CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Part I: Theoretical Overview

2.1. Theoretical Framework of the Variables

2.1.1. Stress

2.1.2. Emotional Intelligence

2.1.3. Coping Strategies

Part II: Review of related Literature

2.2.1. Studies Related to Stress

2.2.2. Studies Related to Emotional Intelligence

2.2.3. Studies Related to Coping Strategies
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Review of related literature unfolds the evolution and development of the variables under study and gives an account of the research studies related to the various aspects of the variables under study, interrelationship between or among the variables and their interrelationship with other variables. Sound theory base of the variables and knowledge of the research work already conducted on the topic helps a researcher in formulating the objectives and hypotheses of the study, in the selection and construction of the tools, selection of methods for data collection, analyzing and interpreting the data, and arriving at meaningful conclusions.

This chapter is composed of two parts. Part I deals with the theoretical framework of the variables under study and Part II deals with the review of the related studies.

PART I: THEORETICAL OVERVIEW

The variables under this study are Stress, Coping Strategies and Emotional Intelligence. The theoretical background and framework of the variables are detailed below.

2.1. Theoretical Framework of the Variables

2.1.1. Stress

2.1.2. Emotional Intelligence

2.1.3. Coping Strategies

2.1.1. Theoretical Framework of Stress

Stress is a concept borrowed from the natural sciences. The term was derived from the Latin word ‘Stringere’ which was used in the seventeenth century to mean hardship, strain, adversity or affliction. In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries the
term was used to denote force, pressure, strain or strong effort with an object or a person. In engineering and physics it means external force or pressure exerted on something whereas in psycho-physiology, stress refers to some stimulus resulting in detectable strain that cannot be accommodated by the organism.

Stress is a multi-faceted process that occurs as a result of an individual’s reaction to events or situations in the environment termed as stressors. It constitutes a wide range of physical and psychological reactions. W.B Canon (1939) first defined stress as the fight-or flight syndrome. Different people react differently to the same event at different points of time. Some may perceive an event as stressful whereas others may interpret it as quite normal. The same person may react differently to the same stressor at different times.

Stress can be positive or negative. Stress is positive when it forces one to adapt or reminds that one is not coping well. Selye, who first introduced the concept of stress termed this as eustress (1956). It is negative when it exceeds one’s ability to cope, fatigues body system and causes behavioural and physical problems which is called distress. Eustress enhances action whereas distress produces overreaction, confusion, poor concentration, performance anxiety and usually results in subpar performance (Girdano et al., 2009).

So many definitions of stress are available. Some among them are:

Stress is the general term describing the psychological and physical response to a stimulus that alters the body’s equilibrium (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

The stimulus that alters the body’s equilibrium or balance is called a stressor and the body’s response is called stress response or fight-or flight response. Stressors can be short-term (acute stressor) or long-term (chronic stressor). Similarly they can
be physical, intellectual, psychological, emotional, social, economical, spiritual or a combination of all these.

Stress is defined as an unfolding, dynamic relationship between the individual and their environment. It is also defined as a physical response which causes real and measurable changes in many bodily functions and is particularly apparent during major life events (as cited in Helms, 1996). It has become the most significant health issues of our culture.

Stress can be evoked by negative as well as positive events like getting a job or getting married (Brown & McGill, 1989) Stressors or stressful events mostly share the following characteristics.

1. The intensity of stressors produces a state of overload that one can no longer adapt to them.
2. They evoke incompatible reactions in a person, such as both to approach and avoid an object, event or activity.
3. They are uncontrollable or beyond one’s limits of control.

When people can predict, control or terminate an event or situation, they perceive it to be less stressful (Karsak & Theoroll, 1990; Rodin & Salovey, 1989).

2.1.2 Concept of Stress-In the Indian Traditional Perspective

The ancient philosophical and religious texts in India derived more than 2000 years ago, provide very many causes of stress-like states, though there is no exact parallel to the term ‘stress’ in Indian culture and society. Indigenous philosophical systems like Samkhya, Yoga and Ayurveda; highlight the two concepts Klesha (worry) and Dukha (sorrow) are concepts which come closer to the term stress in technical sense. According to the Yoga framework, Klesha refers to the stressor aspect while Dukha refers to the phenomenon of stress response. Five types of Kleshas have been
pronounced: *avidya* (ignorance), *asmita* (egoism), *raga* (attraction), *divesa* (repulsion) and *abhinivesha* (lust for life) with the first one lying at the base of the ladder. When a person gets caught between *Kleshas*, *Dukha* (sorrow or suffering) arises or *Kleshas* lead to *Dukha*.

Physiological imbalance between the three constituents of the physical body, *vata*, *pita* and *kapha* may generate any of the three associated mental states, *trigunas*: *satva*, *rajas*, *tamas* which can be translated to lightness activity and dullness respectively. A balance between the *doshas* and *gunas* brings the normality. The *Yogavasista* illustrates how mental disturbances create physical disturbances which resemble with the present day concept of psychosomatic diseases. Mental disturbance produce a variety of physiological symptoms that create an imbalance of the *tridoshas* which finally leads to diseases.

The Sanskrit equivalent of health is not merely *aarogya* (the absence of disease) but *swastha*, the state of being relaxed, maintaining one’s own composure, attained through mental peace. Many of the modern million dollar stress management techniques has been discussed in detail in the Indian texts such as meditation, relaxation, role of diet in stress management and related diseases, exercises, yoga, *surya namaskara* etc.

The *Vipassana* approach, a 2500 year old self-observation and mind purifying technique mentioned in Rig Veda and propagated by Lord Buddha has been found to produce substantial changes in even hard core criminals and their jailors. The term *Vipassana* means ‘to see things as they really are’ and ‘insight into our self’. This method is now being used in many jails including Tihar jail, Delhi. *Vipassana* courses are being conducted in many parts of the world like America, Europe, Japan, New Zealand, Sri Lanka etc.
2.1.3 Nature of Stress

The common belief about stress is that all stresses are harmful to the individual. But the fact is that too little stress or too much stress (hypostress or hyperstress) only is harmful. Stress may not always invariably lead to disease. It is inevitable part of life. An optimal level of stress is good and necessary, varying from individual to individual. Stress can occur due to both pleasant and unpleasant events. One has to maintain a balance between the harm of hypostress and hyperstress. More than that one should try to maximize the eustress (good stress) and minimize the distress (bad stress). Stress is dependent on the perception or one’s appraisal of the event or situation. Stress may not be always of major traumatic events but minor irritants and daily hassles of life may also cause stress, having a cumulative effect similar to that caused by traumatic events.

2.1.4. Three Approaches to Stress

Mason (1973) after reviewing the literature on stress opined that there was confusion and lack of consensus in the definition of stress. The term has been viewed in at least four ways:

i) as the stimulus or external force acting on the organism

ii) as the response or changes in the physiological function

iii) as the interaction between an external force and the resistance opposed to it and

iv) as a comprehensive phenomenon encompassing all the above three views

Hence psychologists of different convictions give both stimulus-oriented and response-oriented (both physiological and behavioural) definitions for the term. Depth psychologists view the term from the etiological and psychodynamic angle.
1. **Stimulus-Oriented Approach**

Stress is considered as an external force which is perceived as threatening. Selye (1956) defined stress as any external event or internal drive which threatens to upset the equilibrium of the organism.

2. **Response-Oriented Approach**

Stress is best understood in terms of the way people perceive; attribute meaning to the stress-producing situation and the way they interact with events. The response-oriented approaches describe how people react to stress and how they function under stress. The responses of the organism reveal how stress is experienced to. Psychiatrists identifies four phases in the reaction to stress: anticipatory threat, the impact of stress, the recoil phase and the post-traumatic phase.

3. **The Psychodynamic Approach**

External and internal events which pose threat to the integrity of the organism leading to the disorganization of personality is considered stress under this approach. Stress can be induced by both interpersonal (external) or intrapsychic (between own impulses and ego) factors.

Cox (1978) described three classes of definitions after reviewing the definitions on stress, ie., as a response to a stimulus, as a stimulus and as an intervening variable.

There are three different viewpoints about stress: medical, psychological, sociological. The physiological view construes stress as a defensive bodily response to environmental demands involving bodily components, the psychological view emphasises on the cognitive appraisal of the threatening environmental conditions and the ensuing coping process.
2.1.5 Cognitive Appraisal of Stressors

Though Selye’s general adaptation syndrome gives a description of the psychological responses to the stress, this model fails to recognize the cognitive processes in determining the specific event as stressful. When different people confront the same stress evoking situation, some experience stress whereas others do not. This phenomenon can be attributed to the individual difference in cognitive appraisals.

That is, stress occurs only to the extent the person involved perceive the situation as threatening to their goals (described as primary appraisal) and they will be unable to cope with the demands of the situation (described as secondary appraisal) (Croyle, 1992; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Hingson et al. 1990 found that the amount of stress experienced depended upon on the person’s cognitive appraisal of the event or situation – the extent to which the person perceive it as threatening and unable to cope with.
2.1.6 Hassles of Daily Life

Stress can be caused by several minor annoying sources or events of daily life, termed as hassles. Findings in several studies by Lazarus and his colleagues (DeLongis, Folkman & Lazarus 1988, Kanner et al., 1981; Lazarus et al., 1985) suggested that such daily life hassles are an important cause of stress. They developed a ‘Hassles Scale’ on which persons can indicate the extent to which they have been
hassled during the past one month. Strong positive correlations were obtained between scores on the Hassles Scale and psychological symptoms (Lazarus et al., 1985) which showed that the more stress people report on daily hassles, poorer their psychological well being.

Job, profession, career or work can be a central source of stress. Extreme overload- being asked to do too much in too short time, role conflict or role ambiguity, forced to address conflicting demands or expectations from different groups of people, change in working environment, conflict with peers, lack of support from co-workers etc. can generate great levels of stress.

![Source of Work-Related Stress Diagram](image)

**Figure 2.2**

**Sources of Work-Related Stress**
2.1.7 Stress and Task Performance

Once, psychologists were of the opinion that stress improves the performance on several tasks. They held that stress performance first (Eustress) and beyond some point it becomes distracting and brings down the performance (Distress). But some studies (Motowidlo, Packard & Manning, 1986., Steers, 1984) suggested that even low or moderate levels of stress can be distracting, interfere with task performance and prolonged exposure to even mild levels of stress can be harmful to health. However, intense stress can sometimes bring out brilliant performance from people. Hence, stress may not be always harmful and predictions about its interference and its effects depend on many different factors.

To understand the stress in one’s life these three aspects have to be monitored:

- Frequency - how often does the physical stress response occur
- Intensity - how severe is the stress response
- Duration - how long is the body’s physiology altered

Even though the stress is not severe, prolonged exposure to stress can cause fatigue, malfunction, damage and diseases to the body.

2.1.8 Body Systems that Control Stress

Three basic systems of the body are involved in the control of stress and disease processes:

1. The central nervous system(CNS), particularly the part called autonomic nervous system(ANS)- the brain, brain stem and spinal cord
2. The endocrine system, especially the pituitary and adrenal glands and
3. The immune system and its interaction with the body
Neuropeptide (short strings of amino acids produced by nerve cells) system or the informational substances or communicators in the body connects these three systems and all other systems of the body.

The autonomic nervous system acts voluntarily or reflexively and regulates the heart rate, body temperature, respiration and all other vital functions of the body. Autonomic nervous system is mainly classified into two:

1. the sympathetic nervous system which gives alarm response to energise and equip the body to respond to stress; and
2. the para sympathetic nervous system which brings back the energized system to normal and relaxed function

The sympathetic nervous system regulates the fight-or-flight response. In a stressful situation this system is stimulated all parts of it react with a mass neural discharge, enabling the body to act beyond its normal function.

In a fight-or-flight situation the body needs more blood, more oxygen and more energy. Hence the heart beats faster and pumps more blood, bronchials expand and breathing becomes faster and deeper to supply more oxygen and the pupils of the eyes become larger to improve the visual sensitivity. The salivary glands produce more saliva and the adrenal glands secrete adrenaline to reinforce and prolong the sympathetic action, stimulate the liver to release more glucose to enhance the action and stimulate the adipose tissues to release fatty acids to charge the muscles.

At the same time the body reduces blood supply to organs such as gastrointestinal tract which are not essential for the stress response. This reduces the function of those organs. Prolonged stimulation or inhibition of organs can cause malfunction of the body systems and cause stress related illness.
The flight-or fight response is facilitated by hormones of the sympathetic and adrenal systems such as epinephrine, norepinephrine and dopamine along with hormones of the endocrine system, the central nervous system, and the various peptides.

The parasympathetic system acts in the just opposite way to the way the sympathetic system does. Instead of mass reaction to stimulation it acts on specific organs. It enhances the action of certain organs and inhibits the action of other organs. The parasympathetic system normalises the functions of all organs after the stimulation like slowing down the heart, expanding the blood vessels, increasing the functions of the gastro intestinal systems and secretion from the salivary glands and constricting bronchials and pupils.

Some organs of the body respond to only system while most of the organs respond to sympathetic as well as parasympathetic systems.

The autonomic nervous system controls the reflexive responses to stressors in the environment. It includes the lower brain structures like the cerebellum which coordinates the muscles; the medulla oblongata which controls the heartbeat rate, blood circulation, respiration, coughing and sneezing; the spinal cord; the pons: the network that sends nerve impulses to various parts of the brain; the thalamus which sends incoming signals to proper areas of the brain and the hypothalamus. This area of the brain functions as a system called *reticular formation*.

The hypothalamus integrates the functions of the body’s regulatory systems such as hunger, thirst, blood pressure, heart beat rate, body temperature and sex drive. When threatening or unique messages are received from the physical world the hypothalamus respond with an alarm reaction through the sympathetic system. When
the threat is over it sends calming messages through the parasympathetic system to the stimulated organs for normalizing their functions.

The limbic system is responsible for the attributes like feelings, emotions, pleasure and displeasure. The amygdala and hippocampus are important areas of the limbic system to which emotion is attributed. The amygdala is particularly related to negative emotions like fear. The hippocampus regulates emotional responses appropriately to the context like feeling an environment comfortable. Abnormalities in the hippocampus can cause emotional disorders like depression and posttraumatic disorder. Shrinking of hippocampus causes this disorder (Goleman, 2003) and antidepressant medication is given to prevent this degeneration of the hippocampus.

Recent researches in neuroscience have proved that these areas of the brain are likely change in response to repeated experience and the emotional environment. People show remarkable changes in gene expression when they are brought up in a nurturing environment. These genes are decisive in regulating the emotions and respond to nurturing (Davidson et al. 2000). Hence individuals brought up in a nurturing environment will be able to manage their emotions well to greater extent.

During positive emotional states like happiness, joy and contentment the front medial portion of the left frontal lobe of the brain is more stimulated whereas during negative emotional states like hostility, fear, anger etc. the corresponding portion of the right frontal lobe is stimulated. Blood circulation in these areas is regulated by emotional peptides and can influence the nourishment to the cells. Blocking of emotions by denial, repression etc. will reduce the blood flow in this area and will cause undernourishment to the frontal cortex. Such long term experience will reduce one’s ability to take decisions to resolve the emotions and respond to the world in a rational manner (Ekman, 2003).
Reticular formation is also called as *reticular activating system* (RAS) or ascending reticular activating system (ARAS) which is a network of neurons that extends from the spinal cord to the thalamus. The RAS receives all the incoming signals from the nerves of the whole body, filters the input, and forwards only new or persistent information to the brain (Bloom, Lazerson, and Hofstadter 1995; Robinson 1996). On receiving the signals, the brain adds perception to it and responds accordingly.

Two systems of the human body are associated with physiological responses to stress namely the hypothalamic pituitary adrenocortical (HPA) axis, and the sympathetic axis. Cortisol is secreted from the adrenal cortex into circulation on activation of the HPA axis. Cortisol increases arousal and defends against the body’s own stress reaction. However, chronic over-exposure to the HPA stress response can itself damage many regulatory systems (McEwen, 1998; Sapolsky et al., 2000).

Symptoms of arousal including cardiovascular changes like increased blood pressure and heart rate are developed on activation of the sympathetic axis. Large increases in physiological responses to acute stressors and lack of ability to adjust with chronic stressors may damage organs over time and lead to disease (Manuck and Krantz, 1986; Dientsbier, 1989; Ratliff-Crain and Vingerhoets, 1996; McEwen, 1998).

Evidence for the relationship between Perceived Emotional Intelligence and both health and psychological responses to stress have been established by Salovey et al., (1995) and Goldman et al.(1996). Nachmias et al. (1996) stressed the importance of emotion regulation in determining physiological stress reactivity. However there are conflicting views of what constitutes adaptive HPA and sympathetic responses to stress.
Taylor et al. (2000) identified that men and women react stress differently, not just through learned behavior but through the basic physiological nature also. Women respond to stress with certain brain chemicals that cause them to “tend and befriend” other women as against the earlier belief that when people experience stress, they react with the flight or fight syndrome. When the hormone Oxytocin which is instrumental to birth and lactation is released as a part of the stress response in women, encourages women to tend children and gather with other women instead of running or fighting. In doing this, additional Oxytocin is released, which further counters stress and a calming effect. Estrogen also enhances the calming effect. In contrast, men releases high levels of testosterone under stress and they don’t get the calming effect of Oxytocin.

2.1.9. Models of Stress

Different models have been proposed in the past about stress by researchers at different points of time. As the human behavior is multidimensional rather than unidimensional there is a number of models available each of which focus on some particular aspects. There are specific models analysing one aspect only, like organizational stress models and general models focusing on giving a general framework to the stress phenomenon. They can be categorized as:

1. Physiological models.
   
   e.g. General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS), (Selye, 1956).

2. Load of information models
   
   e.g. Overload /Underload model (Suedfeld, 1979), Optimal Information Flow and Mood (Hamilton, 1981)
3. Interactional Models

Interaction models focus on the relationship between the individual and the environment. The relationship is based on the cognitive appraisal of the environment by the individual. An event can be stressful or otherwise depending upon the subjective perception of the characteristics of the event rather than the objective characteristics. All such theories emphasise upon the imbalance between or mismatch between two aspects that causes stress namely resource/capabilities/needs of the person, and the demands/supplies by the environment.

e.g. Cognitive Model of Stress (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984), P-E Fit Model (French, Rodgers and Cob, 1974) and Systems Model (Lumsden, 1975).

2.1.9.1 Selye’ General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS)

When people are exposed to stress, they generally experience increased blood pressure, heart beat, pulse rate, sweating etc. These patterns of reactions to stress are referred to as ‘fight-or-flight response’, proposed by Sir Walter Cannon (1935); a process controlled through the sympathetic nervous system. Usually these reactions are brief and body returns to the normal level soon. When exposed to chronic sources of stress, this reaction is only the first among a sequence of responses activated by the person to adapt to a stress.

Hans Selye, the Austrian born researcher (1976) in his experiment in Mc Gill University described this sequence of events as General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS) in three stages, namely Alarm stage, Resistance stage and Exhaustion. This three stage model of stress is widely recognized as a comprehensive model for to explain the stress phenomenon. According to this model when an organism is confronted with a threat, the general physiological responses occurs in three stages.
Selye’s theory of General Adaptation Syndrome perceives stress as the body’s general defensive reaction to a stressor and the psychological basis of stress as the prolonged activation of certain hormonal and nervous system mechanisms. The body prepares itself for immediate action through the arousal of sympathetic nervous system which releases hormones that help the body to meet the threats (Selye, 1976).

The effect of stress may vary according to the individual’s constitutional makeup (Selye, 1936, 1946, 1982). Selye’s General Adaptation Syndrome model of stress is considered to be comprehensive one to explain the phenomenon. When an organism is confronted with a threat, the physiological responses to the threat occur in three stages namely alarm stage, resistance stage and exhaustion stage.

i) Alarm Stage

In this first stage, the body mobilizes for action through various hormonal and nervous system changes. At this stage the organism can cope up with the stressor by fight or flight reaction. Alarm reactions include autonomous excitability, adrenalin discharge, increased heart beat, muscle tone and blood content and gastro intestinal ulceration. The alarm stage is a healthy response to demanding situations. If the stress is relieved at this stage, the body returns to its normal state and if not it progresses to the next stage called resistance stage. Depending upon the intensity and nature of threat, and the condition of the organism, the periods of resistance may vary and the severity of symptoms may differ from ‘mild invigoration’ to ‘disease adaption’.

ii) Resistance Stage

In this stage though arousal is slower than the alarm stage, body draws resources more than the normal rate to cope with the stressor. Maximum adaptation by the organism occurs at this stage. The bodily signs characteristic to the alarm
Reactions disappear and the resistance increases to the maximum. During resistance stage some superficial signs may suggest that the body has returned to normal, but the body may be still in a state of defense with high hormonal levels.

iii) Exhaustion Stage

During this stage continued exposure to the stressor drains the body resources and the person becomes exhausted. The capacity to resist depletes and the susceptibility to illness increases. If the stress continues the adaptation energy of the organism becomes exhausted and the organism gets exhausted. Signs of alarm reactions reappear, the resistance level begins to decline irreversibly and the organism collapses with bodily processes breaking down and illness begins.

![Selye's Three-Stage Stress Response](image)

Figure 2.3

Selye’s Three-Stage Stress Response

But Mason is critical on Selye’s emphasis on non-specific nature of Stress response though he maintains that general adaptation syndrome exists. He argues that Selye’s model is too simple and does not explain why some people develop stress related disorders and some others do not. Pestonjee (1987) has pointed out four fundamental shortcomings of this model. The first one is that it is based on researches
carried on infra-human subjects where the stressors will be usually environmental or physical. But in the case of human being they are not always confronted by such stressors. Second is the non specific physiological nature of the response which is not always true in the case of humans. Third is the absence of intrapsychic or social (interpersonal/ interactional) factors in this approach which are major stressor in the case of human beings. The fourth one is that the reactions of infra-human subjects are more direct and measurable whereas in the case of human subjects the responses are filtered through numerous cultural and social filters.

2.1.9.2 The Stressful Life Events Model

Stressful life events model by Holmes and Rahe (1967) postulates that stress reaction occurs when an individual experiences something that requires an adaptive response or coping behavior. The stress producing event can be positive or negative and may belong to any aspects of individual’s life. These events may vary in their ability to cause stress. The effects of these events are additive and the overall effect determines the amount of effort one must take to cope with it. The concept of social readjustment which refers to coping or making changes in the response to stress was also put forward.

Rahe and associates (1971) suggested a process by which life stress might occur and a pathway between an initial stressor and ultimate illness. The pathway has got buffers and filters with which stressful events are screened. The first filter is the past experience which either augments or lessens the impact of the stressful event. The second filter is the psychological defense mechanisms which might prevent some stressful occurrences. The third filter is the physiological reaction by which the life event is transformed in to physiological responses. Later filters determine whether can
cope or whether symptoms of illness may develop. Asocial Readjustment Scale was also developed by authors. Lots of studies in 1970s supported this model but Rabkin and Struenberg (1976) described that the relationship between life events was statistically overestimated and the Social Readjustment Scale was not a valid or reliable measure.

2.1.9.3 Stimulus Overload / Underload Model

This model proposed by Suedfeld (1979) links stress to the structure of the experiences rather than to the quality of the experiences as proposed by Holmes and Rahe. Thus some aversive stimulus may not evoke stress outside the optimal zone whereas positive stimulus in bulk may become stressful. Otherwise too much of a good thing can be stressful. A U-shaped relation exists between stimulus load and stress, by which stress can be caused by stimulus overload or stimulus underload.

2.1.9.4 Optimal Information Flow and Mood

The model proposed by Hamilton (1981) also puts forward a U-shaped relationship between stress and stimulation in the same line with the stimulus overload/underload model. This model proposes a relationship between the optimal information flow and mood. Positive moods are an outcome of optimal information whereas negative moods like anxiety at the high end, boredom at the low end shows a mismatch between the optimal level and the actually available stimulation. Negative moods will affect the behaviour negatively. The vulnerability to such negative loads is monitored by cognitive mechanisms called Attention Regulators (ARs). Attention regulators which are under the voluntary control of the person can either enhance or reduce the information available. Thus information overload and underload can be stressful. Hence, one has to maintain a middle line between the aversive stimuli and the positive stimuli and maintain the optimal level to be stress free.
2.1.9.5 Person-Environment Fit Theory

The Person-Environment fit theory developed by French et al. (1982) studied about how the social world affects an individual’s social adjustment and physical and mental health. This theory on stress at work, postulates that resources and demands of the work environment may or may not fit the needs, goals and abilities of the employee. When the demands of the work do not fit the person’s abilities and needs, the individual will show signs of strain that will ultimately lead to illness.

The four basic concepts of this theory are organizational stress, strain, coping and social support. Organisational stress is defined as the potentially threatening conditions of the job (stressor). Potential organisational stress conditions are job complexity, workload, role ambiguity, and underuse of ability. The individual’s perception of the stress conditions and the extent to which he/she feels personally capable of meeting the demand are important. Strain is any unhealthy response of the person which manifests as physiological responses or behavioural responses. Strain may be because of the long term result of stress or an immediate stress reaction. Coping is defence against stress for which physiological and behavioural coping mechanisms are made use of. Social support is the emotional support that comes from interpersonal interaction, is proposed to buffer stress and strain.

But Lazarus (1987) described Person-Environment Fit concept as static as it emphasizes stable relationships between person and work place. This static or structural approach may not be applicable to all work settings where stress constantly changes, though it may be applicable to the field of industrial stress.
2.1.9.6 Lazarus’s Transaction Approach or Cognitive Model of Stress

Cognitive model of stress proposed by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) conceive stress as “particular relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangering his or her wellbeing.” It considers stress as a unique process between the Person and Environment, rather than a static arrangement. Process implies the psychological state of the person that changes over time through diverse encounters. Stress occurs when the environment is evaluated as harmful, threatening or challenging. Harm refers to damage that has already occurred, Threat refers to harm not yet happened but anticipated in future and Challenge refers to a condition of high demand in which mastering the demand, overcoming the obstacles, growing and expanding as an individual etc. are emphasized. Under threat, focus will be on protecting oneself from harm and on challenge the focus will be on positive outcomes.

The process involves two types of appraisals of the situation; the primary appraisal and the secondary appraisal. Primary appraisal is the evaluation of the situation to ascertain whether there is any threat or challenge and secondary appraisal is the evaluation of how to deal with the situation and the coping resources available for that. Personal agenda (goals and beliefs) and subjective realities of the individual become the basis of the appraisals. As the personal agenda varies from person to person, and from moment to moment each person may evaluate the same situation in different ways.

2.1.9.7 Systems Model of Stress

The systems model of stress put forward by Lumsden (1975) incorporates all the salient features different models and suggests for a system analysis of stress. The stress system is considered an open system which is in continuous interaction with the
environment. When exogenous (such as natural disasters) or endogenous (such as sensory deprivation or blocking goals) stressors confront a person, the coping process occurs in three stages which are interconnected and interrelated. The first stage includes detection, mediation and appraisal of the stimulus as a stressor. Appraisal leads in to the second stage, called coping based on the response repertoire of the person. The appraisal and coping occurs in circular fashion, with the nature of coping repertoire determining the nature of the appraisal. The individual copes with the stressor by making necessary changes in the responses which can be physiological, psychological, behavioural or interpersonal/societal. This may be either adaptive or mal adaptive. Maladaptive responses such as anxiety may act as endogenous stressors in future. Adaptive responses results in adequate coping whereas overadaptive responses may temporarily be successful but become maladaptive in future. The stress proneness of a person is determined by a number of personal variables.

2.1.9.8 General Perspective on Stress

Figure 2.4 A General Perspective on Stress (Berry, 1997)
In the general perspective on stress model proposed by Berry (1997) person-environment interaction determines whether or not an event is stressful. Environment includes both physical and social conditions. Personal variables involved are perception and cognition, the learning that occurs through experience, and personality. These personal variables are the basis for the individual differences by which people assess whether a situation is threatening or not. The double line between the psychological response and the stressful event shows that these are intimately connected (Figure 2.). Depending on the psychological response any of the three consequences can evolve: coping, stress related illness, and behaviour disturbance. Illness and behaviour problems are bound to develop without coping mechanisms. Even with coping mechanisms also they may develop.

An analysis of the models of stress gives an overview of the development of the theoretical constructs of ‘stress’ through decades and their importance implications in stress management. These theories of stress emphasizes on the person–environment interaction. An event or situation may be stressful or not depending upon the perception of the person which is based on his/her past experiences, capabilities and characteristic ways of interactions with the world. It helps one to understand the differences and bases for wide variety of stress management techniques available, select the appropriate techniques to prevent and control stress, and clarifies why a specific technique may work for one individual while it may aggravate stress for another.

2.1.10 Models of Teacher Stress

Researches conducted on teacher stress have identified potential stressors for teachers. Cox (1977) identified that training and career development, nature of the
work, physical working conditions, systems in the school organization and the relationship between the school and the community resulted in stress.

A model of teacher stress suggested by Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978) identified the following aspects as stressors for teachers.

1. **Potential Occupational Stressors**: The objective aspects of the job, like high work load, in adequate bulding, noise level and physical working conditions are found to cause stress for teachers.

2. **Appraisal**: It is the perception of the teachers about the potential stressors in the teachers job. The personal characteristics and interaction of the person will decide whether a potential stressor will become and actual stressor or not.

3. **Actual Stressors**: Potential occupational stressors, that the teacher has seen as a threat to his/ her wellbeing or self-esteem is termed as actual stressors.

4. **Coping Strategies**: Coping strategies are attempts made by individual teacher to reduce the perceived threat.

5. **Teacher Stress**: It is the individual teacher’s response to negative affect which may include psychological, physiological and behavioural reactions.

6. **Characteristics of the Individual Teacher**: This includes the personality, value systems and the ability to cope with any demand encountered at the work place.

7. **Potential Non-occupational Stressors**: The negative aspect of the teacher’s life outside the school such as ill-health, crisis in the family etc.

Neeldle et al. (1980) described the factors causing teacher stress as, the stressors from the job content, conditions of work, relationship with co-workers, promotional opportunities, financial rewards, resource adequacy and role in the
organization. Societal, institutional and personal factors were prescribed as the categories of teacher stress by Wanberg (1984).

Cooper et al. (1988) proposed a six factor model of teacher stress which identified the following stressors.

1. **Intrinsic Stressors of the Job**: This includes physical working conditions, level of participation and decision making attitude and work load.

2. **Role in the Organisation**: Role ambiguity, role conflict and levels and types of responsibility are the stressors.

3. **Relationship at Work**: Relationship with superiors, colleagues and subordinates and the interpersonal demands.

4. **Career Development**: Over or under promotion and possible lack of job security.

5. **Organisational Structure and Climate**: These are the stressors that restrict the behaviours such as politics and culture of the organisation. Level of participation and involvement in the decision making are also involved.

6. **Home and Work Interface**: These are the stressors resulting from a mismatch between the work demands and the family or social demands.

Pestonjee (1987) is of the view that stress as to be viewed in the light of the social systems the individual belong. There are two such systems: the primary system including family and religious, regional and linguistic groups; and the secondary system to which one relates such as neighbourhood, schools, colleges, technical institutes and work organizations. As the role expectations and functional requirements from both these systems differ, the demands made on the individual in one system have their effects on one’s performance in the other. Resources form one system can be invested in the other system to manage the problems arising in it.
2.1.2. Theoretical Framework of Emotional Intelligence

2.1.2.1. Emotions

Emotion is a generic term for subjective, conscious experience that is characterised primarily by psycho-physiological expressions biological reactions and mental states. Emotions are viewed as an integral part of individual’s functioning and development. They are intimately connected with cognition. Expressing emotions in the right amount in the right place in the right time is necessary one’s success in personal and professional life. Emotions play an important role in one’s thought and decision making and success in life. A harmonious blend of emotions and reasons lead to intelligent actions. A combination of emotions and intellectual skills is the most powerful determinants of success and effectiveness in all spheres of life.

Emotion in the broadest sense includes commonly used terms such as anger, fear, joy, guilt, jealousy, love, courage and sadness. Emotion is energy complex involving nerves, muscles, gut, bone marrow, glandular activity, and other diverse cells of the body. (Goleman, 2006).

The word “emotion” was adopted from the French word “emouvoir” which means “to stir up” and dates back to 1579.

An emotion has four components:

1) a positive or negative subject experience,
2) bodily arousal,
3) the activation of specific mental processes and stored information, and
4) characteristic behavior.

Another view on suggests five components such as cognitive appraisal, bodily symptoms, action tendencies, expression and feelings.
Emotion is often associated with and considered to be reciprocally influential with mood, temperament, personality, disposition and motivation. But it can be differentiated from the similar constructs feelings, mood, affect. It is influenced by hormones and neurotransmitters like dopamine, noradrenaline, serotonin, oxytocin, cortisol and GABA. Cognition is an important aspect of emotion especially in the interpretation of events. Researches on emotion is growing in multitude with many fields contributing to it like psychology, neuroscience, medicine, history and computer science.

Ekman (1984) concluded from his experiments with identifying facial expression that surprise, happiness, anger, fear, disgust and sadness are the six basic emotions, emotions that are innate and shared by all humans. He developed a Facial Action Coding System (FACS) for objective identification of an emotion from the combination of facial muscles used to express it. Tomkins (1962) identified eight basic emotions: surprise, interest, joy, rage, fear, disgust, shame and anguish. Indian tradition talks about nine basic emotions (Rasa). According to Natyasastra; the classical Indian text on dance by the sage Bharata, the nine basic emotions are Sringaram (love), Karunam (sadness), Roudram (anger), Veeram (courage), Hasyam (joy), Bhayanakam (), Bheebhatsam (disgust), Atbhutam (wonder), and Santham (peace). An Emogram Training Material developed by Chaotics International (2003) depicts eleven emotions happiness, interest, surprise, contempt, disgust, shame, fear, anger, distress, sadness and anxiety. Emogram training material developed by Chaotic International (2003) depicts eleven basic emotions; happiness, interest, surprise, contempt, disgust, shame, fear, anger, distress, sadness and anxiety.

In the recent years there the researches literature on the immune functions to emotions is grown up in multitudes. Insel and Fernald (2004) found that involvement
in distressing relationships was associated with increase in stress hormone levels that
damage genes identified to control virus-fighting cells. McClain, Rosenfeld, and
Breitbart (2003) identified that Interleukin-6, the immune marker most highly
 correlated with mood states, is one of the several markers of inflammation, an
important process in a variety of disease like heart disease, diabetes, and stroke, and is
associated with increased stress and depression.

2.1.2.2 The Development of Human Emotion

Anthropologically the brain developed as three parts (MacLean, 1990).

1. a brain that relates to the physical world
2. a brain that relates to the inner world, and
3. a brain that relates to abstraction and creativity

The evolution of the brain began as brain 1, the physical brain. It was merely
instinctual and reflexive. In the course of evolution through hundreds of millions of
years, the physical brain was complemented with brain 2, the emotional brain. The
emotional brain wrapped around the physical brain, and these two areas developed an
intimate communication network. In addition to responding to physical stimuli,
humans began to add an emotional value on their relationship to the physical world.
The emotional brain handles not only emotions but also internal images. It is called
the “heart” of the central nervous system for it handles love, hate, fear, attraction,
aversion, bonding, and all other relationships. Finally the third brain called the
thinking brain enveloped the two other parts. It enabled us to work with abstract
imagery, think on an intellectual plane, and create thoughts and forms not necessarily
based on physical input data. It makes possible to analyse, synthesise, create, compute
etc. The current terminology for three parts are the thalamus, hypothalamus, and
brainstem (the physical brain); the limbic system (the emotional brain); and the cortex
(the thinking brain). Thus emotions are controlled by a constellation of interacting brain systems, but the amygdala appears to play the crucial role.

Lazarus (1998) noted that we should speak less of stress and more of emotion because stress primarily concerns destructive personal-environmental relationships that stimulate and perpetuate negative states such as fear, anger, jealousy and shame that fall under the heading of emotion. Emotional aspects of life play a more important, perhaps the most important, role in the study of stress (Ekman, 2003).

Figure 2.5
Six Basic Emotions Identified by Ekman
Sringaram (love)  Karunam (sadness)  Roudram (Anger)

Veeram (courage)  Hasyam (joy)  Bhayanakam (fear)

Bheebhalsam (Disgust)  Abhutham (Surprise)  Santham (Peace)

Figure 2.6

Navarasangal (Nine Basic Emotions)

According to Indian Natya Sastra
2.1.2.3 The Road from Intelligence to Emotional Intelligence

Theories of Intelligence

Intelligence is the term derived from the Latin verb *intelligere* which is in turn derived from *inter-legere* meaning to "pick out" or distinguish. A form of this verb, *intelluctus*, became the medieval technical term for understanding, which was strongly linked to the *metaphysical* and *cosmological* theories of teleological scholasticism, including theories of the immortality of the soul, and the concept of the Active Intellect. Early modern philosophers like Francis Bacon and John Locke rejected this approach and preferred the word "understanding" in their English philosophical works.

Intelligence has been defined in different ways including abstract thought, understanding, self-awareness, communication, reasoning, learning, problem solving, having emotional knowledge etc. Binet (1916) defined it as judgement, good sense, practical sense, initiative and the faculty of adapting one’s self to circumstances. Wechler (1944) defined it as the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with the environment. Many theories have been put forward from the 18th century to till date about intelligence.

From the Faculty Theory of 18th century it is a long road to the concept of Emotional Intelligence. Faculty Theory, One Factor / UNI Factor Theory, Spearman’s Two Factor Theory Thorndike’s Multifactor Theory, Thurstone’s Primary Mental Ability /Group factor Theory, Guilford’s Structure of Intellect Model(1967), Vernon’s Hierarchical Theory, Cattle’s Fluid and Crystallised Intelligence Theory, Gardner’s Theory of Multiple Intelligences. Sternberg’s Triarchic Theory (1985), Theory of Emotional Intelligences(1983) by Howard
Gardner are the milestones in the development to the theory of Emotional Intelligence.

2.1.2.4 Emotional Intelligence: The Development of the Concept

The origin of Emotional Intelligence can be traced back to the 17th century with Spinoza (1677) suggesting that emotion and intelligence together contributed to the ultimate cognitive tool. Thorndike (1920) classified intelligence into three broad categories; abstract/verbal, visual/spatial and social/practical. The third type of intelligence called “social intelligence” suggested by him, is a capacity to understand people and act wisely in human relations. Sternberg (1985) agreed with the concept of social intelligence and said that it is not only distinct from academic abilities but also an integral part of what makes people do well in the practicalities of life. He noted that conventional IQ tests assess only analytical aspects of intelligence.

Emotional component to intelligence and cognitive effectiveness can be traced back to the great philosophers of antiquity and the notion of EI as a science back to E. L Thorndike’s (1920) comments on the possibility of “social intelligence” in the early 20th century.

People who are defined as intelligent according to the classical concept of may not be successful in life whereas many with IQs in the middle-normal range can succeed to a high degree. Researches reveal that there are other psychological traits that are predictive of success. Sternberg (1985) called this aspect of personality “practical intelligence.”

Gardner (1983) in his book *Frames of Mind*, put forward the argument that there must be more than traditional types of intelligence to explain success in life. He emphasized the importance of inter- and intrapersonal intelligences.
Gardner (1999) defined interpersonal intelligence as having the capacity to “understand the intentions, motivations, and desires of other people and, consequently, to work effectively with others” and intrapersonal intelligence as “the capacity to understand oneself, to have an effective working model of oneself – including one’s own desires, fears, and capacities – and to use such information effectively in regulating one’s own life”. He specifically identified salespeople, teachers, clinicians, religious leaders, political leaders, and actors; as the people who need “acute interpersonal intelligence”.

EQ and IQ are separate competencies (Ekman, 1992; Goleman, 1995; Salovey and Mayer, 1990; 1995). A person with high IQ need not necessarily have a high EQ. Sometimes academic intelligence has very little to do with emotional intelligence and success of life. Ekman (1992) reported that IQ offers little to explain the different destinies of people with generally equal promises, schooling, and opportunity. He took the sample of ninety five Harvard students from the classes of 1914 who were followed into their middle age. It was found that men with highest test scores in college were not particularly successful compared with their lower scoring peers in terms of salary, productivity, or status in their field. It was also found that they did not have the greatest life satisfaction, nor the most happiness with friendship family, and romantic relationship.

2.1.2.5 Definitions and Meaning

Emotional intelligence is a type of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and other’s emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one’s thinking and actions. (Salovey and Mayer, 1993) Salovey & Mayer (1990) developed three branches that together comprised the concept of EI:
• Appraisal and Expression of Emotion,
• Regulation of Emotion, and
• Utilization of Emotion.

Later, these three were rearticulated into four branches (Mayer & Salovey, 1997):
• Perception, Appraisal, and Expression of Emotion
• Emotional Facilitation of Thinking
• Understanding and Analyzing Emotions (Employing Emotional Knowledge)
• Reflective Regulation of Emotions to Promote Emotional and Intellectual Growth

Emotional intelligence is an array of personal, emotional and social competencies and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures. (Bar-on, 1996).

Emotional intelligence is the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer and Salovey, 1997).

Emotional intelligence is the ability to sense, understand and effectively apply the power and acumen of emotions as a source of human energy, information, connection and influence (Cooper and Sawaf, 1997).

Emotional intelligence refers to the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others for motivating ourselves and for managing emotions well in ourselves and our relationships (Goleman, 1998).

Emotional intelligence refers to the ability to recognise the meanings of emotions and their relationships, and to reason and problem-solve on the basis of
them. Emotional intelligence is involved in the capacity to perceive emotions, and manage them (Mayer and Salovey, 1997).

Emotional intelligence involves more than just the ability to perceive, assimilate, understand and manage emotions. It also involves emotion and intelligence, as well as motivation, non-ability dispositions and traits, and global personal and social functioning (Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey, 2000).

Mayer and Cobb (2000) defined Emotional Intelligence as the ability to process emotional information particularly as it involves perception, assimilation, understanding and management of emotion. They explained that it consists of four branches of mental ability.

1. Emotional identification, perception and expression
2. Emotional facilitation of thought
3. Emotional understanding
4. Emotional management
5. “Emotional intelligence is an array of non-cognitive competencies, and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures. (Bar-On, 2002)

2.1.2.6 Theory of Emotional Intelligence

Mayer et al. view the construct Emotional Intelligence as an ability and designed a questionnaire to measure it. They stated ‘Our focus is on ability measures of EI because we view these instruments as the most promising’ (Mayer et al., 2000).

Goleman (1998) viewed the construct in a very different way, as competencies-based. He presented a model with twenty-five competencies, derived from the Hay-McBer competencies framework, arrayed in twelve clusters. These
were reduced empirically to twenty competencies to form the Emotional Competencies Inventory (Boyatzis et al., 2000).

Bar-On, 1997 and Dulewicz and Higgs, 2000 have taken a third view and have operationalized the construct through questionnaires and models derived from empirical research into personal factors related to EI, and particularly into ‘emotionally and socially competent behaviour’ (Bar-On, 2000).

Bar-On (2002) elaborated on the above views on emotional intelligence as:

The concept of emotional intelligence adds depth to the understanding of what intelligence or intelligent behaviour is. Broadly speaking, emotional intelligence addresses the emotional, personal, social and survival dimensions of intelligence, vitally important in daily functioning. This less cognitive part of intelligence is concerned with understanding oneself and others, relating to people, and adapting to and coping with our immediate surroundings. These factors increase our ability to be more successful in dealing with environmental demands. Emotional intelligence is tactical and immediate, and as such reflects a person’s “common sense” and ability to get along with the world.

Bar-On, the author of the most widely used EI assessment instrument conceptualized Emotional intelligence as comprising of 15 aspects: self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, self-actualization, empathy, social responsibility, interpersonal relationship, reality testing, flexibility, problem solving, stress tolerance, impulse control, optimism, and happiness.

Bar-On’s (2002) conceptualization can be detailed as:

- **Intrapersonal**
Interpersonal - Interpersonal relationship, social responsibility, and empathy.

Adaptability - Problem solving, reality testing, flexibility.

Stress Management - Stress tolerance and impulse control.

General Mood - Happiness and optimism (Bar-On, 2002).

Goleman’s and Bar-On’s models are quite similar. Goleman’s model includes the notion of “change catalyst,” whereas Bar-On’s includes “reality testing” (objectively assessing one’s perceptions against the reality of the situation) and a distinct scale for stress management.

Lam and Kirby (2002) are of the opinion that emotional intelligence involves the perceiving, understanding and regulating of emotions.

➢ Perceiving emotions consists of recognising and interpreting the meaning of various emotional states, as well as their relations to other sensory experiences.

➢ Understanding emotions involves the comprehension of how basic emotions are blended to form complex emotions, how emotions are affected by events surrounding experiences, and whether various emotional reactions are likely in given social settings.

➢ Regulating emotions encompasses the control of emotions in oneself and in others.

Thus a working definition of Emotional intelligence involves an individual’s ability to recognise, understand and regulate his/her own emotions; the ability to recognise others’ emotions and the ability to establish and maintain relationships with others. (Maree, J. G. & Fernandes, M.P.J., 2003)
The ability model of emotional intelligence centers on a person’s skill in recognizing emotional information and carrying out abstract reasoning using this emotional information (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). The definition posits four different abilities or skills, which are referred to as ‘branches’.

2.1.2.7 Branches of Ability Model

1. **Identifying Emotions**

   Identifying emotions includes a number of skills, such as the ability to identify feelings, express emotions accurately, and differentiate between real and phony emotional expressions.

2. **Emotional Facilitation of Thought (or Using Emotions)**

   Emotional facilitation of thought includes the ability to use emotions to redirect attention to important events, to generate emotions that facilitate decision making, to use mood swings as a means to consider multiple points of view, and harness different emotions to encourage different approaches to problem solving (for instance, to use a happy mood to assist in generating creative, new ideas).

3. **Understanding Emotions**

   Understanding emotions is the ability to understand complex emotions and emotional “chains,” how emotions transition from one stage to another, the ability to recognize the causes of emotions, and the ability to understand relationships among emotions.

4. **Managing Emotions**

   Managing Emotions includes the ability to stay aware of one’s emotions, even those that are unpleasant, the ability to determine whether an emotion is clear or typical, and the ability to solve emotion-laden problems without necessarily
suppressing negative emotions. (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; see also Roberts, Zeidner, & Matthews, 2001).

Goleman (1995) added components such as zeal, persistence, and social skills to the initial Salovey and Mayer (1990) definition and listed competencies under the framework of the concept (Goleman, 1998). Bar-On (1997) described approaches centering on psychological wellbeing.

Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso (2000) proposed two alternative conceptions of emotional intelligence: an ability model and a mixed model to understand different approaches of the concept.

Ability models place emotional intelligence within the sphere of an intelligence, in which emotion and thought interact in meaningful and adaptive ways. Thus emotional intelligence is viewed much like verbal or spatial intelligence, except that it operates on, and with, emotional content.

Mixed models blend various aspects of personality in an atheoretical manner. The resulting blend model of traits, dispositions, skills, competencies, and abilities is labeled emotional intelligence, even though the model particularly involves neither emotion nor intelligence.

These different models have given rise to different ways to measure emotional intelligence. Mixed models have been operationalized in self-report measures (e.g., Bar-On, 1997) or observer ratings such as 360-degree assessments (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000). Self-report measures have been developed on the ability-based approach also (Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, & Palfai, 1995; Schutte et al., 1998).

Mayer et al. (1999) developed a multitask, ability measure of emotional intelligence, the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS), based on the four-
branch ability model of emotional intelligence. The MEIS includes tasks such as judging the emotions in faces and designs, generating and then reasoning with an emotion, defining complex emotion terms, and selecting an optimal emotional decision-making strategy.

Some researchers have a critical view toward the emotional intelligence field (Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998; Mayer et al., 2000; Roberts et al., 2001). The key issues they raise are

(a) whether emotional intelligence can be operationalized;
(b) whether reliable emotional intelligence tests can be constructed;
(c) whether emotional intelligence is a new construct, and can be differentiated from existing personality trait models;
(d) what emotional intelligence predicts and the level of such prediction; and
(e) how to determine correct answers for such tests.


2.1.2.8 Domains given by Daniel Goleman

Daniel Goleman in his second book on Emotional Intelligence ‘Working with Emotional Intelligence’ has given five domains for Emotional Intelligence. The five domains are:

1. Self Awareness
2. Self Regulation or Managing Emotions
3. Motivating Oneself
4. Empathy
5. Handling Relationships or Social Skills
Out of these first three domains constitute the personal competence which determines how one manages oneself and the last two domains constitute the social competence which determine how we handle the relationships.

The first three categories come in the intrapersonal realm and the last two categories interpersonal in nature.

2.1.2.9 Description of Sub skills of Emotional Components

1. Personal Competence

These competencies determine how we manage ourselves

1. Self Awareness

(Knowing one’s own internal states, preferences, resources and intuitions)

Emotional awareness : Recognising one’s emotions and effects
Accurate self assessment : Knowing one’s strengths and limits
Self confidence : A strong sense of one’s self-worth and capabilities

2. Self Regulation

(Managing one’s internal states impulses and resources)

Self control : Keeping disruptive emotions and impulses in check
Trustworthiness : Maintaining standards of honesty and integrity
Conscientiousness : Taking responsibility for personal performance
Adaptability : Flexibility in handling change
Innovation: Being comfortable with novel ideas, approaches, and new information

3. Motivation

(Emotional tendencies that guide or facilitate reaching goals)

Achievement drive: Striving to improve or meet a standard of excellence

Commitment: Aligning with the goals of the group or organisation

Initiative: Readiness to act on opportunities

Optimism: Persistence in pursuing goals despite obstacles and setbacks

II. Social Competence

These competencies determine how we handle the relationships.

4. Empathy

(Awareness of other’s feelings, needs, and concerns)

Understanding others: Sensing other’s feelings and taking an active interest in their concerns

Developing others: Sensing others, development needs and bolstering their abilities

Service orientation: Anticipating, recognising, and meeting customers’ needs

Leveraging diversity: Cultivating opportunities through different kinds of people
Political Awareness : Reading a group’s emotional currents and power relationships

5. Social skills or Handling relationships

(Adeptness of inducing desirable responses in others)

Influence : Wielding affective tactics for persuasion

Communication : Listening openly and handling convincing messages

Conflict management : Negotiating and resolving disagreements

Leadership : Inspiring and guiding individuals and groups

Change catalyst : Initiating or managing change

Building bonds : Nurturing instrumental relationships

Collaboration and co-operation: Working with others toward shared goals

Team capabilities : Creating group synergy in pursuing collective goals

2.1.2.10 Theoretical Elaboration of Components and Sub skills of Emotional Intelligence

1. Self awareness

Self awareness is the vital foundation skill for three emotional competencies namely

- Emotional awareness:

  The recognition of how one’s emotions affect one’s performance, and the ability to use one’s values to guide decision making

- Accurate self-assessment:
A candid sense of our personal strengths and limits, a clear vision of where one need to improve, and the ability to learn from experience.

- **Self-confidence:**
  
  The courage that comes from certainty about one’s capabilities, values and goals

i) **Emotional awareness**

*Recognising one’s emotions and their effects*

People with this competence

- Know which emotions they are feeling and why
- Realise the links between their feelings and what they think, do, and say
- Recognise how their feelings affect their performance
- Have a guiding awareness of their values and goals

ii) **Accurate self-assessment**

*Knowing one’s strengths and limits*

People with this competence are

- Aware of their strengths and weaknesses
- Reflective, learning from experience
- Open to candid feedback, new perspectives, continuous learning, and Self-development
- Able to show a sense of humour and perspective about themselves

iii) **Self-confidence**

*A strong sense of one’s self-worth and capabilities*
People with this competence

- Present themselves with self-assurance; have “presence”
- Can voice views that are unpopular and go out on a limb for what is right
- Are decisive, able to make sound decisions despite uncertainties and pressures

2. Self Regulation

*Managing impulse as well as distressing feelings*

Handling impulses and dealing with upsets are at the core of five emotional competencies of self regulation.

- **Self-control**: Managing disruptive emotions and impulses effectively
- **Trustworthiness**: Displaying honesty and integrity
- **Conscientiousness**: Dependability and responsibility in fulfilling obligations
- **Adaptability**: Flexibility in handling change and challenges
- **Innovation**: Being open to novel ideas, approaches, new information

i) **Self-control**

Keeping disruptive emotions and impulses in check

People with this competence

- Mange their impulsive feelings and distressing emotions well
- Stay composed, positive, and unflappable even in trying moments
- Think clearly and stay focused even under pressure

ii & iii) **Trustworthiness and Conscientiousness**
Maintaining honesty and integrity and taking responsibility for personal performance

People with this competence

For trustworthiness

➢ Act ethically and are above reproach
➢ Build trust through their reliability and authenticity
➢ Admit their own mistakes and confront unethical actions in others
➢ Take tough, principled stands even if they are unpopular

For Conscientiousness

➢ Meet commitments and keep promises
➢ Hold themselves accountable for meeting their objectives
➢ Are organised and careful in their work

iv & v) Innovation and Adaptability

Being open to novel ideas, approaches, and new information and being flexible in responding to change

People with this competence

For Innovation

➢ Seek out fresh ideas from a wide variety of sources
➢ Entertain original solutions to problems
➢ Generate new ideas
➢ Take fresh perspectives and risk in their thinking

For Adaptability

➢ Smoothly handle multiple demands, shifting priorities, and rapid change
➢ Adapt their responses and tactics to fit fluid circumstances
➢ Are flexible in how they see events
3. Motivation

Three motivational competencies typify outstanding performers:

- **Achievement drive**: Striving to improve or meet the standard of excellence
- **Commitment**: Embracing the organisation’s or groups vision and goals
- **Initiative and optimism**: Twin competencies that mobilise people to seize opportunities and allow them to take setbacks and obstacles in stride

i) **Achievement drive**

*Striving to improve or meet the standard of excellence*

People with this competence

- Are result oriented, with a high drive to meet their objectives and standards
- Set challenging goals and take calculated risks
- Pursue information to reduce uncertainty and find ways do better
- Learn how to improve their performance

ii) **Commitment**

*Aligning with the goals of a group or a organisation*

People with this competence

- Readily make sacrifices to meet larger organisational goal
- Find a sense of purpose in the larger mission
- Use the group’s core values in making decisions and clarifying choices
- Actively seek out opportunities to fulfil the group’s mission

iii) **Initiative and optimism**

*Displaying proactivity and persistence*
People with this competence

For Initiative

- Are ready to seize opportunities
- Pursue goals beyond what is required or expected of them
- Cut through red tape and bend the rules when necessary to get the job done
- Mobilise others through unusual enterprising efforts

For Optimism

- Persist in seeking goals despite obstacles and setbacks
- Operate from hope of success rather than fear and failure
- See setbacks as due unmanageable circumstances rather than personal flaw

III. People Skills (Social Skills)

4. Empathy

Empathy is the foundation skill for all social competencies. The basic skills of social awareness which build empathy are:

- Understanding others: Sensing other’s feelings and perspectives, and taking an active interest in their concerns
- Service orientation: Anticipating, recognising, and meeting customer’s needs
- Developing others: Sensing others’ developmental needs and bolstering their abilities
- Leveraging diversity: Cultivating opportunities through diverse people
- Political awareness: Reading the political and social currents in an organisation
i) Understanding Others

*Sensing Others’ Feelings and Perspectives, and Taking an Active Interest in Their Concerns*

People with this competence

➢ Are attentive to emotional cues and listen well
➢ Show sensitivity and understand others’ perspectives
➢ Help out based on understanding other people’s needs and feelings

ii) Developing Others

*Sensing Others’ Development Needs and Bolstering Their Abilities*

People with this competence

➢ Acknowledge and reward people’s strengths and accomplishments
➢ Offer useful feedback and identify people’s needs for further growth
➢ Mentor, give timely coaching, and offer assignments that challenge and foster a person’s skills

iii) Service Orientation

*Anticipating, Recognising, and Meeting Customers’ Needs*

People with this competence

➢ Understand customers’ needs and match them to services or products
➢ Seek ways to increase customers’ satisfaction and loyalty
➢ Gladly offer appropriate assistance
➢ Grasp a customer’s perspective, acting as trusted advisor

iv) Leveraging Diversity

*Cultivating Opportunities Through Different Kinds of People*

People with this competence

➢ Respect and relate people from varied backgrounds
Review of Related Literature

- Understand diverse worldviews and are sensitive to group differences
- See diversity as opportunity, creating an environment where diverse people can thrive
- Challenge bias and intolerance

v) **Political Awareness**

*Reading Social and Political Currents*

People with this competence

- Accurately read key power relationships
- Detect crucial social networks
- Understand the forces that shape views and actions of the client, customers, or competitors
- Accurately read organisational and external realities

5. **Social Skills or Handling Relationships**

Social skills or handling another person’s emotions artfully include the following competencies:

- **Influence**: Wielding effective tactics of persuasion
- **Communication**: Sending clear and convincing messages
- **Conflict management**: Negotiating and resolving disagreements
- **Leadership**: Inspiring and guiding
- **Change catalyst**: Initiating, promoting, or managing change

i) **Influence**

*Wielding Effective Techniques for Persuasion*

People with this competence

- Are skilled at winning people over
- Fine-tune presentations to appeal to the listener
- Use complex strategies like indirect influence to build consensus and support
- Orchestrate dramatic events to effectively make a point

ii) Communication

Listening Openly and Sending Convincing Messages

People with this competence

- Are effective in give-and-take, registering emotional cues in attuning their message
- Deal with difficult issues straightforwardly
- Listen well, seek mutual understanding, and welcome sharing of information fully
- Foster open communication and stay receptive to bad news as well as good

iii) Conflict management

Negotiating and Resolving Disagreements

People with this competence

- Handle difficult people and tense situations with diplomacy and tact
- Spot potential conflict, bring disagreements into the open, and help de-escalate
- Encourage debate and open discussion
- Orchestrate win-win solutions

iv) Leadership

Inspiring and Guiding Individuals and Groups

People with this competence

- Articulate and arouse enthusiasm for a shared vision and mission
- Step forward to lead as needed, regardless of position
- Guide the performance of others while holding them accountable
- Lead by example
v) **Change Catalyst**

*Initiating and Managing Change*

People with this competence

- Recognise the need for change and remove barriers
- Challenge the status quo to acknowledge the need for change
- Champion the change and enlist others in its pursuit
- Model the change expected of others

**Collaboration, Teams, and the Group IQ**

Competencies essential for social co-ordination of a star performer are

- **Building Bonds:** Nurturing instrumental relationships
- **Collaboration and co-operation:** Working with others toward shared goals
- **Team capabilities:** Creating synergy in working toward group goals

i) **Building Bonds**

*Nurturing Instrumental Relationships*

People with this competence

- Cultivate and maintain extensive informal networks
- Seek out relationships that are mutually beneficial
- Build rapport and keep others in the loop
- Make and maintain personal friendships among work associates

ii) **Collaboration and Co-operation**

*Working with Others Toward Shared Goals*

People with this competence

- Balance a focus on task with attention to relationships
- Collaborate, sharing plans, information, and sources
- Promote a friendly, co-operative climate
Spot and nurture opportunities for collaboration

iii) Team Capabilities

Creating Group Synergy in Pursuing collective Goals

People with this competence

- Model team qualities like respect, helpfulness, and co-operation
- Draw all members into active and enthusiastic participation
- Build team identity, esprit de corps and commitment
- Protect the group and its reputation; share credit

Some researchers believe that EI doesn’t merit status as a distinct class of intelligence. Lack of instruments to measure and assess EI (Roberts, Zeidner & Matthews, 2001) and lack of a coherent and accessible scientific foundation for the proposition that EI exists are some of the questions raised by researchers. Landy (2005) raised concerns regarding a lack of theoretical parsimony, flawed reliance on cross-sectional (as opposed to causative) research designs, conceptual instability, and lack of publicly available data upon which to make a judgment. He contends that EI success statistics shared in popular books like Working with Emotional Intelligence (Goleman, 1998), are largely based on proprietary studies and data, the point of which is to build consulting revenues and there is a fundamental concern generated when the line is blurred between academic investigation and corporate research.

Now there are enough research studies to show that the concept of EI is worthy of use to view and assess human performance in a work setting. Teaching is a profession which requires lot of “emotion work”. As “emotion work cannot be performed well without possessing a foundation of emotional intelligence” Opengart (2005) sound emotional intelligence seems to be necessary requirement for teachers as well as prospective teachers.
Review of Studies by Goleman about 500 organizations worldwide, indicate that people have high EQ rise to the top of corporations. 'Star' employees possess more interpersonal skills and confidence than 'regular' employees who receive less glowing performance reviews. According to him 'Emotional intelligence matters twice as much as technical and analytic skill combined for star performances'.

2.1.3.1 Coping Strategies-Theoretical Aspects and Classifications

Stress and coping are arguably the most studied phenomena in psychology today (Hobfoll et al., 1996). Coping research finds its beginning with the conceptualization of coping by Lazarus in 1966. According to Lazarus stress consists of three processes namely Primary appraisal, Secondary appraisal and Coping. Primary appraisal is the process of perceiving threat to oneself, Secondary appraisal is the process of formulating potential response to threat and Coping is the process of executing the response (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984).

Though these processes are described in a linear sequence, they may not occur continuously in an unbroken sequence. Rather, outcome of one process may reinvoke a preceding process. Realising that an adequate response is readily available may cause one to appraise a threat as less threatening. If a coping response is less effective than expected, one may reappraise the level of threat or reappraise what coping response is appropriate. The entire set of processes may then cycle repeatedly in a stressful transaction (Carver, Weintraub & Scheirer, 1989).

2.1.3.2 Coping - Meaning

Coping has been regarded as having a central role in adaptation. Growth of interest in the concept of stress has popularized the research in the area of coping. Even then very few studies are conducted in this area in India.
Uncontrolled stress may cause serious harm to the individual and cost the organization where he/she works. Therefore coping with stress is necessary for the good of the individual and the society. Coping involves behavioral or cognitive strategies or both an individual may adopt to deal with the stress.

The process of coping has got three components namely

1. Situational or personal factors,
2. Cognitive appraisal of the stressors and
3. Coping strategies

Coping strategies can be either control strategies or escape strategies. Control strategies use behaviours and cognitions to directly anticipate and solve the problems. Escape strategies use behaviours and cognitions to escape from situations or to avoid the problem. Another type of strategies which are called symptom management strategies consist of using methods such as relaxation, meditation or medication to manage the symptoms of occupational stress (Terry, 1994). Coping strategies can be cognitive, emotional, behavioral or physical.

1. **Cognitive coping Strategies**

   Cognitive coping strategies view stressors as challenges rather than threats. It does not eliminate threats but help people perceive them as less threatening and make them less disruptive.

2. **Emotional Coping Strategies**

   Seeking and obtaining social support help individuals to cope with stress effectively. The perception that emotional support, and is cared for and valued by others tends to be an effective buffer against the ill effect of many stressors (Taylor, 1995).


3. **Behavioural Coping Strategies**

Behavioural coping strategies involve changing the behaviours to minimize the impact of stressors. For example a time management plan helps one to manage the available time and plan for handling the stressors.

4. **Physical Coping Strategies**

Physical Coping Strategies aim at changing or altering one’s physical responses before, during or after the occurrence of the stressors.

Coping theory is linked to three major influences in the contemporary psychological research. First set of theories stress on coping and the interplay between nature and nurture in development. Second set of theories focus on the integration of an individual’s sense of self-efficacy and the development of optimism and motivation into the framework of coping. Finally coping and learning and development within a social context are considered.

Coping strategies are actions that people take to master, tolerate, reduce, or minimize the effects of stressors. Mainly there are two classifications in coping like behavioural strategies and psychological strategies. Coping is not a permanently fixed individual trait or disposition but a transactional process which is continually modified by experience. Moreover, coping is not only a reaction to stress, but it may be viewed as a preventive strategy, if a potential stressful situation is anticipated.

Ways of coping vary according to the individuals, such as confrontive strategies, distancing, seeking social support, escape-avoidance, etc. Thus coping is viewed as the cognitive, behavioural or somatic response which is intended to

1. Eliminate or reduce the stress;
2. Alter one’s appraisal of the stressor; or
3. Managing or reducing the feelings of discomfort(Murphy, 1985).
Maladaptive coping can have negative consequences also. Researches have shown that women who repress emotional disturbances have more chances of having breast cancer than those who express their feelings, seek help and acknowledge the stress related event. Maladaptive and negative coping strategies can increase the risk of developing psychological problems in youths experiencing distress (Cummings et al., 1989). Maladaptive coping strategies are less productive and more prone to the development of distress. Positive coping strategies enhance healthy development and prove realistic ways to handle conflict situation in an adaptive way (Reckliltis & Noam, 1999).

Lazarus and Folkman (1980) have proposed two types of coping as problem focused coping and emotion focused coping. Thoits (1986) proposed a third type of coping namely perception focused strategy.

**Problem focused coping** eliminates the stressor or its impact through their direct actions. It is a positive coping strategy. In **emotion focused coping** people react emotionally to the stressor and try to change what they feel about the stressor and their emotional reactions to the stressor. Both these strategies are used together or separately by people to deal with stress. In **perception focused coping** cognitive attempts are made alter the meaning of the situation so that it is perceived as less threatening.

The defense mechanisms proposed by Sigmund Freud in his psycho analytic theory such as denial, repression, rationalisation, projection, reaction formation, displacement, regression, identification, compensation(substitution), and sublimation are some sort of emotion focused coping strategies. Using humour, crying, ignoring problems etc are other emotion focused coping strategies. Self regulation or self control of the physiological aspect of functioning along with relaxation continuum is
one among the main coping skills (Matthews, 1988). Different people tend to use different coping strategies and the use of a particular strategy may also depend upon on the situation and the emotions aroused by it. (Folkman & Moscovitz, 2004)

![Model of the Coping Process Suggested by Lazarus & Folkman, 1984.](image)


Coping consists of efforts, both action oriented and intra-psychic, to manage (i.e., master, tolerate, reduce, minimise) environmental and internal demands and conflicts.

Lazarus and Launier (1978)

Coping refers to cognitive or behavioral responses to stressors, intended to remedy a stressful situation or to dampen the emotional response to a stressful situation.
Coping is the cognitive, behavioural (and emotional) efforts to manage particular external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person.

Lazarus and Folkman (1984, p.141)

The cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the individual.

Folkman and Lazarus (1988)

Coping is a dynamic process that changes as the individual grows through levels of cognitive development.

Frydenberg & Lewis (1993)

Coping reflects the ability of an individual to effectively regulate his/her own behavior, emotions, and motivational orientation during stress.

Shulman (1993)

Coping is the cognitive and affective responses used by individuals to manage stress.


Thus coping is a process that involves cognitive appraisal of resources. Lazarus’ theory proposes two levels of appraisal in coping process, the primary appraisal and secondary appraisal. During primary appraisal the individual perceives whether the event or situation is harmful or threatening. During secondary appraisal the examination of the available resources is done. As a consequence of appraisals of one’s resources and the situation, the person-environment relationship develops. Lewin’s (1936) person-environment interaction model which involves constant action
and interaction between the individual and the environment describes this relationship. Thus coping is a dynamic process which depends on both the demands of the environment and the characteristics of the individual (Andrews et al., 2004).

2.1.3.4 Dimensions of Coping

Folkman and Lazarus (1980) developed a self-report questionnaire name the Ways of Coping Checklist (WCC) to measure the coping strategies used by people in a specific context. It measured situation specific coping by asking what they did or thought in a recent stressful situation. Two theoretical dimensions of coping distinguished were problem focusing coping and emotion-focused coping. Later in 1988, they used factor analytic method to develop the revised second version of WCC called Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WCQ) with 66 items as the earlier two dimensions “failed to reflect the richness and complexity of human coping processes”. They described eight factors: Confrontive Coping, Distancing, Self-Controlling, Seeking Social Support, Accepting Responsibility, Escape-Avoidance, Planful Problem Solving and Positive Reappraisal.

Coping responses are usually grouped into coping categories or coping styles. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) proposed mainly two types of coping, **Problem-focused coping** and **Emotion-focused coping**. Problem-focused coping attempts to control or alter the sources of the stress whereas emotion-focused coping involves attempts to manage the emotional responses of the stress. Though problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping are conceptually distinguishable, they should not be considered independent and usually occur together (Lazarus, 2000).

A number of self-protective strategies are developed by individuals to cope with stress. Several achievement related coping strategies like schematic optimists, schematic pessimists, defensive pessimists and aschematics have been listed (Cantor
et.al., 1987). Defensive-pessimism is one such strategy which refers to setting low expectations, despite good past achievement performance, and experiencing feelings of intense anxiety before the task. Aschematics are those less likely to stick to any one coping style.

Coping is related to both emotion regulation and health. Coping has been conceptualized as an individual’s pattern of response to external negative events (Carver et al., 1989). Weinberger (1990) also suggests links between coping and psychological and physical functioning.

Another categorization of coping is in terms of adaptive outcomes. Frydenberg and Lewis (1993) proposed three categories of coping: **Solving the problem, reference to others for support** and **Non-productive coping**. Solving the problem involves working on a problem with an optimistic attitude, reference to others involves soliciting support from others; and non-productive coping involves ignoring the problem, worrying and wishful thinking. Thus coping can be generally categorized as productive and non-productive. Functional style of coping involves attempting to manage the problem with or without reference to others while dysfunctional type of coping involves the use of non-productive strategies that have an emotional focus.

The types of coping skills involved in problem solving include:

- seeking out new information that can help lessen the stress’
- seeking advice,
- allowing social support from friends, family members, and the community;
- and
- making effort to solve the problem.

(Dumont & Provost, 1999)
Fredrickson (2001) studied the functions of positive emotions in psychological health and well being and has put forward that positive emotions, such as joy, interest, contentment, pride, and love, expand attention, cognition, and action.

Pekrun et al. (2002) reported that positive emotions facilitate flexible and creative ways of thinking, problem solving, and coping. They perceived coping in the light of the cognitive-motivational-relational theory of emotion. (Lazarus, 1991a, 1991b, 1993). This situational process-oriented approach emphasizes the complex interaction between person and environment and the role of cognitive appraisal. This approach of coping has some advantages over theories that define coping as a stable personality trait (Roth and Cohen, 1986).

Based on Tobin’s hierarchical model of coping strategies (Tobin et al., 1989), Salovey et al. (2002) created two global constructs (a) approach or active coping and (b) avoidant or passive coping. Active coping included strategies such as concentrating, planning, seeking instrumental and emotional support, and processing and expressing one’s emotions. Passive coping included disengagement strategies including denial, giving up, and using drugs, alcohol, eating, sleep, or movies to feel better or forget the problem.

Active coping which is believed to be more adaptive refers to active steps to change a stressful situation or to ameliorate its effects including both emotion and problem-focused strategies. Passive coping, which is believed to be less adaptive, refers to giving up, avoiding, or inhibiting an active response.

Coping is the psychological mediation between the perceived demands of the individual’s external world and the perceived needs of the individual’s internal world. It includes all strategies, whether cognitive, emotional, or physical, that a person uses
to negotiate a balance between the internal psychological state and the external stressors. Coping is a constant process (Neil & Heubeck, 1998)

Coping strategies can work by

a) Minimising the stress response itself
b) Removing or reducing situational demands;
c) Increasing available resources (e.g., obtaining professional help); or,
d) Altering cognitive appraisal of the stressor

Carpenter (1992)

All coping strategies may not be always effective and productive. Nonproductive strategies may have no effect at all or even may make the distressful experience worse. The development of an effective and versatile repertoire of coping responses is one of the fundamental elements of healthy psychological and behavioural growth (Neil & Heubeck, 1998).

No coping strategy is always good or bad, what appears to be important is the match between the demands of the situation and the coping strategy utilized (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984).

2.1.3.5 Coping Styles

Interactionist theories about coping suggest that coping styles are the product of learning experience (Heszen-Niejodek, 1997). They represent the strategies typically used by an individual when confronting most stressful situations. They depend on the developmental level, appraisal of the stressful situation, and learned styles of responding to stress due to the success of previous stress management experiences (Compas, Connor-Smith, Saltzman, Thomsen, & Wadsworth, 2001).

Segerstrom and her colleagues (1998) studied the effect of optimism on mood among law students and found that optimism favoured better mood, more number of
helper T-cells that help immune reactions to infections and higher natural killer cell activity which helps in fighting viral infections and certain type of cancers.

Problem focused coping brings out positive outcomes when the source of stress is controllable and poor outcomes when it is not (Lester, Smart & Baum, 1994). Hence a wide variety of coping strategies are needed to deal with the stressors successfully.

Problem focused coping brings out positive results when the source of stress is manageable whereas poorer results when it is not (Lester, Smart & Baum, 1994). Hence stress can be successfully dealt only with a variety of coping strategies.

Women were reported to seek more social support, using emotion focused coping with their mood to greater extent than men, whereas men used more problem focused coping than women (Butler & Nolen-Hoeksema, 1994; Ptacek, Smith & Dodge, 1994). However, women did more problem-focused coping with self, parenting, and problems with other people whereas men did more problem focusing with work related and miscellaneous problems (Porter and Stone, 1995). In work place, women showed more sensitivity to problems related to interpersonal relationships than men did and men had a relatively lack of concern for personality conflicts. The results are inconsistent attached with situational explanation of gender differences in coping, but are consistent with the notion that men and women cope with stress in different ways.

Ptacek, Smith & Dodge (1994) reported that men tend adopt more problem focused coping strategies whereas women tend to adopt more emotion focused coping strategies and seek social support. But Porter and Stone (1995) found very little difference among men and women in the stress experienced or coping strategies adopted.
2.1.3.6 Types of Coping

Defense mechanisms proposed by Sigmund Freud in his psycho-analytic theory such as denial, repression, rationalisation, projection, reaction formation, displacement, regression, identification, compensation(substitution), and sublimation are some sort of emotion focused coping strategies. Using humor, crying, ignoring problems etc. are other emotion focused coping strategies.

2.1.3.7 Factors of Coping

Eight coping factors were identified and measured in the Ways of Coping Questionnaire developed by Folkman & Lazarus(1988). They are:

1. **Confrontive Coping**: describes aggressive efforts to alter the situation and suggests some degree of hostility and risk-taking.

2. **Distancing**: describes cognitive efforts to detach one and to minimize the significance of the situation.

3. **Self-Controlling**: describes efforts to regulate one's feelings and actions.

4. **Seeking Social Support**: describes efforts to seek informational support, tangible support, and emotional support.

5. **Accepting Responsibility**: acknowledges one's own role in the problem with a concomitant theme of trying to put things right.

6. **Escape-Avoidance**: describes wishful thinking and behavioral efforts to escape or avoid the problem. Items on this scale contrast with those on the distancing scale, which suggest detachment.

7. **Planful Problem Solving**: describes deliberate problem-focused efforts to alter the situation, coupled with an analytic approach to solving the problem.

8. **Positive Reappraisal**: describes efforts to create positive meaning by focusing on personal growth. It also has a religious dimension.
2.1.3.8 Conceptual Areas of Coping

Eighteen conceptual areas were attributed to coping by Frydenberg & Lewis (1997). They are:

1. **Seek Social Support:** Inclination to share the problem with others and enlist support in its management. e.g. Talk to other people to help sort the problem out.

2. **Focus on Solving the Problem:** A problem-focused strategy that tackles the problem systematically by learning about it and takes into account different points of view or options.

   e.g. Work at solving the problem to the best of one’s ability.

3. **Work Hard and Achieve:** A strategy describing commitment, ambition (achieve well) and industry. e.g. Work hard

4. **Worry:** Indicate a concern about the future in general more specifically a concern with happiness in future. e.g. Worry about what is happening.

5. **Invest in Close Friends:** Engaging a particular intimate relationship.

   e.g. Spend more time with a friend.

6. **Seek to Belong:** Caring and concern for one’s relationship with others in general and more specifically concern with what others think. e.g. Improve one’s relationship with others

7. **Wishful Thinking:** Hope and anticipation of a positive outcome. e.g. Hope for the best

8. **Social Action:** Letting others know what is of concern and enlisting support by organising an activity such as meeting, rally etc. e.g. Join people who have the same concern

9. **Tension Reduction:** Attempt to make oneself feel better by releasing tension.

   e.g. Make oneself feel better by taking alcohol, cigarettes or other drugs.
10. **Not Cope**: Individual’s inability to deal with the problem and the development of psychosomatic symptoms. e.g. There is no way of dealing with the situation.

11. **Ignore the Problem**: Conscious blocking out of the problem and resignation coupled with an acceptance that there is no way of dealing with it. e.g. Ignore the problem.

12. **Self – Blame**: Individual sees himself/herself as responsible for the worry.
    e.g. accept that oneself is responsible for the problem.

13. **Keep to Self**: Individual’s withdrawal from others and wish to keep others from knowing about concerns. e.g. Keep feelings to oneself.

14. **Seek Spiritual Support**: Prayer and belief in the assistance of a spiritual leader or Lord.
    e.g. Pray for help and guidance so that everything will be all right.

15. **Focus on the Positive**: Indicate a positive and cheerful outlook on the current situation.

16. **Seek Professional Help**: Use of a professional adviser such as a teacher or a counsellor.
    e.g. Discuss the problem with qualified people.

17. **Seek Relaxing Diversions**: Relaxation in general is characterised by leisure activities such as reading, painting etc. e.g. listen to music, watch TV.

18. **Physical Recreation**: Relate to sport and keeping fit. e.g. Keep fit and healthy

Nineteen categories of coping strategies were given by the same authors later (2000) with some changes to some of the earlier components and by adding two new categories. Investing in close friends (category 5) and seek to belong (category 6) were clubbed together and modified as a new category as **Improve Relationships**.
Similarly two new categories were added namely *Protecting Self* and *Humor* making altogether nineteen categories.

**Improve Relationships** is about improving one’s relationships with others, engaging in particular intimate relationship e.g. Spend more time with husband/wife/friend.

**Protect Self** attempts to support one’s self concept by constructive self talk and looking after one’s appearance. e.g. Work on one’s self image.

**Humor** is about being funny as a diversion. e.g. Create a humorous diversion.

These categories can be classified mainly under two heads namely problem focused coping strategies and emotion focused coping strategies. Emotion based coping strategies can be further classified into positive emotion focused coping strategies and negative emotion based coping strategies.

**I. Problem-Focused coping Strategies**

Problem focused coping strategies are Seek Social Support, Focus on Solving the Problem, Work Hard and Achieve, Social Action, Focus on the Positive, Seek Professional Help and Physical Recreation.

**II. Emotion-Focused Coping Strategies**

Positive Emotion-Focused Coping Strategies are Invest in Close Friends, Seek to Belong and Seek Spiritual Support.

Negative Emotion-Focused Coping Strategies are Worry, Wishful Thinking, Tension Reduction, Not Cope, Ignore the Problem, Self – Blame, Keep to Self and Seek Relaxing Diversions
2.1.3.9 Other Classifications of Coping Strategies

1. Moving with and Other Coping Strategies

Four types of coping strategies were proposed by Horney (1990) the German Freudian Psychoanalyst, such as

1) Moving With Coping Strategies: are strategies which psychologically healthy people employ to develop relationships. There will be communication, agreement, disagreement, compromise and decisions. The other strategies are supposed to be employed by neurotic people. They are unhealthy strategies people utilise in order to protect themselves.

2) Moving Toward Coping Strategies

The individual moves towards those perceived as a threat to avoid getting hurt. The argument is if I give in I won’t be hurt (physically or emotionally).

3) Moving Against Coping Strategies

The individual threatens to those perceived as a threat to avoid getting hurt.

4) Moving Away Coping Strategies

The individual distances himself/herself from anyone perceived as a threat to avoid getting hurt. The argument is “If I do not let anyone close to me I won’t get hurt.”

2. Task-oriented, Emotion-oriented and Avoidance-orientated Coping Strategies

Endler & Parker (1990) in CISS (Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations) suggested three types of coping namely

1. Task-oriented coping
2. Emotion-oriented coping
3. Avoidance-oriented coping were.
Avoidance-oriented coping can be further classified into two, namely social diversion and distraction.

3. Direct and Indirect Coping Strategies

Pine and Aroson (1988) divided coping strategies into direct and indirect strategies, and categorised concepts into action and non-action. That is direct strategies into direct/action and direct/non-action and indirect strategies into indirect/action and indirect/non-action.

The most active strategy beneficial for individual growth is direct/action, which emphasises facing stressful situations with courage. However, the most passive strategy harmful for physical and mental health is direct/non-action, which is where harmful alcohol or drug abuse is adopted to flee from reality, which may cause irrecoverable harm.

4. Action-based and Emotion-based Coping Strategies

Two primary styles of coping with stress are Action-based coping which deals with a problem that is causing stress and Emotion-based coping which reduces the symptoms of stress without addressing the source of stress.

Action based coping is generally seen as superior to emotion-based coping, as it can directly reduce a source of stress. e.g. Planning, suppression of competing activities, confrontation with the problem, self control and restraint.

There are both positive and negative emotion-based coping strategies. Emotion-based coping strategies can be helpful to reduce the stress to a manageable level, enabling action-based coping, or when the source of stress cannot be addressed directly.

Examples for Positive Emotion-based Coping Strategies are discussing the stress with a friend, sleeping, relaxation, reappraisal, wishful thinking, religion and
humor. Examples for *Negative Emotion-based Coping Strategies* are denial, repression, distraction, consuming alcohol, smoking.

5. **Active and Passive Coping**

Another classification of the coping behaviour and attitude is that

1. **Active problem coping**: points at instances when individuals face stress, they solve their problems by looking at the centre of the problem and assist themselves or search for assistance, including:
   - Solving a problem: includes simplifying the problem, getting to the main point, being calm and optimistic, independent planning and handling of matter.
   - Search for assistance: includes search for external resources, such as teachers or friends or collecting related data from various channels.

2. **Active emotional coping**: points at individuals adopting the attitude of emotional adjustment first, when faced with stress, including:
   - Emotional adjustment: points at adjustment attitudes such as positive thinking, emotions and self-encouragement.
   - Emotional outburst: points at shifting the attention, changing the emotions, and searching for external resources to assist in adjusting the emotions or searching for de-stressing methods.

3. **Passive problem coping**: points at individuals adopting procrastinating and evasive behaviours when facing stress, including:
   - Procrastinating problems: temporarily putting aside or passively constraining the problem.
   - Evasion of problems: includes alcohol or drug abuse to cause numbness, evade problems, and decrease standards.
4. **Passive emotional coping**: points at a passive situation that appears when an individual faces stress, including:

- Emotionally downcast: points at constraining emotions and self-accusation, blaming God and others or giving up.
- Loss of emotional control: points at getting angry easily or blaming others.

6. **Reactive Coping and Proactive Coping**

Two ways of coping namely Reactive coping -responding to the current or past stressors and Proactive coping -responding to potential stressors i.e. taking action before – not in response to events were also identified (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1997; Schwarzer & Knoll, 2003).

All these classifications of coping can be summarized into two broad categories such as Problem-Focused Coping and Emotion-Focused Coping. Problem-focused coping focuses on changing the environment itself or the way the person interacts with the environment whereas emotion-focused coping focuses on changing the emotional response to the stressor.
## Table 2.1
Description of Problem-Focused and Emotion-Focused Coping strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Problem-Focused Strategies</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active coping</td>
<td>Actively tries to remove or work around stressor, or to ameliorate its effects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>Thinks about how to manage the stressor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrumental social support</td>
<td>Seeks concrete advice, assistance, information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suppression of competing activities</td>
<td>Puts other activities on hold in order to concentrate on and cope with stressor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restraint coping</td>
<td>Waits to act until the appropriate time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Emotion-Focused Strategies</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional social support</td>
<td>Seeks encouragement, moral support, sympathy, and understanding, from others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venting emotions</td>
<td>Focuses on and talks about distressing feelings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive reinterpretation/growth</td>
<td>Reinterprets the stressor or situation in a positive way or as a challenge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioural disengagement</td>
<td>Reduces efforts to deal with the stressor (as occurs with learned helplessness).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental disengagement</td>
<td>Turns to other activities to distract attention from the stressor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.1.3.10 Factors Influencing Coping

**Culture**

Culture plays an important role in the choice of coping strategies and dealing with stress. People from different cultures react to the same stressor in different ways based upon their culture. For example, stressors like death, divorce, abortion etc may generate different coping reactions in the people of the east from that of the west. Culture also. Chang (1996) found that Asian students were more pessimistic and use more problem avoidance and social withdrawal as coping strategies whereas their European counterparts showed preference in the opposite direction. Hence individuals vary greatly dealing with stress and many personal as well as social factors play a role in the selection of coping strategies by the individual.

**Religion**

Religion also is a factor in deciding the coping strategies resorted to by people. The membership in a religious organisation provides social support. Religious functions, rituals and rites help people to feel better about their weaknesses and overcome their failures and inadequacies and thus to cope with stress in a better way. Many religions also instill values, provide healthy behaviour and habits, and prohibit activities such as smoking, drinking alcohol and sexual activity outside marriage. Belief in a higher power also helps to find relief in the time of stress.

**Optimism-Pessimism**

The dimension of optimism-pessimism plays a major role in determining one’s perception towards stressors and one's resistance to stress. Coping strategies employed by optimists and pessimists differ in dealing with stress. Strategies employed by optimists such as problem-focused coping, suppressing competing activities (refraining from other activities until the problem is solved and stress is
reduced), seeking social support etc. are found to be more effective than those adopted by pessimists such as denial/distancing (ignoring the problem), disengaging the goal (giving up the goal), focusing on the expression of feelings (venting the feelings instead of working on the problem). Different people tend to use different coping strategies and the use of a particular strategy may also depend upon on the situation and the emotions aroused by it. (Folkman & Moscovitz, 2004).

Scheier & Carver, (1988) found that optimists - people who have general expectancies for good outcomes are much more stress resistant than pessimists - people who have general expectancies for poor outcomes. This resistance originates from the beneficial changes in the immune system. Segerstrom and her colleagues (1998) studied the effect of optimism on mood among law students and found that optimism favoured better mood, more number of T-cells that helps immune reactions to infections and higher natural killer cell activity which helps in fighting viral infections and certain type of cancers.

Carver et al. (1993) found that optimists focus on problem focused coping: chalking out and executing specific plans for dealing with the source of stress and seek social support: advice and help of others whereas pessimists adopt strategies such as giving up the goal with which the stress the interfering or denying that the stress exists (Scheier, Weintraub, & Carver, 1986).

Optimists are more satisfied with their skills at handling stress and life in general. Males using optimistic coping strategies are also less stressed than the people whose coping styles change (Aschematics). They have higher self-concept, feel emotionally stable, believe more in their academic ability and are more satisfied with their ability to handle stress. Although non-optimistic strategies may work, they may not worth for handling stress in long term (Morrison et al., 1991)
Table 2.2
Optimists & Pessimists: Contrasting Strategies for Coping with Stress

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies Preferred</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>By optimists</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem-focused coping</td>
<td>Making and implementing specific plans for dealing with the stress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suppressing competing activities</td>
<td>Refraining from other activities until the problem is solved and stress is reduced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeking social support</td>
<td>Getting advice from others and sharing the problem with others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>By Pessimists</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denial/distancing</td>
<td>Ignoring the problem or source of stress, refusing to believe that stress exists or is important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disengaging from the goal</td>
<td>Giving up the goal that is being interfered by the stressor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focusing the expression of feelings</td>
<td>Letting off the steam instead of trying to solve the problem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.1.3.11 Stress Management Techniques

Stress management techniques are mainly of three categories.

1. **Physiological coping techniques**

   Tense muscles, increased pulse rate, pounding heart, dry mouth, queasy stomach and sweating are the common physiological responses to stress.

   Progressive relaxation is an effective technique to reduce tension. Flexing and relaxing the muscles alternately one by one from head to toe and appreciating the difference between relaxed and tense muscles is the technique adopted here.

   Controlled deep long breathing and meditation are the other effective techniques for relaxation. Regular vigorous exercise is also found to be good for
reducing stress. All these techniques enhance the capacity to cope with the stress effectively.

2. Behavioral coping techniques

Behavioral patterns like overloading, work schedule, poor time management, procrastination etc. are strong sources of stress. Time management and adhering to a well-planned schedule help to eliminate behaviors that interfere with the goal.

3. Cognitive Coping Strategies

When there is no control over the stressors the best way to manage stress is to control the cognitive reactions to the stressors by cognitive restructuring. Cognitive restructuring is the process of replacing negative appraisal of the stressor with more positive ones (Meichenbaum, 1977). This can be done by monitoring what one says to oneself while going through the stress period. Social support from family, friends and colleagues also help in restructuring the perception.

One of the main coping skills in the management of stress is self regulation or self-control of physiological aspects of functioning along with the relaxation/arousal continuum. (Matthews, 1988)

Nenortes (1986) proposed a four step stress management programme which help students to reduce stress (as cited in Credit and Garcia, 1999).

1. Realise that stress is experienced by everyone and different for everyone by which students can focus on recognizing their own personal stressors.
2. Students need to be encouraged to find out how stress affects them.
3. Students need to be able to implement skills for stress reduction.
4. The teacher needs to lead the students to accept responsibilities for alleviating their stress.
Muto & Wilk (1993) described another four step interactive process for coping with stress:

1. Learn to define stress
2. Examine some causes of stress in their lives
3. Describe the effect of stress on overall health
4. Demonstrate productive methods of managing their own stress

Another stress management programme is

1. Analyzing how the problem measures when compared to other problems,
2. Putting the problem aside for a while before tackling it,
3. Writing the stressor down as well as one’s reaction to it,
4. Recognizing whether the stress induced energy is used in a positive fashion, and
5. Developing plans to deal with the stress in a positive way

(www.missouri.edu, 1998)

4. Relaxation Techniques

Relaxation techniques were found to be helpful in reducing anxiety (Matthews, 1988). Imagery, day dreaming for a few minutes, deep breathing exercises, tongue exercises, neck, and forehead massage are also recommended for reducing stress (The instructional materials laboratory, 1992). Meditation and visualization are other techniques recommended for the reduction of stress (www.columbia.net).

Meditation

Meditation is also found to be a very effective coping mechanism. Meditation is a mental exercise to refocus the attention and to achieve peace, stability and trancelike consciousness. It provides relaxation and lowers hypertension (high blood
pressure), reduces anxiety, sleeplessness and many other physiological as well as psychological disorders. Davidson et al. (2000) have convincing data that meditation can change the brain as well as the body (as cited by Girdano et al., 2009).

**Concentrative meditation**

Concentrative meditation is a type of meditation which focuses one’s mind on some repetitive stimulus like a regular beat or an unchanging stimulus like a spot and helps to forget one’s worries and problems and bring the mind and body into relaxed state.

**Receptive meditation**

Receptive meditation is another type of meditation which helps a person to become aware of everything in immediate conscious experience and expand one’s consciousness outward. Physical exercise, engaging in sports, games and hobbies, going for a nature walk, hearing music, watching interesting shows, talking with friends, humour etc. are also found to be good relaxation techniques.

Yoga, goal-setting, problem solving, stretching exercise, music therapy, aroma therapy etc are also stress relieving techniques.
PART II: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Part I of this chapter gives an extensive view of the theoretical constructs of the variables; Stress, Emotional Intelligence and Coping Strategies. This part gives an account of the important studies specifically related to the topic, and to certain extent important studies related to other areas which can give more understanding about the characteristics of the variables.

The review of studies is done under three heads viz.

2.2.1. Studies Related to Stress

2.2.2. Studies Related to Emotional Intelligence

2.2.3. Studies Related to Coping Strategies

Studies related to the variables are selected on the basis of their relevance to teacher education /teaching / academic field. In certain cases, other studies are also cited if it explains certain characteristics of the variable which is helpful for the study.

2.2.1 Studies Related to Stress

Alexander (1983) tried to determine the levels and sources of Stress experienced by 660 teachers in central and western Kentucky using Teaching Events Stress Inventory (TESI). Factor analysis revealed five stable, independent and logically sound factors such as personal/professional threat, interpersonal relationships, racial issues, non-contact teaching tasks and change in normal routine.

Cook (1983) studied the elements affecting teacher stress and found relationship between teacher stress and attribution of responsibility, social support, and the teacher characteristics such as sex and age.

Crane and Iwanicki (1983) conducted a survey among 443 special education teachers in Connecticut to measure two components of organizational stress; role
conflict and role ambiguity and perceived teacher burn out. Role conflict had greatest variance in emotional exhaustion and role ambiguity accounted for significant variance in the subscale of personal accomplishment only.

Dunham (1983) conducted a study among 220 special educators to identify signs and sources of stress and found that the most prevalent factors were being the feeling of exhaustion, frustration, disturbed sleep, and withdrawal. Personal, interpersonal, organizational and community approaches were the coping resources.

Helge (1983) identified the stress factors and aids in the development of a personalized stress management program for rural special educators. The study suggests stress reduction through cognitive, affective and physiological methods for stress reduction. Suggested cognitive activities were identifying stress patterns, recognizing emotions, applying an emotional continuum, to stress reduction, identifying currently used stress reduction methods and resources, and practicing new methods. Suggested affective activities for stress reduction were structuring appropriate release of anger, structuring social support group, building positive attitudes, and desensitizing oneself to anxiety producing situations. Physiological methods suggested for stress reduction includes increasing blood circulation, relaxation and nutrition.

Hargens (1984) designed modified model of Kyraicou and Sutcliffe’s Model, to provide empirical support for a cognitive model for teacher stress. The findings and conclusions of the study were; when teachers rated themselves as having less coping skills to deal with stressful events, their state anxiety scores increased, male teachers had higher depression scores than female teachers, and the more the teachers rated stressors as upsetting the more the depression scores.
Tupes (1986) studied the degrees of stress perceived by public elementary and secondary school teachers in Prince William country school system and found that sex was a significant predictor of perceived stress level, and there are differential levels of stress across the demographic variables such as sex, age, marital status, race, degree and percentage of total family income.

Read (1987) tried to identify the causes of teacher stress and found that research reports on the causes and management of stress mainly focuses upon the areas of the classroom, the school organization, and individual and personal factors.

Wirth (1988) in the report of the results 1986 Boston Women Teachers Group study concluded that teacher stress is an institutionally derived problem and not a result of individual personality failures.

Fernandes and Murthy (1989) studied the job relates stress and burnout of the middle and secondary school taking 50 female teachers from seven schools of Bangalore east. The study revealed that 76 percent of the sample experienced stress in the profession. Pupil misbehavior, time pressure, poor working conditions and poor school ethos were found to be the order of the stressors in causing stress.

Manthei (1989) conducted a survey among the school counselors about the job related stress and found that females reported significantly more stress than males due to job overload than males, but they experienced less stress than males when performing non professional duties.

Dedrick and Raschke (1990) analysed the stressors encountered by special educators, ways of coping with professional demands and ‘why some teachers handle job stress better than others’. Diet and exercise, relaxation techniques, social support systems, goal setting, creative problem solving, time management, networking, self talk, stroking and self-given gifts were the ten stress management strategies analysed.
Long and Gessaroli (1990) conducted a survey study to find out the relationship between teacher stress and perceived coping effectiveness and reported that males experienced more stress than females, unmarried subjects felt more role stress than married subjects, and males felt avoidance coping strategies are more effective while females felt that problem solving was more effective. Married and unmarried subjects differed in their relationships between stress and coping strategies.

Minner and Lepich (1993) studied the occupational stress of 265 beginning special education teachers in Illinois. Job related stress was significantly higher among the rural teachers compared to the urban teachers.

Smith and Witt (1993) conducted a study comparing the occupational stress among 1000 African, American and White University faculty members. African-American faculty members were found to have higher levels of occupational stress than their white counterparts.

Arnold (1996) conducted survey on the influence of institutional characteristics on teachers stress taking nearly 43000 teachers from 300 secondary education institutions in USA. The study revealed that institutional variables did not appear to be the predictors of faculty stress.

Hui and Chan (1996) investigated about the sources of stress with specific reference to guidance as a potential source of stress among 415 secondary school teachers. The results showed that female teachers, younger teachers, and junior teachers perceived more stress than their counterparts.

Schammer and Jackson (1996) conducted a study on teacher stress and burnout among 515 secondary level teachers of Ontario city. The study revealed that teachers are affected by continued stress leading to burnout more than any other
public service professionals; which in turn will result in a negative attitude towards students, and loss of idealism, energy and purpose.

Brownwell (1997) discussed the stress experienced by special education teachers due to role overload and lack of autonomy. The stress relieving strategies suggested are setting realistic expectations, making distinctions between job and personal life, increasing autonomy, looking for alternative sources of reinforcement, increasing efficacy and developing personal coping strategies.

Dussault (1997) studied the professional isolation and teacher stress of 1158 French Canadian teachers and found a positive and significant correlation between isolation and occupational stress.

Green, et al. (1997) in the study on the index of teaching stress suggested that teaching stress could be conceptualized as a measure of student teacher compatibility.

Chan (1998) conducted a study on the stress, coping strategies and psychological distress among 412 secondary school teachers in China. The study revealed significant relationship between stressors, active and passive coping strategies, and psychological distress.

Gugliemi and Tatrow (1998) studied the health effects of teacher stress and found that teachers having occupational stress suffered serious health problems.

Lease (1999) in a study on occupational stress and personal strain levels of college faculty found no differences in stress or strain between male and female faculty, or between new and experienced faculty. Role overload and avoidant coping were found to be significant predictors of strain.

Sumison and Thomas (1999) conducted a study among 130 student teachers enrolled in the second-year guided practice and found that the pre practicum stress
management stress management sessions played some role in reducing the stress experienced during practicum.

Brember et al. (2002) studied the gender related causes of stress in teacher trainees on teaching practice in the school of Education, University of Manchester and reported that men seemed to find teaching practice significantly less stressful than women which indicated that females were more stressed than males.

Akgan and Ciarrochi (2003) reported that academic stress was negatively associated with academic performance and high academic stress adversely impacted the grades of low resourceful students but had no effect on high resourceful students.

Sapanish (2003) found that academic problems were found to be the major causes of stress among all students and the most prevalent source of academic stress was the test or exam. So, teachers should understand more about stress among their students and guide the way to improvement in an academic context. which is important for students’ achievement.

Chaplin (2008) in a study conducted among the trainees secondary school teachers in England reported that experiencing high levels of stress, caused by disruptive pupils, high workload, and feeling unsupported during the practicum, may well lead to trainees becoming demotivated, suffering ill health, decide not to teach, or leaving teaching prematurely.

Richards (2012) conducted a nationwide survey among 1201 kindergarten through Grade-12 teachers and reported that if teachers experience stress over a time and do not see any way out they are candidates for burnout.
2.2.2 Studies on Emotional Intelligence

Grossman and Wood (1993) reported that intensity of emotional experience was more in females than males. Women were found to be more supportive than men and the gender effect was mediated by empathy (Trost, Collins & Embre, 1994).

High levels of emotional intelligence contribute to success in important realms of life, such as education, work, and relationships (Goleman, 1995; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). High emotional intelligence also leads to greater feelings of emotional well-being (Goleman, 1995; Saarni, 1999; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, & Palfai, 1995) and is associated with less depression (Martinez-Pons, 1997; Schutte et al., 1998), greater optimism (Schutte et al., 1998), and greater life satisfaction (Ciarrochi et al., 2000; Martinez-Pons, 1997). Literature reveals that EI can be developed in children (Denham, 1998) as well as in adults (Goleman, 1998; Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2002).

Sutarso, Toto et.al. (1996) studied the effect of gender on emotional intelligence taking 138 students of the University of Alabama and found significant effect of gender on three factors of EQ. Female students had higher scores on the compassion and self awareness factors than their male counterparts.

George (2000) in his study found that people with above average level of emotional intelligence are usually above average in their ability to cope with stress which is very important for generating and maintaining enthusiasm, confidence and co-operation in the workplace.

Tucker, Sojka, Barone and Mc Carthy (2000) found that EQ training programme with the help of an instructor is necessary for the improvement and for assuring success in any teaching and learning activity.
Sharma (2003) conducted a study on the Emotional Intelligence of pupil teachers in relation to their socio economic status (SES) and gender. Eighty pupil teachers studying for B.Ed in the Bundhelkhand University, Jhansi was taken as the sample for the study. The study revealed that pupil teachers with high SES possessed better Emotional Intelligence than the pupil teachers with low SES. No significant difference was found between male and female pupil teachers in their Emotional Intelligence.

Singh (2003) studied the Emotional Intelligence and adjustment of 300 teachers working at different levels of education 17 institutions in Agra city and found significant positive relationship between emotional Intelligence and adjustment. Teachers working in higher educational institutions were found to have better Emotional Intelligence and adjustment than teachers working in primary and secondary schools.

Perry, Ball and Stacey (2004) studied about a measure of Emotional Intelligence directly related to the work of teachers in schools and the levels of Emotional Intelligence held by teachers at the beginning of the career. The measure referred to aspects of teaching normally experienced by teachers in the context of particular situations where emotional Intelligence might presume to operate. The sample constituted 357 student teachers undergoing the second year of a four year teacher education programme. Based on the four branch model of Emotional Intelligence (identifying emotions, using emotions, understanding emotions and managing emotions), ten teaching situations which could be expected as a part of the practice teaching; were presented before the student teachers and each were rated on a five point scale. The findings revealed a strong and significant gender difference on
emotional reactions, and direct relationship with the understanding of teaching motivation and self-directed learning of student teachers.

Okech (2004) in a study conducted on 180 elementary science teachers of South Texas Public Schools found a significant positive relationship between Emotional Intelligence and teacher’s self efficacy, and significant difference between male and female teachers in their Emotional Intelligence. No significant relationship was found between emotional intelligence and length of teaching experience, and emotional intelligence and age.

Priyadarshini (2005) conducted a study on the Emotional Intelligence of academic professionals from different technical and found that male and female staff differed in their perception towards the components of Emotional intelligence such as emotional sensitivity, emotional maturity and emotional competence. Majority of sample had moderate EQ, but females had higher emotional intelligence than males. No significant difference in Emotional Intelligence was observed on the basis of educational level, but emotional intelligence showed to increase with increase in the span of experience.

Oginska et al., (2005) conducted a study among human service workers and found that emotional intelligence had an essential role of in perceiving occupational stress and preventing employees from negative health outcomes. They found that the ability to effectively deal with emotions and emotional information in the workplace assists employees in coping with occupational stress and suggested that this should be developed in stress management trainings.

Matthews et al.(2006) found that Emotional intelligence (EI) may predict stress responses and coping strategies. They compared EI and the personality factors
of the Five Factor Model (FFM) as predictors of task-induced stress responses in their study and found that low EI was related to worry states and avoidance coping.

Montes-Berges et al., (2007) studied the role of perceived emotional intelligence (PEI) in the use of stress-coping strategies, in quantity and quality of social support and in the mental health of nursing students. They found that emotional intelligence is a skill that minimizes the negative stress consequences. The results indicated positive correlations between clarity and social support, social support and repair, and social support and mental health.

Naidoo and Pau (2008) conducted a study on 43 male and 55 female first year dental students to identify the explanatory factors for stress and the role the emotional intelligence (EI) in the experience of perceived stress (PS). The study indicated a statistically significant inverse relationship between EI and PS. The study also revealed EI as relatively most important predictor of PS and that low EI is associated the stress. Stepwise regression analysis identified EI, gender, previous higher education qualification, satisfaction with decision to study dentistry as significant predictors of perceived stress (PS).

Carmeli et al. (2009) in a study on the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and psychological well being reported better coping and job behaviours, better social relations, family relations, academic achievements and psychological wellbeing in relation to Emotional Intelligence.

Song et al. (2010) found that Emotional Intelligence and General Mental Abilities differ in predicting the academic performance and the quality of social interaction among students. While GMA is the stronger academic predictor, Emotional Intelligence was found to be related to the quality of social interactions with peers.
Wong et al. (2010) in a study conducted among school teachers found that job satisfaction was positively related to Emotional Intelligence. The study reiterated the need to have high Emotional Intelligence for the teachers and school leaders.

A study among the higher secondary school teachers of Vellore district in Tamil Nadu by Reddy and Anuradha (2013) reinforces the need to enhance and inculcate Emotional Intelligence among higher secondary school teachers to reduce their occupational stress and improve their job performance.

### 2.2.3 Studies Related to Coping Strategies

Review of the related studies relating to Stress and Coping Strategies showed that studies relating to Stress and Coping Strategies of student teachers are very few especially in Indian context. So to get a clear idea about the nature of the relationship between the two variables and to understand the methods adopted for the analysis, sample size chosen, and to formulate the hypotheses a thorough review of the foreign studies was done and presented below.

The area of Coping and Coping Strategies are widely researched in Psychology as well as Educational Psychology today. Review of some most relevant studies are presented below.

Long and Gessaroli (1990) studied the relationship between teacher stress and perceived coping effectiveness and found that male teachers felt more stress than female teachers. Males regarded avoidance coping as more effective while females felt that problem solving as more effective.

Mattlin et al. (1990) found in a study that university students often attempt to control and reduce their stress through avoidance, religious and social support, or positive reappraisal.
D’zurilll and Sheedy (1991) identified problem-solving as an important coping strategy that can reduce, minimize or prevent stress by enabling a person to manage daily problematic situations and its emotional effects.

Perlin (1991) found that social support can improve coping and moderate the impact of stressors. At the same time coping strategies can influence the type and quality of support received and the maintenance of social relationships.

McDonald (1993) reported that student teachers used coping strategies categorised as communication, conformity, showing initiative, goal-setting, and relaxation techniques to cope with stressors during the teaching practicum.

Ushasree (1993) found significant gender difference in the use of varied coping strategies by primary and secondary school teachers to manage stress.

Carver and Sheirer (1994) reported that problem-focused or task oriented strategies were predominant in the anticipatory stage of coping towards examination; emotion-focused strategies predominated during and decreased after the examination whereas avoidant strategies increased afterwards.

Endler and Parker (1994) observed that emotion focused coping strategies associated with greater affective and behavior problems.

Hobfoll et al. (1994) reported that women preferred assertive and prosocial strategies while men preferred aggressive and antisocial strategies. For both men and women active coping was related to lower levels of psychological distress.

Reid et al. (1995) found that positive and active coping strategies related to better adjustment and reflect higher coping effectiveness.

Verma, Duggal, Supriya (1995) in a study conducted among college students of Punjab University to examine the coping strategies found that though college students coped with difficult situations in a mature manner, they tended to withdraw
from problems in life. It was also found that females became more emotionally upset when compared to males who confronted with problems and made attempts to solve them.

Leong, Bonz and Zachar (1997) conducted a study among freshmen in colleges and reported that active coping predicted both academic success and personal and emotional adjustment.

Saranson, Saranson & Gurung (1997) found that social support improved psychological health and helped people to cope with stress more successfully.

Burleson and Goldsmith (1998) argued that emotional support from trusted others helped to cope with upsetting situations most effectively.

Zen, Reison and Poppen (1999) observed that analysis of the ongoing researches show that problem focused coping and seeking social support lead to better adjustment among various populations.

Murray-Harvey et al. (2000) in a study conducted among teacher education students identified four major categories of coping strategies: Personal coping strategies, Professional coping strategies, Social coping strategies and Institutional coping strategies.

Rao, Kiran et al.(2000) studied the appraisal of stress and coping behaviours in a group of 258 male and female under graduates. The study revealed that females preferred distress reducing strategies and social support utilisation, while males favoured active behavioural methods including high risk coping behaviours as far as emotion focused strategies were concerned.

Wilson and Mulnton (2001) reported gender difference among under graduates, emotion-focused coping a significantly positive predictor of distress in both males and
females but no gender difference regarding lower levels of social support and social avoidance coping.

Carter et al. (2003) observed that coping with the help of drugs, analgesics, alcohol, smoking and eating actually are counterproductive and may worsen stress. The best way to manage stress is by regular exercise, meditation or other relaxation techniques.

Heiman and Karivb (2004) studied the coping strategies of 130 undergraduate college and university students with and without learning disabilities and found that students with learning disabilities used more emotional coping strategies than non-learning disability students. Within the learning disability group women used more emotion oriented and avoidance oriented coping strategies and men used higher task oriented strategies.

Ben-zur and Oz (2005) conducted a study on the common academic stressors and how emotional appraisals of failure are associated with healthy and unhealthy forms of emotional coping. The study revealed that helping students who are ashamed of academic failure reappraises their situation and encouraging them to seek social support will help them manage their situation in emotionally healthy way.

Coping is largely environmentally influenced behavioral system that responds to experiences unique to each person. At the same time coping and personality are largely independent of one another (Jang et al, 2007).

Carton and Fruchart (2013) in a study conducted among primary school teachers in France reported important differences of coping those entering the profession and those completing the their career as teachers. Less experienced teachers managed stressful events especially student behavior, through social support.
More experienced teachers mobilized other strategies (avoidance and confrontation), exhibiting less self-control.

**Discussion**

Review of the related studies helps one to arrive at the following conclusions. Stress is prevalent among teachers and student teachers. Unmanageable stress reduces one’s abilities, limits success in ventures and causes health hazards. Emotional Intelligence helps to manage Stress and have good Coping Strategies. Emotional Intelligence, Stress and Coping Strategies are interrelated. Certain studies revealed that men and women differ significantly in their Emotional Intelligence and in the amount which Stress experienced. Women make use of social support and resort to emotional coping strategies when confronted with stress where as men resort to action oriented coping strategies.

These findings along with the knowledge of the theoretical framework of the variables gave an in-depth understanding for the construction of tools, analysis and interpretation of the data, and deriving meaningful conclusions.