employers.

Vander Elsta et al. (2012) tested a new process underlying the negative relationship between job insecurity and work-related well-being. Specifically, based on Self-Determination Theory, frustration of the psychological needs for autonomy, belongingness and competence was expected to explain the associations between job insecurity and emotional exhaustion and vigour (i.e. the core energy-related components of burnout and work engagement, respectively). Structural equation modelling using data from a heterogeneous sample of 3185 Flemish employees confirmed that frustration of the three needs mediated the association between job insecurity and both outcomes. These results suggest that job insecurity is related to impaired work-related well-being, because it frustrates employees’ psychological needs. This study contributes to a rather small, but growing body of research on the theoretical explanations of the negative consequences of job insecurity for employees’ work-related well-being.

Kaori Fujishiro, Gilbert C. Gee, and A. B. de Castro (2011) examined whether workplace aggression was associated with self-rated health and work-related injury and illness among nurses in the Philippines. Data gathered from a cross-sectional survey of nurses (n = 687) in the Philippines. Results revealed verbal abuse was associated with poor general health (prevalence ratio [PR] = 1.94; 95% confidence interval [CI] = 1.09, 3.45). Both physical assault and verbal
abuse were associated with work-related injury (PR = 1.48; 95% CI = 1.00, 2.20; PR = 1.72; 95% CI = 1.34, 2.23, respectively) and work-related illness (PR = 1.46; 95% CI = 0.99, 2.15; PR = 1.68; 95% CI = 1.32, 2.14, respectively) after demographic and work characteristics were accounted for in the model. In addition, physical assault was associated with missed workdays (PR = 1.56; 95% CI = 1.02, 2.33). To conclude workplace aggression was associated with increased risks of poor general health and adverse work-related health outcomes among nurses in the Philippines.

Natali Efstathiou (2013) investigated interaction among self-control, emotional intensity, and frustration intolerance to influence well-being. Participants were 299 individuals (233 females and 66 males) recruited from undergraduate. Tests used were used, including a demographic questionnaire, the Frustration-Discomfort Scale, the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule, the Self-Control Scale, the Satisfaction with Life Scale, the ways of Coping Questionnaire-Revised, and the Emotional Intensity Scale Reduced. Results revealed that individuals with higher self-control reported significantly higher levels of well-being than individuals with lower levels of self-control. Individuals with higher levels of self-control also reported experiencing more positive and less negative emotions in their daily lives. Furthermore, individuals with higher levels of self-control reported more emotional stability by indicating significantly less intense negative emotions than individuals who reported lower levels of self-control. The results of the present study suggest that low self-control leads to deleterious effects on well-being regardless of the individual's level of emotional intensity.
However, there was a significant moderating effect between frustration intolerance and self-control in predicting well-being. Specifically, individuals who have extreme difficulties in handling emotional or physical stress, in other words frustration intolerance, reported experiencing significantly lower levels of well-being when exercising poor self-control, or act impulsively.

**Frustration and Emotional Maturity**

ShahinVaezi and Nasser Fallah (2011) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and burnout among 104 Iranian EFL teachers. In addition, teachers’ differences on EI and burnout were examined with respect to demographic variables. The participants were administered EI and Burnout questionnaires. The results obtained through using Pearson Product-Moment Correlation showed that there were significant negative correlations between EI and burnout, burnout, teaching experience and age and positive correlations between teachers’ EI, teaching experience, and age. Finally, using T-Test, the researchers found no significant differences in teachers’ EI and burnout with respect to gender. Implications of the study are discussed, and suggestions for further research are made.

Kusum Jain and Nidhi Kakkar (2013) investigated the association between frustration and emotional maturity of secondary school students. The sample comprised of 100 students of ninth class (50 boys+ 50 girls). Emotional Maturity Scale by Dr. Yashvir Singh and Dr. Mahesh Bhargava and Reactions to Frustration scale (RFS) by B.M. Dixit and D.N.Srivastava was used to measure
these respective constructs. Result revealed coefficient of correlation 0.3584 for the frustration and emotional maturity is significant.

Seung HeeYoo and Peter Salovey (2009) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) measured as an ability and an individual's initial emotional responses to hypothetical and actual frustrating stressors and revealed higher scores on measure of EI (the MSCEIT) was associated with greater self-reported frustration and provide the first step in understanding how individuals high in EI react to frustrating stressors.

A K H Pau, R Croucher, R Sohanpal, V Muirhead& K Seymour (2004) reported that students had higher levels of emotional intelligence (EI) used effective coping technique with reflection, appraisal, social, interpersonal, organization and time-management skills to cope with stress associated with negative emotions such as frustration, anger and hatred where as those with low EI engaged in health damaging behaviours such as smoking, drinking and risk taking.

Mohammad Reza Miri, TayyebeKermani, HodaKhoshbakht, and Mitra Moodi (2013) evaluated the relationship between EI and education stress in the students of Birjand University of Medical Sciences (BUMS) in their cross-sectional study. The whole sample comprised of 260 students, selected by proportional sampling in four faculties: Medicine, Nursing and Midwifery, Paramedical Sciences, and Health. The standardized EI Shering's (33 questions, five domains) and the Student-Life Stress Inventory (57 questions, nine domains) were used to collect the data. Correlation analysis revealed no significant
association between EI scores and educational stress in students although EI was found to be significantly associated with sex (P = 0.02), and also with three domains of academic stress: Personal favourites (P = 0.004), reaction to stressors (P = 0.002), and performance in stressful situations (P = 0.001). Additionally, linear regression indicated that EI was related to three academic stress sub-scales including individual interests (P = 0.04), reaction to stressors (P = 0.002), and functioning in stressed conditions (P = 0.001).

Prangya Paramita Priyadarshini Das, Suchitra Tripathy (2015) study the role of emotional intelligence on adolescents’ aggression and also a gender difference in emotional intelligence and aggression of adolescents. The aggression scale developed by Buss & Perry, in the year 1992 was used to measure aggression and the emotional intelligence scale developed by Anukool Hyde & Sanjyo Pathe & Upinder Dhar, in the year 1971 was used to measure emotional intelligence of adolescents. Data was collected from 64 adolescents from various Colleges and Universities. It was found that there exists a significant difference between the levels of emotional intelligences (HEI, MEI & LEI) on aggression of adolescent girls as compared to adolescent boys. Boys were found to be more aggressive whereas girls were found to be more emotionally intelligent. For boys emotional intelligence does not influence the level of aggression. There could be some other factors (peer pressure, media violence, and influence of drug) which play an important role in the development of aggression.

Rubina Masum and Imran Khan (2014) investigated the relationship between undergraduate students’ emotional intelligence and aggression. It
considered three hypotheses 1) There is no significant relationship between Emotional Intelligence and aggression of undergraduate students; 2) There is no significant difference between emotional intelligence of males and female undergraduate students; and 3) There is no significant difference between the aggression of male and female undergraduate student. Seventy five male and seventy five female, with a total of one hundred and fifty, undergraduate students participated in the study. The students ranged in age from 18 to 24 years. Two questionnaires were administered to gather data. All participants completed i) Wongand Law Emotional Intelligence Scale as a measure of emotional intelligence, (Wong & Law, 2002), and ii) Buss and Perry Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992), as a measure of aggression. Pearson product-moment correlations were examined indicating an overall significant negative correlation between Emotional Intelligence and Aggression (r = -.212, p < .005). For second and third hypotheses Independent samples t tests indicated significant gender differences with males scoring higher on Aggression (t=5.093, df=148, p<.000) and females scoring higher on Emotional Intelligence (t=-9.487, df =148, p<.000) respectively.

María Angeles Peláez-Fernández, Natalio Extremera1 and Pablo Fernández-Berrocal (2015) explored the moderating role of gender in the relationship between Perceived Emotional Intelligence (PEI) and aggression among adults. The Trait Meta-Mood Scale and the Aggressive Provocation Questionnaire were administered to 338 participants from a Spanish community including both genders, ranging from 19 to 53 years old. Results revealed gender
differences in PEI and aggression dimensions, with higher levels of Attention and frustration in women, and higher levels of Repair and direct aggression in men were found. Correlations between PEI and aggression dimensions showed that among female participants Attention was positively related to feelings of aggression and with direct aggression, while Repair was negatively related to these dimensions. Clarity was positively related to assertive behaviour among women, and Repair correlated positively with assertive behaviour among men. Interaction analyses revealed that gender moderated the relationship between PEI dimensions and aggression, controlling for the effect of age.