Chapter II
Review of Literature
STUDIES RELATED TO TEACHERS EFFECTIVENESS

Researchers take the advantage of the knowledge which has accumulated in the past as a result of constant human endeavor. It can never be undertaken in isolation of the work that has already been done in the problems which are directly or indirectly related to study proposed by researcher. A careful review of research journals, books, dissertations, theses and other sources of information on the problem to be investigated, is one of the important step in the planning of any research study. During the last decade, several studies have been undertaking to evaluate the teacher effectiveness in various contexts.

More, R.T. (1988) examined the relationship between teaching effectiveness, teaching aptitude and personality traits. On the basis of research findings it was revealed that only 6 factors out of 16 factors of personality (R.B. Catelli) were found to be positively correlated with teaching effectiveness, of which intelligence was the most important factor. Teaching effectiveness and teaching ability have positive correlation. The study attempted to bring an
Y.K. Sharma (1994) conducted a study about the relative importance of teaching skills. The main purpose of the study was to determine the relative importance of various teaching skills in terms of preferences of practicing teachers. Fifteen most commonly described teaching skills were finally retained. Preferences of the teachers were obtained, through the method of paired comparison. Results of the study showed that the teachers considered those skills relatively more important which either promoted maximum student involvement in the teaching learning process or were helpful in accelerating the pace of teaching by compensation for lengthy explanations. On the other hand, the skills retarding the pace of teaching were rated as least important. The skills of promoting pupil participation, using teaching aids and questioning, were thus judged as the most important teaching skills.

Soodak, C. et al. (1995) studied teachers’ thinking about difficult to teach students. They investigated teachers,
decisions regarding difficult-to-teach students, their causal beliefs, and their sense of efficacy. Teachers were given a case study asked to indicate (a) how the needs of the students might be met (b) which suggestions they believed were effective, and (c) what they believed to be the cause of the students' difficulties. Results showed that teachers more often suggested non teacher-based strategies than teacher-based ones; and believed that few of the suggested strategies were effective. Teachers who made more teacher based strategies had greater personal efficacy than those who sought solutions elsewhere. Further, teachers tended to attribute the students' problems to home cause, and causal beliefs were found to be related to the type of strategies offered.

Radha Mohan (1997) conducted a study about teaching effectiveness of physical science teacher trainees and certain selected variables. An attempt was made in this study to examine the teaching effectiveness of 148 physical science teacher trainees using an explanatory causal model. The variables included in the study were academic achievement, scientific attitude, interest in teaching and content knowledge. An instrument was devised to measure the different
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dimensions of teaching, like cognitive strategies, effective strategies and the like. Besides this standardized tools like Avinash Grewal's science attitude scale, Kakker's interest in teaching scale were used. The results showed that the cognitive strategies were the strongest predictors of teaching effectiveness followed by content. Academic achievement seems to be an important predictor of teacher effectiveness. Using the results of this study, the researcher postulates a revised conceptual path model of teaching effectiveness.

Anne Reynolds et al (2000) attempted to explore teacher retention, teaching effectiveness and professional preparation: a comparison of professional development schools and non-professional school graduates: They found no differences in retention in teaching. Principals rated PDS graduates higher in some aspects of teaching effectiveness, though effectiveness was more dependent on the individuals than the programme. PDS graduate felt more satisfied with their preparation than non-PDS graduates did. The results provide evidence for small but significant difference favoring PDS over non-PDS teacher education programmes.
Teachers who abuse: the impact on school communities was the title of a study conducted by Julie et al. (2001). This paper addressed issues that may arise of a teacher or school employee is an abusing pupil within the school community. Interviews were conducted with a number of respondents who had experience situations of abuse within the school context. The incidents used, as case examples, all concern sexual abuse, although the framework developed could be used to examine different types of abuse. The paper concludes that changes in legislation and guidelines can improve practice, but less tangible issues will continue to be involved when dealing with abuse, and that raising awareness of the issues is a key factor.

Martinze, G.R. (1999) conducted a study about teacher effectiveness and learning for mastery. The affect of an excellent or master teacher's use of learning for mastery (LFM) procedures on student learning was examined. Although (LFM) research strongly support a procedure effect, close scrutiny suggests a possible teacher-effect/procedural-effect confounding. The authors examined previous researches, reporting a main effect for mastery learning when the teacher
was rated average, but no main effect on an excellent or master teacher. Performance in 9 mastery and 9 traditional classes of intermediate algebra, thought by the different teacher were compared. Findings from 9x9 randomized factorial design that controlled for repeatable or mastery testing, the (LFM) procedure, and pretesting indicated that student achievement in the final examination did not differ across mastery and controlled classes, however, instructor time was more than double in the mastery classes.

Ling Lin et al. (2002) conducted a study about the influence of culture and education on U.S. and Taiwan pre service teachers' efficacy beliefs. Preservice teachers (N=240) at the beginning and ending points of their teacher education programmes in Taiwan and 231 comparable U.S. preserves teachers completed a revised version of the S.Gibson and M.H. Dembo (1984) teacher efficacy scale. Analyses indicated that the preserves teachers in these two countries may have conceptually different-expectations of teaching (e. g. Parental support, social awareness individual effort). However, efficacy beliefs of preserves teachers in these two countries showed a similar pattern regarding the teachers' ability to
adjust their teaching methods to meet the needs of individual children. Results suggest that in both countries, preserves teachers, efficacy beliefs may be influenced by the context of their academic programmes, by their increasing competence and experiences as teachers, and by cultural perspectives.

Milson, A. J. et al. (2002) studied elementary school teachers, sense of efficacy for character education. The authors described the efficacy beliefs of practicing elementary school teachers regarding character education. The character education efficacy belief instrument, developed and validated by the authors, was completed by a sample of 254 elementary school teachers in a large mid western suburban school district. The results suggest that elementary school teachers feel efficacious about most aspects of character education and that teachers who earned their undergraduate degrees form private religiously affiliated universities have a greater sense of efficacy for character education. Further research into the nature and effectiveness of programmes that exist in private religiously affiliated institutions may suggest methods for developing teacher's abilities to provide character education in school.
Lynn C. M. et al (2002) conducted a study about pre service teachers, educational beliefs and their perceptions of characteristics of effective teachers. The purpose of the study was to examine pre service teachers' perceptions of characteristics of effective teachers, as well as to investigate whether these perceptions are related to educational beliefs (i.e., progressive vs. transmissive). Data for the study were collected from 234 preservice teachers enrolled in several sections of an introductory level education class for education majors at a large university in Southern Georgia. During the first week of classes, the authors gave students (a) a questionnaire asking them to identify, rank and define characteristics that they believed excellent teachers possess or demonstrate and (b) a published survey that identified participants educational beliefs as either progressive or transmissive. A phenomenal analysis of responses revealed several characteristics that many of the pre service teachers considered to reflect effective teaching. The following 7 themes emerged from these characteristics: (a) student centered (55.2%), (b) effective classroom and behavior manager (33.6%), (c) competent instructor (33.6%), (d) ethical (29.9%), (e) enthusiastic about teaching (23.9%), (f)
knowledgeable about subject (19.4%), and (g) professional (15.7%). With the Bonferroni adjustment, a series of chi-square analysis revealed no relationship between the 7 perception categories of effective teachers, year of study, preferred grade level for teaching and educational belief. However, significantly more men than women endorsed teacher characteristics that were associated with being an effective classroom and behaviors manager.

Arockiadoss, S.A (2005) conducted a study on teacher effectiveness of college teachers. The study was intended to (i) find out the extent of teacher effectiveness found among the college teachers (ii) study the influence of personal and institutional background in teacher effectiveness of college teachers The major findings in the study are: (1) The majority of college teachers are effective only at moderate level. (2) Personal factors, such as age, sex, subject of teaching designation, and academic qualification, institutional background such as type (private, government), nature, (unisex/co-ed), status (autonomous and non-autonomous), location (urban, rural) and courses offered have significant influence on various dimensions of teacher effectiveness.
Rajasesekarn, P. et al, (2005) studied relationship between teaching competency and attitudes towards teaching social science among distance learners of B.Ed. with respect to sex, qualifications and years of experience. The results found that the relationship between teaching competency scale and attitude towards teaching social science was positive among women, Bachelors degree-holders and Master degree-holders.

Sushanta Kumar Roul (2004) studied teacher effectiveness of autonomous and non-autonomous college teachers in relation to their mental health. The study establishes that (I) autonomous college teachers are more effective than non-autonomous college teachers in teacher effectiveness. (II) The teachers of autonomous colleges have better mental health than their counterparts in non autonomous colleges. The researcher draws a conclusion that the teachers of autonomous college show better performance than non autonomous college teachers.


The study reveals that stress is a personal matter and that the perception of the situation enables one to cope with it effectively.

Dhoundiyal, N.C. (2005) studied the teacher expectancy on self-concept of students. The results showed that academic-achievement related
teacher expectancies are not associated with any expectancy congruent changes in the self concepts of students.

Subramonia pillai, A. (2004) studied the impact of practicing on quality teaching practice of teacher trainees. Results show that lack of facilities and lack of spirit and motivation of the school would negatively impact the quality of teaching. The author also argues that the dialogue between the training institution and the school becomes an imperative for keeping the link effectively.

Leonidas kyriakidas et al. (2006) conducted a study about generating criteria for evaluating teachers through teacher effectiveness research. The 42 criteria were classified into six categories which were comparable to the theoretical models teacher effectiveness research. Cypriot teachers considered the criteria related to the “working process” model as the most appropriate for conducting both formative and summative evaluation, while the criteria that emerged from the “school constituencies satisfaction” model and the “Accountability” model were seen as the least appropriate. The study indicated that the appropriateness of the criteria used for teacher evaluation can not be judged unless it is clear or whether they are employed for formative or summative evaluation purposes.
Studies related to Occupational Stress

Blix et al. (1994) analyzed occupational stress among university teachers. The sample included 400 teachers from California state university. Their results indicated that two-third of the teachers perceived stress at work at least 50% of time. The complaints of the teaches included burnout, stress related health problems, lower productivity, inability to cope with work stress and changes considerations, the research related activities were considered to be more stressful than either teaching or the service. A positive perception of ability to manage work stress was negatively correlated with stress symptoms.

A comprehensive study was conducted by James and Alan (1994) on work stress-distress of music and mathematics teachers. The parameters used were, six points Likert scale general health questionnaire and Masluch Burnout inventory. The sample comprised of 107 randomly selected secondary school teachers, with median age of 33 years, working in public and private schools in new southwelles. In the sample, sixty one persons were women and 46 were men. The music teachers showed more distress, burnout and negative effects of
work stress as well as attitudes held by others. No teacher in the music group thought music as easiest school subject to teach. On the contrary, 31% of mathematics teachers rated mathematics as easiest subject to teach. Teachers of mathematics group rated them more satisfied than music teachers.

**Swatara Devi (1994)** find out a significant difference between the job satisfaction of the teacher and their temperament traits. The Thurston temperament schedule was administered on a sample of 250 teacher belonging to 25 schools. She used mean, S.D.N. T. values in the analysis. The result showed no difference between the year of experience of teachers and in service education in relation to the components of temperament traits. She found significant difference between jobs satisfaction of the teachers and the temperament traits.

**Safia et. al. (1995)** studied occupational stress and locus of control. A study on white-collar employees of Britannia industries. The study assesses the relationship between occupational job stress and locus of control on a sample of 50 white-collar employees of Britannia industries. The results indicate that there is a significant but negative correlation
between job stress and internal locus of control. However, the relationship between external locus of control, and stress was found positive and significant. Further, significant difference between high and low stress groups in relation to both internal and external locus of control was also observed. The results were discussed in the light of recent researches.

**Boyal et al. (1995)** proposed models of diverts of teachers’ stress and statistically test their goodness of fit using a stressional equation modeling approach. They found that teacher stress was primarily a direct function of work load and student misbehavior.

**Misra et al. (1995)** studied spouse support and quality of marital relationship as correlates of stress. The study attempts to examine spouse support satisfaction (SPSS) and quality of marital relationship (QMR) as related with stress among 50 doctors couples. Stress was measured with the help of semi-structured questionnaire including two components work and family stress. Autonomy and relatedness inventory was used to measure marital quality including three positive and three negative dimensions and a modified version of social support questionnaire was used to measure (SPSS). Spouse support
satisfaction was found to be related with work stress in males, but not in females. The observed relationship between family stress and spouse support was stronger in males than in females, but not statistically significant quality of marital relationship was found to be related with stress, especially with work stress in males but not in females. Family stress, on the other hand, was related with quality of marital relationship in both males and females.

**Flett and Hewitt (1995)** Studied association between perfectionism and indices of job stress and perception of organizational support in 62 teachers. Perfectionism scale, the teacher stress inventory survey, and perceived organizational support were administered. They also assessed measures of job satisfaction, job expectancy and absenteeism. Positive association was found between socially prescribed perfection and indices of teacher stress, including intensity and frequency of professional distress, emotional manifestations and psychological manifestations. Significant associations was found between socially prescribed perfectionism and low job satisfaction. Self oriented perfectionism dimensions did not correlate to measure of teacher's stress.
Cockburn (1996) studied primary school teachers, using occupational stress inventory by Masluch as tool. They found teachers were suffering from extreme stress and were aware of 35 stress reduction strategies.

Menthai et al. (1996) studied stress in intermediate school’s teachers. Seven factors were identified, pupil reactivity, poor remuneration, curriculum demands recognition, poor working environment, community antagonism and time demands. It was found that higher level of stress were related to lower job satisfaction and reduce commitment to remain in the job in the long term. Absence and sickness was not found to be correlated with stress.

Reddy and Sriniwas (1997) studied impact of gender on stress and teacher effectiveness. No significant relationship was found between gender and stress. Significant relationship was found between intensity of stress and teachers effectiveness.

Jurado et al. (1998) studied impact of school setting and teaching experience on stress and teacher effectiveness using secondary school teachers in public and private sectors. Questionnaire in socio-demographic information as well as
epidemiologic studies rating scale for depression (C.E.S.D.) were used as tools. The teachers were classified as depressed when they score greater than 16 on the C.E.S.D. score. Results show that 5% of the teacher were above this score and suffered from depression. Logistic regression variables and longer teaching experience were found to inverse the risk of depressive symptomology.

The impact of professional isolation and occupational stress was studied by Dussault et al. (1999). French-Canadian version of U.C. L.A. Loneliness scale and stress inventory were used as tools. Results showed positive correlation between isolation and occupational stress.

Charis Forlin (2001) investigated potential stress of teachers during inclusion. 571 primary teachers were enrolled with child having moderate to serve intellectual disability. Teacher responded to teacher stress and coping (T.S.C.) questionnaire did not appear to be stressful by inclusion issues. Female teachers reported greater stress than male in coping with classrooms issues. Number of years of inclusion and participation in related formal training reduced the stress. The need was felt for identifying the potential stressor related
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to inclusion, so that appropriate training and support be provided to teachers.

Keval Poulka (2002) examined effect of hardiness, optimism and self condolence, on occupational stress. Results showed hardiness, optimism, and self-confidence as effective buffering factors against stress input among university teachers.

Trivenis et.al. (2002) conducted a study about gender difference in occupational stress experience among professional and non-professionals. The sample consisted of 300 professionals (doctors and teachers) and hundred non-professionals. The occupational stress index (OSI) developed by Shrivastava and A.P. Sing was used. The results revealed that women professional experience significantly higher occupational stress than men due to under participation. In rest of the dimensions of OSI men and women professionals do not differ significantly. Further, among non-professionals again women showed significantly higher stress than men due to under participation and low status. However, it is also observed that non-professional women tend to show higher role ambiguity and over all occupational stress.
Lowning chi (2003) examined effect of sense of humor or burnout of secondary school teacher. Three aspects of burnout i.e. emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment were studied. Beside, a new scale to measure teacher humor specific to school setting was included. Two established humor scales were also used. It was found that burnout was negatively related to sense of humor. Coping with stress were good predictor of emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment levels. Results also showed that teacher background characteristics were related to level of humor and burnout. Male teachers have greater sense of humor in coping with stressful events more frequently. Female with few years of teaching experience had high level of burnout. The researchers felt that there was a need of intervention programmes for secondary school teachers at risk of burnout.

Ronal et.al. (2003) studied effect work stress, social support and self-doubts on burnout among 362 school teachers and school administrators. Antecedents used including red tape, disruptive students and lack of supervision support. Consequence of burnout included heart symptoms and depressive mood. Questionnaire were used sending the same at
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two points of time, one year a part. LISREL analysis showed that predictors had significant relationship with burnout levels, one year later. Burnout served as a mediator between predictors and emotional and physical health outcomes.

Olaleken, M. (2004) conducted a study on stress management strategies of secondary school teachers in Nigeria. The study provides empirical evidence for the management of stress by teachers of secondary schools in Nigeria. The findings indicate that teachers frequently use the active behavioral and inactive (escape) strategies in managing stress. This is an indication that the average Nigerian teacher prefers to organize him/her self in such a way that his/her pedagogic duties will not be hampered by domestic chores. It also implies that, whenever the teacher is stressed, he/she consoles him/herself with the fact that work is not everything and therefore feels less stressed. The active cognitive strategies are used by the teacher. Their feeling is that nothing probably can be challenged in stressful situations. The teachers also expressed mixed feelings about the adoption of inactive behavioral strategies. While the majority of the teachers never engage in physical exercise or, say, watch films in order to
manage any stressful situations, they prefer to keep any from, any situation that could cause stress, as well as endeavoring to separate themselves from people who cause stressful situations.

Studies related to the Social Support

Sing (1990) examined the relationship between levels of occupational stress and social support in 113 flight nurses. Subject reported low levels of occupational stress and high level of social support. Significant negative correlation were found between social support and 3 out of 4 occupational subscales, job satisfaction, organizational stress and somatic distress. High levels of perceived social support were associated with low levels of perceived occupational stress.

Buunk et al. (1992) analyzed classic and contemporary social comparison theory and social change theory as two technical perspectives particularly useful in understanding social support. These perspectives were employed to explain seemingly paradoxical phenomena in the domain of social support. The author, further advocated that support sometimes has negative effects. The occurrence of stress itself can sometimes decrease the availability of support resources, and
people believe that they give more support, than they receive and that there is more support available for them than for others.

Van Der et al (1993) examined the differences between 80 males and 75 females managers in work in work stress, social support and strains (depression, health problems and job satisfaction). It was found that both work and life support were negatively correlated with work stress, only support was strongly related to reducing work stress and was positively reacted to each measures of strains. Life support were negatively related to depression, unrelated to perceived health problems and positively related to job satisfaction. The study did not find that the women experience more stress and strains that did men.

Cheuk and Wong (1995) pointed out the difficulties that 80 teaches encountered in the their work, the extent which the job related difficulties would induce burnout, and whether or not social support could buffer the adverse effects of stress on burnout. In service teachers enrolled in a teacher training programme filled out the stress inventory for teacher and questionnaires addressing social support and burnout. Result
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indicate that difficulties with other teachers, supervisors, students and parents of students were associated with burnout. No support was obtained for the prediction that social support from other teachers supervisor and family member could counteract the adverse effects of job stress.

Ray and Miller (1994) investigated the role of social support from both intra-and extra-organizational sources in reducing home/work stress and buffering its impact on burnout. 119 nurses or nursing assistants in a nursing home completed a questionnaire about home work stress, sources of support, burnout, and demographic information subjects with children and married subjects cohabitating with their partners were particularly vulnerable to home work stress. Increased levels of family support were associated with increased levels of emotional exhaustion, and perception of co-workers supports were related to higher levels of emotional exhaustion during periods of home/work stress. High levels of depersonalization of nursing home residents were associated with high levels of home stress and low levels of supervisory support.

Sheffield et at. (1994) examined the relationship between stress and social support, and indices of psychological and
physical health among 88 secondary school teachers. Bivariate correlation analysis revealed associations between life and job stress and a variety of general health questionnaire measure of psychological well-being. Job stress was also correlated with self-reported short term sickness from work. Social support measures did not generally predict psychological health outcome measures. In contrast, neither stress nor social support measures were related to self-report physical health problems or long-term sickness absence. Results indicate that self-reported stress was largely associated with psychological well-being and was not substantially related to indices of physical well-being.

Walsh et al. (1995) assessed the ways in which partner support and gender mediate the individual’s experience of active coping in unemployment. The results revealed the impact of gender and partner support on the meaning values and impact of purposive activity in a sample of 75 unemployed women and men with dependent children. Subjects with supportive partners reported better relationship quality lower severity of problem and a lower incidence of use of both active and avoidance coping strategies and less reliance on the
support of professionals. Women reported poorer relationship quality, which lack of support from partners had a much greater effect on women. Unsupported women reported higher problem severity and a greater need for practical help, outside the family.

Pradhan and Misra (1995) explored spouse support satisfaction and quality of marital relationships related to stress among 50 doctor couples. Results show that spouse support satisfaction was related to work stress in men but not in women. Quality of marital relationship was related to stress, specifically to work stress in men. Family stress, on the other hand was related to the quality of marital relationship in both men and women.

Madhurima et al. (1995) studied spouse support and quality of marital relationship as correlates of stress. The study attempts to examine spouse support satisfaction (SPSS) and quality of marital relationship (QMR) as related with stress among 150 doctor couples incidentally selected. Stress was measured with the help of semi-structured questionnaire including two components work and family stress. Autonomy and relatedness inventory was used to measure marital quality
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include three positive and three negative dimensions and a modified version of social support questionnaire was used to measure SPSS. Spouse support satisfaction was found to be related with work stress in males, but not in females. The observed relationship between family stress and spouse support was stronger in males than in females, but not satisfactorily significant. Quality of marital relationship was found to be related with stress, especially with work in males but not in females. Family stress, on the other hand related with quality of marital relationship in both males and females.

Ponam Sing et al. (1997) conducted a study about social support, mental and physical health status of Indian nurses. The study examined the relationship between social support, mental and physical health of married nurses (N=200) in the age range of 35 to 40 years. They had at least five years work experience. Results revealed that perceived actual and expected social support scores were significantly negatively correlated with mental and physical health and self-esteem scores (PLO,.05 to ,01). It was also observed that husband and colleague's high actual support was associated with better mental and physical health (PLO, 05 to 01). Finally, results of
step-wise multiple regression analysis revealed that actual information and colleagues actual support contributed 24% of variance in total mental health scores. In physical health scores, actual practical support and expected informational support accounted 20% of variance. Husband, colleagues, servant and total actual support contributed 11.6% of variance in self-esteem scores. Results were interpreted in the light of theoretical models and cultural context.

Archana et al. (1998) conducted a study about social support as a moderator variable of occupational stress and organizational commitment relationship. Moderated regression analysis confirmed that social support has a moderating effect on the occupational stress and organizational commitment relationship.

Thakur (1999) conducted a study about daily hassles, well being and social support: experience of employed women in India, role of social support in daily hassles and well being experience of women was studied considering the complexity of social support, three measures of social support were used. It was found that though the employed women experience more hassles and received lesser support than their
unemployed counterparts. They enjoyed better well being. Resources generated by employment (e.g. Income, status etc.) appear adequate not only to cope with stress emanating from multiple role but also enhance well being.

Sud, A. et al. (2002) studied job related stress, social support and trait anxiety among school teachers. In this study, the effect of three variable combination of job stress, social support and trait anxiety has been studied for school teachers, by treating trait anxiety as an independent variable. The sample was comprised of 200 school teachers of private and government schools. Teacher stress survey and social support questionnaire by House and well (1978), and social provision scale were used for collecting data. Results showed that, along with many emergence of clear correspondence between co workers support and provision of reassurance of worth, ensures the moderating effect of co worker's support for Indian teachers. The implications of these findings for the development of stress reducing pogrammes for teachers have been put forth.

M.Anis-ulHaq et al. (2001) conducted a study about Burnout and organizational sources of social support in Human service
professions. A compression of woman doctors and nurses. They investigated the difference between women doctors and nurses on home-work stress, burnout, and its three dimensions. The role of organizational sources of social support in reducing the home-work stress in burnout was explored. Data were collected from 143 women (69 doctors and 73 nurses) working in public hospital of Lahore. Results indicated that the nurses were significantly different from women doctors in the levels of depersonalization of others and reduced personal accomplishment dimensions of burnout. Results also suggested that the relationship between home-work stress and burnout was moderated by organizational sources of support predominantly in nurses.

Radhey Shaam et al. (2002) conducted a study of depression, self-esteem and social support amongst institutionalized and non institutionalized aged. Black depression scale and self-esteem inventory were used. Social support questionnaire was also administered to assess the perceived availability of numbers of person available for support and the level of satisfaction. Findings revealed that non institutionalized aged subjects were more depressed than the institutionalized aged.
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where as self-esteem was found to be higher in non institutionalized aged subjects. Findings are discussed in the light of relevance of such studies for institutional and non institutional care of the elderly.

Bailey et al. (2003) studies parenting after divorce: non residential parents perceptions of social and institutional support. This paper seeks to determine from the non residential parents, perspectives, how social and institutional systems promote and hinder continued parenting following divorce when they live long distances from their children. Semi-structured telephone interviews with 306 non residential parents living 50 or more miles from their revealed social and institutional systems provide both assistance and barriers to parents following divorce. The challenge of continuing with their identity and role as a parent and family member was shown through their interactions with schools, religious institutions and work places, as well family and friend.

Bettina et al. (2004) conducted a study about predicating maternal relativity sensitivity; the role of infant emotionality, maternal depressiveness/ anxiety and social support. It was hypothesized that an accumulation of unfavorable conditions,
i.e. high negative emotionality of the infant, maternal depressiveness and anxiety lacking social and emotional support can attenuate mothers' reactivity/ sensitivity. Maternal reactivity / sensitivity was observed during home visit and in the laboratory. Infant negative and positive emotionality was assessed by mothers, reports and behavioral observation maternal depressiveness/ anxiety as well as social support were assessed via questionnaire. A Mothers were precipitous and had healthy infants. Data collection was conducted at the infant, ages of four mother (37 days) and eight mothers (33 days). The sample consisted of 19 male and 8 females infants; (four mother measurements) where as the process of single risk factor was not related to natural reactivity/ sensitivity, the combination was, a decrease in maternal reactivity/ sensitivity over the course of time was demonstrated for mothers who had to deal with high negative emotionality of the infant in combination with either high depressiveness / anxiety or low social support at the infant’s age of four months. No significant mean or interaction effect could be shown for infant positive emotionality.
Studies related to spiritual orientation:

Everts and Agee (1994) highlighted issues involved in the inclusion of spirituality in professional counselor education programmes. The author has discussed the necessity of a careful definition of spirituality, and clarified how it affects the programmes content.

Rasmussen et al (1994) assessed the relative contributions of spirituality and religiosity to levels of death anxiety. Results of step-wise multiple regression reveal that spirituality had a significant negative relationship with death anxiety. As the degree of certainty with respect to life after death greater level of satisfaction with life, and grater feeling of purpose in life increased and level of death anxiety decreased. No significant relationship was found between religiosity and death anxiety, but female subjects reported higher levels of death anxiety than did males.

Linda M. C. (1995) has conducted a study about age differences in mystical experiences among the Indian migrants to America. She collected data from 403 Indian migrants residing in California state. She used spiritual well being inventory by Jeffery S. Levin to collect the data. Results
showed that composite mysticism scores increased with younger age cohorts. Further, private and subjective religiosity are found positively related to overall mystical experiences. The organizational religiosity was inversely related.

A series of studies on spirituality has been conducted by Roquïya, Z. In one of her studies she found need aggression and spirituality to be inversely correlated. Need aggression was found to be a negative predictor of spirituality (1993). It was suggested that some sort of spiritual intervention is necessary to deal with violence and aggression.

In a factor Analytic study of dimensions of spirituality she found two factors. Factor I was named “value dimension of spirituality”. It consists of meaning and purpose in life, mission in life, sacredness, idealism and altruism. The II factor was named as “experiential dimension of spirituality”, which consisted of transcendental dimension and fruits of spirituality. (Roquïya Zainuddin, 1994)

Suyemoto and Mac Donald (1996) utilized a flexible, data-drive research method to derive an inductive theory concerning the content and function of religious beliefs. Data from interviews with 18 undergraduates were content analyzed yielding seven distinct belief domain higher power, creation,
soul, after-death, spiritual connections with others, fact and
supernatural occurrences function domains for each content
domain, and for belief systems as a whole were preliminarily
identified.

Helminiak (1997) argued that religion often fosters or, at
least, supports violence. The solution to the current impasses
between Church and state is to tease apart religion and
spirituality and to elaborate spirituality based on the universal
inner makeup of human beings. The self-aware and self
transcending dimensions of the human mind that can rightly be
called spirit, and the notion of authenticity, contribute to the
understanding that, apart from religion, God, or theoretical
speculation, the human being solidly grounds spirituality
inherent in humanity as such, spirituality is essential to any
society. It is stated that focusing spirituality as the link
between theology and psychology can be a major break-
through in addressing the problems of our age.

James and Samuels (1999) examined the relationship of
common high stress life events and measures of adult spiritual
development. Results support the hypothesis that the
experience of high stress life event is associated with a
universalistic spiritual orientation, but not the hypothesis that intrinsic religiousness is related to experience of such events. Males support the hypothesis that faith stage is associated with the experience of high stress life event only. This study leads support to earlier case-history reports, which indicated that spiritual growth could be a contractive consequence of highly stressful experiences.

Christian Smith (1999) studied about the impact of religion on self. Data were collected from Michigan University secondary schools. Sample comprised of 2,478 high school seniors. Multiple regression analyses was used. Results showed that high school seniors who considered themselves religious had significantly higher self-esteem. They held more positive attitudes about life than did their less religious peers. The study also revealed a statistical association between religious attitudes and higher self-esteem among 12th graders, who went to religious services at least once a week, or professed deeply held spiritual views. 31 percent of all 12th graders, who attended services weekly, and additional 30 percent who said religion was very important to them, were
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significantly more likely to enjoy life than nonreligious students, in addition they
- Think their lines to be useful,
- Feel hopeful about their future,
- Are satisfied with lives,
- Enjoy being in school.

Ellis, Vinson and Ewigman (1999) assessed family physicians, spiritual wellbeing, identified their perceived barriers to discuss spiritual issues with patients, and determined how often they have these discussions nearly all respondents considered spiritual well-being an important health component. Fear of dying was the spiritual issue most commonly discussed and less than 20% of subjects reported discussing other spiritual topics in more than 10% of patient encounters. Barriers to addressing spiritual issues included lack of time, inadequate training for talking spiritual histories, and difficulty in identifying patients who want to discuss spiritual issues. Subjects believe spiritual well being is an important factor in health and reported in frequent discussions of spiritual issues with patients and infrequent referrals of hospitalized patients of complaints.
Young et al. (2000) used the human spirituality scale, Beck depression inventory, state-trait anxiety inventory and the life experience summary to examine how spirituality moderates relationship between negative life experience and psychological adjustment, operationalized for this study as levels of depression and anxiety subjects were 303 male and female enrolled in psychological course aged 18-29 years. Results suggest that spirituality provides a significant moderating effect for both depression and anxiety. The moderating effect was stronger for depression than for anxiety.

Pederson et al (2000) examined the relationship of spiritual self-identify related to religious state orientations and religious attitudes with the help of who am I? scale, the religious life inventory and the religious attitude questionnaire, respectively, 315 undergraduates from four universities participated in the study. Their findings suggest that spiritual self-identity is a salient feature of self-identification and contributes to the research literature on religiosity.
Mansager (2000) explored religion and spirituality by mean of the presidential address of two prominent scholars—one in the presidential address of the psychology of religion, the other in the field of spirituality. Reviewing the history provides differentiation between spirituality and religion as a personal transformative experience and spirituality as an academic discipline studying that experience. The author presents Adler's psychological theory as a key component for understanding religion and spirituality, as constituent aspects of humanity, can be understood without appeal to a dualistic supernatural reality.

David, et al. (2003) studied the challenge of spiritual diversity. Can social work facilitate an inclusive environment. Social workers, growing interest in spirituality raises the issue of spiritual diversity. Demographic data indicate that the profession is not reflective of the larger society. With theist population such as evangelical christens being significantly under repressed. As social workers write with how to integrate spirituality and religion into social works the lack of the theist voices may hinder their ability to understand the unique world view of evangelical and other theist indeed, the non-theist
majority in adamantly shape the progressions emerging spirituality paradigm in such a manner that actually impairs social workers ability to work with spiritual minorities. The author concluded by examining how the under representation effect clients and suggest a number of steps to facilitate a move diverse profession that foster respect for spiritual minorities.