CHAPTER-1

INTRODUCTION

“TO STUDY THE IMPACT OF PSYCHOLOGICAL STRESS ON THE ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT IN ENGLISH SUBJECT OF PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS AT ELEMENTARY LEVEL”

1. CONCEPTUAL FRAME WORK;

One of the most essential questions one can ask is, "What is the meaning of life?"

Life is not just a simple process of inhaling and exhaling air. But it is the development of an individual as "human being" rather than an animal or a machine.

Education is an essential element in the very transformation of an individual. Man is what education has made him. So the future of mankind depends on the education, it gives to itself and kind of education that it develops for itself will be conditioned not only by its resources (in men, monkey and equipment) but also by its need, its vision of what kind of life it wants for itself and its perception of its own highest possibilities.

The word education has been interpreted in various ways. It is derived from the Latin roots like from Educatum that means "to train" and from Educare that means "to lead out" and Educare that means "to bring up".

Developing this concept in future we come to mean that education is a process which draws from within. Education is that which brings out the best in the individual. "Everyone is assumed to be born with certain inherent potentialities and virtues according to Plato.

Education is the process of developing the capacities and potentials of the individual so as to prepare that individual to be successful in a specific society or culture. From this
perspective, education is serving primarily as an individual development function. Education begins at birth and continues throughout life. It is constant and ongoing. Schooling generally begins somewhere between the ages four and six when children are gathered together for the purposes of specific guidance related to skills and competencies that society deems important. In the past, once the formal primary and secondary schooling was completed the process was finished. However, in today’s information age, adults are quite often learning in informal setting throughout their working lives and even into retirement.

Education, in its broadest sense, may be defined as a process designed to inculcate the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary to enable individuals to cope effectively with their environment. Its primary purpose is to foster and promote the fullest individual self-realization for all people. Achieving this goal requires understanding of commitment to the proposition that education is a primary instrument for social and economic advancement of human welfare (Verma, 1990).

In its narrow sense, school instruction is called education while in wider sense; education is not the communication of information by the teacher or the acquisition of knowledge by the child.

"Education is that process of development which consists the passage of

Human being from infancy to maturity, the process whereby he adapts himself gradually in various ways to his physical and spiritual environment- T. Raymont

As Swami Vivekananda has put it, "Education is the manifestation of the perfection already in man." According to him education is not to put the amount of information into brain that runs riot there undigested all the life.

Rabindra Nath Tagore says, "Education means to enable the child to find out the ultimate truth, making its own and giving expression to it."
Education is able to instill in the child a sense of maturity and responsibility by bringing in him the desired changes according to his needs.

Speaking more frankly, education bestows upon the child immense benefits. Thus, education develops the individual like a flower which distributes its fragrance all over the environment. In this sense, education is a conductive process which drags a person from darkness, poverty and misery by developing his individuality in all its aspects—physical, mental, emotional and social. With this type of all round development, he becomes a responsible, dynamic, resourceful and enterprising citizen of strong, good moral character who uses all his capacities to develop his own self.

It is only through education that moral ideals and spiritual values are transferred from one generation to another for preservation, purification and sublimation into higher and higher achievements.

Education is greatly essential for the growth and development of individual as well as society.

"The function of education is to discipline feelings, to control emotions, to stimulate motivations and to develop religious sentiments." Daniel Webster

The aim of education is several times misunderstood. It is no where mentioned that the aim of education is to provide job opportunities to the student but ours education aims towards making a child the human being.

The aim of education is inherent in the word 'education' itself. Is either a clerkship or being a lawyer or at the most a deputy magistrate the goal of our education? The end of all education should be to make the man grow spiritually.

"Education has long been recognized as a central element in the development" Bacchus-1992

"By education, I mean the all-round drawing out of the best in child and man-body, mind and soul.” M.K.Gandhi
Ancient education emphasized scholarship and mental development only. It kept an indifferent attitude towards other aspects of personality.

In other words, acquiring more and more knowledge was regarded as the prime aim according to old concept of education. On the contrary, modern educationists lay equal stress upon other aspects of development viz. Physical mental, emotional and social. Actually, the aim of education is an all round development of a person.

Different type of agencies have been developed for achieving the aim of education i.e. an all round development of an individual like community, family, state, religion, media and school.

School word is assumed to be derived from the Greek work 'Skhole' or 'school' which means leisure. "The school is a half way house between the entirely domestic life of early childhood and larger life that waits the youth when he quits his parental roof". Raymont

Following are the functions of school:

1. Development of Mental Powers.
2. Cultivation of a Dynamic and Adaptable Mind.
4. Vocational and Industrial Education.
5. Re-organization and Reconstruction of human experience.
7. Development of Character.
8. Physical Development.
10. Emotional Development
11. Inculcation of the Spiritual values.

The requirement of trained and skilled teachers is felt at every level i.e. nursery, elementary and secondary. In STC curriculum the paper of English language is considered as a compulsory paper so that the basic knowledge of English language is
necessary for STC students. On the basis of the results of the previous classes, it cannot be considered that the students are trained or not. Intensive knowledge of the subject is required to be a skilled teacher at this level. The academic achievement of the students also is evaluated at this stage.

The aim of the study is to evaluate the impact of psychological stress on the academic achievement in English of STC students. There are many factors which influence the academic achievement of STC students such as intelligence, family background, location and mode of education etc. English is very important language in present era, so it would be better to see the achievement of the STC students in English subject.

Ever since the life on earth started, the other reality i.e. the psychological existence also came into the focus of observation reflected through writings of eminent and dominant personalities. Every human behavior is a consequence of certain inner drives.

The present scenario is the result of technological revolution, web technology and web culture. Naturally, the achievement of people specially, in the field of English subject besides humanities and science, is a well considered opinion that language is the great potential factor for the development of culture and history of a country. Hence, language education in every country occupies a significant place. The knowledge, in any language, demands good intellect people with rationale of mind. To make the structure of courses in language compatible with other countries, the curriculum at every level has been greatly enriched by our curriculum boards at centre, state and university level.

Emotional intelligence has been found a reliable predictor of academic achievement rather than that of general intelligence. A large amount of research work done in the previous century concluded that the higher the intelligence the better the academic performance. Later observations made in other studies revealed that many adolescent boys and girls in spite of having good IQ levels were not able to show equivalent performance. Their declining performance appeared as a result of their emotional disturbances, problems in managing relationship, and insufficient coping mechanism to deal effectively with the environment. Such results made the researches think analyze and
INTRODUCTION

explore the missing elements, which have profound effect on student's academic performance. It is very important for a person to have a normal and well-balanced personality. Different people have tried to define a normal and well-functioning personality, differently. Most of the people stress upon traits like autonomy, creativity, productivity and competence in dealing with the environment and emotions like love, sympathy and empathy, which make up a well-functioning personality. Basically, one should be able to master the environment by using the problem solving abilities and realistic perceptions of the world without being over whelmed by emotional states.

The challenge before the educationists and teachers is to identify the stress factors which persist in students. The institutions of education are distinctively managed and equipped in terms of man, material and methodology, therefore, the school environment also plays a significant role in either increasing or decreasing learning of students.

1.1 MEANING OF STRESS;

“Stress is the electric power; it can make a bulb light up, however, if the voltage is higher than what the bulb can take, it can burn out the bulb”.

This is an age of anxiety. We have become ‘cogs’ in the wheel of the industrialized world as Bertrand Russell put it. The symptoms of stress are a kind of restlessness, apathy and despair and marked diminution of zest and zeal.

Stress has a marked debilitating effect upon the heart, muscles and the circulatory system. How does psychological functioning change under stress? At more intense levels or when coping mechanisms are weaker, psychological performance deteriorates, discrimination and judgments are more inaccurate, learning is slower, memory is less efficient and intellectual problem solving is less effective. Psychologically healthy persons seek challenge and excitement and prefer to deal with manageable stress. There should be some deadline to complete the work. Otherwise laziness and delay would set in. It is called as ROSS (rust out stress syndrome) and when the employees over stretch themselves, hypertension takes place; this is called BOSS (burn out stress syndrome).
INTRODUCTION

Both are bad. Optimum stress infuses challenge and creates meaning and purpose to human life.

In the 14th century, stress meant hardship, adversity or affliction (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). In the early 19th century, load was defined as an external force, strain as the degree of deformation caused by the force on the object and stress as the ratio of internal force created by the load to the area over which the force acted (Hinkle, 1977).

Similarly, in the late 19th century, stress referred to those pressures on the body that contribute to illness. Walter Connon (1932) was among the first scientist to describe how people respond to stressful circumstances. He coined the term ‘homeostasis’ to describe the coordinated physiological process which maintains most of the steady States of the organism (Systemic Equilibration). Stress was seen as a disturbance of homeostasis caused by outside pressures and demands. He proposed that when a person is faced with a threat, her body prepares for emergency action, i.e., either to confront the stress or to flee the situation. This is made possible through heightened nerve and hormonal activity. The sympathetic nervous system stimulates the release of hormones by the medulla of the adrenal gland (Adrenaline and Nor-adrenaline). The widespread physiological changes associated with this are an increase in heart rate, increase in blood supply to the muscles, increased respiration, a decrease in gastrointestinal activity etc. which enable the body to prepare for “fight or flight”. Cannon was of the view that continuous activation of this reaction could lead to destructive physical illnesses.

The word stress is defined by the Oxford Dictionary as “a state of affair involving demand on physical or mental energy”. A condition or circumstance, which can disturb the normal physiological and psychological functioning of an individual.

There are many definitions of stress as well as number of events that can lead to the experience of stress. People say they are stressed when they take an examination, when having to deal with a frustrating work situation, or when experiencing relationship difficulties. Stressful situations can be viewed as harmful, as threatening, or as
challenging. With so many factors that can contribute to stress it can be difficult to define the concept to “stress”.

Selye, H. (1982) points out that few people define the concept of stress in the same way or even bother to attempt a clear-cut definition. According to Selye, an important aspect of stress is that a wide variety of dissimilar situations are capable of producing the stress response such as fatigue, effort, pain, fear, and even success. This has led to several definitions of stress, each of which highlights different aspects of stress.

Stress is simply the body’s non specific response to any demand made on it. Stress is not by definition synonymous with nervous tension or anxiety. Stress provides the means to express talents and energies and pursue happiness; it can also cause exhaustion and illness, either physical or psychological; heart attacks and accidents. The important thing is to remember about stress is that certain forms of stress are normal and essential.

Stress is good to extent natural to all life and unavoidable for human beings. It is intrinsic to all tasks having an evaluative dimension found in all situations, and at all times. What is important is to recognize and understand the factors underlying the dynamics because of which a person can feel relatively more stressed than similar others in the same situation and at the same time, and that even the same person in different situations/different times finds the same demands differently stressful. This makes the experience of stress a relative phenomenon, and highlights the importance of the attributes of the person and situation as well in the experience of stress. All people experiencing similar life conditions do not experience similar levels of stress, as their access to resources and use of support systems tend to vary. Stress has a diffused character and its multiple manifestations are intricately interconnected, making it difficult to understand and measure them accurately. In the social context, sources of stress are known to range from the most immediate to the most distant structures and environments, like society, institution and family, and all are relevant to the experience of the concerned at one time to the other. From a social perspective, stress does not necessarily result from bad luck, unfortunate encounters, or unique circumstances.
It happens to be the consequence of one’s engagement in social institutions, whose very structures and functioning tend to engender and sustain patterns of conflict, confusion, and distress. The eventful experiences involving undesirable, unscheduled or involuntary changes, as well as continuing experiences involving persistent problems implicit in the social roles, constitute powerful conditions of stress for the person. How do the personal problems become expressions of social problems require an understanding of the processes by which a social system gets transformed into features of the emotional interiors of individuals?

1.2 BIOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF STRESS;

Walter Cannon (1929) describes the fight or flight response of the body after perceiving danger or stress. This response mobilizes the organism to respond quickly to danger but the state of higher arousal can be harmful to health if it is prolonged.

Selye (1956) observed in laboratory animals and in human patients the body’s reaction to stress. He found that the fight or flight response was only the first in a series of reactions, which he called the general adaptation syndrome (GAS). The GAS consists of three stages:

**Alarm reaction**: The alarm reaction is like the fight or flight response to an emergency. The body is mobilized. At the beginning of the arousal blood pressure drops below normal for a moment, but then quickly rises to above normal. This arousal is produced by the release of hormones by the endocrine system: the pituitary glands secrete ACTH, which causes a heightened release of adrenaline, noradrenalin, and cortical by the adrenal glands into the bloodstream. The body cannot stay in this state for long without serious consequences. Some organisms in a continuous state of alarm have died within hours or days.

**Stage of resistance**: If the reaction continues and is not strong enough to cause death the physiological reaction enters the stage of resistance. The body tries to adapt to the stressor. Physiological arousal declines but remains higher than normal and the body
replenishes the hormones released by the adrenal glands. The organism may show few outward signs of stress. However, the body may not be able to resist new stresses. The body becomes increasingly vulnerable to health problems. These health problems include ulcers, high blood pressure, asthma, and illnesses that result from impaired immune function.

**Stage of exhaustion**: Severe long-term or repeated stress will cause the organism to enter the third stage, the stage of exhaustion. The immune system and the body’s energy reserves are weakened until resistance is very limited. If the stress continues, disease and physiological damage become increasingly likely and death may result.

**Evaluation of GAS**;

A problem for GAS is that some stressors elicit a stronger emotional response than other do. The theory does not take account of psychosocial processes. A sudden increase in temperature, for example, would produce more emotion than a gradual increase.

Another problem for GAS is that cognitive appraisal is not taken account of. A study by Katherine Tennes and Maria Kreye (1985) found that intelligent school children experienced more stress on the day of an exam than unintelligent school children.

**1.3 PSYCHOSOCIAL ASPECTS OF STRESS**;

**Cognition and stress**;

A high level of stress impairs people’s memory and attention during cognitive activities such as when taking examination. Noise can be a stressor, for example when people live next to a busy railway or motorway. People cope by tuning out the noise. Cohen (1980) has proposed that children who tried to tune out chronic noise may develop generalized cognitive deficits because they have difficulty knowing which sounds to attend to and which to tune out. One study tested primary school children who lived in a block of flats that was built on bridges spanning a busy highway. The children in the noisy flats had
more difficulty discriminating between pairs of words (for example, house and mouse) (Cohen et al., 1973).

People living near the Three Mile Island nuclear power plant in Pennsylvania who had difficulty in coping with the stress that was produced by the fear that the nuclear emissions would affect their health, found it difficult to keep their minds from thinking about the accident. Thoughts can perpetuate stress and make it chronic.

**Emotions and Stress;** Cognitive appraisal processes can influence both the stress and the emotional experience for example; one person coming across a poisonous snake might be frightened whereas another person, who studied poisonous snakes, would be excited.

Fear is a common emotional reaction that can be classified into two categories:

**Phobias:** Phobias are intense and irrational fears that are associated with specific events and situations. An example of this would be claustrophobia, a fear of being enclosed in small rooms.

**Anxiety:** anxiety is a vague feeling of uneasiness or apprehension. A gloomy anticipation of impending doom caused by a relatively uncertain or unspecific threat. People may not be aware of the situations that seem to arouse anxiety or to know how the “doom” will manifested itself. Patients awaiting surgery or the outcome of diagnostic tests generally experience high levels of anxiety. Anxiety may result from appraisals of low self-worth and the anticipation of a loss of self-esteem.

The things children fear tend to become less concrete and more abstract and social as they get older. A study of children’s fears of dental treatment found that the most frightened children were those who had not experienced invasive procedures, such as having a tooth extracted during the prior few years (Murray etal., 1989). Children who see themselves as less able than their peers are likely to appraise their own resources as insufficient to meet the demands of stressors.
1.4 DEPRESSION; 

Stress can lead to feelings of depression. Depression is quite normal, but severe and prolonged depression is a serious disorder. Symptoms of clinical depression are:

- A generally, unhappy mood.
- Feelings of helplessness about the future.
- They appear restless and passive.
- Disrupted eating and sleeping habits.
- Low self-esteem.

A long-term disabling health problem, such as being paralyzed, often leads to depressive disorders. Assessing depression in children is difficult because they are unable to express their feelings very well.

1.5 ANGER;

Another emotional reaction to stress is anger. This often occurs when the person perceives the situation as harmful or frustrating. Anger can produce aggressive behavior. When stress is accompanied by anger, negative social behaviors tend to increase. Stress-produced anger increases aggressive behavior, and these negative effects continue after the stressful event is over. Child abuse is often related to parental stress. Prior to a parent battering their child the parent usually has experienced a stressful crisis, such as the loss of a job at high levels of stress the parent is at risk of losing control. If a child is running around making a lot of noise in the house the parent could become very angry and lose control.

1.6 COGNITIVE-RELATIONAL THEORY OF STRESS;

Cognitive-relational theory defines stress as a particular relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his or her...
resources and endangering his or her well-being (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984b, p. 19). Appraisals are determined simultaneously by perceiving environmental demands and personal resources. They can change over time due to coping effectiveness, altered requirements, or improvements in personal abilities.

The cognitive-relational theory of stress emphasizes the continuous, reciprocal nature of the interaction between the person and the environment. Since its first publication (Lazarus, 1966), it has not only been further developed and refined, but it has also been expanded recently to a meta-theoretical concept of emotion and coping processes (Lazarus, 1991, 1993a, 1993b; Lazarus & Folkman, 1987).

Within a meta-theoretical system approach Lazarus (1991) conceives the complex processes of emotion as composed of causal antecedents, mediating processes, and effects. Antecedents are person variables such as commitments or beliefs on the one hand and environmental variables, such as demands or situational constraints, on the other. Mediating processes refer to cognitive appraisals of situational demands and personal coping options as well as to coping efforts aimed at more or less problem-focused and emotion-focused. Stress experiences and coping results bring along immediate effects, such as affects or physiological changes, and long-term results concerning psychological well-being, somatic health and social functioning.

There are three meta-theoretical assumptions: transaction, process and context. It is assumed, first, that emotions occur as a specific encounter of the person with the environment and that both exert a reciprocal influence on each other; second, that emotions and cognitions are subject to continuous change; and third, that the meaning of a transaction is derived from the underlying context, i.e. various attributes of a natural setting determine the actual experience of emotions and the resulting action tendencies.

Research has mostly neglected these meta-theoretical assumptions in favor of unidirectional, cross-sectional, and rather context-free designs. Within methodologically sound empirical research, it is hardly possible to study complex phenomena such as emotions and coping without constraints. Also, on account of its complexity and
transactional character leading to interdependencies between the involved variables, the meta-theoretical system approach cannot be investigated and empirically tested as a whole model. Rather, it represents a heuristic framework that may serve to formulate and test hypotheses in selected sub areas of the theoretical system only. Thus, in practical research one has to compromise with the ideal research paradigm. Investigators have often focused on structure instead of on process. Measuring single states or aggregates of states. However stress has to be analyzed and investigated as an active, unfolding process. More precisely, stress appraisal processes need to be predicted by environmental and personal variables as antecedents, and coping strategies and loan-term effects need to be considered.

**Following are the types and factors leading to stressful appraisals;**

**Primary and Secondary Appraisal;**

**Primary appraisal;**

During the primary appraisal stage a person will be seeking answers as to the meaning of the situation with regard to their well being. One of three types of appraisals could be made:

- It is irrelevant
- It is good (benign-positive)
- It is stressful.

Imagine there was a snow blizzard. You might consider that the blizzard would not affect you, as you do not have to go to work the following day. You might consider the blizzard a blessing because this means that your college exam would be postponed or you can go skiing! The situation could be stressful because you have few supplies and you need to get to the shops and driving would be hazardous.
Further appraisal is made with regard to 3 implications:

Harm-loss

Threat

Challenge

Harm-loss refers to the amount of damage that has already occurred. There may have been an injury. The seriousness of this injury could be exaggerated producing a lot of stress.

Threat is the expectation of future harm, for example the fear of losing one’s job and income. Much stress depends on appraisals that involve harm-loss and threat.

Challenge is a way of viewing the stress in a positive way. The stress of a higher-level job could be seen as an opportunity to expand skills, demonstrate ability, and make more money.

Secondary appraisal;

Secondary appraisals occur at the same time as primary appraisals. A secondary appraisal can actually cause a primary appraisal. Secondary appraisals include feelings of not being able to deal with the problem such as:

I can’t do it-I know I’ll fail.

I will try, but my chances are slim.

I can do it if I get help.

If this method fails, I can try a few others.

I can do it if I work hard.

No problem-I can do it.
Stress can occur without appraisal such as when your car is involved in an accident and you haven’t had time to think about what has happened. Accidents can often cause a person to be in shock. It is difficult for people to make appraisals whilst in shock as their cognitive functioning is impaired.

**Factors lead to Stressful Appraisals:**

Events are stressful depending on two types of factors:

Those that relate to the person.

Those that relate to the situation.

Personal factors include intellectual, motivational, and personality characteristics. People who have high self-esteem are likely to believe they have the resources to meet demands. Stressful events are seen as challenges rather than as threats. The more important the threatened goal is the more stress the person is likely to perceive. Many people have irrational beliefs. If somebody strongly desires to have a safe, comfortable, and satisfying life which they believed is achieved by everything being absolutely easy, convenient and gratifying then the slightest inconvenience would be seen as harmful or threatening. Events that involve very strong demands and are imminent tend to be seen as stressful.

**Life Transitions;**

Life Transitions tend to be stressful. Changing from one phase to another in life is called a transition; examples include:

Starting school

Moving home

Reaching puberty

Starting college, especially away from home

Starting a career
Getting married

Becoming a parent

Losing a spouse through divorce or death

Retiring.

The timing of a life transition can affect the stress it produces. If a life events occur as at a time when it is not expected then this is stressful. One reason could be that having an event too early or too late could mean that one is deprived of the support of peers. An example of this would be having a baby at the age of 38 or later. Achieving life events late in life could be seen as failing. Some people who graduated late or were promoted late in life feel as though they have failed.

A.7 AMBIGUITY;

Ambiguity can cause stress. There are types of ambiguity:

Role ambiguity

Harm ambiguity

Role ambiguity can occur in the workplace, for instance when there are no clear guidelines, standards for performance and no clear consequences. Role ambiguity is stressful because people are uncertain about what actions and decisions to make.

Harm ambiguity occurs when people are not sure what to do to avoid harm. Stress will depend upon the person’s personality, beliefs and general experience (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). A person who is seriously ill and has no clear information might draw hope from this ambiguity, believing that they will get well. Another person in the same situation may believe that people are deliberately giving ambiguous information because the prognosis is poor.
Desirability of the situation;

The desirability of the situation is also another important factor. An event like losing your home is undesirable and, therefore, stressful. Buying and selling a house could be because one is moving to a more desirable house but still there will be many demands that tax or exceed the individuals resources. Many of life’s events, whether desirable or undesirable, can produce stress (for example getting a parking ticket or preparing to throw party). Generally, undesirable events are more likely to be appraised as stressful.

1.8 SELYE’S INTERPRETATION OF STRESS;

A precise definition of the concept of stress was given by Hans Selye, the founding father of the modern connotations of stress. He restricts the concept of stress to a characteristic physiological response, while differentiating this from stressors, i.e., the events or agents which produce stress. Cannon and Selye were instrumental in establishing the physiologic view of stress. Selye sees stress as the generalized response of the body to demands placed on it.

Whether they are pleasant or unpleasant. Thus, stress is “the nonspecific (common) result of any demand upon the body.

Selye has talked of **four dimensions** of Stress:

- **Overstress** (hyper stress): Where the load is very high and the demands are greater than what the individual is likely to manage. In Selye’s words, the person has “exceeded the limits of his adaptability”.

- **Under stress** (Hypo stress): Where the load is very less and this leads to under stimulation, boredom, lack of motivation and depression. In Selye’s words, the person is “suffering from a lack of self realization”.

- **Good stress** (Eustress): When we find something really challenging and motivating. In his words this is the pleasant or curative stress.
INTRODUCTION

Bad stress (Distress): That which makes us feels irritable and exhausted what he calls as unpleasant or disease producing stress.

1.9 DEFINITIONS OF STRESS;

The concept of ‘stress’ is elusive because it is poorly defined. There is no single agreed definition in existence. It is a concept which is familiar to both layman and professional alike. It is understood by all when used in a general context but by very few when a more precise account is required and this seems to be the central problem (Cox, 1985). In the biological literature, it is used in relation to single organisms, populations of organisms, and ecosystems. Biologists refer to things such as heat, cold and inadequate food supply as being sources of stress. Human biologists add to this microbial infection and taking of toxic substances. Social scientists, for their part, are more concerned about people’s interaction with their environment and the resulting emotional disturbance that can sometimes accompany it (Hinkle, 1987).

Stress is the result of the interaction between stressors and the person’s reaction to those stressors (Romano, 1992; as cited in Ross, Niebling & Keckert, 199).

In a nutshell, stress is a person’s physical and psychological reaction to any perceived or actual demand for change.

Stress is something which is not naturally occurring but is a manufactured concept which was now become a ‘social fact’) (Pollock, 1988).

Stress to us is a very general term that means somewhat different though related things at different levels of analysis. Each of the levels of stress analysis is partially independent in that it refers to different conditions, concepts, and processes (Lazarus & Launier, 1987).

Behaviorists classified as stress effects can also be categorized as the effects of anxiety, the effects of conflict, etc. insofar as expression of emotion, performance deterioration or symptom manifestations are concerned, stress is interchangeable with these other concepts (Breznitz & Goldberger, 1982).
Stress has sometimes been described as an increase in catecholamine levels, a change in adrenal weight, or as a score on a life event scale or subjective reaction index (Steinberg & Ritzmann, 1990).

Stress is ‘perception’. It is the demands that are imposed upon us because there are too many alternatives. Stress is caused by being conscientious and hardworking (Selye, 1979).

There is general agreement that stress refers to a response of the organism to a noxious or threatening condition (Pearlin, 1982).

Stress is a familiar concept to us since it is an inescapable part of life. We feel, we know what stress is because we experience it in its various forms in everyday life. We recognize it when we are faced with another motorist, become frustrated with the boss, anticipate surgery at the dentist, or await a driving test. We speak of stress in general terms because it incorporates so many areas of our lives (Dobson, 1983).

Stress is part of a complex and dynamic system of transaction between the person and his environment (Cox, 1985).

Stress may be viewed as the body’s response to any real or imagined event perceived as requiring some adaptive response and/or producing strain (Eliot, 1988).

Stress can be defined as an under load or overload of matter, energy or information input to, or output from, a living system (Steinberg & Ritzmann, 1990).

Stress is a part of an adaptive biological system, where a state is created when a central processor registers an informational discrepancy (Levine & Ursin, 19991).

In essence, stress can be considered as any factor, acting internally or externally that makes it difficult to adapt and that induces increased effort on the part of the person to maintain a state of equilibrium both internally and with the external environment (Humphrey, 1992).
Stress, a term borrowed from physics by W. Cannon and H. Selye and set to mean the mutual actions of forces that take place across any section of the body is a state of threatened homeostasis (Stratakis & Chrousos, 1995).

The term ‘stress’ may be used in two ways in psychiatry: it may be used to identify events or circumstances that are perceived adversely (‘stressors’) or to describe the state induced by such events or circumstances (the ‘stress reaction’) (Glue, Nut & Coupland, 1993). Stress is a subset of emotion (Lazarus, 1993).

Stress is a term for certain types of experiences, as well as the body’s responses to such experiences. The term, generally, refers to challenges, real or implied, to the homeostatic regulatory process of the organism (McEwen & Mendelson, 1993).

The process of coping with life’s pressures and problems and the negative feelings this can generate (Thompson, Murphy and Stradling, 1994).

Stress is caused by a multitude of demands (stressors), such as an inadequate fit between what we need and what we are capable of, and what our environment offers and what it demands of us (Levi, 1996).

Stress is a useless term for pragmatic researchers, because it represents different things to different people, reality is different for each of us, and most importantly, often cannot be measured with any significant degree of accuracy (Rosch, 1996).

Stress is the external pressures and tensions the internal pressures (Saunders, 1997).

“Stress designates the aggression itself, leading to discomfort, or the consequences of it. It is our organism’s response to a challenge, be it right or wrong”. (Bernik, Brazilian psychiatrist, 1997).

“Stress is the body’s automatic response to any physical or mental demand placed upon it. When pressures are threatening, the body rushes to supply protection by turning on ‘the juices’ and preparing to defend itself. It’s the ‘flight or fight’ response in action” (Bowman, natural therapist, 1998).
“Stress is nature’s way of putting your body on red alert – something that can come in handy if, for instance, a lion has just taken a large chunk out of your backside”. (Forbes Magazine, 1995).

“Stress is a wonderful word to describe what happens when we humans are assaulted by a difficult, frightening, unpleasant, or anxiety provoking situation”. (Mindell, nutritionist, 1997).

Stress is an ever-present reality. You don’t need a ton of data-supporting evidence to know that you’re experiencing it on a daily basis. It hits you in the face, or the gut, or wherever you happen to feel it, often enough. It’s real for you, and that’s all that counts”. (Davidson, 1998).

According to Jack Dunham (1982), stress is a process of behavioral, emotional, mental and physical reactions, caused by prolonged, increasing or new pressures which are significantly greater than coping resources.

The words ‘stress’ and ‘positive’ may not often go together. But, there are innumerable instances of athletes rising to the challenge of stress and achieving the unachievable, scientists stressing themselves out over a point to bring into light the most unthinkable secrets of the phenomenal world, and likewise a painter, a composer or a writer producing the best paintings, the most lilting of tunes or the most appealing piece of writing by pushing themselves to the limit. Psychologists second the opinion that some stress situations can actually boost our inner potential and can be creatively helpful. Sudha Chandran, an Indian dancer, lost both of her legs in an accident. But, the physical and social inadequacies gave her more impetus to carry on with her dance performances with the help of prosthetic legs rather than deter her spirits. When our degree of stress is very low or very high, our general well being and performance levels are low. As our stress levels increase, so does our well being until we reach our stress comfort zone. Within the zone, we all have an optimum stress level which varies from individual to individual and from activity to activity. This is the point at which we function most
effectively. Disturbance is most likely to occur when the stress is intense and long lived and when defensive and adaptive mechanisms are weak or their capacity is exceeded.

1.10 STRESSORS AND STRESSORS’ TYPES;

Stressors are the source of stress state in the external environment affecting the organism. Stressors can be objectively perceptible and assessed, as well as self-reported. Researchers working in natural life settings focused on the effects of specific stressful life events, such as widowhood (Parkes, 1972), but attempts to organize the sources of human stress in a scheme of classification of environmental stressors have resulted into various subtypes, such as psychological stressors (loss of love, unconscious conflict and threat in anticipation of future harm); social stressors (social and cultural limitation, demographic shifts, access to technology); economic Stressors (poverty and unemployment), and political Stressors (corruption, nepotism, political exploitation, state terrorism etc.). The social Stressors have been further classified as macro and micro social Stressors, by virtue of the extensiveness and scope of their likely impact.

Stressors and the associated stress are also categorized as academic, medical, general etc. (Compas, Connor-Smith, Saltzman, Thomsen and Wadsworth, 2001), depending on the context of origin, and understanding of the person relevant to the domain of activity. Some researchers have found the stressors age specific, as what may be stressful to a child in formative years may not remain stressful at adolescence, and so on. For adolescents, problems with family relationships, peer relations, and school achievement are the common cause of stress. Grade transitions, pubertal changes, pressure to conform, and heightened temptation to indulge with friends in risky behaviours may be potentially stressful for the changing adolescent (Graber and Brooks-Gunn, 1996; Grant, O’Koon, Davis ad Roache, 2000).

For the college student, Stressors are inherent in the maintenance of grades, friends, limited opportunities of developing social circle, political freedom, and lack of employment, etc. (Beard, Elmore and Lange, 1982). The Stressors for teachers are inherent in the task of balancing their different roles, relations with colleagues and
INTRODUCTION

students, student problems, and administrative demands, etc. (Van Dick and Wagner, 2001).

Stressors are events or situations to which people must adjust. Stressors may be physical or psychological in nature. Both desirable and undesirable events can act as stressors if they require the person to adapt to them. The term became a part of psychology’s vocabulary soon after the publication of “The Stress of Life” by, Hans Selye (1956). It has also been referred to as demand, load or input. They can range from catastrophic events to seemingly harmless ones. “Conditioning factors” influence how a particular person will react to a particular stressor. These include heredity, previous experience, diet, attitudes etc. a stressor can challenge the person to work more effectively or it could lead to a host of harmful effects like psychosomatic diseases, negative emotional reactions and maladaptive behaviors.

Schwab and Pritchard (1949) have proposed three classes of stressors:

**Mid Stressors:** These are those stressors whose influence lasts from a few seconds to a few hours e.g. minor occurrences in daily life.

**Moderate Stressors:** Those stressors whose effects last from hours to days, e.g. a visit of an unwelcome guest, the temporary absence of a loved one.

**Severe Stressors:** Those stressors whose effects last for week, months of even years e.g. prolonged separation from one’s family, death of parent.

1. **11 EXTERNAL AND INTERNAL STRESSORS;**

People can experience either external or internal stressors.

External stressors include adverse physical conditions (such as pain or hot or cold temperatures) or stressful psychological environments (such as poor working conditions or abusive relationships). Humans, like animals, can experience external stressors.
Internal stressors can also be physical (infections, inflammation) or psychological. An example of an internal psychological stressor is intense worry about a harmful event that may or may not occur. As far as anyone can tell, internal psychological stressors are rare or absent in most animals except humans.

**Acute or Chronic Stressors;**

Stressors can also be defined as short-term (acute) or long-term (chronic).

**Acute Stress:** Acute stress is the reaction to an immediate threat, commonly known as the fight or fight response. The threat can be any situation that is experienced, even subconsciously or falsely, as a danger. Common acute stressors include: noise, crowding, isolation, hunger, danger, infection, and imagining a threat or remembering a dangerous event. Under most circumstances, once the acute threat has passed, the response becomes inactivated and levels of stress hormones return to normal, a condition called the relaxation response.

**Chronic Stress:** frequently, however, modern life poses on-going stressful situations that are not short-lived and the urge to act (to fight or to flee) must be suppressed. Stress, then, becomes chronic.

Common chronic stressors include:

Long-term relationship problems,

Loneliness

Persistent financial worries and

On-going highly pressured work,
1.12 PSYCHOSOCIAL MODIFIERS OF STRESS;

-Social Support

Social support refers to the perceived comfort, caring, esteem, or help the person receives from other people or groups (Cobb, 1976).

There are five basic types of social support:

**Emotional support.** The expression of empathy, caring and concern toward the person.

**Esteem support.** This occurs through people’s expression of positive regard for the person, encouragement or agreements with the individual’s ideas or feelings, and positive comparison of the person with others such as people who are less able or worse off. This kind of support serves to build the individuals feeling of self-worth, competence and of being valued. Esteem support is especially important during the demands exceed their personal resources.

**Tangible** or instrumental support involves direct assistance.

**Informational support** includes giving advice, suggestions or feedback.

**Network support** provides a feeling of membership in a group of people who share interests.

The type of support depends upon the stressful circumstances, for instance, emotional and informational support is, particularly, important for people who are seriously ill. Students who received more frequent esteem support tended to report less depression following stressful experiences.

Who gets social support?

People are unlikely to received support if they are unsociable, don’t help others, and don’t let others know that they need help. Some people are not assertive enough to ask
for help. Providers of support may not themselves have the resources needed, or may be under stress and in need of help themselves.

**Types of control:**

**Behavioral control** involves the ability to take concrete action to reduce the impact of a stressor. An example of this would be special breathing techniques that reduce the pain of Labor.

**Cognitive control** is the ability to use thought processes or strategies to defy the impact of a stressor. Such strategies would be thinking about the event differently or focusing on a pleasant or neutral thought or sensation.

**Decisional control** is the opportunity to choose between alternative procedures or courses of action. This would occur when the patient is allowed to make a decision between alternative treatments.

**Informational control** involves the opportunity to get knowledge about the stressful event.

**Retrospective control** involves reflecting upon what caused the stressful event. An example of this would be blaming somebody.

The most effective type of control is **cognitive control** (Cohen et al., 1986)

People who believe that they have control over their successes and failures are described as possessing an internal locus of control. Other people believe that their lives are controlled by forces outside themselves, for example, by luck; they have an external locus of control. The I-E scale measures locus of control. This scale presents a series of paired items, such as: “the average citizen can have an influence in government decisions”, and, “this world is run by a few people in power, and there is no much the little guy can do about it”. The respondent selects the one with which he or she most agrees. Most people fall within the mid-rang. People who have a strong sense of personal control report experiencing less strain from stressors.
1.13 SELF-EFFICACY;

Self-efficacy is the belief that we can succeed at something we want to do. People estimate their chances of success and failure on the basis of their prior experiences. A decision to attempt an activity depends on:

A belief that their behavior would produce a favorable outcome

A belief that they are able to perform the behavior properly.

People with a strong sense of self-efficacy shown less psychological and physiological strain in response to stressors.

1.14 LEARNED HELPLESSNESS;

Experiencing stress over a long period of time can produce a feeling of helplessness. As a result of this people may stop striving for goals. This condition is called learned helplessness.

Hiroto and Seligman (1975) demonstrated learned helplessness in an experiment. Students were assigned to one of three training groups. They all experienced an unpleasant loud noise. In one group, the controllable-noise condition, the subjects were told the noise would come on from time to time and “there is something you can do to stop it”. Subjects were able to press a button to stop the noise, which they did. The uncontrollable-noise group had the same instructions and apparatus, except the button was ineffectual in stopping the noise. In a comparison group, the subjects were simply told “from time to time a loud tone will come on for a while. Please sit and listen to it”. After this all of the subjects were tested for helplessness: they were told that the noise would come on and off and that “there is something you can do to stop it”. The subject were presented with a different apparatus that had a sliding knob that, when manipulated correctly, would stop the noise. Students in the uncontrollable-noise group performed much more poorly than those in the other two groups.
1.15 COPING;

Coping has been conceptualized in the psychological literature in many ways, yet the term has not been clearly understood. Researchers agree that the knowledge of coping is fundamental to understand how stress affects people, for good or bad. A number of models have been developed by researchers over the years to understand and explain how persons at different stages of life experience stressful events and cope.

Coping refers to responses which are directed towards dealing with the demands made upon the individual.

Coping behavior has been defined by Mechanic (1967) as “the application of a person’s acquired skills, technique & knowledge to solve the problems that she is facing. “When a person is exposed to a stressful demand, she initiates behaviours and thoughts which attempt to remove the stress or to reinterpret its effects.

Thus, coping is the action taken in the face of a stressful situation in order to make an effort to lessen the threat to one. Through coping processes, a person can deal with stress by maintaining contact with reality, openly exploring a full range of options, consider the consequences of various courses of thinking & action, be creative & flexible & realistically manage & express feelings & desires.

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) pointed out the three main features inherent in the process approach. First the assessment of coping is concerned with what a person actually thinks or does in a stressful situation. Second, it needs to be examined within a specific context. Thirdly, the process focuses on the change in coping thoughts and acts as the stressful encounter unfolded. Lazarus has not been in favor of conceptualizing coping as a trait, but acknowledged the weakness of using it as a process, the omission to not giving attention to the motivational aspects of personality, namely the “general goals and situational intentions that mobilize and direct the choice of coping strategies employed”

Coyne and Gottllieb (1996) have challenged the definition of coping being limited to effortful and un-anticipatory behaviors, as one undertakes the risk of excluding the very
interesting aspects of coping, like habitual/automatic and, thoughtful and planned behaviors. The hierarchical model or Compass, Connor, Osowiecki and Welch (1997) are attempted to meet these criticisms. At the first level, the hierarchy distinguishes between effortful versus involuntary responses; at the second level between responses varying in engagement and disengagement; and at a third level between responses focusing on the goals of the individual or problem versus emotion focused coping, self versus externally focused responses and, between cognitive and behavioral responses.

In their search for the typology of coping, Skinner, Edge, Altman and Sherwood (2003) have identified a broadband of coping instances in the literature. They have recognized the challenges inherent in constructing the necessary category system and suggest that the structure of coping must span the conceptual space between individual instances of coping (the myriad of changing real-time responses used by people in dealing with stressful transaction and meaningfully link those to coping as an adaptive process mediation between stress, and its long term effects on mental and physical health and functioning.

1.16 ACHIEVEMENT;

The world is becoming more and more competitive. Quality of performance has become the key factor for personal progress. Parents desire that their children climb the ladder of performance to as high a level as possible. This desire for a high level of achievement puts a lot of pressure on students, teachers, and schools and in general the education system itself. In fact, it appears as if the whole system of education revolves round the academic achievement of students, though various other outcomes are also expected from the system. Thus a lot of time and effort of the schools are used for helping students to achieve better in their scholastic endeavors. The importance of scholastic and academic achievement has raised important questions for educational researchers. What factors promote achievement in students? How far do the different factors contribute towards academic achievement? (Ramaswamy, 1990).
INTRODUCTION

Human life, which is the best creation of god, has got two aspects: The biological and sociological or cultural. While the former is maintained and transmitted by food and reproduction, the latter is preserved and transmitted by education. It is again through education that he promotes his intelligence and adds his knowledge with which he can move the world for good and for evil according to his wishes. Education in fact, is one of the major “life processes” of the human beings “just as there are certain indispensable vital processes of life in a biological sense. So education may be considered a vital process in a social sense. Education is indispensable to normal living, without education the individual would be unqualified for group life (Safaya, et al. 1963).

School achievement may be affected by various factors like intelligence, study habits, and attitudes of pupil towards school, different aspects of their personality, socio economic status, etc. The desire of success is derived from individual’s concept of himself and in terms of the meaning of various incentives as they spell success and failure in the eye of others. Thus a child, who sees himself as top ranking scholar, may set as his goal the attainment of the highest grade in the class.

A modern society cannot achieve its aim of economic growth, technical development and cultural advancement without harnessing the talents of its citizens. One of the major tasks of education is to help children to develop the skills appropriate to the age in which they live and those skills which promote a lifetime of learning. Educationists and counsellors in educational settings are often confronted with students who appear to have above average scholastic aptitude but are very poor in their studies. A recurring question baffling them has been why some students succeed in their study while others do not. This question is sometimes considered to be closely related to learning than teaching. Jamuar (1974) stated that efficient learning depends not only on good teaching methods but also satisfactory learning procedures. Anwana and Cobbach (1989) are also of the view that students do badly academically on account of factors other than low intellectual capacity. Tiwari and Bansal (1994) mentioned that a child with high academic achievement is likely to be well-treated as well behaved and independent and low
achievers as incapable and deprived of employment, which may lead this to maladjustment to life. In our society academic achievement is considered as a key criterion to judge one’s total potentialities and capacities. Hence academic achievement occupies a very important place in education as well as in the learning process. Academic achievement is defined by Crow and Crow (1969) as the extent to which a learner is profiting from instructions in a given area of learning i.e., achievement is reflected by the extent to which skill and knowledge has been imparted to him. Academic achievement also denotes the knowledge attained and skill developed in the school subject, usually designated by test scores. Achievement is influenced by personality, motivation, opportunities, education and training.

There are several other factors also which influence the academic achievement of student like study habit, self-concept, socio economic status, intelligence etc.

Study habits;

Many students do badly academically, due to factors other than low intellectual capacity. One such factor is poor study habits, which often result in poor academic performance even among the naturally bright students. Habits are true indicators of individuality in a person. So study habits are the behavior of an individual related to studies. Which is adjudged from his study habits. In the process of learning, learners habitual ways of exercising and practicing their abilities for learning are considered as study habits of learners. The pattern of behavior adopted by students in the pursuit of their studies is considered under the caption of their study habits. Study habits reveal students personality. Learner’s learning character is characterized by his study habits. Study habits serve as the vehicle of learning. It may be seen as both means and ends of learning.

Study habits play a very important role in the life of students. Success or failure of each student depends upon his own study habits. Of course, study is an art and as such it requires practice. Some students study more but they fail to achieve more. Others study
less but achieve more. Success of each student definitely depends upon ability, intelligence and effort of students. No doubt, regular study habits bring their own rewards in the sense of achievement of success.

There are many types of disadvantaged students: physically, mentally, socially & culturally, educationally and emotionally. The socially disadvantaged are not handicapped by genetic deficiency, but by the socio economic circumstances of their lives. The socio economic disadvantage prevents them from developing their basic and natural potentialities. The disadvantages are not with the individual, but with the society.

Study habits refer to the activities carried out by learners during the learning process of improving learning. Study habits are intended to elicit and guide one’s cognitive processes during learning. According to Patel (1976) study habits include.

1. Home environment and planning of work

2. Reading and note taking habits

3. Planning of subjects

4. Habits of concentration

5. Preparation for examination

6. General habits and attitudes

7. School environment

The study habits are influenced by attitudes, personality traits, levels of aspirations, teaching methods adopted and material they are to learn. So, it is the effort of teachers to develop good study habits among students. Such habits are the best equipments with
which they can live and lead their lives with confidence. If the habits are developed in the young age they will definitely cherish the joy of its fruits in the rest of their lives, because grown up children are already habituated to certain things. So they find it difficult to modify their habits and behavior. Therefore, it is better to develop study habits in secondary school students. It is the proper time and age to cultivate study habits. At this age students are quite matured. They are able to know what is good and what is bad. They can avoid bad things and invite good things with the help of teachers.

Self-concept;

As a child grows and develops, he learns, not only about the world about him and his place in it, but also about himself. Each person lives with himself and hence, to some degree is always alone. No one can ever completely know the self better than anyone else, although in the pursuit for understanding oneself and others there has developed much of human thought and philosophy, including psychology. Man has long held the hope of answering such questions as: who am I? How did I come to be this way? And their logical consequence, the search for purpose; why am I? (Nadalmani, 2001).

The psychological construct, the self-concept is essentially private even though it is in part translated into action by the beliefs we express. Sidhu (1987) defined self-concept as those perceptions, beliefs, feelings, attitudes and values which the individual views on describing himself.

Personality is not a specific quality of a person but a quality of his behavior. How he behaves depends upon how he feels about himself, about other people and about his relationship with them. These feelings make up his self-concept what he thinks about himself as a person. A person’s self-concept is the fundamental core of his entire personality and determines the quality of behavior.

It can be predicted that the poor self-concept implying lack of confidence in facing and mastering the environment, will accomplish his performance in school. In sum, the self-
concept does appear to be related to school adjustment. Substantial evidence indicates that children and adults with poor self-concept when compared with those who have high self-concept are more anxious and less adjusted generally and less popular, are less effective in groups and are less honest about themselves. The pattern of parental rewards and punishments seems to affect the self-concept and quite certainly, the self-concept of bright but under achieving youngsters are less positive than those of children who are doing as well as can be expected in school. Incidentally children tend to mould their self-concept according to the way they think their teachers regarded them.

Adolescence is a period of biosocial transition from childhood to adulthood. This period extends roughly from 12-19 years. Now a day’s puberty occurs earlier than it used to be, due to improvement in nutrition and health care. This has lengthened the transition from adolescence to adulthood. A dramatic biological change occurs in adolescents. In early adolescence, they experience a growth spurt. As a result they stop thinking of themselves as children and parents begin to expect matured behavior from them. Conflicts with parents, teachers and society may arise over their demands and expectations along with this task of establishing a personal identity, which involves an understanding of self, of one’s relationship with others and of one’s values and roles in society. Erickson (1981) describes this as ‘Identity crisis’. Adolescents adopt many strategies to resolve this crisis by trying out different roles like good girl / boy, dutiful daughter / son, a rebel, athlete and so on.

The world is becoming more and more competitive and parents desire that their children achieve high in academics. During this stage the influence of school far outweighs all others. So good schooling and effective teacher guidance are of utmost important aspects. Performance at school and experience in the larger world are related to the self image of students. They have to strive hard to achieve better results academically. As a result, school and studies become major stressors. Hence, adolescents tend to give up and neglect recreational activities. This has resulted in the absence of physical and mental relaxation. The best type of relaxation is one in which the students learn the skill of
relaxing. Schools should provide opportunities for regular physical and mental training like yoga which is a relaxation technique which will facilitate the enhancement of study habits, self-concept and academic performance (Erickson 1981). Teachers in school should become facilitators of learning. The infinite treasure within every learner should be discovered and nurtured. For the purpose of improving learning, effective study skills have to be taught. Study skills may involve reference, reading, listening, study habits and learning strategies. Learning improves with planning of where, when and how much to study.

Teaching is not giving knowledge and skills to students, teaching is the process of providing opportunities for students to produce relatively permanent change and moulding their personality. The primary purpose of teaching which is only one of the institutional influences in a person’s education is to assist the individual to develop his and her full potential as well as to develop the knowledge, attitudes and skills to interact with the environment in a successful manner. The family, religious organizations and community also share primary responsibility in the educational process. (Nayak et al. 2004).

Socio Economic Status;

Socio economic status plays an important role in the life of a person. The status opens the ways for his progress. Intelligence, attitudes, aptitudes and even interests are patterned by socio economic background of the individual. The socio economic status pays rewards and punishment both to a person. Chaudhari et al. (1998). Socio economic status refers to the position that an individual and family occupies with reference to prevailing average standards, cultural possession and participation in group activity of community. According to Chain (1944), socio economic status includes both the social and economic status of the individual in the group.
The variations in achievement are also due to the differences in socio economic status of
the children, differential treatment given by parents, parent’s educational level, influence
of the surroundings and so on. The influence of socio-cultural factors on various aspects
of individual’s development has particularly caught the attention of educationists.
Individual success and failure can also be judged by facilities and environment provided
for his study, self-concept and study habits. As pointed out by survey and Telford (1964)
children belonging to higher socio economic status are not only brilliant but also are
provided better opportunities for developing intellectually, physically and emotionally.
The type of intellectual environment in the home will definitely have an impact on the
school achievement of the child and this intellectual environment in turn is determined by
intellectual level of parents, parent’s education, occupation, income, size of the family
etc.

During the lifespan of an individual adolescence is a stage highly influenced by so many
things around the world. Adolescents are highly influenced by society, socio economic
status, self-concept, study habits, emotional maturity etc., which may enhance the
academic achievement of adolescence or may disturb the academic achievement of
adolescence in high school period.

Gender;

Gender issue has become the talk of today’s forum. Although the literacy rate is more
among boys than girls; it is quite interesting to observe that girls are securing better ranks
than boys in almost all competitive examinations. From the last ten years, it is very
fascinating to find note the girls figure to be more often in top ten two ranks in tenth class
annual examination. Earlier some of the researches reported that intelligence was the only
factor that causes gender variations among high achievers. (Robinson, 1965). Later some
attributed familial factors like parental aspiration beliefs and their socio economic status
as the main factors that cause age and gender differences among high achievers by
Malathi (1987) and she also reported a study on Harijans of villages of Karnataka
reported that educational aspirations in case of girls were almost negligible causing very poor enrolment of girl children in schools. However, this trend seems to be changing in the recent past and such discriminations are not so marked. Thus the present study is an attempt to find out the gender differences if any, on the factors affecting academic achievement.

Locale;

The educators and the general public believe that students from smaller and rural schools receive an education that is inferior to that of students from larger urban or suburban schools. Until recently, there has been little empirical evidence to challenge this view. Now, however, a growing body of work has begun to examine how well students perform in and after graduation from rural schools. Sundaram (1989) studied urban and rural difference in achievement and achievement related factors such as self-concept, manifest anxiety, study habits, intelligence, adjustment problems and achievement motivation among college students. The results revealed that there was a significant difference between urban and rural students in their self-concept. The rural students had higher self-concept than urban students. But there was no significant difference between urban and rural students with respect to study habits.

1.17 JUSTIFICATION OF THE PROBLEM:-

Academic Achievement is also affected by stress. Here the purpose is to study the impact of stress on academic achievement in English of STC trainees.

Teacher education is one of the best professions. Teacher is a vital factor in the education system, society and the nation. A profession is an occupation based on specific theories of knowledge and skill development, having provisions for systematic training and a type of licensing system. The STC programme is a programme of elementary level teacher education and this programme is conducted on two levels: - In service and Pre service. The eligibility for entering in the pre service teacher programme is senior secondary
level. The duration of the training is of two years. In STC course, all subjects are compulsory to study and to teach at the primary level.

A proper type of training is required at this stage for skill development. Many programmes and schemes are in their right path to develop the background of elementary education.

The researcher decided to study on the impact of psychological stress on academic achievement because very few research were found on the same area—Impact of psychological stress on academic achievement in English of prospective teacher at elementary level. It is continuous quest for new knowledge through investigation, observation, feelings, emotions and talking which leads to new theories, new instruments and so on.

Several studies have been conducted in the field of teacher education related to impact of cognitive and non-cognitive factors on achievement in language development but one of the most important and significant factor, psychological stress was least considered by researcher in the field of education while stress is seen as an essential part of contemporary life. Some studies are as following;

Gupta (1979), conducted a study to find out the relationship between psychological stress and achievement motivation, educational aspirations and occupational aspirations and also to find out the differences in psychological stress of students belonging to different age levels, sex, educational experiences, academic streams, socio-economic status, castes and residential backgrounds. The study reported a significantly high positive relationship between psychological stress and various independent variables i.e. achievement motivation educational and occupational aspirations. All the three extreme groups were found to under greatest psychological stress while the lower groups had the least. Achievement motivation was found to be the most potent variable in determining the limits of psychological stress. Psychological stress was independent of the effect of sex so far as fixation, resignation, anxiety, global frustration and global psychological stress were concerned. The development of the academic career of pupils witnessed a
sequential growth of psychological stress on all of its parameters under study. Socio-economic status was found to be potent in contributing to greater stress and urban students were found to be more stressed.

**Bharti (1980),** studied some antecedent and consequent behavioral correlates of anxiety. The main purpose of the study was to investigate interactional effects of demographic and social class variables, parental attitude, intra-familial dynamics and structure on the level of anxiety. The study reported that anxiety depended on the combined influence of both demographic variables and social class. Among the antecedent variables which were important, the type of family structure and tension balance between parents was crucial. It was also found that, high anxiety affected speech functions and the quality of language expression.

**Siddiqi and Akhtar (1983)** studied anxiety in relation academic achievement. The main hypothesis of the study was that those students who experience more anxiety would not be able to achieve higher academic excellence, as compared to those students who experience less anxiety. An analysis of the data revealed that high achievers have low anxiety means while the means of the low achievers were found to be more anxious than boys and hence their academic achievement was adversely affected.

**Supe (1998)** studied stress in medical students as various stages of MBBS course at Seth G.S Medical college. 238 students (First year 98, Second 76, Third 64) were asked to complete a questionnaire on personal data (gender, stay at hostel, mode of travel, time spent in travel every day, medium of study in school, place of school education). Stress inducing factors. Zung’s depression scale, ways of coping, stress relievers. Perceived social support and personality type. Statistical tests used were ANOVA, critical ratio and ‘t’ test. Majority of medical students (1752/238--73%) perceived stress. Stress was found to be significantly more in Second and Third MBBS students rather than First year MBBS levels (p < 0.05). Stress was found to be significantly more in students having more than 95% of marks at 12th Standard as compared to others. Academic factors were greater perceived cause of stress in medical students. There was no significant difference
in the students at different levels of MBBS regarding academic factors and social factors as a stress inducing. Physical factors were found to be significantly in Second and Third year MBBS students as compared to First year MBBS students. Emotional factors were found to be significantly more in First year MBBS students as compared to Second & Third year MBBS students. Stress was more common in medical students who have dominant strategy of coping as positive reappraisal, accepting responsibility and playful problem solving. Stress was less common in medical students at Seth G S Medical College who have dominant strategy of coping as escaping and distancing from difficult situation. Family and friend as perceived social supports were more in second year MBBS than First year MBBS medical students. Stress was not found to be significantly more in students having their personality factor contributing to stress (Type A--52/67) as compared to others (Type B--123/171). This study concludes that stress in medical students is common and is process oriented. It is more in second and third year students. Academic factors are greater perceived cause of stress in medical students of Seth G S Medical College. Emotional factors are found to be significantly more in First year MBBS. It is dependent on person’s ways of coping and social support.

Kumar (2005) studied 100 occupational therapy students with equal participation for different levels from various occupational therapy colleges in Mumbai. Stress questionnaire was administered which contained questions from various areas including academic, competence in profession (role identity). The response was scored on a four point scale: 1 = A little of the time, 2 = some of the time, 3 = Good part of the time, and 4 = Most of the time. Stress levels were found to vary among the different year students.

Sarason (1957) compared general anxiety and academic achievement in a sample of first, second, and fourth year students. He found that there is a significant correlation between anxiety and academic achievement (.19) for first-and second year students and (.14) for fourth-year students.
Kazem (1973) found that female university students in scientific and literary sections did not show a systematic correlation between anxiety trait and academic achievement, as the relationship was curvilinear.

Othman (1975) found that academic achievement did not differ with anxiety; it differed with the variance of interaction between the level of anxiety and with the experimental situation.

Heinrich (1979) found that when he considered in his statistical analysis, anxiety trait influences anxiety state and academic achievement in students of high mental ability.

Soliman (1979) studied the acceptance of superior and retarded sons of their parents’ attitudes toward their academic achievement and its relationship to their anxiety level among 405 secondary school students in Cairo, Egypt. He found a statistically significant correlation between anxiety and academic achievement in males. For females, the correlation was not significant.

Stone (1986) studied 6th, 7th and 8th grade students regarding the amount of emotional stress they report experiencing as a result of 27 school situations dealing with adult relationships, peer relationships, and achievement. (e.g. Talking to teachers about personal problems / Giving an oral report in class). The differences between the sexes, ability groupings and grade levels of middle school students were examined. The Student Stress Survey was administered to 2146 students in five different middle schools located in three different states (New Hampshire, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island). The students anonymously responded to the twenty-seven school situations using a rating scale of 1 to 5. In addition, students made voluntary responses as to other situations which caused them stress. An analysis of variance was used to determine the main effects and interactions of gender, grade and reading ability level on the total stress score and on the sub scores of peer, achievement and authority topics. Student comments were analyzed. On the total stress score and on each of the sub scores, results significantly indicated that girls scored higher than boys, and sixth graders scored higher than seventh and eighth graders. Other significant scores showed that students rated as low level scored higher on
the achievement sub score than those rated as low level scored higher on the achievement sub score than those rated for other levels, and that students rated average scored higher than those rated high or low on the authority sub score. Interactions occurred only when school was introduced as an added variable. Student comments were readily organized into several general categories which varied in intensity with each school involved in the study. Conclusions were drawn from the literature. It was suggested the girls conform to rather specific role stereotypes sixth graders assume new developmental tasks, average students react to authority figures, and low level students experience achievement anxiety. School differences were attributed to factors of school climate implications for middle school educators in working with early adolescents were addressed.

Polus-Szeniawska and Kocanda (1988) studied the psychophysical stress among students of secondary schools during the years of education. A group of students attended in successive classes of secondary schools were examined in the school years 1984/85-1987-88. The studied material comprised 165 students (114 girls and 51 boys) beginning education in the first classes. In second classes were 161 students in third 160 students and in four classes-149 students. The psychophysical stress of the students was assessed by a standardized 77 questions grouped so that it was possible to assess the psychophysical strain connected with school-education work outside school, day timetable, situation in the class and in the family and physical well being. The sum of points obtained in the answers provided information about the general psychophysical stress. The answers to certain questions described objectively the stressful situation and the personal experiencing of the troublesomeness of them. It was found that with longer time spent in school psychophysical situation of girls and boys was deteriorating because the psychophysical stress from classes to classes was increasing. The psychophysical stress of students in compared classes differed for both sexes. It was greater in girls in successive classes. The objective stressful situations and the personal experiencing of this stress increased among girls from year to year. The psychophysical stress connected with objective situation deteriorated in the fourth classes among boys nevertheless the subjective experiencing of this stress was raised to its highest value. The final
examination (diploma from a European gymnasium) determined a great emotional stress of students, especially for boys.

**Polus-Szeniawska (1889)** compared the psychophysical stress in students in the first and second grades at secondary schools. The study was carried out on 298 students (216 girls and 82 boys) beginning education in the first classes of secondary schools in Bydgoszcz, Cracow and Poznan. After one year the same students were examined again (282 second class students, 197 girls and 85 boys). The psychophysical stress was determined using an inquiry with 77 questions grouped in such a way that it was possible to pinpoint stress related to school education, work outside school, day timetable, situation of the student in class and family, and psychic well-being. The total score of all answers provided information on the total psychophysical stress. The answers to the questions pointed to the stressful factors and subjective feeling of the troublesomeness of these factors. It was found that with longer time spent in school the psychophysical stress was increasing. Although the stress resulting with objectively existing situations was at a similar level in both compared classes in the case of girls, and was slightly higher in the second class for boys, the subjective feeling of troublesomeness of these situations increased evidently in the second year both for boys and girls. The psychophysical stress of students in both compared classes differed for both sexes. In girls the psychophysical stress subjective feeling of troublesomeness of work related to lessons, work timetable, students’ situation in class and family and psychic well-being were greater in the first and second year of education. Only the magnitude of stress connected with work outside school was similar for boys and girls, and it was similar in both compared classes. The obtained results suggest the need for a differential approach during education to girls and boys, since girls are more susceptible to the effect of various stressful factors.

**Archer et al. (1991)** focused on the interaction between resident’s psychosocial and demographic characteristics, stressful experiences, emotional responsively, and coping styles. This study presents the results of a questionnaire, completed by 165 residents that consisted of the Profile of Mood States, the Hassles Scale, the Ways of Coping Questionnaire and series of questions regarding demographic data, social support system
features and residency stress factors. The residents reported that time demands and indebtedness were the major sources of stress in their residency programs. Social support variables were significantly related to the degrees to which the residents successfully coped with daily stress factors. While the women residents reported higher stress levels than did the men they did not report higher levels of emotional distress. Finally, the lengths of time residents had spent in training were significantly related to the levels of their mood disturbances and daily hassles.

**King (1991)** explored life events, stress and coping strategies of secondary school students in Hong Kong, besides, relationship between life events and stress. Coping strategies and stress, as well as type A/B behavior pattern and stress and coping strategies were also studied. A questionnaire consisting of four instruments namely. Life Events checklist (modified), Type A Questionnaire, General Health Questionnaire and ways of coping, was administered to a sample of Form 6 students (N=760) from 34 local secondary schools. Reliability coefficients were found to be satisfactory for the four instruments. The findings of the present study revealed that events related to school and family constituted the major sources of life events to students. Positive significant correlation was found between stress and life change. Higher life changes correlated with higher stress. Stress level of students in Hong Kong is high. Stress symptoms such as ‘felt under strain’, ’could not concentrate’, ‘unhappy and depressed’, ‘could not overcome difficulties’, ‘lost confidence’ and ‘not feeling happy’ were experienced by one-tired or more of the sample. Most students would employ painful problem-solving and accepting responsibility as coping strategies. Confront coping and escape-avoidance were the less used coping strategies. Sex difference was found in coping strategies. Concerning the relationship between stress and coping strategies, significant positive correlations were found for escape-avoidance and accepting responsibility with stress. However, significant negative correlations were revealed for painful problem-solving, distancing and seeking social support with stress. Furthermore the present study also found high percentage of Form 6 students who exhibited Type a behavior pattern. Students of Type A behavior pattern also reported significantly higher stress than Type B students. There were also
significant differences between Type A and Type B students on escape-avoidance and distancing as their coping strategies. The present findings generally revealed a high stress level among Form 6 students in Hong Kong. The sources of stress relate to family and school events. Coping strategies and Type A/B behavior pattern had significant correlations with differences on stress. The results call for attention from teachers, school counselors and school social workers to the stress problems facing students. To help students to cope with stress effectively seems to be an urgent task.

Grannis (1992) examined relationships between in-school stressor and support events, locus of control distress and achievement for a sample of 90 eighth-grade students in an inner-city school. Events classified as General School Disrupters were rated by students as occurring most frequently, but appraised as least upsetting, whereas assaults and academic troubles where experienced less frequently, but appraised as more upsetting. Frequency of stressor events was correlated with external locus of control self-reported distress and lower grade point average. Stressor appraisal and locus of control, but not support, medicated the influence of stressor frequency on distress & girls appraised stressor events as more upsetting than did boys and received higher grades than boys, despite having comparable reading scores and the same locus of control as boys. Further research is recommended particularly to explore gender differences further and to clarify the functions of students appraisal of stressor events in different school environments.

ISR (1992) initiated a study of the expectations of students entering York, their experiences over the course of their studies and the outcomes of their university experiences. The intent of the project is to identify the processes at York that contribute to student success. In end-of-year surveys carried out in 1995. First year students were asked how much difficulty they had encountered in handling stress over the previous academic year. Overall 33.6% of students stated that handling stress had been a problem; however, whereas only 23.1% of males reported difficulties, the figure for female students was a higher 39.3% Moreover, gender based differences were statistically significant. Differences based on racial origin were also statistically significant. Students of European origin 30.1% reported the fewest problems in dealing with stress; South
Asian and students of other origins 43.0% reported the greatest. Among Black students and those of Chinese origin, the incidence of problems was 42.8% and 37.3% respectively. Stress levels also varied at a statistically significant level by faculty of enrollment. While only 29.4% of students in Administrative Studies reported problems with stress management, in Pure and Applied Science the figure was 40.0%. the other faculties place between these extremes. Not surprisingly, students scoring 78% or more on their Ontario Academic Credit marks reported slightly less stress than students with lower averages. Differences, through were not statistically significant. Factors in students’ environments that might contribute to stress include not having enough money to meet expenses, not doing well enough to satisfy the expectations of family and difficulties with getting good grades. Among students for whom having enough money was not a problem, only 23.9% reported difficulty in handling stress. For those saying money was a problem 42.6% mentioned that they had difficulty in coping with stress. Thirty two percent of students who took a middle position (money was neither a problem nor not a problem) stated that handling stress was difficult. Differences along this dimension were statistically significant. Statistically significant differences were also found when the relationship between not doing well enough to satisfy family expectations and difficulties in managing stress were examined. While only 20.4% of students who stated that expectations were not a problem reported that they had difficulty in handling stress, for those for whom expectations did present difficulties 59.7% reported problems dealing with stress. Among students for whom expectations were neither a problem nor a difficulty with stress management were reported by 34.4%. Greatest problems in dealing with stress were associated with difficulties in getting good grades. Problems in handling stress were reported by 61.1% of students who also mentioned that they had difficulties in getting good grades. For students having no problems with grades only 11.6% stated that coping with stress was a problem. From the foregoing it can be seen that students facing problems in getting good grades also report the greatest difficulties in handling stress. When all of the factors discussed thus far are examined in combination specific groups of students are at greater risk than others in terms of stress management. Whereas 42% of male students experiencing problems in getting grades also report difficulties in
INTRODUCTION

handling stress, 69.8% of female students having problems with grade report difficulties with stress management. A similar pattern is evident for students neither having, a problem with grades. Among male students only 21.9% report difficulties coping with stress whereas the corresponding figure for females is 37.2%. Moreover, for females in this category, those having a problem meeting the expectations of family report greater difficulties in handling stress (57.8%) than other female students in the same category (31.8%). Only among students having no problems in getting good grades does the difference between males and females decrease (but t is still statistically significant). This time 9.9% and 12.7% of male and female students respectively report difficulties in handling stress. Among female students in this category who have no problems in meeting expenses those experiencing difficulties in handling stress drops further to 6.6%; however, for other females in the same sub-group 16.5% report stress management problems. Overall, approximately one third of first year students report difficulties in stress management; however the greatest problems in handling stress are reported by female students. To the degree that unsuccessful stress management may affect well being and performance, efforts to assist students in coping with stress help meet an obvious need.

Clarke and Ruffin (1992) studied perceived source of stress among student nurses. Questionnaire data was collected from a sample of 306 students nurses from three institutions (university, college of advanced education and hospital) during the second week of the first year of their course and from 189 students from two of the institutions (university and CAE) at the conclusion of their first year of education. The main sources of stress on both occasions were essentially the same for female and male and for students from the different institutions. These concerns focused on study-related issues, the emotional demands of nursing, the use of technical equipment, interpersonal interaction, and lack of time for family and personal pursuits. It was suggested that these concerns could be reduced through the introduction of education in study skills, the provision of the opportunity to gain hands-on experience with technical equipment, and the development of social skills.
Mosley Jr. et al. (1992-93) examined stress, coping, depression and somatic distress among 69 third year medical students at the University Of Mississippi School Of Medicine. Stress was assessed using the Medical Education Hassles Scale-R. Coping was assessed using the Coping Strategies Inventory. Depression was assessed using the Center for Epidemiologic Studies-Depression Scale, and somatic distress was assessed using the Whaler Physical Symptoms Inventory Statistical methods included co-relational analysis and hierarchical regression. Clinical levels of depression were found in 16 (23%) of the students and 39 (57%) endorsed high levels of somatic distress. Stress accounted for a large percentage of the distress variance (i.e. 29% to 50%). Coping efforts contributed significant variance to the prediction of distress above and beyond that accounted for by stress alone, especially in relation to depression. Coping efforts classified by Engagement strategies were associated with fewer depressive symptoms, while coping efforts classified by Disengagement strategies were associated with higher levels of depressive symptoms. Because students who employed coping efforts characterize by Engagement strategies suffered from fewer depressive symptoms, the results suggest that training in these types of strategies may be useful intervention to lessen the negative consequences of stress among medical students.

Crystal and his colleagues (1993) compared US and Asian students on academic stress. They administered questionnaires to 1386 U.S., 1633 Taiwanese, and 1247 Japanese eleventh graders, who averaged 17 years old. Participants rate the frequency with which they felt stressed or pressured, depressed, aggressive (such as wanting to hit someone or destroy something), and anxious about school work. They also noted anxiety-related physical complaints, such as headaches, stomachaches, and sleep troubles. The researchers interviewed approximately 200 additional eleventh graders in each country. Native speakers of each language asked these students to explain when and why they felt stressed or depressed at home, at school and in other situations. All volunteers took a challenging mathematics test. Items ranged from calculating fractions and percentages to the solution of problems of limits and the addition of tangents and secants. Although students in Japan and Taiwan noted greater parental dissatisfaction with their school work
and higher parental expectations for academic performance than did U.S. students, the former groups also cited less frequent stress, anxiety and aggression. Japanese teenagers reported the fewest instances of depressed mood and physical problems, whereas Taiwanese youngsters noted the greatest frequency of those conditions. Asian high scorers reported less emotional and psychical distress than low scorers. In contrast, U.S. high scorers cited these symptoms more frequently than low scorers. Interviews indicate that more students in the United States and Taiwan than in Japan regarded school as a source of stress. Only U.S. teens mentioned sports and part-time jobs as additional causes of tension. Japanese students most often cited peers as stressful. High achievers in the United States devoted much more time to studying than low-achieving peers but expressed the same level of interest in out-of-school activities, the scientists note.

Palmer (1994) discovered the effect of post-graduate learning on the life experiences of a group of 15 nurses (Dailey 1994). The findings show a disturbing effect on the well-being of all participants and similarities of experience with specific regard to their health. This semi-structured qualitative research study set out to investigate the experience of examination stress among mature, 2nd year psychology undergraduates in order to identify any similarities or differences in their perceptions and symptoms of stress related to the taking of examinations. The phenomenological investigation involved tape recorded interviews, transcribed and the analyzed by selecting key words into an analytical file and arranging them into main categories, themes and recurring them clusters. In agreement with Dailey’s previous research, this study concludes that care and consideration of the effects of stress among students should be given by faculties and curriculum designers and, in addition, that stress awareness and the learning of coping strategies should be an integral part of the education program. A protocol for a further research study to measure the efficacy of a specific stress intervention is under development.

Jegede & Okebukola (1994) developed and validated the Science Student Stress Inventory (SSSI) using a selected sample of 188 South African secondary school students using a stratified sampling technique. SSSI which showed an initial stability coefficient
INTRODUCTION

of 0.83, yielded a Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient of 0.95 and Inter-group spearman correlations of between 0.21 and 0.71 (p<0.001) for the subgroups within the instrument. Factor analysis with orthogonal varimax rotation, using Eigen value of 1 and an absolute factor loading of 0.4 as cut-off point produced five factor clusters. An original 50 item instrument which resulted from the initial validation procedures has been reduced psychometrically to 47 items and the factor analysis confirmed the subgroups in the original development with a redistribution of items. Rank ordering the means revealed that the science students in the sample regarded the ‘rear of scoring low marked in science examination and assignments’ as the most stressful factor. The least stressful factor according to the students is ‘studying science forces me to behave like a scientist’. The results also indicated that significant differences in perception of stress factors were found with location of students and their ethnic groupings.

Janet et. al. (1995) studied perceived stressors & coping strategies of occupational therapy students. A questionnaire was used to survey 1095 O.T. Students about perceived stress & coping strategies. The results suggested that at least 86% of the subjects reported their top stressor to be examinations, amount of class work, lack of free time, long hours of study and grades. 62% of subjects said that the stress whey experienced strengthened their commitment to their professional education.

Jones (1996) investigated the factors contributing to academic stress within an adolescent population of science students in years 8 through 12 and whether these factors vary across ethnicity, sex and grade. The Academic Pressure Scale for Adolescents was administered to 550 science students and four significant factors were found to contribute to academic stress: peer pressure, parental pressure, importance of school and fear of failure. Peer pressure was found to vary across ethnicity and grade, but not across sex. Parental pressure was found to be consistent across all variables. Importance of school and fear of failure were found to vary across ethnicity, sex and grade.

Hudiburg and James (1996) investigated coping strategies used by computer users who experienced varying degrees of computer-stress. A research questionnaire was
constructed and given to 90 students (83 provided complete replies) enrolled in college courses where computer use was part of the course requirements. The questionnaire contained questions about computer use information, ratings of computer knowledge and abilities (self-rating and Computer Self-Efficacy scale), the Computer Hassles Scale (a measure of computer stress), measures of somatization and anxiety (SCL-90) and Rosenbergers Self Esteem Scale. The participants were asked to describe and rate the stressfulness of a computer problem and to complete the Ways of coping Scale (a measure of coping strategies). A Severity of Hassles score was determined for each participant from the Computer Hassles Scale. The Severity of Hassles score was used to identify high computer-stress users and low computer-stress users. Within the range of the research participant’s Severity of Hassles scores, high computer-stress users were those who scored in the upper 25% of the range and low computer-stress users were those who scored in the lower 25% of the range. Statistical analyses of differences between high computer-stress users and low computer-stress users revealed that high computer-stress users had lower self-rated computer abilities, lower self-esteem and reported higher levels of somatization and anxiety. High computer-stress users in contrast to low computer-stress users, significantly employed at higher levels confront, self-controlling, accepting responsibility and positive reappraisal coping strategies in dealing with computer problems. The coping strategies employed by high computer-stress users were primarily emotional-focused coping strategies. The low computer-stress group tended to adopt a problem-solving coping strategy in dealing with computer problems.

**Geisthardt and Munsch (1997)** looked at adolescents coping with school stress. Students with learning difficulties were seen to rely on cognitive avoidance as a coping strategy more heavily than others when coping with an academic stress event and reported that they mobilized fewer peers for social support when dealing with an academic stressor than with an interpersonal problem.

**Frydenberg and Ramon (1997)** reported on a longitudinal study of adolescent coping in metropolitan Melbourne, Australia. During the five year period 168 students were tracked to firstly document the patterns of general coping behavior of girls and boys at
grade levels 7, 9 and 11 and secondly to determine what changes were apparent in their coping responses. Young people’s coping was assessed using the Adolescent Coping Scale (ACS, Frydenberg & Lewis, 1993a), an 80-item checklist that identifies 17 distinct coping strategies as well as a young person’s professed inability to cope. Some interesting changes over time in student’s usage of a number of coping strategies were found. Both boys and girls remain relatively stable in their declared inability to cope between the ages of 12 to 14 however, while boys report much the same low level two years later, girls report significantly higher levels of an inability to cope by the time they are 16. Of the coping strategies, five (Seeking Social Support, Solving the Problem, Self-Blame, Keep to Self and Tension Reduction) remained stable for adolescents between the ages of 12 to 14 but increased significantly in the next two years. These represent a combination of what may be termed functional and dysfunctional strategies. For two of the five strategies (Self Blame and Social Support) boy’s usage diminished from age 12 to 14 years and then returned to approximately 12 year old level by the time they were 16. In contrast, the girls’ usage of these two strategies increased moderately between ages 12 to 14 years but increased dramatically between ages 14 and 16. Of the remaining strategies for which age showed a significant main effect, three strategies (Social Action, Spiritual Support and Physical Recreation), had a similar pattern of decrease in usage between the ages of 12 and 14, after which the usage remained relatively stable. The final strategy which varied with age was Professional Help. Reference to professionals was rated significantly lower 14 than it was in at 12 and 16 for both boys and girls. The findings highlight the fact that boys and girls develop differentially in their patterns of coping with age and there are implications for the timing and substance of coping skills development programs that may be taught in schools.

Dill ad Henley (1998) compared traditional and nontraditional students with regard to perceived stress and stressors. The researchers hypothesized that some stressors would be reported by both groups (e.g. stress related to performance on exams and overall academic performance), while other stressors reported by participants would be unique to a particular group (e.g. family obligations and financial problems for nontraditional
INTRODUCTION

Findings indicated that nontraditional students reported less school-related stress than did traditional participants in the study. The investigators concluded that this might indicate adult students have buffered themselves against stressful events associated with the student role by success with other life roles or it may indicate the instrument utilized failed to capture events most after perceived as stressful by nontraditional students. More germane to the current study was their finding that nontraditional students reported being back in school after a time away and attending classes as more desirable than did their traditional counterparts. This finding, according to them, may represent an increase in the nontraditional students’ eagerness to learn and, if so “may indicate that the years out of school have put a new perspective on the classroom”.

Eunsook Hong (1998) tested a path analytic model of state test anxiety in 169 college students who were enrolled in statistics courses. Variables in the model included gender, math ability, trait test anxiety (trait worry and trait emotionality as separate variables), statistics course anxiety, statistics achievement (scores on midterm exams), perceived test difficulty and state test anxiety (state worry and state emotionality) measured at the time the final exam was taking place. Female students reported higher trait test anxiety and statistics course anxiety than did males. Math ability was negatively related to statistics course anxiety and positively related to statistics achievement. Students with low math ability perceived statistics course as difficult, which in turn strongly influenced their level of statistics course anxiety. Trait worry had a significant direct effect on state worry but not on state emotionally, and the same pattern occurred with trait-state emotionality. Trait worry, but not trait emotionality was positively related to statistics course anxiety. Students reporting high statistics course anxiety perceived the final exam as difficult however, statistics course anxiety had a significant effect neither on statistics achievement nor on state test anxiety. Students’ perception of statistics course difficulty influenced their perception of test difficulty, which in turn had significant direct effects on both state worry and emotionality. As expected achievement on statistics midterm exams had a direct effect on state worry but not on state emotionality.
Rosalind Murray-Harvey et. al. (1999) studied the information sought from students about their concerns regarding the teaching practicum component of their course and the strategies they used to cope with these concerns. Findings of this project are based on data gathered from two groups of students who provided information about their concerns in each of their two teaching experience placements. In total survey responses for Practicum I was obtained from 309 students and for Practicum 2 from 298 students. The perceptions of teaching questionnaire comprised three sections. The first section consisted of the 29 item Survey of Practicum Stresses (SPS; D’Rozario & Wong, 1996). In the second section space was provided for students to answer the question “What coping strategies did you use to cope with any stress that you may have encountered during the practicum?” in the third section of the survey, students were asked to rank the 5 strategies that were the most important for them. In addition to the information that students provided, teachers who supervised Group 2 students in the second practicum were asked to rate their student teacher on a 5-point scale (1 = Not yet satisfactory, to 5 = Outstanding) on each of 7 teaching areas as well as an overall assessment. What concerns teacher education students most and least in their practicum? At least half the students experienced stress at least some of the time for 21 of the 29 Survey items. Concerns about balancing practicum and personal commitments, coping with the teaching workload managing time and concerns about others expectations of their competence generated most stress. The students who now comprise the student population bring with them varied life experiences and a range of other competing interests, including work and family responsibilities that need to be balanced with achieving their goal of becoming teachers. Students were least stressed by concerns related to being evaluated. Most students expressed low levels of concern about failing the practicum, relations with the supervising teacher (including being observed and evaluated), relations with other teachers and the school Principal. The supervising teachers in our study appeared to be able to manage the dual roles of support and evaluation with little conflict. What account must be taken of gender, age or intake differences between students in preparing them for the practicum given the greater diversity of students now than in the past? In this study there were no significant differences in reported levels of stress between the two intakes
of students, between males and females, younger and older students groups or between graduate-entry and undergraduate student. However, for all students the first practicum was significantly more stressful than the second practicum. The finding of a considerable reduction in stress in the second practicum confirmed that the teaching experience itself may act as an effective strategy. Performance was rated as significantly less competent by teachers where students had indicated that the relationship with their supervising teacher was a source of stress ($r = -0.39, p<.01$) and where their relationship with the university supervisor was a source of stress ($r = -0.27, p<.05$). Along with stress in the relationship between student and teacher, students fear of failing the practicum was significantly related to teachers, assessment of their performance as poorer ($r=-0.36, p<.01$).

Ross et al. (1999) examined college students to see what sources of stress they experience during their college careers and which ones are most common. Then they wanted to figure out under what nature these common stressors occurred. They felt that college students are prone to stress more than others are because they deal with the transitional nature of college, they have pressures related to job searching and mate searching and they are under continuous evaluation by grades and pressures to earn a degree. They also may have excessive homework, unclear assignments, uncomfortable classrooms and relations with faculty and time pressures that can affect their stress levels. This is all in addition to what most people who are not students experience in their daily lives. The student stress survey was created for this study and given to 100 undergraduate students. This scale consisted of 40 items that were divided into four categories of potential stress sources. These categories included interpersonal sources of stress, intra-personal sources of stress, academic sources of stress and environmental sources of stress. The students either identified the stressors as daily hassles or major life events. After the Students Stress Survey completed by the students population the authors found that in their sample the most common source of stress was from intra-personal sources and that were identified as daily hassles. The top five sources of stress in order were found to be a change in sleeping habits, vacation/breaks, a change in eating habits, new
responsibilities and increased class workload. The authors concluded that this information is useful to know because it can be used as stress intervention. Intervention programs could include time management, conflict management, and stress management for students, which would most likely help decrease levels of stress in the future.

**Misra and McKeen (2000)** investigated the interrelationship of academic stress, anxiety, time management, and leisure satisfaction among 249 university undergraduate students by age and gender. Students could experience stress by a variety of events such as academics, time or health-related, and self-imposed. Academic stressors often resulted from taking and studying for exams, grade competition, and the large amount of content to master in a short time. A way to reduce this stress would be through effective time management, social support, positive reappraisal, and engagement in leisure pursuits. In their sample, they collected information from the 249 students subjects by a self-administered, voluntary, and anonymous questionnaire. There were four self-report questionnaires used in this study. These questionnaires include Gadzellas Students-life Stress inventory, Bread and Raghebs Leisure Satisfaction Measurement, Time Management Behaviours Scale, and Spielbergs State-Trait Anxiety Inventory. To examine gender and age differences, the authors used student t-tests and ANOVA to find the differences in academic stress, anxiety, time management, and leisure satisfaction. The researchers found that there were some significant differences between gender and class on all four measures. Females experienced higher self-imposed stress than males and had more physiological reactions to stress. They indicated that they sweat, stutter, and experience headaches due to stress. Males, on the other hand, scored significantly lower than females on both trait and state anxiety and had a higher satisfaction from leisure activities. It was found that there is a greater association of stressors and reactions to stressors with time management behaviors than with leisure satisfaction. It was also found that goal setting and prioritizing reduced reactions to stressors. Leisure activities greatly reduced academic stressors and reactions to stressors, which benefits students physiologically. The authors found a great difference between male and female college students on academic stress. Males were found to reduce their academic stress when they
believed that they were in control of their time, able to set goals and organized. For females however this did not reduce their stress only planning did. It was found that exercise reduced behavioral reactions in both males and females but increased cognitive reactions to stress only in females. A significant age difference was found to exist in students and their reactions to academic stress. Older students were found to have less physical and psychological reactions to academic stress partly due to perceived control of time, low anxiety and leisure time to learn and increase knowledge. Overall, it was found that effective time management behaviors had a greater buffering effect on academic stress than leisure activities do. This is useful to know because if there are more available resources on campus dealing with time management, students will often be less stressed. Even though females had better time management skills than males, they still had more academic stress, which is a difficult problem. It could be possible that lower reactions to stressors for male college students may result from the fact that people teach men to be strong and masculine and not to express their weakness. Stressors are referred to as demands that may lead to a stress reaction. Demands that are sudden or short term are known as acute stressors. In sports, an example of sudden or acute stress would be experiencing pain or making a mental or physical error.

Misra et al. (2000) examined perceptions of academic stress among male and female college students and compared faculty and student perceptions of students’ academic stress. The sample consisted of 249 students and 67 faculty members from a Mid Western University. Mean age of the students and faculty members were 21 years and 42 years respectively. Results indicated a considerable mismatch between faculty and students in their perceptions of students’ stressors and reactions to stressors. The faculty members perceived the students to experience a higher level of stress and to display reactions to stressors more frequently than the students actually perceived. This could result simply from the faculty observing the students only during their moments of stress in the classroom. Results also supported the hypotheses that stress varied across year in school and by gender.


INTRODUCTION

Hudd et al. (2000) looked at college stress and its effects on health habits, health status, and self-esteem.

It was found that most adolescent females and students-athletes are more stressed than their peers are, but there is not as much research in this area in college students. Hudd et al. performed their research at an Ivy League school, where they tested undergraduate students because they felt that a majority of the student body would be experiencing high levels of stress. After passing out 225 surveys, they received 145 surveys back after ensuring anonymity. The survey focused on four different areas: demographic information, health information, health-related habit information, and health status information. After analyzing their results, the authors found that most of the students who responded to the survey were older students that were predominately-white females. Hudd et al. separated the results by the way students labeled their health, stress, and by coding heights and weights by using the Metropolitan Life Scale. They also divided respondents by their eating behaviors and drinking behaviors which both seemed to be on the unhealthy side for more than half of the population. Other health-related behaviors they measured were seat belt use, condom and birth control use, and amount of exercise. A high number of students participate in vehicle safety, but a little less than half of the students practice safe sex. They found that about two-thirds of their sample exercise regularly, and few athletes had actually responded to the survey. In their study they hypothesized that a variety of demographic factors are due to students perceptions of their stress level. In their findings, they found that the majority of females experience stress more frequently than males do.

Kuruppuarachchi et al. (2002) determined the proportion of university students that are psychologically distressed when compared to an age and sex matched population sample and to an age and sex matched population sample and to describe the factors that may contribute to their distress. The general health questionnaire (GHQ 30), previously validated in Sinhala, was administered as a screening test to random samples of undergraduates in 5 universities. Age and sex matched controls from the respective communities were also administered the screening test. The undergraduates also filled in
INTRODUCTION

a pre-tested questionnaire with personal details. Chi-square tests were used to determine statistical significance between groups. Among the undergraduates, 104 (39.8%) had scores for psychological distress whereas only 67 (25.7%) from the community sample had scores for similar distress. This difference was significant (P<0.001). A significantly greater proportion (p<0.001) of those entering from rural schools were psychological distressed than those from suburban and urban schools and a greater proportion living in rented rooms and hostels were (p<0.001) distressed than those traveling from their homes. The psychological distress among undergraduates was significantly greater than among the general population. More students who enter from rural schools seem to be distressed than those who enter from suburban and urban schools.

Singnal (2004) reported that “although the western scholars have recognized for more than two decades the phenomenon of stress in educational context in relation to teachers and have conducted intensive and extensive investigations into it, the recognition of it affecting students is rather a late addition. The research in India is still spare and limited mainly to the acknowledgement of examination stress / distress”

On the basis of above mentioned studies it is clear that some studies have been conducted related to stress and factors like sex, grade, discipline, age, place of school, anxiety and achievement but very few studies were conducted on issues which are related to impact of psychological stress on academic achievement of prospective teachers at elementary level. Hence, the researcher selected the following topic for study.

1.18 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM:-

TO STUDY THE IMPACT OF PSYCHOLOGICAL STRESS ON THE ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT IN ENGLISH SUBJECT OF PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS AT ELEMENTARY LEVEL

1.19 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY:-

To study the impact of psychological stress on academic achievement of prospective teachers was studied on the following basis:
(A) On the basis of sex differences.

(B) On the basis of habitat (background as rural and urban).

(C) On the basis of subject streams offered at Sr. Sec. Level.

(D) Academic Achievement in English of STC students on the basis of scores from the result record of the institution and group were formed on the basis of above and below 60% marks.

1.20 HYPOTHESIS OF THE STUDY:-

Meaning of Hypothesis:

The word 'hypothesis' is made up of two Greek words which mean that it is some sort of 'sub-statements', for investigation seeks to prove. This is often referred to as an 'explanation' of the facts, he has observed. It has a 'theory' about particular mass of fact. This theory when stated testable proposition formally and clearly subjected to empirical of experimental verification is known as a hypothesis.

The hypothesis furnishes the germinal basis the whole investigation and remains to the end its corner stone, for the whole research is directly stimulus to critical thought offers insights into the confusion of phenomena. At the end, it comes to prominence as the proposition to be accepted or rejected in the light of the findings.

The word hypothesis consists of two words.

Hypo + thesis = Hypothesis

'Hypo'-means tentative or subject of the verification.


The word meaning of the term hypothesis is a tentative statement about the solution of the problem.
Hypothesis offers a solution of the problem that is to be verified empirically and based on some rationale.

Another meaning of the word hypothesis which is composed of two words:

'Hypo' means composition of two or more variables which is/are to be verified.

'Thesis' means position of this variable/s in the specific frame of reference. This is the operational meaning of the term hypothesis; hypothesis is the composition of some variables. Which have some specific position or role of the variables i.e., to be verified empirically. This is a preposition about the factual and conceptual elements.

Hypothesis is called as leap into the dark. It is brilliant guess about the solution of problem.

'A tentative generalization or theory formulated about the character of phenomena under observation are called hypothesis.

It is a statement temporarily accepted as true in the light of what is known at the time about the phenomena. It is the basis for planning and action in the research for new truth or new theory.

**Definitions:**

The term hypothesis has been defined in several ways. Some important definitions have been given in the following paragraphs:

Hypothesis- A tentative supposition or provisional guess- "It is a tentative supposition or provisional guess which seems to explain the situation under observation."

Hypothesis- A tentative generalization.

**Lundberg** thinks "a hypothesis is a tentative generalization the validity of which remains to be any hunch. Guess imaginative idea which becomes the basis for further investigation."
Kerlinger (1937); - A conjectural statement of the relation between two or more variables form and they relate, either generally or specially variables to variables.

MC Guigan (1990), - A testable statement of potential relationship between two or more variables that is advanced as potential solution to the problem.

Null hypothesis is a statement that no relationship exists between two variables. It states that the outcomes predicated in the declarative form will not occur except by chance. This is also known as the “statistical hypothesis”, “testing hypothesis. A null hypothesis challenges the assertion of a declarative hypothesis, which may be called the research hypothesis.

1.21 FUNCTIONS OF HYPOTHESIS:

The following are the main functions of hypothesis in the research process suggested by H.H.Mc.Ashan:

It is a temporary solution of a problem concerning with some truth which enables an investigator to start his research works.

It offers a basis in establishing the specifics what to study for and may provide possible solutions to the problem.

Each hypothesis may lead to formulate another hypothesis.

A preliminary hypothesis may take the shape of final hypothesis.

Each hypothesis provides the investigator with definite statement which may be objectively tested and accepted or rejected and leads for interpreting result and drawing conclusions that are related to original purpose.

The functions of hypothesis may be condensed into three parts.

The following are the threefold functions of a hypothesis.

To delimit the field of the investigation.

To sensitize the researcher so that he should work selectively, and have very realistic approach to the problem.
To offer the simple means for collecting evidences to the verification.

1.22 IMPORTANCE OF HYPOTHESIS:

Hypothesis as the Investigator's 'Eyes' – Carter V. Good Thinks that by guiding the investigator in further investigation is serves as the investigator's 'Eyes' in seeking answers to tentatively adopted generalization.

It Focuses Research - Without it research is unfocussed research and remains like a random empirical wandering.

It Places Clear and Specific Goals – A well thought set of hypothesis is that they place clear and specific goals before the research worker and provide him with a basis for selecting sample and research procedure to meet these goals.

It Links Together – "It serves the important function of linking together related facts and information and organizing them into wholes." - Good Bar and Scates

It Prevents Blind Research – "The use of hypothesis prevents a blind search and indiscriminate gathering of masses of data which may later prove irrelevant to the problem under study." P.V.Young

As a Sort of Guiding Light – A hypothesis serves as a powerful beacon that light the way for the research work.

1.23 USE OF HYPOTHESIS IN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCHES:

The education researchers may be classified into four types:

Experimental research.

Normative survey research.

Historical research, and

Complex casual research.

1. Hypotheses are indispensable for experimental researchers. Hypotheses are the crucial aspects of such researches.
2. Hypotheses are essential for analytical studies and there is little scope in descriptive type studies.

3. In historical research there is a little scope of hypothesis in historical research because hypothesis has the future reference and its verification on empirical data. Case study method has no scope for constructing hypothesis because it is development type study.

4. In complex casual research the hypothesis have important role in such investigations.

In the present study stress on academic achievement in English is studied in following terms;

1) Curriculum related stress
2) Teaching related stress
3) Practice teaching related stress
4) Teacher behavior related stress
5) Examination related stress
6) Other factors related stress and
7) Integrated stress.

1.24 HYPOTHESIS OF THE PRESENT STUDY;

In the present study null hypothesis are framed;

\[
\text{Part-1(Gender based)}
\]

\[(Above \text{ than } 60\% \text{ marks})\]

Conceptual Hypotheses-1

1) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the STC boys and girls trainees in relation to psychological stress.
**Operational Hypotheses:**

1.1.1(i) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the STC boys and girls trainees in relation to Curriculum related stress.

1.1.1.(ii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the STC boys and girls trainees in relation to teaching related stress.

1.1.1.(iii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the STC boys and girls trainees in relation to Practice teaching related stress.

1.1.1.(iv) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the STC boys and girls trainees in relation to Teacher behavior related stress.

1.1.1.(v) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the STC boys and girls trainees in relation to Examination related stress.

1.1.1.(vi) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the STC boys and girls trainees in relation to other factors related stress.

1.1.1.(vii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the STC boys and girls trainees in relation to integrated stress.
Part-1(Habitat based)

(Above than 60% marks)

Conceptual Hypotheses

1.1.2 There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the urban and rural STC trainees in relation to psychological stress.

Operational Hypotheses:

1.1.2(i) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the urban and rural STC trainees in relation to Curriculum related stress.

1.1.2(ii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the urban and rural STC trainees in relation to teaching related stress.

1.1.2(iii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the urban and rural STC trainees in relation to Practice teaching related stress.

1.1.2(iv) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the urban and rural STC trainees in relation to Teacher behavior related stress.

1.1.2(v) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the urban and rural STC trainees in relation to Examination related stress.
1.1.2(vi) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the urban and rural STC trainees in relation to other factors related stress.

1.1.2(vii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the urban and rural STC trainees in relation to integrated stress.

Part-1(Subject stream based)

(Above than 60% marks)

Conceptual Hypotheses-3

1.1.3 There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between different subject streams STC trainees in relation to psychological stress.

Operational Hypotheses; (Arts and Commerce group)

1.1.3(i) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Commerce STC trainees in relation to Curriculum related stress

1.1.3(ii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Commerce STC trainees in relation to teaching related stress

1.1.3(iii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Commerce STC trainees in relation to Practice teaching related stress.
1.1.3(iv) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Commerce STC trainees in relation to Teacher behavior related stress.

1.1.3(v) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Commerce STC trainees in relation to Examination related stress.

1.1.3(vi) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Commerce STC trainees in relation to other factors related stress.

1.1.3(vii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Commerce STC trainees in relation to Integrated stress.

**Operational Hypotheses ; (Arts and Science group)**

1.1.3(viii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Science STC trainees in relation to Curriculum related stress.

1.1.3(ix) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Science STC trainees in relation to teaching related stress.

1.1.3(x) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Science STC trainees in relation to Practice teaching related stress.
1.1.3(xi) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Science STC trainees in relation to Teacher behavior related stress.

1.1.3(xii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Science STC trainees in relation to Examination related stress.

1.1.3(xiii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Science STC trainees in relation to other factors related stress.

1.1.3(xiv) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Science STC trainees in relation to Integrated stress.

Operational Hypotheses ; (Commerce and Science group)

1.1.3(xv) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Commerce and Science STC trainees in relation to Curriculum related stress.

1.1.3(xvi) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Commerce and Science STC trainees in relation to teaching related stress.

1.1.3(xvii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Commerce and Science STC trainees in relation to Practice teaching related stress.

1.1.3(xviii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Commerce and Science STC trainees in relation to Teacher behavior related stress.
1.1.3(xix) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Commerce and Science STC trainees in relation to Examination related stress.

1.1.3(xx) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Commerce and Science STC trainees in relation to other factors related stress.

1.1.3(xxi) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Commerce and Science STC trainees in relation to Integrated stress.

Part-2 (Gender based)

(Below than 60% marks)

Conceptual Hypotheses-1

1.2.1 There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the STC boys and girls trainees in relation to psychological stress.

Operational Hypotheses:

1.2.1(i) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the STC boys and girls trainees in relation to Curriculum related stress.

1.2.1(ii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the STC boys and girls trainees in relation to teaching related stress.

1.2.1(iii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the STC boys and girls trainees in relation to Practice teaching related stress.
1.2.1(iv) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the STC boys and girls trainees in relation to Teacher behavior related stress.

1.2.1(v) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the STC boys and girls trainees in relation to Examination related stress.

1.2.1(vi) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the STC boys and girls trainees in relation to other factors related stress.

1.2.1(vii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the STC boys and girls trainees in relation to integrated stress.

Part-2 (Habitat based)

(Below than 60% marks)

Conceptual Hypotheses-2

1.2.2 There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the urban and rural STC trainees in relation to psychological stress.

Operational Hypotheses;

1.2.2(i) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the urban and rural STC trainees in relation to Curriculum related stress.
1.2.2(ii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the urban and rural STC trainees in relation to teaching related stress.

1.2.2(iii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the urban and rural STC trainees in relation to Practice teaching related stress.

1.2.2(iv) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the urban and rural STC trainees in relation to Teacher behavior related stress.

1.2.2(v) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the urban and rural STC trainees in relation to Examination related stress.

1.2.2(vi) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the urban and rural STC trainees in relation to other factors related stress.

1.2.2(vii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the urban and rural STC trainees in relation to integrated stress.

**Part-2 (Subject stream based)**

**(Below than 60% marks)**

**Conceptual Hypotheses-3**

1.2.3 There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between different subject streams STC trainees in relation to psychological stress.
Operational Hypotheses; (Arts and Commerce group)

1.2.3(i) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Commerce STC trainees in relation to Curriculum related stress.

1.2.3(ii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Commerce STC trainees in relation to teaching related stress.

1.2.3(iii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Commerce STC trainees in relation to Practice teaching related stress.

1.2.3(vi) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Commerce STC trainees in relation to Teacher behavior related stress.

1.2.3(v) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Commerce STC trainees in relation to Examination related stress.

1.2.3(vi) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Commerce STC trainees in relation to other factors related stress.

1.2.3(vii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Commerce STC trainees in relation to Integrated stress.
Operational Hypotheses; (Arts and Science group)

1.2.3(viii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Science STC trainees in relation to Curriculum related stress.

1.2.3(ix) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Science STC trainees in relation to teaching related stress.

1.2.3(x) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Science STC trainees in relation to Practice teaching related stress.

1.2.3(xi) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Science STC trainees in relation to Teacher behavior related stress.

1.2.3(xii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Science STC trainees in relation to Examination related stress.

1.2.3(xiii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Science STC trainees in relation to other factors related stress.

1.2.3(xiv) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Arts and Science STC trainees in relation to Integrated stress.
Operational Hypotheses ; ( Commerce and Science group)

1.2.3(xv) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Commerce and Science STC trainees in relation to Curriculum related stress

1.2.3(xvi) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Commerce and Science STC trainees in relation to teaching related stress

1.2.3(xvii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Commerce and Science STC trainees in relation to Practice teaching related stress.

1.2.3(xviii) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Commerce and Science STC trainees in relation to Teacher behavior related stress.

1.2.3(xix) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Commerce and Science STC trainees in relation to Examination related stress

1.2.3(xx) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Commerce and Science STC trainees in relation to other factors related stress.

1.2.3(xx) There is no significant difference in academic achievement in English subject between the Commerce and Science STC trainees in relation to Integrated stress
1. 25 PSYCHOLOGICAL STRESS;

Any interference which disturbs a person’s health, mental and physical well-being is called as stress. The word ‘stress’ is derived from the Latin words, ‘strict us’ which means ‘tight’ or ‘narrow’ and ‘stringer’ which means ‘to tighten’. These refer to the internal feelings of constriction that many people feel where they are experiencing stress.

In the present study psychological stress is studied in following terms;

1) Curriculum related stress

2) Teaching related stress

3) Practice teaching related stress

4) Teacher behavior related stress

5) Examination related stress

6) Other factors related stress and

7) Integrated stress.

1. 26 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT;

Achievement is the amount of knowledge derived from learning. The child gains knowledge by the instruction he receives at the school. Classrooms are organized around a set of core activities in which a teacher assigns tasks to pupils and evaluates and compares the quality of their work. In the course of time pupils differentiate themselves according to how well they perform a variety of tasks, most of which require the use of symbolic skills. The classroom activities force pupils to cope with various degrees of success and failure both of which can be psychologically problematic. The school provides a wider variety of achievement experiences than does the family. As proceed
through successive school levels, the rigors of achievement increase for those who continue along the academic line.

Achievement has been conceptualized in following ways:

“It usually denotes activity and mastery, making an impact on the environment rather than fatalistically accepting it and competing against some standard of excellence”.

According to the Dictionary of Education, achievement means “the knowledge attained or skills developed in the school subjects, usually designated by test scores, or by marks assigned by teachers or both”.

Educational or Academic Achievement is defined as specified level of attainment or proficiency in academic work as evaluated by the teachers, by standardized test or by a combination of both.

Achievement in school subjects consists of moving towards instructional objectives. Achievement of instructional objectives is the degree to which the pupil has moved towards the objectives of the school. These objectives are the goals in the direction of which the curriculum seeks to change pupils.

Thus achievement is accomplishment of proficiency of performance in a given skill or body of knowledge. Achievement may be distinguished from ability. Achievement is what one acquires whereas the ability is the innate capacity of mind. Achievement no doubt, depends upon ability, but it is not the only criterion for achievement.

In this study academic achievement of STC students in English is studied on the basis of marks obtained in internal exams.

1.27 ENGLISH SUBJECT; means the curriculum/syllabus of English for STC students.
1.28 PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS;

Prospective Teachers means those trainees who are taking the training for teaching the elementary classes.

1.29 VARIABLES OF THE STUDY:

Concept of that can take one or more that one value along a continuum is called variables. The variables are of two types:-

Dependent variables.
Independent variables.

Dependent Variables:-

The dependent variable is response variable or output. It is an observed aspect of the behavior of an organism that has been stimulated. It is observed and measured to determine the effect of the independent variables. It changes as a result of variation in the independent variables.

Independent Variables:

Independent variable is that factor which is measured, manipulated, or selected by the researcher to determine the relationship to observed phenomena.

The important characteristics of independent variables

It is the cause for change in other variable.
Independent variables always interested its affects on other variables, not in what affects it.
INTRODUCTION

Variables in present study:

1. Independent Variable: - Psychological Stress

2. Dependent Variable: - Academic Achievement of STC students in English Subject.

1.30 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY:

Each of research problems whether in humanities or pure sciences has to be delimited up to some extent because the research could not control all factors responsible for the criterion. Similarly, the present study was delimited to the following aspects:

1.30.1 The study is limited to the selection of the institutions which are running STC course as general and Sanskrit STC, in Jaipur city only.

1.30.2 The study is limited to STC students only.

1.30.3 The academic achievement of the trainees has been studied only in English subject.

1.30.4 The study is delimited only 600 students of arts, science and commerce offered by students at 12th level (in interrelated forms not branch wise).

1.30.5 Achievement level is divided in two parts i.e.: below and above 60% marks obtained in English in home exams.

1.30.6 Achievement was taken on the basis of report cards of the institution.

1.30.7 Tools are constructed by the investigator. No one standardized tool was used for the study. Reliability and Validity are established.