Chapter-2

Review of Literature
The review of related literature is necessary in the field of research because through it the researcher can have an understanding of the previous work that has been done in the field of concern. It is a fact that one cannot develop an insight into the problem to be investigated unless one has learnt what others have done and what remains to be done.

The phase review of literature consists of two words “review” and “literature”. The term review means to organize the knowledge of the specific area of research to evolve on edifice of knowledge to show that proposed study would be an addition to this field. In research methodology the term literature refers to the knowledge of the particular area of investigation of any discipline, which includes theoretical, practical and its research studies.

Borg (1978) signifies its importance “the literature in any field forms the foundation upon which all future work will be build. If one fails to build this foundation of knowledge provided by the review of literature, one’s work is likely to be shallow and naive and will often duplicate work that has already been done better by some one else.” In writing the literature review, one’s purpose is to convey to one’s reader what knowledge and idea have been established on a topic and what their strengths and weaknesses are. Generally the purpose of a review is to analyze critically a segment classification and comparison of prior research studies, review of literature and theoretical articles.

Practically all human knowledge can be found in books and libraries. Unlike other animals that must start new with each generation man builds upon the accumulated and recorded knowledge of the past. His constant adding to the vast store of knowledge makes possible progress in all areas of human endeavors.

Thus a review of related literature calls for a deep insight perspective of the over all field. It is a crucial step which invariably minimizes the risk of dead ends, rejected studies, wasted efforts, traits and errors, activity oriented towards approaches already discarded by previous investigations and even more important erroneous findings based on a faulty research design. In the field of research the investigator can have an understanding of the previous work that has been done. One cannot develop
his insight into the problem to be investigated unless one has learnt what others have
done and remains to be done in particular areas of his own research interests.

2.0 RELATED LITERATURE IN THE PRESENT STUDY

The present chapter embodies a brief review of researches done in the area
related to this investigation. Researcher tried to search all related literature from all
possible sources to get acquainted with different problems of desired area, methods
and techniques relevant to the selected problem and to have clear concept of the work
itself. The review of available literature with regard to the impact of coaching
institutes on adolescents’ stress, well-being and on their problems is discussed under
the following heads:-

➢ Studies related to stress of adolescents
➢ Studies related to well-being of adolescents
➢ Studies related to problems of adolescents

2.1 STUDIES RELATED TO STRESS OF ADOLESCENTS

Jones and Hattie (1991) investigated the factors contributing to academic
stress within an adolescent student population, and whether these factors vary across
ethnicity, sex, and grade. Four significant factors were found to contribute to
academic stress which was peer pressure, parental pressure, importance of school and
fear of failure. Peer pressure was found to vary across all variables. Importance of
school and fear of failure were found to vary across ethnicity, sex, and grade and said
that if the aim of many guidance and counseling programs is to reduce academic
stress, then different goals are suggested. Consideration must also be given to the
predominance of academic stressors emanating from non-school sources, such as the
family, parents, and peers, rather than school factors such as teachers.

Zeidner (1992) examined socio-cultural and gender group differences in
perceptions of major sources of academic stress, in addition to the relationship
between reported academic stress and achievement. Assessed academic stressors were
academic curriculum and course requirements, course evaluation procedures, college
instruction, social milieu and cultural factors on campus, college administration and
bureaucracy, physical conditions and accommodations, economic factors, interpersonal factors, student expectations, daily hassles and constraints. Female students were found to be more stressed than their respective, upper class and male counterparts. Cultural group background was found to be the most salient background predictor of student stress, followed by social class and gender, with each exerting independent (non interactive) effects. As a whole, students appeared to be most stressed by pressures originating from course overload and academic evaluation procedures and least stressed by a variety of personal, familial, and social factors. Furthermore, student stress and achievement factors were found to be inversely correlated, with little evidence for the contention that stress differentially debilitates the academic performance of students as a function of gender or socio cultural group membership.

Lee and Larson (1996) tested if coping is related to a reduction in psychological distress and physical symptoms, as experienced by adolescents while enduring highly demanding examination stress. Using the university entrance examination stress faced by adolescents, the study examined whether specific coping strategies for exam stress are related to psychological and physical adjustment and whether these strategies moderate the relationship between additional life event stress and adjustment. Students in the 12th grade reported their level of additional life event stress, the coping strategies they were using to cope with exam and non-exam stress, and their levels of depression and physical symptoms. Problem-solving and information-seeking coping were found to be related to reduction in depression; however, emotional-discharge coping was related to increase in physical symptoms. Coping with exam stress was found to be related to adjustment and independent of the level of additional life event stress.

Duong-Tran et.al. (1996) found academic performance (i.e. studying for a test, personal pressure to get good grades) and parental expectations (i.e. high expectations from parents to do well, fear of failure to meet family expectations) show similarity across ethnic groups. Female adolescents reported higher stress on eight out of 10 life events than males. Personal pressure to get good grades had the highest percentage mean for females. For males, worrying about where to live or getting a job after graduation were the two most endorsed stressful life events.
Larose & Boivin (1998) provided some empirical support for the idea that the transition for academic pursuit is especially stressful for those adolescents who leave home, and may thus activate their attachment system. They found a decline in perceived social support along with increases in anxiety and loneliness during the transition for academic pursuit, but only for those students who had left home for academics. This general increase in personal distress may have led to the activation of these students’ attachment system, given that they also reported more positive relationships with their parents after the transition for academic pursuit, while no change occurred for those students who stayed home.

Sylvia and Rydda (1999) examined the relationship between stressful life events, internalized symptoms of stress, and academic achievement among a sample of students in high school. Using a paper-and-pencil questionnaire, students were administered the Children’s Stress Inventory and two measures of internalized symptoms. Perceived competence was measured using the Harter Perceived Competence Scale. Result revealed main effects for stressful life events and perceived competence on grades, anxiety, and depressive symptomatology. Direct effects of stressful life events and perceived competence on school grades and internalized symptoms were found. Multiplicative interactions for perceived competence were not significant moderators of psychosocial stress on grades or internalized symptoms.

Mishra et al. (2000) examined perceptions of academic stress among male and female students and compared faculty and students perceptions of students academic stress. Results indicated a considerable mismatch between faculty and students in their perceptions of students’ stressors and reactions to stressors. The faculty members perceived the students to experience a higher level of stress and to display reactions to stressors more frequently than the students actually perceived. This could result simply from the faculty observing the students only during their moments of stress in the classroom.

Smith et al. (2002) investigated depression and anxiety among students who were entering medical school prior to the onset of their medical curriculum. Entering students reported financial, day-to-day, academic, and time hassles as concerns. Interestingly, the population characteristics of gender, marital status, and ethnicity impacted the type of self-reported hassles indicated by the students. Measurements of
depression and anxiety indicated that emotional status of fresh medical school students resembled that of the general population. The results suggested that it was the rigors of the medical curriculum that may play an important role in the increased prevalence of depression and anxiety for students during their medical education. Further, students who were entering medical field already had concerns about medical school and were in the process of anticipating the necessary adjustment to the challenges ahead of them. Preventive programming efforts should begin early in medical education and a wide variety of concerns need to be addressed from academic, to interpersonal relationships and financial worries.

**Barbara et.al. (2002)** compared high-anxiety teenagers, with low-anxiety teenagers and found that high-anxiety teenagers expressed higher levels not only of anxiety and stress but also of anger, sadness, and fatigue, along with lower levels of happiness and well-being. They reported fewer conversations and less recreational activity relative to achievement-oriented pursuits, stronger eating and smoking urges, and more tobacco use. There were few gender differences. Despite a tendency to spend less time with peers, high-anxiety teenagers were more likely to show reduced anxiety when in the company of friends and further concluded that even when anxiety problems fell below diagnostic thresholds, the daily lives of anxious adolescents differed meaningfully from those of their peers in affective, behavioral, and contextual domains.

**Mishra and McKeen (2002)** investigated the interrelationship among academic stress, anxiety, time management, and leisure satisfaction among undergraduates by age and gender. Time management behaviors had a greater buffering effect on academic stress than leisure satisfaction activities. Significant gender differences existed among all the measures. Females had more effective time management behaviors than males and also experienced higher academic stress and anxiety. Males benefited more than females from leisure activities. New and tenth class students had higher reactions to stress than seniors. Anxiety, time management, and leisure satisfaction were all predictors of academic stress in the multivariate analysis. Anxiety reduction and time management in conjunction with leisure activities may be an effective strategy for reducing academic stress in college students.
Heisel et.al. (2003) examined the relationship between suicide ideation and various predictive psychological factors in order to improve upon existing models of student suicidality. Specific attention was paid to social hopelessness, an interpersonal form of hopelessness, in the prediction of suicidality. A sample of 143 college students completed measures of suicide ideation, daily stress, depression, general hopelessness, and social hopelessness. Result demonstrated that suicide ideation was associated significantly with daily stress, depression, general hopelessness, and social hopelessness.

Saipanish (2003) determined the prevalence of sources of stress among medical students. A sample of 686 students completed the questionnaires, which consisted of the Thai Stress Test (TST) and questions asking about sources of stress. The results showed that about 61.4% of students had some degree of stress. Seventeen students (2.4%) reported a high level of stress. The prevalence of stress was highest among medical students. Academic problems were found to be a major source of stress among all students. The most prevalent source of academic stress was the test/exam.

Acharya (2003) investigate the perceived sources of stress and the role of parents in its etiology among students. The main sources of stress were found to be fear of facing parents after failure, full loaded day, and fear of failing course or year. Students whose first choice of admission was dentistry experienced less stress than students whose first choice was another fields of medical sciences. Also the students who joined an educational program due to parental pressure showed greater stress than those who joined of their own accord. Male students experienced greater stress than females. The results of this study indicated that a congenial environment needs to be created for dental education and parents also need to be counseled against forcing their children to join an educational program that is not of their choice.

Murberg and Bru (2004) examined the relationships between school-related stress, gender and psychosomatic symptoms among adolescents. Results showed that 18.1 percent reported being ‘very much’ affected by at least one of the assessed psychosomatic symptoms. Girls reported significantly more psychosomatic symptoms than did boys. Tests of the dimensionality of the school-related stress that was assessed in the study showed four main categories: (1) difficulties with peers (2)
worries about achievement; (3) schoolwork pressure and (4) conflicts with parents and/or teachers. Analyses showed that scores for the different stressors were significantly associated with psychosomatic symptoms. Findings suggest that frequency of psychosomatic symptoms might be related to how well pupils adapt to the demands of school and to the interpersonal climate of the school. Girls reported significantly more stress that was related to worries about school achievement, whereas boys reported significantly more stress arising from conflicts with parents and/or teachers. Finally, stress due to difficulties with peers at school was more closely correlated with psychosomatic symptoms among boys than among girls.

Kockar and Gencoz (2004) investigated the importance of different sources of perceived social support, sociotropic and autonomic personality dispositions, achievement expectation, and importance of academic achievement in predicting anxiety symptoms of male and female students who were preparing for the university entrance exam. Three hundred and forty students with ages varying from 16 to 21 participated in the study. Separate multiple regression analyses were run for males and females in predicting anxiety symptoms. The total Sociotropy score and the total Social Support score predicted anxiety for females, whereas for males, anxiety was predicted by four variables, namely, Achievement Expectancy, Concern over Approval, Social Support from Family, and Social Support from Friends.

Ross et.al. (2005) examined rates of depression and the associations between depression and stress, emotional support, and self-esteem among Thai nursing students. Students completed three instruments that had been translated into Thai: The Center for Epidemiology Studies Depression Scale, Perceived Stress Questionnaire, and Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. Another instrument created in Thai was used to measure emotional support. Results revealed that, when using the standard definition, 50.1% of the students were depressed. Stress was positively related to depression, whereas emotional support and self-esteem were negatively related to depression.

Magaya et.al. (2005) conducted a study on stress and coping strategies among adolescents. This study was conducted on students of 17-19 years of age. Results reveal that the adolescents experience slight stress as measured by the perceived stress scale. Major stressors included schoolwork, relationships, social life and financial hardship. Females reported a higher level of perceived stress than males. Results
indicated that adolescents use emotion-focused strategies more frequently than problem-focused strategies to cope.

The result of the study conducted by Botsari (2005) showed that girls were more vulnerable to depressive symptoms than boys and this gender difference widened during adolescence. The effect of self-perception and scholastic competence on depression is stronger for boys than for girls. Parent relations are more significant for girls than for boys. The effect of relationships with parents on the adolescents' psychological adjustment weakened during adolescence, being always stronger for girls than for boys. Classmate support increased with increasing age with boys and girls equally benefiting from supportive relationships with their peers. In early adolescence parent relations' influence perceived classmate support, whereas in late adolescence family and peers appear to form two wholly independent social worlds. Self-esteem has an important mediating function on the adolescent self-system.

Bernier et.al. (2005) compared students who were planning on leaving home to attend college, to their autonomous counterparts. Preoccupied students who had left home reported having a more negative relationship with each parent and experiencing more family-related stress. However, they reported having more contact with each parent. These individuals show anger and give very negative evaluations of their relationship with their parents, yet are enmeshed in the relationship to a point where they have difficulty stepping back to take a healthy distance from their parents. In contrast, no attachment differences with regards to perceptions of the parent-adolescent relationship were found among students who lived at home while in college. The study suggested that individual differences related to attachment state of mind in adolescence may be magnified by a stressful life experience.

Argy and Divaris (2005) identified sources of stress in dental education and explored the role of year of study and gender on perceived stressors and found that gender differences existed in most of the perceived stressors, whereas stress intensity greatly differed by year of study. Study suggested that, irrespective of gender, senior students were less concerned about class work overload, training difficulties and course failing, but were significantly more insecure about their professional future. Entry-level students appeared to be the most concerned about the lack of time for
relaxation. However, they were the least stressed about completing study requirements compared with the rest of their peers.

Malik and Balda (2006) aimed at finding if any relationships existed between psychological stress and academic achievement of high IQ adolescents. Subjects were high IQ adolescents and had IQ which was 110 and above. Bisht Battery of stress scales was used to assess the amount of stress on these adolescents. Academic achievement was assessed on the basis of average of marks obtained in last three examinations. Academic achievement was found to be negatively and significantly correlated with all types of stresses except existential stress.

Latha & Reddy (2006) found main sources of stress in both genders were getting up early in the morning, pressure to study, having to concentrate for too long during college hours, not having enough money to buy things, and long college hours. Prayer was the main coping strategy used by both genders. Males had larger social network than females.

Aug et al. (2006) explored gender differences in life stressors of adolescents who died by suicide. Three main classes of life stressors have been identified to be significant risk factors for suicide in adolescents: interpersonal/relationship problems, family problems, and academic/school problems. The age of these individuals ranged from 10 to 19 years with a mean age of 16.49. Results reported that significantly more females were found to have had interpersonal/relationship problems as recent life stressors compared with males. No gender differences were found for the other two life stressors, family problems and academic/school problems. In addition, among the three life stressors studied, only interpersonal/relationship problems emerged as a significant predictor of female child and adolescent suicide.

Jain and Jain (2007) investigated the role of perceived parental encouragement in male and female adolescent students attending coaching institutions and found that the boys attending coaching experienced higher level of academic anxiety than self studying boys, contrary to it; girls attending coaching tend to be less anxious than self studying girls. Similarly, boys attending coaching exhibited more academic anxiety than the girls attending coaching and self-studying boys showed less anxiety than self-studying girls.
Dubat et al. (2007) undertook a study in two schools selected at random each from Hyderabad and Hisar. Results highlighted that most of the adolescent respondents experienced moderate stress followed by high level of stress in the categories of family stress, ego threat, bereavement, personal set back and health of others. Educational stress was encountered by majority of adolescents. Most of the adolescents adopted moderate to low level of negative coping styles and moderate to high level of positive coping styles.

Jose and Kilburg (2007) showed that girls reported higher levels of self-image and peer relations stress, and reported using isolation and problem-solving coping more than externalizing coping than males. Younger adolescents reported higher stress in the domains of school, peer relations, and family relations, whereas older adolescents reported higher self-image problems. Females were found to be more responsive to appearance, family, and peer difficulties. Affiliation coping by females operated as a buffer between appearance anxiety and dissatisfaction with appearance. Externalizing coping was not associated with peer relations satisfaction for males, but it was negatively associated for females.

2.2 STUDIES RELATED TO WELL-BEING OF ADOLESCENTS

2.2.1 Studies related to out of home adaptation

Fisher and Hood (1987) examined the relationship between homesickness and a number of demographic and personal characteristics of first year students. Their findings showed that there were no sex differences in the reports of homesickness, and that homesickness was largely independent of age. Furthermore, their results indicated that those students who reported high levels of homesickness had a tendency to view their home environments in positive terms, suggesting that when they had positive experiences in the past, it made it harder for them to leave their homes behind. Finally, their results indicated that, "homesick individuals had greater psychological disturbances particularly manifest in raised obsessionality scores, somatic symptoms reporting and depression".

Fisher and Hood (1988) conducted a study on the psychological reaction to the transition to university in 198 first year residential students. Female subjects had
higher levels of psychological disturbance and cognitive failure. Thirty-one per cent of the subjects reported experiencing homesickness. These subjects had higher levels of psychological disturbance and cognitive failure than non-homesick subjects. There were no sex differences in homesickness reporting. The non-homesick group was found to be more likely to have been away from home before either to attend boarding school or to take holidays. This suggests either that selective aspects of previous mobility experience are beneficial or that self-selection factors operate in that those who do not feel distress at leaving home are more likely to acquire mobility experience.

Burt (1993) found that persistent feelings of homesickness can lead to a lack of concentration and ability to perform, along with absent-mindedness and cognitive failures and further concluded that homesickness in college students is an issue that must be taken seriously, for it can influence one's level of success in adapting to their new lives.

Thurber (1995) assessed homesickness in children (8 to 16 years) on a daily basis during either a 2 or 4-week period of separation from primary caregivers. Results supported that homesickness was prevalent and varied in intensity. 83% of the boys reported some homesickness on at least 1 day during their stay and 5.8% experienced severe depression and anxiety. Homesickness was experienced as a combination of depression and anxiety, particularly the former. Younger boys were at greater risk for homesickness than older boys. Homesickness presented most often as internalizing behavior and was sometimes detectable to observers who knew the boys. 63% of the boys who self-reported moderate or high levels of homesickness were judged by observers to be homesick. Inconsistent with popular notions, the most homesick boys became progressively more homesick over the course of their separation, experiencing a significant drop in homesickness just before reuniting with parents.

Thurber & Weisz (1997) examined both age and stressor controllability as predictors of how boys coped with two common stressors in an out of residential setting: Homesickness (in the context of a relatively uncontrollable separation) and competitive loss (in the context of a relatively controllable game or match). Older boys used more secondary control coping (adjusting oneself to fit objective
conditions), for the objectively uncontrollable stressor of homesickness, but not for the more controllable stressor of competitive loss.

**Thurber & Sigman (1998)** analyzed 14 predictors and 8 sequelae of homesickness. The sample consisted of 293 boys 8-16 years of age. This study tested 2 alternate models, focusing on the roles of boys' interpersonal attitudes, perceived control, and separation expectations in the subsequent development of homesickness. Results indicated that interpersonal attitudes and perceived control might predict boys' preseparation beliefs about whether they will become homesick. This "homesick disposition" combines with little prior separation experience to account for 69% of the variance in self-reported homesickness. Homesickness was not a powerful predictor of negative emotion, whereas interpersonal attitudes and perceived control predicted 70% of the variance in negative emotion.

**Bell and Bromnick (1998)** examined the relationship between homesickness and self-disclosure, which was seen as a possible mediating factor among students at the start of their first semester and then 6 weeks later. The results showed that homesickness declined during the semester whilst levels of self-disclosure increased. A significant negative association was found between levels of self-disclosure and homesickness at both time periods. High self-disclosers experienced a significantly greater reduction in homesickness than low self-disclosers. The results showed the importance of the socially-mediated and supportive benefits of self-disclosure during this life transition.

**Van-Tilburg et. al. (1998)** revealed that mental escape (coping style) and neuroticism (personality trait) predicted homesickness chronicity. Mental escape can be regarded as a relatively ineffective way of coping with homesickness. Daydreaming and fantasizing about home and wishful thinking are associated with homesickness chronicity. As the interference of neuroticism on the timely recovery of homesickness was greater than the effect of any coping style, personality seems to be more important than coping style. Recovery from homesickness was mainly attributed to making new friends. It is argued that new friends promote the adaptation process, keeping feelings of homesickness and the tendency to daydream and fantasize about home.
A study conducted by Miranda et al. (1999) examined the impact of coping strategies and basic personality styles on the one hand and timely recovery of homesickness on the other hand in female students. In order to study whether certain coping strategies and personality styles were associated with chronicity of homesickness, a sample of homesick female students was split up into those who were chronically homesick (N=29) and those who were not (N=30). Analyses revealed that mental escape (coping style) and neuroticism (personality trait) predicted homesickness chronicity. Mental escape can be regarded as a relatively ineffective way of coping with homesickness. Daydreaming and fantasizing about home and wishful thinking are associated with homesickness chronicity. As the interference of neuroticism on the timely recovery of homesickness was greater than the effect of any coping style, personality seems to be more important than coping style. Recovery from homesickness was mainly attributed to making new friends. It is argued that new friends promote the adaptation process, keeping feelings of homesickness and the tendency to daydream and fantasize about home, at bay.

Thurber & Sigman (1999) examined homesickness in 117 girls in the age group 8 to 16 years. Elevated preseparation levels of homesickness, high expectations of homesickness, negative separation attitudes, low decision control, and little previous separation experience predicted levels of homesickness. During the separation, homesickness was associated with insecure interpersonal attitudes, negative initial impressions of the novel environment, high perceived distance from home, and low perceived control. Female surrogate caregivers rated homesick girls as having lower social status and more somatic complaints, social problems and externalizing behavior than less homesick girls. Although the prevalence, intensity and longitudinal course of homesickness in girls did not differ from analogous samples of boys, girls' profile of risk factors, correlated and sequelae is unique in its mixed behavioral presentation and small correlations with age and experience.

Urani et al. (2003) indicated that there was a statistically significant positive relationship between social anxiety and homesickness. This may be the case because socially anxious individuals tend to worry especially much about their environment. The change in their support network may have an especially great impact on them. Initial level of social anxiety does not have a statistically significant relationship with
homesickness later on in the semester. Initially, everyone may feel elevated levels of anxiety about starting college. Examination of the mean values for homesickness suggested that homesickness did decline over time for the sample as a whole. As predicted, there is a statistically significant negative relationship between social anxiety later on in the semester and levels of social support at school. It appeared that socially anxious individuals might have difficulty in establishing new support networks, as demonstrated by these lower levels of social support. Furthermore, level of social support later at school has a statistically significant negative relationship with level of homesickness. Hence, it appears that the presence of social support acted as a buffer for the experience of homesickness. Since individuals with high social anxiety had trouble establishing these relationships, they may be especially prone to homesickness.

Thurber (2005) suggested that combining environmental information, psychoeducation, social support, explicit coping instruction, caregiver education, practice time away from home and surrogate caregiver training can reduce homesickness and associated behavior problems. The data support the theory that novelty reduction, attitudinal shifts, preseparation coping enhancement and supportive social environments diminish the negative emotional intensity of homesickness.

Nijhof & Engels (2007) examined the role of parenting styles on the experience and expression of homesickness, and the way of coping with the feelings involved. Result indicated that students raised by authoritative and permissive parents experienced more homesickness with stronger feelings of homesickness than students reared by authoritarian or uninvolved parents. However, they hardly express homesickness by internalizing or externalizing problems when they use effective ways of coping, namely support-seeking and/or problem-solving. Students with parents endorsing an authoritarian or uninvolved parenting style, on the other hand, showed more internalizing and externalizing problems in reaction to feelings of homesickness. They also use less effective coping strategies. The results revealed the importance of a loving and accepting home environment for the development and expression of homesickness, as well as the importance of the way in which students learn to cope with their problems.
2.2.2 Studies related to happiness

Flouri and Buchanan (2003) found that both father and mother involvement contributed significantly and independently to offspring happiness, father involvement had a stronger effect. Furthermore, the association between father involvement and happiness was not stronger for sons than for daughters. There was no evidence suggesting that family disruption weakens the association between father involvement and happiness, or that father involvement is more strongly related to offspring happiness when mother involvement is low rather than high.

Natvig et.al. (2003) found that increasing degree of stress experience reduced the feeling of happiness significantly. Furthermore, increasing levels of general self-efficacy increased the episodes of feeling happy, whereas the more specific measure of school self-efficacy showed no independent effect. Social support from teachers also enhanced happiness significantly. A less consistent pattern was found for support from peers, but the happiest pupils experienced significantly more support than pupils who reported being unhappy. No significant trend was found with decision control. An association between happiness and psychosomatic symptoms was also explored. Pupils feeling unhappy reported a particular symptom more often and they also had the highest mean number of reported symptoms.

Srivastava & Sinha (2005) explored the relationship of resilience, happiness and self esteem with well-being using a sample of undergraduate students from a premier technological institute located in north India. Result showed that resiliency and happiness were positively related to well-being. Happiness had positive association with resilience but negative association with self-esteem. Self-esteem was negatively associated with resilience and well-being.

Mahon et.al. (2005) examined the relationship between happiness and several health variables, such as perceived health status, clinical health and wellness, on a sample of 151 early adolescents. The results indicated that there were no gender differences in happiness between boys and girls. Statistically significant positive correlations were found between happiness and the health-related variables for the entire sample, with different patterns of relationships when boys and girls were analyzed separately.
2.2.3 Studies related to physical health status

Alexander (1989) reported that gender has been shown to be an important variable in studies of health status and illness behaviors. This study of 745 students examined gender differences in the reported health concerns, self-assessed health status and illness behaviors of young adolescents. A 28-item health concern inventory was used to measure emotional, social, physical and drug-related health concerns. For girls, emotional and social concerns were highly associated with poorer perceived health, while for boys; physical concerns differentiated those in fair or poor health from those who saw themselves as healthy. Physical concerns were significantly associated with reported school absenteeism due to illness, attendance of school when ill and physician visits for both boys and girls. Emotional concerns were related to greater numbers of school days missed or days attended when ill for girls but not for boys.

Fuligni (2005) examined the daily dynamics of adolescent sleep time, activities and psychological well-being among 750 adolescents approximately 14 to 15 years of age. The author reported that studying and stressful demands during the day were modestly but consistently associated with less sleep that evening. Receiving less sleep at night, in turn, was modestly but consistently related to higher levels of anxiety, depressive feelings and fatigue during the following day. In addition, the daily variability in adolescents' sleep time was notable and just as important for the youths' average levels of daily psychological well-being as was the average amount of time spent sleeping each night.

2.2.4 Studies related to satisfaction

Baker (1999) examined teacher-student interactions and relationship quality among children expressing differential academic satisfaction. Multiple methods of data collection, including classroom observation, interviews and self-report questionnaires, were used with 61 students. Results suggested that perceptions of a caring, supportive relationship with a teacher and a positive classroom environment were related to school satisfaction. A different pattern of behavioral interactions with teachers was noted between students expressing high and low satisfaction with school, although this was not an important contributor to students' academic satisfaction.
Natvig et al. (2003) found an increasing amount of group work increased the perception of social support from teachers and peers, but showed no significant association with stress. Increasing amounts of class discussions were significantly related to increasing perception of social support, in particular among boys. Class discussions also seemed to reduce the experience of stress, although somewhat inconsistently. Increasing amounts of independent work increased stress, but also increased the perception of social support from peers among boys. No significant associations with traditional teacher instruction were found. Verbal activity was strongly related both to increasing perception of social support and decreasing experiences of stress.

Jose and Luis (2005) assessed the relationship between work characteristics, student’s well-being and performance. Results suggest that student’s satisfaction with academic life and anxiety/depression levels were strongly dependent on their perceptions of work characteristics. Level of satisfaction had a direct impact on student performance and mediates the relationship between academic work control and performance.

2.2.5 Studies related to recreational involvement

Joanne and Krashen (1996) indicated that boys are much more avid comic book readers than girls; half the girls in the sample indicated that they never read comic books, and very few read them "always". For boys, more comic book reading was strongly associated with more pleasure reading, more reading enjoyment, and more book reading. The results also showed that comic book reading does not inhibit other types of reading. The study did not specifically attempt to determine whether comic book readers are better readers, but the findings strongly suggested that this may be true.

Mitchell and Ley (1996) tested the self-reported attitudes and behaviors of high school students in a small southern industrial community towards reading and relate the findings to gender, grade and achievement level. Females reported significantly more positive attitudes towards reading for individual development, utilitarian, and enjoyment purposes than males. However, both male and female students scored highest on the utilitarian measure, suggesting that they value reading
most highly for achieving success at school. Students in grade 12 reported a more positive attitude about reading for individual development than students in grade 9, although the value of reading for enjoyment and levels of voluntary reading remain stable through the grade levels. Students in achievement levels 3 and 4 reported significantly stronger attitudes towards reading for utility than students in achievement levels 1 and 2, and students in level 4 had a significantly more positive attitude towards reading for individual development than students at level 3. The utilitarian subscale was the best predictor of achievement level group membership. Students in achievement level 4 reported a significantly more positive attitude towards reading for enjoyment than students at any other level. Level two students reported greater reading activity frequency than students at the other three levels. The differences between reading attitude and reading behavior might be accounted for by the extra attention to reading in class that students receive at this level, or by the possibility of less homework being assigned to lower level students, leaving them with more leisure for reading. In general, students valued reading most for its contribution to academic success, least for their own enjoyment, and reported low levels of voluntary reading.

Hoffman et al. (1996) conducted a survey of Internet use among people 16 years of age and older in the United States in order to obtain a baseline in August 1995. They found that for people in the 16 to 24 age range, 22.1% were characterized as using the Internet and the World Wide Web at a high rate, while 15.5% did not use the Internet or the web at all. They also found a strong relationship between type of access, computer and modem ownership, length of time of computer use, and the segments of time on the Internet and web. Another finding was that women were more likely to use the Internet for e-mail, while men were more likely to download software and make purchases. Males also reported being more skilled than females at navigating the web.

The Policy Information Center of the Educational Testing Service Network (1999) provided a summary of their research on the status of technology in United States schools, which included information regarding computer usage patterns of students. They found that among school goers, playing games was the most prevalent computer use. Writing stories and papers was the most frequently rated
computer use at home and school by eleventh graders. Ten percent of eighth graders and 19% of twelfth graders said they used a computer for schoolwork almost daily, while 51% of eighth graders and 37% of twelfth graders said that they never used a computer for schoolwork.

The study conducted by Verma et.al. (2002) examined the influence of school demands on the daily time use and subjective states of Indian young people. One hundred urban, middle class, students carried alarm watches for 1 week and provided 4764 reports on their activities and subjective states at random times, following the procedures of the Experience Sampling Method. These adolescents were found to spend one third of their waking time in school-related activities, with girls spending more time than boys. Schoolwork generated negative subjective states as reflected in low affect state, below-average activation levels, lower feeling of choice, and higher social anxiety. These negative states were most frequent during homework. The trade-off faced by Indian adolescents were evident in the findings that those who spent more time doing homework experienced lower average emotional states and more internalising problems, while those who spent more time in leisure experienced more favourable states but also reported higher academic anxiety and lower scholastic achievement.

Iwasaki (2003) found that leisure coping beliefs (leisure-generated dispositional coping resources) significantly predicted lower levels of mental and physical ill-health and greater levels of psychological well-being above and beyond the effects of general coping. Also, the use of leisure coping strategies (situation-specific stress coping strategies through leisure) was significantly associated with higher levels of perceived coping effectiveness and stress reduction when the effects of general coping were taken into account. Significant contributions of specific leisure coping dimensions were found as well.

Chou and Tsai (2003) explored the correlates of high school students' motivations, behaviors and pleasures related to computer game playing. Five hundred and thirty five valid data were collected. The results indicated that respondents spend an average of 4.15 hours per week playing computer games. Respondents reported that they play games primarily for entertainment, for seeking information, and for filling time and as social device. They experience most pleasure in this shared
experience, followed by excitement and fantasy. The stronger the motivation to play, the greater the pleasure players experience in playing.

**Sturm (2003)** indicated that children's subject preferences when entering a school or public library centered on animals, science, sports, and literature. Secondary preferences included biography, history, computers, careers, the library collection, and transportation. This study indicated a higher preference for computers and poetry, and a lower preference for the supernatural.

**Abeyrathna and Zainab (2004)** explored the leisure reading habits and interest among secondary school students from Sri Lanka. The study also observed the students attitude towards reading, their use of the library and knowledge of how the library are organized for locating needed materials. The problems students face in obtaining reading materials was also identified. The study used a structured questionnaire as the survey instrument. The findings generally indicated that the students read regularly outside school hours. This reading however, is mainly confined to textbooks and mainly carried out for the purpose of acquiring knowledge or for study. Consequently, the library is used mainly to study or do homework rather than to borrow items to read at leisure. Most students indicate positive attitude towards the library for providing them with the facility to carry out their study or meet friends, but hardly use the services the library provides. Most express dissatisfaction with their library's collection.

**Meyer et.al. (2004)** explored the patterns of self-reported sport activity, habitual physical activity and physical fitness, and associated indicators of self-reported health, health-relevant attitudes, and resources. Women demonstrated a lower prevalence of sport activity than men but a higher prevalence of habitual physical activity. Forty-six percent of the women but 80% of the men reported a high level of fitness. The results further reveal that, sport activity in the women was significantly associated with indicators of health, health-relevant attitudes such as internal and external health locus of control, and social class. Among the men, no association with health-relevant orientation could be found. The probability of habitual physical activity among the women was associated with perceived good health, health-relevant orientation and social class, while related factors among the men were indicators of health. In both women and men, perceived good health was
strongly associated with self-reported physical fitness. Additionally, women's fitness was related to perceived disease-related limitation and indicators of health status.

Li et.al. (2006) explored the socio demographic and environmental factors at community, school, and household levels associated with physical inactivity and found that girls were twice as likely to be inactive. Adolescents aged 14 years were 30% less likely to be inactive compared with those younger than 13 years. Paternal education was inversely associated with inactivity. Adolescents living in neighborhoods without sidewalks were 1.3 times more likely to be inactive. At the school level, lack of extracurricular exercise and fewer sports meetings were associated with physical inactivity. Difficult access to community recreational facilities and concerns about safety in the neighborhood were associated with inactivity. There were some differences associated with physical inactivity between boys and girls.

Cummings and Vandewater (2007) assessed the differences in time spent between game players and non-players as well as the magnitude of the relationships among game time and activity time among adolescent game players. Thirty-six percent of adolescents (80% of boys and 20% of girls) played video games. On average, gamers played for an hour on the weekdays and an hour and a half on the weekends. Compared with non-gamers, adolescent gamers spent 30% less time reading and 34% less time doing homework. Among gamers (both genders), time spent playing video games without parents or friends was negatively related to time spent with parents and friends in other activities.

Hughes-Hassell & Rodge (2007) found that seventy-two percent of the students indicated that they engaged in reading as a leisure activity. Twenty-two percent adolescents read “constantly,” and 50% indicated they “read when they get a chance.” Six percent of the adolescents indicated that they do not read; the other 22% said they read only for school. Females were more likely to read for pleasure than males (78% versus 64%). This finding clearly revealed that female adolescents were more likely than male adolescents to engage in leisure reading. In this study, both males (68%) and females (76%) showed a strong preference for magazines. The majority (69%) of the students reported that they read more than two books per month outside of school. Sixteen percent of the students indicated that they read less than
one book per month, and 15% reported that they did not read books except for school assignments. The reading incentive program, which has been in place for five years, rewards students for reading books. This may account for the large percentage of students who indicated that they read more than two books per month outside of school. The students seemed to do most of their reading after school or at night. Only 17% of the students indicated that they read on the weekend. Reading during summer vacation was also not popular with either gender. Only 15% of the males and 20% of the girls reported that they continue to read for pleasure during the summer months.

Graves et al. (2008) compared the energy expenditure of adolescents when playing sedentary and new generation active computer games. Participants were fitted with a monitoring device validated to predict energy expenditure. They played four computer games for 15 minutes each. One of the games was sedentary (XBOX 360) and the other three were active (Wii Sports). The results found that playing new generation active computer games uses significantly more energy than playing sedentary computer games but not as much energy as playing the sport itself. The energy used when playing active Wii Sports games was not of high enough intensity to contribute towards the recommended daily amount of exercise in children.

2.2.6 Other studies of well-being

In a longitudinal study over 4 years, Cassidy (2000) investigated the relationship between home background, achievement motivation, optimism, psychological well-being and self-rated health among 149 adolescents. The participants were assessed at school at age 16 years and then at two follow up points, 2 years and 4 years later. Result showed that the home background variables of socioeconomic status, family size and parental employment predict psychological well-being, self-rated health, achievement motivation and optimism at subsequent stages. Achievement motivation and optimism play a mediating role between home background and the outcome measures of self-rated health and psychological well-being. Furthermore achievement motivation appears to only take on an important role in terms of the development of identity.

Katja et al. (2002) examined the relationship among subjective well-being (SWB), school satisfaction, and health behavior of secondary school students. Result
indicated that school satisfaction, body satisfaction, and self-rated good health explained 50% of the variance in global satisfaction among female respondents. For males, most significant predictors for global satisfaction included, in addition to those observed among girls, low-intensity drinking which explained 31% of the variance. The most significant associations for global ill being for females were school dissatisfaction, high-intensity drinking, and self-rated moderate health, explaining 34% of the variance. In global ill being, the variables of body dissatisfaction and regular drinking explained only 14% of the variance for boys. The results support the need to enhance adolescent positive attitudes toward life and school, self-perception, and adolescent coping with negative emotions.

Reitzes & Jaret (2006) studied college students with respect to role identity, social identity, and personal identity measures and explored their impact on social psychological well-being (i.e., self-esteem, self-efficacy, and self-authenticity). Result indicated that identity positively influenced well-being; and social identity negatively influenced well-being; positional identity had a positive impact on self-esteem and self-authenticity, while identity affiliation did not influence well-being; and high-energy personal identity had a positive impact on well-being, while an expressive personal identity negatively influenced self-efficacy.

Roese et al. (2008) examined relations between early adolescent girls' well-being, achievement, and emerging identities. Result showed that girls' moral and student identities were the strongest predictors of their achievement, whereas their moral, student, physical, and peer identities predicted their well-being. Person-centered results delineated four subgroups of girls based on their profiles of well-being and achievement. The largest group of girls (46%) was characterized by well-being and positive school achievement and had balanced adult and peer-oriented identities. The second largest group (35%), characterized by emotional distress and average school achievement had positive student and negative physical and peer identity representations. The third group (12%), characterized by emotional distress and poor school achievement, reported pervasive negative representations. The final group (7%), characterized by well-being and poor achievement, did not consider themselves good students but did see themselves as physically attractive.
Swani (2008) highlighted the consequences of negative and positive emotions on health and stated that positive emotions produce optimal functioning not just within the present but over the long term as well. Negative emotions, on the other hand, can produce and intensify a variety of health threats and disease, whose onset and course is influenced by the immune system.

2.3 STUDIES RELATED TO PROBLEMS OF ADOLESCENTS

Ystgaard (1997) examined psychological distress in high-school students in relation to negative life events, long-lasting adversities and perceived social support from the family, friends and the academic class. Academic problems increased the symptom levels of psychological distress and social support from family and social support from friends reduced the symptoms among males and females. For females, social support from class-mates and problems with parents and friends also had direct independent effects on symptom levels. An effect of the total number of long-lasting adversities was significantly stronger for females than males.

Okasha (2001) compared 178 students with academic problems with 77 academically successful students. Academic difficulty showed highly significant associations with low socio-economic status, over-crowded housing, paternal behavior problems and a poor relationship between the parents; also significant associations with family history of psychiatric disorder and living away from home. Academic achievement at school was no guide to university performance. Failed students had fewer friendships, especially with women and more limited recreational activities. They also scored significantly lower on tests of verbal and non-verbal IQ, and worse on the trail-making tests. Results suggest that university students, particularly those with academic difficulties, were more neurotic and introverted than the general population.

A preliminary study was conducted by Valas (2001) to test the direction of the relationship between learned helplessness, assessed by the teacher and own expectation about academic achievement. The results show that academic achievement was directly and indirectly related to the pattern of attributions, expectations, helplessness and psychological adjustment. Moreover, helplessness and academic expectations were significantly related to psychological adjustment. The
results also clearly found that boys showed more helpless behavior, as assessed by the teacher, than did girls, while, on the other hand, girls reported more psychological maladjustment.

The investigation by Clary & Thieman (2002) examined 2 key questions. First, do individuals assign responsibility exclusively to the person or external forces, or do they exhibit a pattern of distributing responsibility among several causes? And second, do the models provide superior explanatory power relative to the individual attributions? College students provided information about their assumptions about causes and solutions to their own academic problems. Students revealed all 3 patterns. Furthermore, those making self-attributions of responsibility for solutions had higher grade point averages (GPAs) than did those making other attributions.

Thoen & Bru (2004) explored the relations between coping styles and emotional and behavioral problems among adolescent students. The study was conducted as a survey among a representative sample of 2006. The results show that emotional problems were associated with self-blaming as well as aggressive coping. Off-task orientation was associated with little use of planning and frequent use of aggressive coping. Finally, aggressive coping was the main predictor of externalizing problems, with infrequent use of planning and frequent use of behavioral disengagement as other significant predictors.

To explore the learning difficulties and learning approaches of students Mayya et.al. (2004) administered a locally developed ‘Approaches to Learning Inventory (ALI). Examination marks of the students were also collected. Learning approach and learning difficulties were summarized by computing mean, standard deviation and percentage of students experiencing some of the academic and non-academic problems. Spearman’s correlation was computed between standardized scores of examination marks, learning approach and learning difficulty scale scores. Academic performance has shown significant negative correlation with surface approach and various problems of learners like fear of failure and lack of confidence, non-academic distracters and poor English language ability. The results demonstrated significant positive association between surface approach and various problems of the
learners. The students have also reported a number of academic and non-academic problems.

Shaikh & Deschamps (2006) found that the majority of students had complains about the living conditions and mentioned that they were not in sound health. Stress, depression, fatigue, insomnia, and problems with diet were common. Students suffered more due to culture shock, language, and nostalgia. A tendency for suicides had been observed, especially in girls. Financial problems, too much to study, and relationship break-up were other important factors. For their health problems, they generally sought advice from a peer and consumed medicines without prescription.

Chow (2007) revealed that sex, educational aspirations, hours spent on studying, father's education, physical health, financial stress, and stress due to balancing work, school, and social life were found to be significantly associated with academic performance. More specifically, female students and those who reported higher educational aspirations, indicated better physical health, experienced less financial stress or stress due to finance or to balancing work, school, and social life, spent more time on studying, and those whose father had a higher level of education were found to perform better academically. On the other hand, income, physical health, relationship with significant other, relationship with family, relationships with friends, self image and academic stress were found to be significantly related to psychological well-being. Respondents who had a higher family income, reported better physical health, expressed a higher degree of satisfaction with their relationships with family, friends and significant other, indicated a more positive self-image and experienced less academic stress were found to exhibit a significantly higher level of psychological well-being.

Raju & Rahamtulla (2007) intended a study to examine the adjustment problems of school students from urban and rural schools. The variables included for the study apart from adjustment (family, social, academic, financial and emotional) are age, gender, class and type of school. The study was conducted on a sample of 461 students (197 boys, 264 girls) randomly selected from the various government and private schools. A standardized questionnaire developed by Jain (1972) was adopted for this study. The data was analyzed to examine the influence of individual
factors on adjustment variables. The major findings of the study have shown that adjustment of students is primarily dependent on the school variables like the class in which they are studying, the medium of instruction present in the school, and the type of management of the school. Parental education and occupation of the school children also significantly influenced adjustment.

**Abolfotouh et.al. (2007)** assessed health-related lifestyles and their determinants among 600 students living in hostels. Data were collected by questionnaires and anthropometric and blood pressure measurements were taken. Most students were not satisfied with their situation in terms of accommodation, health and support. About 86% ate unhealthy diets, 33.8% were physically inactive, 25.3% were overweight or at risk of becoming overweight, 17.5% of male students were current smokers and 32.2% had poor sleep behaviours. About 28% of the students adopted 3 or more risk behaviours. About 23% reported low perceived health status and 80.3% felt they had low to moderate social support.

**Ginsberg (2008)** proposed that students who have more academic worries would report less sleep than those who have less academic worries. It was also proposed that an increase in sleep disturbances attributed to worry would predict less sleep. The results indicated that academic worry and sleep disturbance ascribed to worry were negatively correlated with sleep length. The analyses further indicated that academic worry does not predict sleep length above and beyond sleep disturbance ascribed to worry, and that academic worry was significantly negatively related to sleep length regardless of sleep disturbance ascribed to worry.

**Simonsson et.al. (2008)** examined the relation between psycho-somatic complaints (PSC) and sense of coherence (SOC). The results showed that there is a statistically significant relation between PSC and SOC among adolescents. It also shows that adolescents with a weak SOC score have more symptoms of PSC. The study also indicated that SOC can help the adolescents to choose a coping strategy that is appropriate for the situation and thereby may prevent them from developing PSC.

**Flook and Fuligni (2008)** found that when adolescents experienced family stress, they had more problems with attendance and learning at school the next day.
When they had attendance and learning problems, they experienced more family stress the following day. These spillover effects continued for two days after the initial stressor occurred. Teenagers who experienced family stress had school adjustment problems not only the next day, but two days later. Similarly, teens with academic problems reported family stress for the next two days. It was also reported that stress also affected academic performance across the high school years. Adolescents who had higher levels of family stress and school problems at the start of high school, in 9th grade, saw declining academic achievement four years later, at the end of 12th grade. The finding indicated that there are indeed short and long-term consequences of daily stress that should not be overlooked. The two-directional process of spillover between family and school suggested that reducing stress in the family may have benefits for adolescents’ school adjustment and vice versa.

**Conclusion:** - The related literature and the studies cited above makes it clear that academic settings affect adolescents’ life. The academic settings affect the level of stress, problems and well-being of adolescents. Stress creates many problems and imbalances the life of adolescents. Several studies have traced out the reason for homesickness and stress among adolescents and about their effect on them. The investigator reviewed a number of studies related to adolescents and their life status yet other studies reviewed were related to the institutional settings. Few studies have been reviewed related to health and psycho-emotional problems of adolescents. Although a number of studies have reflected on different aspects of adolescents yet the investigator did not come across any study giving comprehensive view of the adolescents studying in coaching institutes. An observation of the above review of literature makes it apparent that stress, problems and well-being of adolescents joining coaching institutes have not been widely studied. Also their relationship to each other needs to be determined. The researcher feels that homesickness, happiness, teaching satisfaction, physical health status and recreational activities need to be studied to understand the position of adolescents in academic world. The review of researches also shows that problems, stress and well-being of adolescents have been studied largely on the sample of western countries. The researcher has not come across any direct research on this field in Indian context. So the study undertaken by the researcher is a humble effort in this area.