DEPRIVATION:

Tripathi and Mishra (1976) have attempted to investigate motivational characteristics of young men having different degrees of experimental deprivation. On the basis of scores on the prolonged deprivation scale (PDS) developed by the authors, subjects were divided into high, middle and low derivation categories, achievement, affiliation, power, approval motives along with state and anxiety traits were measured through verbal scales. The results showed that the low deprived group has significantly high degree of achievement motive and low degree or anxiety as compared to the high deprived group. Regarding other motives the mean scores of the low deprived group were higher than the mean scores of the high deprived group, though the differences were non-significant. The correlation analysis of data showed a negative relationship of prolonged deprivation with all the motives, except anxiety which however, showed a positive relationship. The results seem to support the view that growth needs emerge after satisfaction of the lower order needs.

Jóhn Gunnar Bernburg’s (2009) theory of relative deprivation emphasizes that social comparisons contextualize how people experience impoverishment. An important application of this theory argues that relative deprivation that stems from unfavorable social comparisons can result in anger, normlessness and an increased likelihood of deviant behavior. We test this theory in a new societal setting – Iceland. Specifically, we test the proposition that the effects of economic deprivation on
individual outcomes are contingent on the standard of living enjoyed by the person’s reference groups. Using multilevel data on 5,491 Icelandic adolescents in 83 school-communities, we find consistent support for the theory. We show that the effects of economic deprivation on adolescent anger, normlessness, delinquency, violence and subjective relative family status are weak in school-communities where economic deprivation is common, while the effects are significantly stronger in school-communities where economic deprivation is rare.

**Deprivation and Adjustment:**

Every individual, at each developmental stage faces a number of problems. However, adjustmental problems during adolescence are regarded as very intense it is termed as a “problem age”. Historically adolescent problems have been largely attributed to emotional states, arising from conditions within the organism. But in recent years, the unhappiness is resulting from the conditions within the organism. But in recent years, the unhappiness resulting from the experience of problems is regarded directly or indirectly as environmental in origin. Malm and Jamison (1952) have identified various factors that are prevailing in the present culture and pose hindrances to the adolescents smooth progression. In this context, Gilmer (1975) after going through a number of studies points out that the increased emotionality and many habits which are displayed during adolescence are attributable mainly to social factors, which include unfavorable family relationships, restraints imposed by parents, situation in which the individual feels inadequate and were expectations of mature behaviour exceed actual behaviour. Landis (1952)
believes that adolescent youth problems can be clearly understood by learning how contemporary culture and social organizations handicap young people in making transitions to adulthood.

Since social, cultural and economic factors influence the adjustment, deprivation of such factors pose hindrances in the adjustment and academic achievement of adolescents. Some psychologists have studied the effect of socio-cultural and socio-economic deprivation on adjustment of adolescents.

Bansal (1973) studied the adjustment of Scheduled Caste and High Caste Hindu adolescents, high caste Hindus were found to be significantly better adjusted in the areas of home, school, social and emotional adjustment.

Mohanthy Banamali (1980) found that socio-cultural deprived subjects and higher anxiety and poor adjustment than non-deprived subjects. Deprived males showed more anxiety than females. Males were better adjusted in health, emotional and social areas, whereas females were better adjusted in health, emotional and social areas, whereas females were better adjusted in the home. Similarly, Reddy and Sudha (1980) noticed that scheduled caste students exhibited low level of adjustment in the areas of social and emotional as compared to non-scheduled caste students. High socio-economic status group reported significantly less number of problems. Manwani et al. (1981) observed poor adjustment in scheduled caste students compared to non-deprived castes students.
The adjustment patterns of santal and non-santal students were studied by Singh (1981). Results of his study revealed that the santal students were low in their home, health and educational adjustment but high in their social adjustment than non-santal students. However, the differences in the emotional adjustment were found to be insignificant.

Gunthey (1981) selected 45 socio-culturally deprived and 45 non-deprived boys of age 7-13 years for his study. He observed negative relationship between socio-cultural deprivation and adaptive behaviour. Shrivatsava and Seth (1982) observed that deprived subjects come from families with low income, low caste, rural areas and had fathers with less than a primary education background. Non-deprived subjects came from families with a high income, Brahmin caste and urban residence and had fathers with education beyond high school. Results showed that deprived girls are more reserved, less emotionally stable, shy, more conservative and more outgoing, stable, adventuresome and relaxed. Deprived boys were more reserved, less stable, more imaginative and tenser than non-deprived boys, who were described as more outgoing, more practical, and more experimental.

Usha Sreeram (1987) concluded from her studies that non-disadvantaged subjects were better adjusted and high achieving than advantaged pupils but the differences were not significant. Sinha (1980) studied personality characteristics of socially advantaged and socially disadvantaged subjects of 13-14 years old. They
found that socially disadvantaged subjects were inferior to the socially advantaged subjects in the areas of decisiveness, responsibility, emotional stability, friendliness, ego strength, curiosity, dominance, heterosexuality and muscularity. The differences between the group are attributed to such factors as family environment and ego development.

Sinha and Sinha (1991) concluded from their study that socially disadvantaged students differed significantly from the socially advantaged students in home, health, social, emotional and overall total adjustment.

In a study conducted by Rajamanickam and Mumtaj (1991), on temperament and adjustment problems among the University women students found that income of the family and cultural factors determine adjustment of women students. Women student from high income families forward and backward communities were well adjusted while those from the scheduled caste community were poorly adjusted had problems. Rajamanickam and Mercy (1992) found that higher income was correlated with better adjustment and the least psychosomatic disorders among adolescents compared to low income group. Adolescent girls from scheduled caste have more adjustment and psychosomatic problems compared to forward community. Rajamanickam and Vasanthal (1993) found that adolescents with higher parental education, higher occupational status and less number of siblings are better adjusted compared to adolescents with low parental educational low occupational status and more number of siblings.
Pandey (1985) noticed that non-deprived subjects perceived themselves as more controlled compared to deprived subjects. Middle class parents tend to deprive their children emotionally and use the deprivation of privileges as a disciplinary measure.

Tripathi and Mishra (1976) observed that low deprived subjects had higher degree of achievement motivation and a lower degree of anxiety compared to high deprived subjects. Shrivastava et al. (1967) investigated the neuroticism of socio-culturally deprived and advantaged boys of 17-20 years. He found deprived boys to be more neurotic than advantaged boys, which was attributed to poverty, lower social status and social segregation.

Venkat Reddy (1997) reported that high deprived group was found to be more detached, reserved, critical, aloof and still (Factor A); dull, concrete in thinking, low in mental capacity (Factor B); humble mild, accommodating and submissive (Factor E); expedient, disregarding rules, of weaker super ego strength (Factor G); shy, timid and threat sensitive (Factor H); tender minded, sensitive, clinging and over protected (Factor I); more apprehensive, self reproaching, insure, worrying, troubled and guilt prone (Factor O). It is clear from these findings that deprivation affects the personality negatively and makes it stress prone along with adjustmental problems.
Agarwal et al. (1983) studied some correlates of adjustment among adolescents of 14-15 years. Adjustment scores were found to correlate significantly with intelligence, creativity, socio-economic status and anxiety. He concluded that a low score on adjustment is not related to socio-economic status. Rather it is the anxiety generated by low socio-economic status that accounts for low adjustment.

Gunthey and Sinha (1983) investigated the adjustment of advantaged and disadvantaged boys. Socio-economically disadvantaged subjects showed higher levels of anxiety and need for affiliation and lower levels of adjustments (emotionally, socially and economically) than socio-economically advantaged boys.

Cockerham and William (1990) studied the relationship between races, socio-economic status and psychological distress. He found that as income increases, psychological distress decreases and this is especially true for blacks. He found no significant difference between whites and blacks at the lowest income levels.

Socio-economic status of the parents is of immense importance which determines the adjustment of adolescents to their environment. The role that is played by the socio-economic status in the adjustmental process is studied by a number of psychologists. Durcker and Remmer (1952) found significant differences between low and high economic status groups, between groups of different levels of father’s education and between groups of different levels of mother’s education with
respect to number of personality problems. Children of low SES of less educated father and mother had more problems.

Alud (1952) reviewed most of the studies in the areas of deprivation and has concluded that there is a positive relationship between social class and measures of personality adjustment. Generally children coming from lower socio-economic class had several types of adjustmental problems.

The effect of SES on emotional instability was studied by Shanmugam (1957). The results revealed that there was a positive relationship between the low SES and emotional instability. Adolescents belonging to low SES literally showed significantly higher emotional instability than adolescents of high SES. In a study made by Parameshwaran (1957) on the social adjustment of early adolescent boys, it was found that subjects from low income group, sons uneducated parents and urban boys showed greater maladjustment than subjects from high income group, university graduates and rural boys.

Kapur (1958) studied the emotional problems of maladjustment in school going children. According to him the growing up process of the child is quick and loaded with traumatic experiences, the impact of socialization, cultural milieu and the parental attitudes all go into making child’s personality. Emotional disturbances interfere with the progress at school. The roots of emotional disturbances lie in the family setting.
Reddy (1969) found higher family income to be associated with better adjustment. Feeling of inferiority, pessimistic attitudes and impaired relations with parents characterized the problems of low income group boys. Mittal (1970) also reported that lower socio-economic status and semi urban character of population are responsible for children’s maladjustment. He found that students of the schools situated at the periphery of the city had problems at home like frequent manifestation of temper by their parents. They felt their house atmosphere as restrictive and un-conductive to healthy adjustment.

In a study by Kumar and Ashok (1975) male and female undergraduates were asked to list their 5 major problems in the order of their severity. Some of the problems listed were feeling of inferiority, poor adjustment, insecurity about the future. The causes listed for these problems were socio-economic status of the family, the education of parents and parental domination. Bhagyavathy (1978) from her study concluded that the low achieving and problems creators come from houses in the lower economic strata, where as the high achieving, constructive, and the representative group come from the higher class.

Reddy (1979) studied urban semi-urban and rural secondary school students. He observed that students from poor families generally had more emotional and health problems and better adjusted in other areas than upper and middle class
subjects. However, socio-economic status did not influence the level of their adjustment.

Harper and Marshall (1992) studied boys and girls of 14-16 years of age. Girls reported more problems and lower levels of SES than did boys. A significant relationship was found between SES and reported problems and different problem areas were related to academic achievement for girls and boys.

The factors like family environment, discipline, type of family, communication and structure of the family also influence the adjustment of adolescents. Reddy (1968) studied the adjustment problems of adolescents in joint and single families. He found higher degree of maladjustment in subjects belonging to the traditional joint and traditional single family groups. Feelings of inferiority in traditional and joint family groups and bad heterosexual relations in traditional single family groups were the frequent problems.

Lillian (1982) found a significant positive correlation between the level of communication of the father and mother and total adjustment, family atmosphere, family adjustment of the adolescent.

But Lawis (1966) observed that a problem arising out of social relationship is exaggerated by life in an urban society, whereas rural pupils adjust to nature and worry little about such adjustment. They are also reported to have no time to get
absorbed in social activities and to think of social problems. Landis (1952) contends that the rural adolescent experiences less mental strain and nervous tension, because the mental strain of his school work is balanced by his daily physical labour. Ausubel (1954) points out that adolescent transition is less stressful to the rural adolescent. Whatever problems they have, are supposed to grow out of life circumstances involving less social opportunity, less opportunity for expression, less economic security, less medical attention and more immediate need for job.

Clements and Oelke (1971) on the basis of their study have reported that there are significant differences in the adjustment of rural and urban students. But Bhagia (1966) observed that rural school pupils exceed urban school pupils significantly in adjustment to their teachers, mates and self. Pandey and Jagdish (1969) found urban lower income group subjects had a larger number of problems and urban higher income group subjects had least problems. On the whole no conclusive statement can be made regarding the role of urban rural factors.

In the adolescent’s environment, adjustment is the combined influence of several forces that are operating to produce a well adjusted or poorly adjusted personality. There are several Indian studies on the adolescents adjustment problems. The study made by Rajamanickam and Vasatha (1993) has brought out several interesting results. It was the study among the school students relating adjustment to their school achievements. It revealed that the better adjusted adolescent students showed very good achievements in their school performances and the students who
had low adjustment showed poor achievements in their studies. It was also observed in this study that the number of siblings in the family had adverse effects in the school performance of the adolescent students’ achievements. The more number of siblings there are, the poorer the achievements. A family with one or two siblings showed very good achievements in the adolescent’s boys and girls.

In another study made by Rajamanckam and Mercy Arunmozhi (1992) among adolescent girls, it was tested whether adjustment was influenced by factors like psychosomatic problems. The girls’ age ranged from 15 to 19 years and were from different socioeconomic backgrounds. It was observed in this study that the girls who were free from psychosomatic problems were well adjusted and those who had psychosomatic symptoms and were found to be poorly adjusted. The girls from affluent families were found having the least psychosomatic symptoms to be well adjusted; the girls from lower socioeconomic families had high symptoms of psychosomatism and were poorly adjusted. Psychosomatic disorders had a definite influence on the adjustment problems of the adolescent girls.

An attempt was made by Asha and Dharanendraian (1974) to test whether adjustment problems had any influence in the creative abilities of the adolescents. The results showed that the better adjusted boys and girls had high creative abilities. There were three levels of creativity: highly creative, moderately creative and low creative. The well adjusted boys were found to be superior in creativity than the well adjusted girls and others.
Ravi Sandhu (1997) studied the adjustment problems of high and low aspirant adolescents. There were 150 school students in this study. It is generally believed that adolescents will have a high level of aspirations. Everyone may claim that he/she can achieve the said goal, irrespective whether he/she could do it or not. Aspiration is an ego has the higher aspiration he sets in and the more it relates to the areas of behavior. But it sometimes affects his adjustment. Thus, the adjustment is affected by the ego one sets for oneself. This was what the investigator had observed in her study.

Rao (1972) in a study on 328 male undergraduate students, found academic achievement significantly related to students, adjustment to the academic situation. In the year of 1975 a similar study was done by Bhagia. The sample of this study, 150 pupils of 9th class, found a marked positive relationship to exist between pupils’ adjustment scores and scores on achievements. A study was done by Sharma et al. (1974) of low achieving and high achieving students in schools at Rajasthan. They took the sample of XI class students from ten schools. In the first phase, the number of stars, rejects and isolates in each school were identified. Later school records were pursued and interviews with students and teachers held. Results showed that the ‘stars’ in high achieving schools show higher achievement in scholastic and co-curricular pursuits. Greater interest in literary, cultural and scientific activities. Peer group influence is more dominant and more conducive to academic achievement in high achieving schools. Social atmosphere in low achieving schools is less conducive to academic achievement.
An experimental study of the achievements in basic education was done by Bhatt (1861). He selected the sample of 180 children of eighth class at Baroda. Standardized achievement test form, personality ratings, social adjustment inventory; standardized physical education tests; and Minnesota Manual Dexterity Test were used. Results were as follows: i) Highly significant difference was found between the achievement scores made by the two groups of a children in different school subjects, namely, language, social studies, and general science. The traditional school children were superior to basic school children in all these subjects. ii) The basic school children were superior to the traditional school children and the difference was highly significant with respect to all the traits. iii) The basic school children were superior to the traditional school children so far as the abilities such as speed ability, arm-strength, leg-strength, endurance and the accuracy were concerned. iv) The basic school children were found to be superior to the traditional children in respect of social adjustment, manual dexterity, etc.

In a study of 328 male undergraduate students Rao (1972) found academic adjustment to be significantly related to neurotic difficulties. Subjects with high scores on neurotic difficulties were observed to be poorly adjusted to academic situation and performed unsatisfactorily.

Resnick (1951) undertook a study to investigate the relationship between marks and various factors of adjustment, such as school environment, socioeconomic
status, aspects of mental health, etc. He used 350 high school students as his subjects. The relationship between grades and the scores on psychometric instruments showed for the most part that pupils earning high grades also made high mean scores, indicating a more satisfactory personal adjustment.

Family background characteristics and school adjustment problems was studied by Lorion et al. (1977). In two experiments using the sample of 267 primary school children referred to a school based secondary prevention programme, subjects identified by teachers as having selected family characteristics were compared on teacher ratings of school maladjustment. The experiment first shows that subjects’ pressures to achieve academic success coped with school demands in a significantly more shy, anxious, and immature fashion than subjects from homes lacking educational stimulation. The latter group experienced greater difficulty in mastering basic academic skills. Results of experiment two showed that subjects from rejecting parents had more serious acting out aggressive problems than did subjects from overprotective parents. The latter group, however, experienced anxiety and interpersonal discomfort.

A comparative study of the adolescent boys and girls in relation to their attitudes towards school adjustment and scholastic achievement was studied by Chandra and Simrata (1985). The study was to compare the adolescents in relation to their attitudes, adjustment and scholastic achievement on ninth and tenth standard students in the age range of 13 to 17 years. The sample included 40 boys and 40
girls. Rao’s school attitude inventory, adjustment inventory and scholastic achievement through “school records” were used in this investigation. Results indicate that attitudes towards school did not affect scholastic achievement of adolescent boys and girls, although there existed a positive relationship between attitude and scholastic achievement. ii) There is no significant sex difference in the attitude towards school. iii) Attitudes towards school affect the adjustment of an adolescent irrespective of the sex. iv) Students who had a positive attitude towards their school were better adjusted. v) Adjustment of an adolescent does effect scholastic achievement. vi) Adolescent boys are better adjusted than adolescent girls. Emotional and educational adjustment. vii) Adolescent boys have better scholastic achievement than the girls.

Educational problems loom large in the lives of adolescents. A study reported by Jackson and Getzel (1963) found that the major sources of maladjustment in school were; 1) lack of intellectual ability to do the work required, 2) Failure in socialization, 3) personal maladjustment, 4) lack of parental or adult identification, 5) economic and cultural deprivation, 6) minority status and 7) unfavorable social conditions.

Saxena (1952) examined the relationship between scholastic achievement and adjustment of 530 male students. Students were identified as over- and under achievers in 4 areas, Mathematics, Biology, commerce and the Arts. Students were administered an adjustment inventory with 5 categories (home, health,
social, emotional and school adjustment) and a total adjustment score. Under-achievers showed significantly poorer adjustment in the home, health and school areas, as well as in the overall adjustment and achievement was strongest for students in mathematics. In the arts group no significant differences were found.

Psychosocial adjustment in Middle Eastern adolescents, the relative impact of violent v/s non-violent social disorganization was studied by Elbedour et al. (1998) and examined the relationship between extreme social change and the psychological adjustment to adolescents undergoing such change. The impact of extreme social change relative to other conditions of catastrophic social disorganization such as chronic social conflict and violent war like conditions was also considered. The results indicate that Bedouin adolescents in Israel, members of a community that has experienced drastic social upheaval, show elevated rates of psychopathology. The findings suggest a continuum of adverse impact of the types of social disorganization and organismic variables such as agenda gender.

Parent and sibling relationship influences on late adolescent social anxiety and other adjustment outcomes. A study by Massey-Catherine and Joan, 2001 has examined the associations among several family relationships and adolescent social anxiety utilizing a family systems perspective. The first objective and the second objective to investigate specific family relationships and their association with adolescent adjustment outcomes such as depressions general anxiety, global self
worth and social acceptance self worth social anxiety levels of only children and children with siblings also were compared. Results showed that perceived optimal maternal parenting and perceived optimal parenting by both parents were related to low levels of social anxiety, depression, and general anxiety and high levels of global and social acceptance self-worth. Perceptions of positive sibling relationships were associated with low levels of social anxiety and depression and general anxiety high levels of global and social acceptance self-worth. Perceptions of positive sibling relationships were associated with low levels of social anxiety and depression and general anxiety high levels of global and social acceptance self-worth. Better adjustment outcomes were reported by adolescents who reported no parental favoritism than for adolescents who reported that they were favoured by one parent and unfavoured by the other parent or that they were unfavoured by both. And even the favoured adolescents reported better adjustment outcomes than unfavoured adolescents. No differences were found is social anxiety levels between only children and children with siblings. No gender differences were found in relations to family relationships and late adolescent adjustment.

A study of teachers-student relationships and the link to academic adjustment and emotional wellbeing in early adolescent by Telan Paige (2001) examined the role of support from teachers on the academic and emotional adjustments of ethnically and economically diverse sample of adolescents. Several significant findings emerged from the analyses. First, overall teacher support was a significant predictor of a wide range of academic and emotional adjustments
outcomes. Second, teacher support compensated for low peer support on teacher rated behavior problems. Third, teachers support interacted with school stress to predict depressed affect and self esteem. Fourth, teacher support interacted with low ecological risk conditions to predict feelings of Loneliness.

The relationship of powerlessness, stress, social support and selected demographic variables to health-promoting behaviors in late adolescent was studied by Heraldo and Gacad (2002). Adolescents who engage in health-promoting behaviors continue to decrease in numbers. This problem may be related to powerlessness, stress and social support. There is paucity in the research literature or these variables in late adolescents. This descriptive correlational study examined the relationship of powerlessness, stress, social support and selected demographic variables to health-promoting behaviors in late adolescents and explored and described the differences that existed in the health-promoting behaviors of late adolescents. The findings of the study include; (1) the increase in social support predicted the increase in the engagement in health-promoting behaviors, (2) high levels of stress predicated low health-promoting behaviors, (3) powerlessness was inversely predictive of the late adolescents health-promoting behaviors, and (4) males engage in health-promoting behaviors by doing promoting behaviors through interpersonal relations. The results of the study are expected to provide nursing knowledge in the area of health promotion and in nursing and to improve nursing services to adolescents.
Reid et al. (2002) investigated acculturative stress, coping, self-concept, and achievement in children. Subjects were 127 children between eight and eleven years of age (67 Anglo-American and 60 Latino). Measurement data included: demographic information, the Societal, Academic, Familial, Environmental Acculturative Stress Scale for Children (SAFES, Adolescent – Coping Orientation for Problem Experience (A – COPE), Self-Perception Profile for Children, and the Harter Teacher’s Rating Scale. Latino children reported higher levels of acculturative stress and general stress than Anglo-American children, which decreased with successive generations in the United States (P < 0.01). The study also explored ethnically specific models of achievement. An achievement model for Anglo-Americans was able to account for 44% of the variance in achievement, while an achievement model for Latino-Americans was able to account for 47% of the variance in achievement.

Goyen and Anshel (1998) conducted a study on sources of acute competitive stress and use of coping strategies as a function of age and gender. Results indicate that stress intensity was a function of the type of stressful event; males and adults experienced significantly highest acute stress intensity than females and adolescents. Females reported higher stress intensity than males for the stressor, related to the actions of others. Males preferred problem-focused coping after the stressors, experiencing pain and injury, being intimidated by opponents, and parental criticism, implications include the need for coaches and parents to be cautious in
their communication style when providing critical feedback on performance, especially in younger athletes.

Hill et al. (1998) explored perceived needs of caregivers of people with manic depression. General practitioners were perceived to be the most helpful professionals, and respondents reported moderate to severe problems with stress, anxiety, depression, self-esteem and confidence. It is concluded that effects on caregivers can be considerable, and can lead to dysfunctional interaction and adversely affect the patient’s mental state.

Michie, - Frances, et al. (2001) conducted an evaluation of factors influencing the academic self-concept, self-esteem and academic stress for direct and re-entry students in higher education. Establishments of Higher Education (HE) are generally recruiting a more diverse student population. This research has specifically examined differences in the undergraduate student experience of direct and re-entry students. Multiple regression analysis revealed a complex interrelationship of variables relating to academic self-concept, self-esteem and academic stress.

According to Castillo, -Linda-Gonzales (2000) attending college can be a stressful experience. This is even more so for many Chicana college students who face the stresses of education expenses, gender-role conflict, and acculturation. This study examined the relationship of socio-cultural variables to distress in 247 Chicana
college students. Results from this investigation revealed that academic stress; income, acculturation, gender-role attitude, and perceived support from family, mother and peers predicated distress for these participants. Upon examining level of acculturation, highly acculturated participants reported more distress.

Lou and Chi (2000) investigated the stressors experienced by senior secondary school students. Ss’ status of psychological well-being were assessed with a general mental health questionnaire. Factor analysis summarized the stressors into 6 factors: social relationship, sexual development, academic stress, relationship with parents, future, and finance. The stress factors and Ss’ stress experiences were analyzed by grade and gender. The correlation of Ss’ stress experience and psychological well-being were studied.

Misra et al. (2000) have studied on academic stress of college students: Comparison of student and faculty perceptions. Examined perceptions of academic stress among male and female college students in different academic years and compared faculty and student perceptions of student’s academic stress. Results indicate a considerable mismatch between faculty and student perceptions of student’s stresses and reactions to stressors. The faculty members perceived the students to experience a higher level of stress and to display reactions to stressors more frequently than the students actually perceived. This could result simply from the faculty observing the students only during their moments of stress in the
classroom. Results also support the hypotheses that stress varies across year in school and by gender.

A study by Lowery and Mississippi (2002) evaluated and measured differences between resilient and vulnerable middle-school students perceived responses to school stress. Whether significant differences were present between the resilient and vulnerable students response to school stress was determined through a global measure of overall school stress level and by measures of the dimensions of academic, peer-related, and teacher-rules stress. Perceptions differentiating the resilient versus the vulnerable student’s response to school stress were specified. Participants in this study were 170 students from five different rural school/district sites in the southern states of Mississippi and Arkansas. Results of the study support the efficacy of utilizing an ecological perspective for organizing a theoretical framework for investigation of the effect of school stress. The resilience paradigm also provided a theoretical basis for qualifying students differential responses as resilient versus vulnerable.

Guoliang and Shifang (2001) studied the relationship of event stress and academic achievement to behavioral adjustment of elementary school student’s. He discussed the life event stress status of elementary school pupils in grades 4-6, and examined the relationship of life event stress and academic achievement to the behavioral adjustment as appraised by the student’s classroom teachers. Results show that the major negative stress in elementary school pupils lives was academic achievement. The elementary school pupil’s life event stress increased by age but
without gender difference. Boys were more behaviorally maladjusted and the 6th grade pupils were less dependent on the teacher’s appraisal. Regression analyses indicated that academic achievement; gender, family income, life event stress, and age were significantly predictive of the pupil’s behavioral adjustment.

Savage (2001) attempted to provide information about the extent and nature of school stressors and concomitant stress symptoms in a sample of community college students. Moreover, the purpose of this study is to examine the nature of stressors and frequency of symptoms between male and female students. Significant gender differences were identified in the individual items listed in Part II of the survey and appear to indicate that males are more likely to assume responsibility for their worst school experience in comparison to females. An analysis of the ten sub-scales indicated males reported a higher incidence of symptoms in general on the sub-scales and totals in comparison to females.

Shinto (1998) studied the effects of the appraisal of academic stressors and the type of coping strategy on stress responses and academic motivation in adolescents feelings of self-growth, and use of dependent emotion-focused coping, positive emotion-focused coping, avoidance coping, and problem-solving coping were analyzed.

Rao and Mehrotra (1998) carried out a study to examine job characteristics, professional stress, role satisfaction, coping strategies and overall well-being among
116 clinical psychologists. Self-report measures constructed for the study were used along with the mental health professionals stress scale and subjective well-being inventory. The results indicated that a majority of the clinical psychologist would prefer to spend their time mainly in clinical work, research and teaching. Overall subjective well-being was high and distress was low. Multiple regression analysis revealed that age and professional satisfaction influenced well-being, while home work conflict and professional self doubt contributed to distress.

Carreras and Fernandez (1998) aimed to assess adaptation to examination stress in students during the first two years at university heart rate of medical students in exam situations was recorded with a portable instrument, and anxiety and control appraisal were measured before the start of the examinations. The loping strategies used to deal with examination stress were also evaluated. Two groups were selected, one from the first academic year, and one from the second. Each included eleven subjects of both sexes. The measurements were performed during mid-term and final exams. No differences were found between the groups in terms of basal HRs, coping strategies and control appraisal. However, anxiety and HR during the examinations were higher in the first year group. It is concluded that students experience a passive adaptation to examinations.

Love,-Denice-Williams (2002) examined the role of temperament in adolescent responses to family stress. This research study of adolescents and their parents examined the relationships between a variety of family
stressors and adolescent academic performance, and tested for the possible moderating effects of adolescent temperament within statistically significant stress-academic performance relationships. Adolescents and their parents reported experiencing a great many of the stressful family events included on the questionnaire that was administered. Every family in the study, in fact, reported experiencing at least one stressful event. Many of the most commonly-reported stressors (e.g., financial stress, loss, illness) had no impact on adolescent academic performance (operationalised by GPA and Stanford-9 performance). However, intra-family stress, marital stress, and substance use were inversely related to academic performance. Adolescent temperament was found to moderate the relationship between intra-family stress and adolescent GPA, illustrating that adolescents with a more outgoing temperament did better under conditions of high intra-family stress than adolescents with a shy temperament.

Onatsu-Arvilommi et al. (1998) examined the impact of parental depression or stress and parenting styles on cognitive and behavioral strategies their children apply at school. Children were given a strategy test that measured helplessness, failure expectations, task-irrelevant behavior, lack of persistence and search for social support in a classroom setting. Both parents completed measures of depressive symptomatology, parenting stress and parenting styles.

Plunkett (1998) examined the relationship between selected demographic variables (Age, family for-two-parent intact families versus single-parent families),
adolescents’ perceptions of interparental conflict (conflict style, content, intensity, degree of resolution), perceived levels of stress due to the pile-up of stressors, adolescent coping strategies (social support, detrimental coping) and adaptation (adolescent family life satisfaction). The study sample consisted of 155 adolescents, between 13 and 18 years of age, who resided in two-parent intact families (including adoptive families) or single-parent families. The dates were collected in three high schools from three rural communities in a South Central State. Variables that were significantly related to adolescent family life satisfaction in the bivariate correlations were entered as predictor variables to adolescent family life satisfaction in data and for the male adolescents’ data findings and conclusions. Three dimensions of interparental conflict (conflict about childrearing, conflict about family roles/finances, degree of conflict resolution) were related to female adolescents’ reports of family life satisfaction. However, only one dimension of interparental conflict. Conflict about childrearing, was significantly related to male adolescents’ perceptions of family life satisfaction. Wolf, Thomas et al. (2000) examined anxiety, depression, loneliness, social support, and perceived mistreatment at 4 time points over the course of 4 yrs of undergraduate medical education. Depression and anxiety were found to be highest at mistreatment, particularly of a psychological nature, was pervasive over the course of the 4 years. Perceived mistreatment was significantly positively correlated with depression and anxiety at the beginning and end of the first year.
Gadzella, - Bernadette-M. et al. (1998) investigated the relationships between stress scores and learning strategies test anxiety and attributions for university undergraduates. Significant positive correlations were found between: (1) cognitive appraisal (2) frustrations and changes (3) frustrations, conflicts, and changes physiological and total stress with chance (4) physiological and emotional and test anxiety significant negative correlation were found between: frustrate and deep processing, conflicts and self-imposed and emotional with methodical study, respectively. Results offer further support for the validity of the student life stress inventory.

Aubry, - Heather – Ann (1998) in a study, investigated the predictive validity of coping styles, trait anxiety and a state anxiety – perception variable, a composite predictor for state anxiety, in the context of situational stress associated with Ondario Academic credit examinations for French and English Secondary School students. The Endless Multidimensional Anxiety scale for trait anxiety, state anxiety and perception of the situation – Revised and the coping inventory for stressful situations – Adolescent were administered to 95 subjects, ages 16 to 19, during a regular class at school and immediately prior to their final Ontario academic credit examination. Gender differences in coping styles were investigated to further clarify the coping – anxiety interaction present results indicated that females and males did not differ in their use of task and avoidance – oriented coping styles. However, females demonstrated a tendency to use more emotion – oriented coping than males.
Milne and Greenway, 2003. The relationship between drawing variables and stress and anxiety. This study examined the style details and content of drawings in relation to the Rorschach variables measuring stress management. Based on previous research, we expected there to be a cluster of drawing variables, which would be indicative of stress and anxiety, such as the use of shading, depiction of damage in drawings, or producing minimalist drawings. The main findings were that drawing details, humans faces, representations of childhood, pleasant things, general objects, people together, humans alone, dots, and symbols were associated with adaptive characteristics specifically in relation to stress management. While drawing food, depicting damage, shading, adding letters or numbers and drawing minimally in the first six drawings was associated with the more negative aspects of stress.

Kaplan et al. (2002) examined the hypothesis that prevalence of hypertension among Asian immigrants differs by acculturation status. A multiple logistic regression was conducted to assess the independent effects of acculturation and other factors on hypertension. The results show a significant relation between Asian immigrants length of residence in Canada and hypertension, after adjusting for socio-demographics, smoking, drinking, health status, access to health services and psychological wellbeing.

Martin et al. (2003) examined the relationships between martial and military specific stress and the general psychological well being of army wives. These data come from an on going three year longitudinal panel study. Study participants (N =
were assessed at two different times 12 to 15 months apart. It was predicted that current marital stress and military life stress would have significant negative (and independent) relationships to well being, even when prior levels of stress and well being were taken into consideration. A path model was utilized to analyze the data. These data support the view that both military life stress and marital stress have important independent relationships to the general psychological well being of army wives. Furthermore, it appears that the relationship between marriage and well being takes on added importance the longer one stays in the military system.

Nevill and Alpass (2002) examined the relationships between stress, social support and psychological well being in men over the age of 65 years were investigated. A convenience sample of 217 men over the age of 65 years, living in a small New Zealand city took part in the study. A questionnaire was used to gather information on stress, social support and psychological well being, as well as biographical data. Data were analyzed quantitatively. Results showed that both the men who were satisfied with the social support they received and those who reported low stress levels experienced higher levels of psychological well being (p < .001). The number of people available to provide social support was not significantly related to psychological well being. There were no significant interaction effects between stress, social support variables and psychological well being, with each variable operating independently in relation to psychological well being. It appeared that the older the men were the fewer social
supports available to them, suggesting the importance of the quality of those supports in maintaining psychological well being.

Atienza, Audie-Aaron (1999) examined the effects of role stress and dispositional optimism on women’s psychological well being. The aim of the present study was two fold. One aim was to examine the independent contributions of stress experienced in each of these roles on women’s psychological well being. It was hypothesized that greater stress experienced in each social role would be independently related to poorer psychological well being (lower levels of depressive symptoms and higher levels of positive affect). The second aim of this study was to examine dispositional optimism as a buffer in the relationship between role stress and psychological well being. It was hypothesized that dispositional optimism would buffer the negative effects of stress in each role on psychological well being. Findings suggest that dispositional optimism can serve as a protective resource that alleviates the negative effects of role stress on positive and negative aspects of psychological well being.

Sinha (1975) in a study found that low achievers were having poor intellectual level, high anxiety level and low level of adjustment as compared to high achievers. Rural background was found to be associated with low achievement.

Sinha (1975) studied the personality traits and background factors of academic achievers and non-achievers and found that high achievers were regular
with studies. They were superior in intelligence, had low deprivation and better adjustment. Gupta (1970) made a comparative study of high and low achievers and found that industrious persistence and intensive work were found to be determining factors in raising one’s academic achievement.

Srivastava and Akhiles (1987) attempted to trace out the personality correlates of self related to academic success and failure and the results show that academically successful students found to be less anxiety ridden and extroverted than successful students, on the other hand academically unsuccessful students were found to be more anxiety ridden and introverted than academically successful students.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS:**

The following are the questions raised and attempts are made to answer them:

1. Is there any effect of deprivation and stress on adjustment of students?
2. What is the impact of deprivation and stress on academic achievement of students?
3. Are there any significant differences in adjustment and academic achievement between different sample subgroups?
4. Is there any correlation between independent and dependent variables of the study?