Chapter -II
Review of Related Literature
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

The Phase “Review of literature” consists of two words “Review” and “Literature”. The term “Review” means to organize the knowledge of specific area of research to evolve an edifice of knowledge to show that the proposed study would be addition to this field and the term “Literature” refers to the knowledge of a particular area of investigation of any discipline, which includes theoretical, practical and its research studies. The task of review of literature is highly creative and tedious because the researcher has to synthesize the available knowledge of the field in a unique way to provide the rationale for his study.

According to Good’s Dictionary (1959):

a) Review: “Is the re-examination of material previously presented or studied.”
b) Review of literature: “Is a survey of printed material dealing with or bearing on a given subject of problem.”

The review of related literature is one of the most important steps in the research design. To develop better understanding of the topic and also to know what type of work has already been in field. The knowledge of related literature not only helps to make aware of the pit falls that have been experienced by reviewer but it widens the investigator’s outlook and knowledge, insight and experience with regard to the subject. So, here a humble effort is being made to review the related literature.

William (1986) “It provides the background and context for the research problem. It should establish for research and indicate the writer’s knowledge about area.”

Familiarity with literature in any problem helps the investigator to discover what is already known, what others have tried to find out, what methods of attack have been used successfully and what problems remained to be solved.

According to Best (1978): “Practically all human knowledge can be found in books and libraries. Unlike some other animals that must start anew with each generation man builds upon the accumulated and recorded knowledge of the past.”
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Best has further said: “A familiar study with the literature help the students to find out, what methods of attack have to be promising and disappointing and what problems remain to be solved”.

Research is a continuous process and ever growing. The information acquired through research gets accumulated over a period of time in the format of manuscript, books and other forms of record, when some new problem crops up one may rely upon for a part or whole of the situation on this accumulated record. The material is always related in one way or the other to the new studies taken up.

It enables to know what others have done and what still remain to be done in the area. The researcher has to take the help of books, magazines, periodicals, encyclopedias' and other literature that make him aware of the problem.

The review of related literature helps the investigator:

1. To define the limits of his field. It helps the researcher to delimit and define his problem.
2. To avoid unfulfilled and useful problem areas in established findings.
3. To know about the tools and instruments, this proved to be useful and promising in the previous studies.
4. To know about the recommendations of previous researches for further research.
5. To formulate an appropriate research designs.
6. To locate the sources of data and to collect the pertinent data useful in the Interpretations of results.

2.1 STUDIES RELATED TO STRESS

Duquette, et.al. (1984) noted that urban elementary school teachers identified issues related to the core task of working with students in the classroom as most stressful.

Tolar and Murphy (1985) “Stress and Depression in High School Studies” administered a high school readjustment scale and the center for epidemiological studies depression scale to 158 females and 127 males, 13-17 years old thrice over a
6-month interval. On both test administrations, a significant relationship between stress and depression was found in females.

Compass, Davis and Forsythe (1985) "Characteristics of Life Events during Adolescents" found that female adolescents are vulnerable to adverse consequences of events and perceived more stress in their lives.

Harris et. al, (1985) the available data indicates that stress with in the teaching profession may affect not only the physical and emotional well - being of a teacher and his/her family but also the school as an organization itself.

Blanton (1985) studied on “Occupational and General Stress among Teachers Employed by Selected School System in Alabama” and found male teachers significantly more stressed than their female colleagues. However, the overwhelming research evidence so far has shown female teachers suffering greater stress than male teachers.

Bhatnagar and Bose (1985) studied on “Organization Role Stress and Branch Manager Prajnan” and found that branch managers scored differently on areas of stress.

Goodyear, Kelvin and Gatzanis (1986) “Do Age and Sex Influence the Association between the Recent Life Events and Psychiatric Disorders in Children and Adolescents” and found that female adolescence are vulnerable to adverse consequences of events and perceived more stress in their lives.

Bush and Simmons (1987) in their study “Gender and Coping with the Adolescence” reported that male and female adolescents differently experience and report to stressors, both male and female adolescents appear to be equally vulnerable to stressful events.

Tacks and Robbins (1989) examined “The Coping Response of College Students to Academic Pressure” and found that men were more likely to see sexual gratification and use marijuana whereas females ruminated, ate consistently and become irritable.
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Misra (1991) concludes that teacher’s varying in personality and working under different management types used different coping behaviors to reduce their stress and conflicts.

Some researches reported that girls feel more stressed than boys (Subrahmanyam, 1986, Verma and Gupta, 1990).

McGee and Stanton (1992) found girls in higher level of distress.

Munn and Johnson (1993): conducted “A Study of Teacher’s Workload and Stress” and compared the teacher’s scores on the various components of their work with those of people in managerial post. The major points to emerge are :( 1) teachers are less satisfied than the general population with the factors intrinsic to the job, the organizational climate and home works interface. (2) Teachers are less satisfied with their job than the managers.

Carson and Kuipers (1998): “Stress Management Inventions in Occupational and Professional Approaches” (Eds Handy, Jand and Thomas, Thorns, Cheltenham have proposed a model of the stress processes, which incorporates the idea of stressors, moderators and stress outcomes. Stressors are seen as arising from three main sources: i) those relating to one’s occupation (ii) major life events (iii) and hassles and uplifts. The critical factors in the model are the mediating or buffering factors, which individuals can call upon to help them. These stressors will only lead to negative stress outcomes if the individual has insufficient resources to manage them.

Rudolph and Hammer (1999) reported that adolescent girls experienced the highest levels of interpersonal stress specially stress and conflict that they generated within parent-child and peer relationships. Pre adolescent girls experienced the highest levels of independent stress and conflict in the family context. Adolescent boys experienced the highest levels of stress associated with self-generated events.

Edworthy (2000) in “Managing Stress” observed that stress can result in physical ill health, a lowering of job satisfaction and a loss of sense of achievement. These changes by their very nature will impair the quality of that individual’s life.

Srivastava (2001) “An Empirical Study of Stress among In - Service Teachers and Student Teachers” found that in service- teachers experienced more stress in
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comparison to student teachers. These findings have been discussed in terms of job conditions and the demands of occupation of in-service teacher.

Gundy (2002) using data from a study of young adults in South Florida, applied the "stress process model" to investigate relationships between gender, stressful events, the assertion of autonomy and two outcomes: depression and criminal behavior. As in prior research findings suggest that women have average higher depression; men have average higher criminal behavior and exposure to stressful events increases risk for both outcomes. Gender differences in outcomes, however, are not explained by gender differences in vulnerability or in exposure to stress. The assertion of autonomy—a traditionally masculine quality—reduces risk for depression for both women and men, increases risk for crime among men, and reduces risk for crime among women. Autonomy, however, neither mediates the effects of gender nor moderates the effects of stress on either outcome. Results speak to the limits of examining single outcomes and qualify conditions under which gendered qualities such as autonomy may act as psychosocial "resources" or "detriments" in the stress process.

Jackson and Finney’s (2002) study examines the relationship between college career stage, negative life events, and psychological distress. Young adults enrolled in three universities completed a survey, which included life events inventory and several psychological distress scales, depression, anxiety, anger/hostility). As expected, negative experiences (per relationships) were most predictive of distress; younger students were vulnerable to negative life events across domains. Surprisingly, younger students were more likely than older students to be angry/hostile (rather than consistently depressed or anxious) about negative life events. They believe that younger adults either lack the psychological resources of maturity and experience or adopt ineffective coping strategies when faced with stressful situations.

Sharma, Sharma and Yadav (2002) investigated “A Study to Determine the Level of Psychological Distress among Rural and Urban School Teachers”. The result revealed that place of working was a strong antecedent for psychological distress and it was observed that rural teachers reported less psychological distress as compared to urban teachers.
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Williams and Gnanadevan (2003) conducted “A Survey on Situation Producing Stress in School Teachers in Relation to their Personality Types by using Lathe’s Modified Stress Questionnaire” and concluded that teachers working in different colleges of Assam have some degree of job satisfaction with respect to marital status, location and experience. There was no relation in job satisfaction among males and females w.r.t., experience and location, married and unmarried teachers working in different colleges of Assam.

Kaur (2004) in his study “Occupational Stress among Teachers of Government Aided and Non Aided Schools in Relation to Gender, Teaching Experience, Teaching Subject and Locality” found significant difference between aided and non-aided schoolteachers in respect to occupational stress. However, no significant differences were found between government and aided schoolteachers, male and female teachers and among teachers having different levels of teaching experience.

Duggal (2004) carried out “A Study of Teacher’s Burnout in Relation to their Personality Characteristics, Work Environment and Job Satisfaction” and found that private school teachers were more prone to stress as compared to their counterparts of government schools. It also revealed that teachers of rural area as well as of higher age had more stress.

Mishra (2004) conducted a study on “A Study among Primary School Teachers” using teachers scale constructed by Mishra and Poonam and found that Parishadiya primary school teachers experienced less stress than private school teachers due to teaching learning factors.

Monica (2004) studied “Occupational Stress of 150 Teachers of District Fatehgarh Sahib and Surroundings”. She reported that teachers of Punjabi medium schools were more stressed as compared to the teachers of English medium school. The study also revealed that the environment also affected the person. The teachers from Chandigarh were found to have less stress as compared to the teachers from Fatehgarh Sahib.

Deo (2004) conducted “A Study on Behavior Pattern and Stress among XII Standard Students using a Behavior Pattern and the Student Stress Scale” and found that male students and the students of arts faculty had encountered maximum stress.
Rahat, et al. (2005) reported females would perceive some stressful life events seriously and would report more physical and psychological effect as compared to males. Our findings suggest that the sex difference in the experience of stress may not be a common characteristic of these students.

Kaur (2007) studied “A Comparative Study of Occupational Stress among Teachers of Schools and Colleges in Relation to their Gender” and revealed that female teachers were more stressful as compared to male teachers.

Geetha (2007) in her studies on “Stress Management and Value Education” found that stress management is very difficult and complex problem that cannot be controlled with medicine or exercise. She further stressed the need for value education as it makes one peaceful and adds peace to the society.

Karen Wallen, Wendy Chaboyer, Lukman Thalib and Debra K. Creedy (2008) studied on “Symptoms of Acute Posttraumatic Stress Disorder after Intensive Care.” To identify the frequency of acute symptoms of posttraumatic stress disorder and to describe factors predictive of these symptoms in patients 1 month after discharge from intensive care. During a 9-month period, 114 of 137 patients who met the inclusion criteria consented to participate in the study, and 100 (88%) completed it. The mean total score on the Impact of Event Scale-Revised was 17.8 (SD, 13.4; possible range, 0–88). A total of 13 participants (13%) scored higher than the cutoff score for clinical posttraumatic stress disorder. Neither sex nor length of stay was predictive of acute symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder. In multivariate analysis, the only independent predictor of symptoms was age. Patients younger than 65 years were 5.6 times (95% confidence interval, 1.17–26.89) more likely than those 65 years and older to report symptoms. The rate of symptoms of posttraumatic stress disorder 1 month after discharge from intensive care was relatively low. Consistent with findings of previous research, being younger than 65 years was the only independent predictor of symptoms.

Tine K. Jensen, Grete Dyb; Egil Nygaard (2009) investigated A Longitudinal Study of Posttraumatic Stress Reactions in Norwegian Children and Adolescents Exposed to the 2004 Tsunami. They investigate the prevalence of symptoms of posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and factors related to level of these in children.
who experienced a catastrophe as tourists and were therefore able to return to the safety of their homeland. Two children had scores indicative of PTSD at 10 months. There was a significant decrease in symptoms after 2½ years, and no children had scores exceeding the clinical cutoff at this time. Only the death of a family member and subjective distress were independently and significantly associated with PTSD scores at 10 months, whereas sex, need for professional mental health services prior to the tsunami, and parental sick leave owing to the tsunami were independent predictors of PTSD symptoms at follow-up. The children reported fewer symptoms of PTSD compared with children in other disaster studies. Predictor variables changed from disaster-related subjective distress to factors related to general mental health at follow-up. The findings indicate the importance of secondary adversities and pretrauma functioning in the maintenance of posttraumatic stress reactions.

**Dykman (2009)** studied on “Money, Stress and Your Health.” He found that American adults are experiencing significantly more debt-related stress than reported four years ago when a similar survey was conducted. The survey also found that those with high stress levels were likely to experience health problems, including headaches, back pain, muscle tension, depression, and anxiety, ulcers, and heart problems. It seems that a high level of debt-related stress can damage more than your credit score; it also poses serious threats to your health.

The survey also found that highly debt-stressed people were:

- More than 13 times as likely than low- to no-stress people to lose sleep at night
- More than seven times as likely to have severe anxiety.
- Almost seven times as likely to take stress out on others.
- Nearly six times as likely to experience severe depression.
- Four times as likely to have ulcers or other digestive problems.
- Twice as likely to have heart problems and migraines.
Moore (2009) investigated on “Cognitive Abnormalities in Posttraumatic Stress Disorder” and found that negative appraisals and decrements on verbal and autobiographical memory tasks are exhibited by individuals with PTSD relative to controls and may represent preexisting risk factors for PTSD rather than a result or concomitant of PTSD symptoms. In addition, the reviewed findings provide evidence for source monitoring difficulties and attentional biases toward trauma-relevant information in PTSD. Recent research also provides evidence that, although memories of traumatic events differ in PTSD relative to other types of memories and memories of depressed individuals, they are likely on the same continuum as nontraumatic memories rather than qualitatively different.

The above-discussed studies depicted a clear vision that stress is sometimes caused by social factors, sometimes by psychological factors such as tension, frustration, anxiety etc. and sometime it is related to work itself or working conditions as well as to the variance in personalities of different people.

2.2 STUDIES RELATED TO STRESS AND MENTAL HEALTH

Khan (1973) studied on “The Conflict, Ambiguity and Overload: 3 Elements in Job-Stress, Occupation, Mental Health” and revealed the role of overload and job stress on the mental health as well as the role of conflict and ambiguity.

Sarkar (1979) studied on “Relationship between Mental Health and Some Family Characteristics of Middle Class School Going Adolescents” and find out the relationship between children’s mental health and their family characteristics, namely family structure and family tension. The conclusions were: (1) the mentally unhealthy group of children had higher family tensions than the healthy group. (2) The children from families with syncretism division of functions had better mental health. (3) The family structure (exception syncretism division of functions) was not related to the mental health of the children.

Eme (1979) in the study “Sex-Difference in Childhood Psychology- A Review” found that females tend to experience more stress than males. Moreover, they seem more disposed to respond to this stress. According to their sex stereotypic pattern is internalization, rather than externalization.
Mangotra (1982) in his study "Mental Health as a Correlate of Intelligence, Educational, Academic Achievement and Socio-Economic Status" found that: (1) the girls appeared to possess better mental health, were capable of facing the realities around them and were in a position to tide over the mental disequilibria. (2) The mental health of boys and girls appeared to be considerably influenced by the two factors namely intelligence and physical health. (3) In mental life, the boys were dominated by the feelings of depression and neurotic behavior. On the other hand, girls were found to be suffering from a sense of insecurity and anxiety.

Abraham and Prasanna (1982) studied the “Role of Mothers’ Education and their Attitude toward Children in raising the Mental Health Level of Children” and concluded that higher the educational level of mothers better the mental health of children and less is the frustration in children. There was a significant relationship between mothers, besides rocking the cradle and nursing the child, try to develop good mental health practices in their child.

Singh and Basu (1982) studied “A Study of Anxiety Components and Related Problems among Medical Students” and concluded a positive relationship between anxiety and problems related to poor health and physique.

Raina (1983) in Bio-chemical consequences of examination of stress, listed some of the important behavioral, physiological and health effects which have been suggested to be linked to the experience of stress.

**Effects and Costs of Stress**

1. Subject Effects: Anxiety, aggression, fatigue, depression, frustration low self-esteem, threat and tension.

2. Behavioral effects: Accident proneness, drug taking, emotional outbursts, excitability, impulsive behavior and restlessness.

3. Cognitive effects: Inability to make decisions and to concentrate, frequent forgetfulness and mental blocks.

4. Physiological effects: Increased blood and glucose levels, increased heart rate and B.P, sweating, ‘a lump in the throat.”
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5. Health effects: Asthma, chest and back pains, coronary heart disease, diarrhea, frequent urination, headaches, nightmares, insomnia, psychosomatic disorders, ulcers and weakness.

6. Originalization effects: Absenteeism, high accident rates, poor productivity.

Thus, because of having a vast damaging impact on the wholesome, healthy development of the individual, today, inspite of the ambiguity, Stress is gaining its recognition and importance among the layman and also among the specialists in fields of education and medicine.


Baker and Davenport (1987) "A Comparative Study of Stress and Coping Skills among Learning Disabled and Regular Education Students" revealed that school related stress may afflict 6 to 10 million children per year. Academic stress is a mental distress with respect to some anticipated frustration associated with academic failure, anticipation of such failure or even an awareness of the possibility of such failure. (Gupta and Khan, 1987).

Peterson and Seligman (1988) studied “Exploratory Style and Illness” and discussed the possible relationship between explanatory style, a concept derived from learned helplessness theory and physical health. Explanatory style refers to the habitual way in which individuals attribute negative events. Results suggest that a pessimistic explanatory style is related to both mortality and morbidity. The relationship may be mediated by such variables as passivity, social withdrawal, depression, health-related behaviors, and problem-solving skills or psychological response to stress.

Grover (1989) conducted a study on “Religiosity and Mental Health of College Going Urban Youth of Ludhiana” and found that there existed a positive relationship between religiosity and mental health of college going urban youth. A significant difference has been found in male and female teachers on the dimensions of sensitivity, anger, tension and mental health.
Okebukola and Jegeda (1989) in their study “A Study of Relationship between Stress and Well-Being in Teacher” had taken 1024 teachers in Nigeria, represents urban and rural area, new and old school, single sex and co-education schools.” and reported higher stress scores of females as compared to their male colleagues.

Das (1989) studied on “A Study of Mental Health of Teachers Serving in the Primary Schools of Puri Town” and concluded following results:

1. The school load on a large section of teachers was heavy.
2. Teachers felt that mental health depended on physical health.
3. The majority of teachers did part time job for more income.
4. The different pay scales created friction among teachers.
5. They expressed the view that a good social environment was necessary for good mental health.

Borg (1990) in "Occupational Stress in British Educational Settings - A Review" observes, conceptualizes teacher stress as negative and potentially harmful to teacher’s health. The key element in the definition is the teacher’s perception of threat based on the following 3 aspects of his job and circumstances:(1) that demands are being made on him (2) that he is unable to meet these demands threatens (3) his mental / physical well-being.

Chakraboraty (1990) in his study “A Study of Social Stress, Adjustment and Mental Health” concluded that mental health effect has a positive correlation with stress, anxiety, frustration.

King and King (1990) found that stress producing environment condition caused negligible effect on the psychological well-being and further suggested that there in a large amount of variance still to be accounted for producing tension / anxiety.

Warr (1990) investigated “The Measurement of Well-being and Other Aspects of Mental Health” and revealed the adverse effect of role stress on individual’s attitude, psychological well-being and behavior.

Kim-Yong (1990) studied “Korean-American Clergymen’s view on Mental Health, Fatigue and Performance of Industrial Workers.” They viewed mental illness
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as deficiencies in mental functioning caused by life stress. They believed that faith in God was the best means of prevention and treatment of illness.

Hipps and Smith (1990) studied “Relationships of Locus of Control and Stress related to Performance based Accreditation and Job Satisfactions and Burnout in Alabama Public School Teachers and Principals.” The results indicated that significant relationship existed between burnout and job stress related accreditation standards and locus of control.

Singh (1992) investigated “Principle of Adolescent’s Mental Health Perceived and practiced by Parents and Teachers” and observed a teacher with bad mental health not only tends to be capable himself for the performance of his multifarious duties in the school but creates difficulties and problems for his students.


Cooper and Kelley (1993) studied a wide range of senior educators ranging from primary school heads to the principals of higher educational institutions. Two main sources of occupational stress that emerged as predictors of teacher’s job dissatisfaction and made ill health were work load and handling relationship staff.

Dick, Manson and Beal (1993) in “Use of Alcohol among Male and Female Native American Adolescents: Patterns and Correlates of Students Drinking in a Boarding School” found that family support, stressful life events and emotional distress correlated significantly with use of alcohol which increases appetite and contains energy use.

Gupta and Bonnel (1993) conducted a study “A Study of Reading Ability in Relation to Academic Motivation and Socio-Economic Status of Students” and found that female college students distinguished on treatment between mental illness and other affections more than boys. Males believed more in efficiency of treatment while females perceived mental illness as likely to be attributable to inadequate, deprived or poor interpersonal experience.
Adler and Mathews (1994) studied on “Health Psychology: Why do some people are sick and some stay well?” and reported that individual who experience stress may be more susceptible to diseases. The evidence is strongest for cardiovascular diseases, infectious diseases and pregnancy complications.

Anand (1997) studied the “Effect of Mental Health Status on Occupational Stress of Higher Secondary School Teachers.” It was found that as mental health status improved, occupational stress decreased.

Sharma (1998) conducted a study on “The Study of Effect of Family Climate on the Academic Achievement, Adjustment and Reactions of Frustrations among Senior Secondary Students” and found that there is a significant correlation between family climate and overall adjustment of adolescents. The family climate is found to be quite effective in determining one’s level of academic achievement.

Sehgal and Sharma (1998): conducted “A Study of Gender Differences in Health, Well-Being, Stress and Coping” and reported that no gender differences existed on psychological well-being.

Sehgal (1999) “Self-Efficacy, Stress and Health: A Cross Gender Perspective” and compared stress, self-efficacy and health of boys and girls (college students). Unlike the present findings, boys were more stressed and scored higher on self-efficacy. No significant difference was observed between boys and girls on health states and well-being.

Rastogi and Kashyap (2001) investigated “Occupational Stress and Mental Health of Married Women Working in Teaching, Nursing and Clerical Professions.” It was found that there was higher occupational stress and poorer mental health among nurses as compared to other two professional groups. A significant negative relationship between occupational stress and mental health was observed among women employed in different professions.

John Boehner (2001) (The No Child Left behind Act passed by U.S. Dept. of Education) created a competitive climate in which our children are expected to rise to increasing levels of academic pressure while their mental health go largely underestimated and underserved. Research over the last decade has demonstrated that children who are suffering with serious emotional disturbances such as depression,
anxiety disorders, suicidal behavior, substance and alcohol abuse and post-traumatic stress disorder do not perform well academically as compared to their non-mentally ill peers.

Woodward and Fergusson (2001) This study examined associations between the extent of anxiety disorder in adolescence (14-16 years) and young people’s later risks of a range of mental health, educational and social-role outcomes (16-21 years). Significant linear associations were found between the number of anxiety disorder and a range of adverse outcomes in early adulthood. Even after taking into account the effects of confounding factors, significant associations remained between the presence of anxiety disorder reported in adolescence and failure to attend college or a training program after high school.

Verma, Kandhari and Sharma (2002) investigated “Occupational Stress and Mental Health Status among Army and Air Force Defense Personnel.” It was found that among the army personnel with poor mental health status, the majority used poor coping skills and experienced high occupational stress.

Poonamdeep (2004) studied on “Effect of Academic Stress on Mental Health, Self-Concept and Academic Achievement of Secondary School Students” and found that the academic stress does affect the mental health of the students.

Archana (2004) found that the variable of academic stress and health were found to be co-related, i.e., when academic stress increased among adolescents their health deteriorated.

Singh (2004) investigated “Impact of Anxiety on Mental Health” and found that there exists significant difference in anxiety of students of high school with respect to locale. However, mental health scores show no significant difference with respect to locale. There exists no significant gender difference among students of high school w.r.t. anxiety as well as mental health.

Grant; Steven; Gipson; Ford (2005) studied on “Adolescent Stress: The Relationship between Stress and Mental Health Problems” Although low levels of stressful life experiences are considered to be a normal part of development, higher levels can constitute a threat to the well-being and healthy development of children and adolescents. Adolescents are exposed to increased rates of stressful life
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experiences and there is some evidence that increases in stressors account, at least in part, for the increased rates of psychological problems associated with this developmental period.

Trujillo-Peru or Zavaleta Urquiza (2007) (An Original Child Health Survey) highlighted a relationship between mental health of overcrowding and poor housing quality and also increased level of life stress or alcohol misuse and community social problems.

Ellis, MacDonald, Lincoln, Cabral (2008) "Mental Health of Somali Adolescent Refugees: The Role of Trauma, Stress, and Perceived Discrimination" The primary purpose of this study was to examine relations between trauma exposure, post-resettlement stressors, perceived discrimination, and mental health symptoms in Somali adolescent refugees resettled in the U.S. Results indicated that cumulative trauma was related to PTSD and depression symptoms. Further, post-resettlement stressors, acculturative stressors, and perceived discrimination were also associated with greater PTSD symptoms after accounting for trauma, demographic, and immigration variables. Number of years since resettlement in the US and perceived discrimination were significantly related to depressive symptoms, after accounting for trauma, demographic, and immigration variables. Further research elucidating the relations between post-resettlement stressors, discrimination, and mental health of refugee adolescents may inform intervention development.

Ray (2008) in "Impact of Play Therapy on Parent-Child Relationship Stress at a Mental Health Training Setting" investigated the impact of Child-Centered Play Therapy (CCPT)/Non-Directive Play Therapy on parent-child relationship stress using archival data from 202 child clients divided into clinical behavioural groups over 3-74 sessions in a mental health training setting. Results demonstrated significant differences between pre and post testing on the "Parenting Stress Index." CCPT appeared to be especially effective with children identified with clinical externalizing behavioural problems, combined externalizing and internalizing behavioural problems, and children who were not categorized with clinical problem behaviours but whose parents sought counseling services for them.
Suldo, Elizabeth, Hardesty (2008) "Relationships among Stress, Coping, and Mental Health in High-Achieving High School Students" (EJ788480) This study investigates the relationships among stress, coping, and mental health in 139 students participating in an International Baccalaureate (IB) high school diploma program. Mental health was assessed using both positive indicators (life satisfaction, academic achievement, academic self-efficacy) and negative indicators (psychopathology) of adolescent’s social-emotional and school functioning. Findings include that students in an IB program perceive significantly more stress than a sample of 168 of their general education peers, and that specific coping styles are differentially related to mental health outcomes in this subgroup of high-achieving high school students.

Hiott; Davis; Quandt; Thomas (2008) "Migrant Farmworker Stress: Mental Health Implications" (EJ784401) Concluded: Specific categories of stressors (social isolation, working conditions) inherent in farmwork and the farmworker lifestyle are associated with mental health among immigrant farmworkers. Isolating specific categories of stressors helps in designing programs and practice for the prevention and management of mental health disorders in the immigrant, farmworker population.

Flores et. al. (2008) in “Perceived Discrimination, Perceived Stress, and Mental and Physical Health among Mexican-Origin Adults” (EJ813664) provided a test of the minority status stress model by examining whether perceived discrimination would directly affect health outcomes even when perceived stress was taken into account among 215 Mexican-origin adults. Perceived discrimination predicted depression and poorer general health, and marginally predicted health symptoms, when perceived stress was taken into account. Perceived stress predicted depression and poorer general health while controlling for the effects of perceived discrimination. The influence of perceived discrimination on general health was greater for men than women, and the effect of perceived stress on depression was greater for women than men. Results provide evidence that discrimination is a source of chronic stress above and beyond perceived stress, and the accumulation of these two sources of stress is detrimental to mental and physical health. Findings suggest that mental health and health practitioners need to assess for the effects of discrimination as a stressor along with perceived stress.
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Pudrovska (2009) studied “Parenthood, Stress, and Mental Health in Late Midlife and Early Old Age” Using 2 waves of the Wisconsin Longitudinal Study, I examine psychological consequences of potentially stressful, non-normative, or "off-time" aspects of the parental role in late midlife and early old age, including co-residence with adult children, step parenthood, and parental bereavement. Additionally, he analyze gender differences in psychological implications of these characteristics of parenthood. Findings from random-effects pooled time-series models indicate that having stepchildren is unrelated to older parents' mental health. Moreover, the psychological consequences of step parenthood do not depend on parental gender or the quality of parent-child relationships. Conversely, having at least 1 co-residential adult child of post-college age decreases psychological well-being among mothers but not among fathers. Death of a child has a detrimental effect on parents' mental health; yet, fathers are affected more adversely than mothers. The findings are interpreted with respect to family stress, parental role, and gendered role perspectives.

The above studies revealed that there is a major effect of mental health on stress, e.g., sense of security leads to good mental health, in other words, to lower stress or no stress. On the other hand, feeling of insecurity leads to poor mental health as well as high level of stress. Similarly poor relationship, better places of dwelling, psychological well-being, good accreditation, standards lead to better mental health as well low stress or vice-versa.

2.3 STUDIES RELATED TO STRESS AND HOME ENVIRONMENT

Baldwin (1949) conducted a study on “The Effect of Home Environment as Factor of Mental Health of School Children” To study their home atmosphere and its impact on child behavior, he concluded that children from democratic homes were more outgoing, active, competitive, resourceful and hence less stressed and frustrated.

Adler (1952) has strongly emphasized the important role of family environment in determining the life styles of individuals and reported that the variation in adjustment in different aspects of life shown by a child will contribute much by the type of family.
Richard (1954) studied on “The Relationship between Parental Behaviour and Children’s Achievement Behaviour” and found that parents who are praising, approving, showing more interest, understanding, closer to their children, their children are less frustrated and achieve high.

Sears, Maccoby and Levin (1957) in their study “Patterns and Child Rearing” found that it is the parent-child rearing practices that determine the nature of child development. Lower class parents when compared to middle class parents tended to be more punitive and restrictive and less interested in their children’s education and causes conflicts and stress.

Watson (1957) studied on “Some Personality Differences in Children related to Strict or Permissive Discipline” and found that children from more permissive families were rated as having significant initiative, independence, spontaneity and less frustration.

Silver (1958) investigated on “Parents Explain their Wards Failure- A Study” and stated that children who were closer to their parents were associated with an active and supportive style of family interaction and perceived their parents to be in harmony and showed little signs of anxiety and frustration.

Bandura and Walter (1959) “Child’s Age and Home Environment as factor of Mental Health” stated that rejective attitude towards children by their parents make them fearful, insecure, attention seeking, jealous, aggressive, hostile and lonely.

Hess and Britton (1961) studied “Parental Influence on Academic Achievement of the Students” and observed that the accepted children exhibited moderated competitive behavior and the rejected children exhibited either high or low competitive behavior. The low competitiveness led to frustration.

Marrow and William (1961) investigated on “Relationship between Some Background Factors and Children’s Interpersonal Attitude.” While analyzing the background of family factors stated more congenial home environment, lower parental domination and sympathetic parental encouragement has led to lesser frustration.
Watts and Wittaker (1966) studied “Impact on Family Environment on Behavior of Child” and conducted that much of the child’s behavior and his ideology views are shaped by his family environment.

Walter and Stinnett (1971) in “Parent Child Relationship- A Decade Review of Research” concluded that extreme strictness and low acceptance tended to be directly related to the level of frustration. Aggression, dependence and achievement are among the major variables that have been found to be related to home environment in the studies.

Crow and Crow (1977) conducted a study, “Aspiration Levels of and for Children; Age, Sex, Race and Socio-Economic Correlates” and observed that amount and kind of stimulation the child receives in home; exercise a strong influence on the child’s conceptual thinking, reality, language development and problem solving activities.

Reddy (1978) studied "Parental Educational Status and Adjustment of Children", and stated that there is a significant relationship between the level of adjustment in children, education of parents and level of frustration in children.

Tripathi (1978) investigated, “Frustration among School Going Children and Adolescents” and pointed out that students’ perception of guardian’s activities appeared to be fully related to the student activism.

Blhera (1980) studied “Conservation Ability of Children: Effects of Home Environment and Caste” and found that children from an enriched home environment performed better on conservation tasks than those from a poor home environment.

Sailer, Schlacter and Edwards (1982) investigated “Stress-Causes, Consequences and Coping Strategies” and found that stress can arise from many sources, viz., Family, home, individual, social environmental conditions and organizations. Stressors can arise due to role conflict, absence of organizational support etc. This leads to absenteeism, poor productivity, job dissatisfaction and poor organizational climate.

Cohen and Hoberman (1983) conducted a study on “Positive Events and Social Supports as Buffers of Life Change Stress.” He studied on stress mediating
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Factors that might dampen the impact of stressors on the immune system, have focused largely on the benefiting of social support, e.g., immune system functioning among students who can get emotional help from friends during stress appears better than among those with less adequate social support.

Bhatia (1984) in his study, “The Emotional, Personal and Social Problems of Adjustment of Adolescents under Indian Conditions with Special Reference to Value of Life” found that the family atmosphere was more tense and unhappy for girls in Indian environment. In families’ parents were more favorably inclined towards boys. Harris et. al. (1985) the available data increasingly indicate that stress within the teaching profession may affect not the physical and emotional well-being of a teacher and his/her family but also the school as an organization itself.

Bhargava (1986) analyzed the development of values in a concrete and formal operational period and related it to home environment as a positive contributing factor for its acceleration.

Gupta and Verma (1990) concluded that boys belonging to good home environment achieve significantly greater than boys belonging to poor home environment.

Padhi (1989) studied on “Home Environment, Parent-Child Relationship and Children's Competence during Adolescence” and found that various dimensions of the home environment were found to be significantly interrelated, which indicated that the home environment was not a single dimension but a composite form of various dimensions.

Shah (1989) conducted a study on “Adolescents School Adjustment-The Effect of Family Climate.” It revealed that family climate does affect one’s level of home environment.

Kamau (1992) studied on “Burnout; Locus of Control and Mental Health of Teachers in Eastern Province of Kenya” and found that male teachers, who were emotionally over extended, exhausted, internally controlled, anxiety ridden, callous towards students, more personally accomplished and less capable of establishing constructive relationships. They are more capable of coping with ordinary demands.
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and stress of life as compared to females. Urban high school teachers were less emotionally over-extended, less satisfied, more internally controlled, and anxious, had poorer mental health than rural teachers. Government school teachers, trained, married and those with internal control were more concerned with their well-beings, less anxious, less emotionally over extended, more competent and internally controlled than their counterparts.

Padmasri (1992) investigated on “Stressful Life Events in School Systems and Educational Development in Children.” (1) He found stress among boys and girls differed significantly, boys being higher on the mean stress scores. (2) The factors which yielded significant correlations were sex and family support, stress and family support, stress and general health, stress and locus of control, family stress and academic achievement.

Singh and Broota (1992) found that girls were more test anxious, worrisome and emotional than boys. Parental pressure and the parent’s professional background also influence the degree of test anxiety experienced.

Karambayya and Anne (1993): investigated on “Dual Earner Couples: Attitudes and Actions in Restructuring Work for Family.” They concluded that working couples, whose members had high level of family involvement, were experiencing high levels of marital satisfaction and low levels of stress.

Larson (1994) conducted “A Role of Emotional Regulation in Copying with Chronic and Uncontrollable Life Stressor” and suggested that regulation of emotional distress might be of particular utility for individual faced with largely intractable life stressors.

Baratha (1997) found that girls are better adjusted in home environment than boys. Educationally the high achiever students have better adjustment in home environment than the educationally backward students.

Sharma (1998) conducted a study “The Study of Effect of Family Climate on the Academic Achievement, Adjustment and Reactions to Frustrations among Senior Secondary Students” and found that there is a significant correlation between family climate and overall adjustment of adolescents. The family climate is found to be quite effective in determining one’s level of academic achievement.
Fletcher; Steinberg and Seller (1999) High school students reported separately on mother’s and father’s responsiveness and demanding ness and their own academic achievement and engagement, involving in problem behavior, psychological development, and internalized distress. Mothers and fathers were classified as authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, or indifferent, and adolescents from homes characterized by different types of inter parental consistent. Adolescents with one authoritative parent exhibited greater academic competence than did peers with parents who were consistent but not authoritative. Adolescents with one authoritative and one with no authoritative parent exhibited greater concurrent internalized distress than did youth from consistent homes.

Hack (1999) children feel stress long before they grew up. Many children have to cope with family conflict, divorce, constant changes in schools, neighborhoods and childcare arrangements, peer-pressure and sometimes even violence in their homes or communities.

Watkins and Lisa (1999) studied on “A Descriptive Study of Parent-Stress, Depression and social support in relation to Parental Practices” and hypothesized that parental stress, depression, and social support would be significantly related to hostile, inductive, behavior, and permissive parenting practices, with gender differences between fathers and mothers in the relationship between these variables. Multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine the predictive ability of parental stress, depression, and social support in relation to each of the four categories of parenting practices. Qualitative analysis was conducted and two themes emerged as important variables in understanding parenting practices identified as frustration and lack of control over the parent – child interaction. These variables were quantified to be used in further analyses.

Whitney and Scott (1999) studied on “The Effect of Childhood, Sexual Abuse and Family Environment on Present and Future Possible Selves (Self-Concept)” and found that family environment appeared to contribute to well-being in present and future and also concluded that home involvement in educational activities and independence given to children by allowing them to make a decision to be significantly related to children’s academic intrinsic motivation.
Yadav and Patel (1999) studied "Interacted Effect of Home Environment and Locality on Creativity" and concluded that high level of favorable home environment plays a significant role in developing creative abilities.

Benzies (2001) in her study "Relationship of Home Environment to Child's Behavioural Development" found that economic instability, marital conflict, chronic illness in the family, issues of parenting in the family in the origin and lack of support for parenting, influence the development of child's behavioral problems leading to anxiety and frustration in the children.

Barton (2001) studied "Home Environment, time, since Diagnosis and Gender as Predictors of Psycho- Social Adaptation of Cancer Patients" and found that the home environment was measured by the patient's perceived level of cohesion, expressiveness and conflict in the family. Results showed that the home environment is a significant predictor of psychological adaptation in cancer patients.

Kaur (2001) in her study “Home environment as Conducive to Mental Health” found that home environment is partially conductive to mental health of school students.”

Robert (2001) in the investigation “Parental Attachment, Family Conflict, Anxiety and Separation- Individualization during Late Adolescence” found that these are key components that determine the psychological adjustment of the emerging adults. This study investigated whether anxiety influences the relationship between parental attachment, family conflict and separation- Individualization.

Anxiety was negatively correlated with parental attachment and with lack of conflict. Anxiety was also correlated with three of the four separation-Individualization outcomes. In specific cases, anxiety mediated the relationship between adolescent’s attachment to parents and separation- Individualization and between adolescent’s lacks of conflict with parents and separation- Individualization.

Witt (2001) “Family Stressors, Psycho-Social Functioning and Mental Health Care Utilization among Disabled Children” focused on the interrelationships of childhood disability, maternal depression and family socio-demographic factors. Family stressors have a profound impact on the psycho-social status and mental health care of disabled children. The family has a significant impact on the psycho-social
adjustment of disabled children and is also a key resource for helping maladjusted children to obtain access to mental health services.

Chadha (2003) in her study “Psycho-Social Correlates of Frustration among Students of Professional Colleges” concluded that psycho-social correlates of anxiety, achievement; adjustment and family environment contribute to 97% of the frustration in students of professional colleges.

Rani (2003) in her study “Achievement of Standard VII Students in Hindi with respect of Academic Stress and Home Environment” found that stress is significantly related to home environment of students. There is significantly negative correlation between I.Q. and academic stress, attitude and academic stress was also reported by the study. She reported significant negative correlation between achievement in Hindi and academic stress in case of 7th standard students. Study also reported that stress is significantly related to home environment of students.

Ming and Frederick (2005) studied "Predicate Change in Adolescent Adjustment from Change in Marital Problems" and conclude that increase in marital distress is as harmful for adolescent adjustment as increase in marital conflict and consequently harmful environment at home.

Julie (2005) studied "Husband and Wives Marital Adjustment, Verbal Aggression and Physical Aggression as Longitudinal Predictors of Physical Aggression in Early Marriage Findings" and suggested that prior verbal aggression and physical aggression by both partners are important but do not support the role marital adjustment as a unique predictor of subsequent physical aggression. Results also failed to support physical aggression as a unique predictor at marital adjustment and the after that, is uncongenial environment at home.

Elfert; Mirenda (2006) “The Experiences of Behavior Interventionists Who Work with Children with Autism in Families’- Homes” This study examined the experiences of 65 behavior interventionists (BIs) who provide 1:1 home-based instruction to children with autism in two Canadian provinces. Dependent variables included occupational stress; the relationships among stress, strain, and coping; the relationship between stress and the characteristics of both challenging families and children with autism; and the most and least rewarding aspects of BIs jobs. The two
most stressful work roles for BIs were role overload (the extent to which job demands exceed personal/workplace resources) and role boundary (the extent to which the individual experiences conflicting role demands at work). Significant relationships were found between coping and both stress and strain; however, coping did not moderate the relationship between stress and strain. Significant correlations were found between BI stress and both sensory-related behaviors and social unrelatedness in children with autism.

Jaffee; Caspi; Moffitt; Tomas and Taylor (2007) “Individual, Family, and Neighborhood Factors Distinguish Resilient from Non-Resilient Maltreated Children: A Cumulative Stressors Model” Results are Resilient children were those who engaged in normative levels of antisocial behavior despite having been maltreated. Boys (but not girls) who had above-average intelligence and whose parents had relatively few symptoms of antisocial personality were more likely to be resilient versus non-resilient to maltreatment. Children whose parents had substance use problems and who lived in relatively high crime neighborhoods that were low on social cohesion and informal social control were less likely to be resilient versus non-resilient to maltreatment. Consistent with a cumulative stressor’s model of children's adaptation, individual strengths distinguished resilient from non-resilient children under conditions of low, but not high, family and neighborhood stress.

Gibbons; Reimer; Gerrard; Yeh; Houlihan; Cutrona; Simons; Brody (2007) “Rural-Urban Differences in Substance Use among African-American Adolescents” Findings are perceived substance availability and use were both higher among the more urban adolescents. As expected, negative affect was a primary antecedent to use at each wave. Structural Equation Modeling indicated that the relation between population and use was mediated by perceived availability of the substances. Additional multigroup analyses indicated that the relations between negative affect and use were significantly stronger among the urban adolescents at all waves. Concluded results suggest that stress or negative affect is an important antecedent to use among African-American adolescents, especially when it occurs at an early age, but living in rural areas may be a buffer for both problems, in part, because exposure to this type of risk is lower in these environments.
Kaur (2007) observed, "A Study of Academic Achievement in Relation to Home Environment, Parental Involvement and Socio-Economic Status" and found that there is a close relationship between academic achievement and home environment. She concluded that parental involvement and socio-economic status affect the academic achievement a lot.

Kaur (2007) conducted a study on "Impact of Home Environment on Emotional Maturity and Self-Concept of Adolescents" and found that urban boys have more control, protective punishment conformity than rural boys. Rural boys were more socially isolated and rejected in home than urban boys and found that urban girls have more deprivation of privileges and permissiveness in home than rural girls.

Sussman; Regehr (2009) “The Influence of Community-Based Services on the Burden of Spouses Caring for Their Partners with Dementia” (EJ831244) Despite the vast literature on caregiver stress, few studies have explored how community services affect the stress process for spousal caregivers. The current study explored the differential effects of emotional and tangible support provided by family and friends and by formal services, and caregivers' perceptions of community.

Broadhead; Roy; Catriona (2009) “Understanding Parental Stress within the Scallywags Service for Children with Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties” (EJ855883) The Scallywags service works specifically within home and school environments to promote parent, teacher and child competencies for children at risk of developing behavioral and/or emotional problems. The scheme has been successfully evaluated, demonstrating significant reductions in parental stress for parents involved in the Emotional & Behavioral Difficulties.

Deater-Deckard; Mullineaux; Charles; Petrill; Schachtsneider; Thompson (2009) conducted study on “Problems, IQ, and Household Chaos: A Longitudinal Multi-Informant Study” (EJ855349) We tested the hypothesis that household chaos would be associated with lower child IQ and more child conduct problems concurrently and longitudinally over two years while controlling for housing conditions, parent education/IQ, literacy environment, parental warmth/negativity, and stressful events.
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From the above studies, we can conclude that home environment has too much effect on the individual and his/her behavior. If the atmosphere of home is congenial and democratic, teacher trainees will become more active, outgoing, competitive, resourceful, adjusted, happy and hence less stressed and frustrated. Whereas rejective attitude, parental domination, low family income quarrel between parents make the children fearful, insecure, jealous restless, irritable, aggressively hostile, lonely which adversely affect the mental health and in the long run causes stress.

2.4 STUDIES RELATED TO STRESS AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Bhan (1972): explored factors in social and emotional intelligence as related to emotional security-insecurity syndrome among 30 secure and 30 insecure post graduate students. It was found that among insecure sample 33% found faults in them, 31% had inadequate attitude towards siblings, 47% worried about health, influenced the degree of test anxiety experienced.

Delongie (1985) studied “The Relationship of Everyday Stress to Mental Heath and Well-Being.” He observed that everyday stress was linked with depression, somatic symptoms and health problems. Results indicated that those who received low emotional support from family, friends, co-workers were about twice as likely to develop mental heath and stress problems as compared to those who have high emotional support.

Kashyap (1989) "Psychological Determinants of Adolescents Problem" investigated some psychological determinants of adolescent’s problem. She found youth problems were positively related to anxiety, frustration, emotional maturity, etc and negatively related to achievement, difference by gender and locale were clear in respect of sense of security with rural boys having its best.

Porwal and Aggarwal (1989) studied “Are Aggressive Persons Maladjusted?” They observed the adjustment pattern of 50 high aggressive and low aggressive degree students of Firozabad and studied for adjustment in five different areas, viz., home, health, social, emotional and difference in the total adjustment. The results of
the study indicated that high aggressive group was significantly maladjusted in all the five areas particularly in the case of home and emotional adjustment.

Gupta (1990) studied “A Study of Frustration in Relation to Adjustment and Achievement of Adolescents in Lucknow City.” He found a negative correlation between frustration and achievement. Emotionally mature students achieve better (Gupta, 1989) than those who are not emotionally mature. Stress is negatively related to achievement.

Panda (1990) found that working house-wives felt greater emotional exhaustion while non-working house wives felt greater depersonalization but less stress. It was concluded that working house-wives have more stress as compared to non-working house-wives.

Arora (1992) found that extra marital relationship, unfulfilled emotions, excessive leisure, money, tension, frustration, alienation, neglect of basic needs, anxiety and bereavement were the main cause of drug dependence and ultimately caused stress.

Bhatia (1992) investigated “The Significant Effect of Anxiety on Adjustment Level of Male and Female Degree College Students in Age Range of 18-22 years.” He concluded that an anxiety has a significant impact on the level of adjustment in all areas, i.e., home, emotional, educational and social.

Nowicki and Duke (1992) studied, “Achievement Determinants among High School Students.” It was found out that low level empathy, handling stress, self-confidence, self-acceptance, group dynamic and control on emotions were associated with poor school achievement.

Gottman (1993) examined that family life is the first school of learning and found that those couples that are emotionally competent in their marriage were also effective in helping their children in their emotional ups and downs. Such children get along better with, show more affection towards and have less tension around their parents.
Wederich (1995) studied “Social Support, Locus of Control, Well-being, Stress and Strain” and found that subjects with higher well-being had less stress and strain than subjects with lower well-being.

Finnegan (1998) in his study "Measuring Emotional Intelligence: Where We All Are Today" found that emotional intelligence could lead to achievement from formal educational years of child and adolescents to the adults competency in being effectively in the work place and society.

Stardom (1999) conducted a study, “Emotional Intelligence in Psychological and Educational Perspective.” The aim of the study was to describe an emotional intelligence in psychological, educational terms and to analyze the emotional quotient profile of adolescents who experience the emotional problems and found that adolescent experienced emotional problems like other reasons as depression, aggression and emotional literacy. He suggested that educational psychologists could use the instrument as diagnostic and can plan therapy sessions according to these results.

Gardener (1999) conducted “The Study of Intelligence, Referred Multiple Intelligence for 21 Century.” He asserts that emotional intelligence is a part of both the personal egos, interpersonal and interpersonal intelligence.

Stein and Book (2000) studied on, “Emotional Quotient Edge: Emotional Intelligence and Your Success.” They tested 4,888 working people in various occupations through out North America and found that emotional quotient can account for 15% to 45% of work success. The findings of the study also reveal that the successful people score significantly higher in emotional quotient than unsuccessful people.

Kaur (2001): conducted a study on “Psychological Problems of Adolescents of Working and Non-Working Women in Relation to their Emotional Intelligence.” A sample of 100 adolescents was taken. She concluded that the adolescents of working mothers are better adjusted than adolescents of non-working mothers.
Miglani (2001) studied "Emotional Intelligence as Related to Academic Achievement of Adolescents" and found that there is no significant difference between emotional intelligence of male and female adolescents. There is a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement of adolescents.

Ahuja (2002) reported no significant interaction between strategies of teaching and emotional intelligence.

Allen (2002) Investigated “Emotional Intelligence of Children; Exploring its Relationship with Cognitive Intelligence” He studied about the relationship between cognitive intelligence and emotional intelligence of sixty children in age group of 9-12 years and found that there is significance positive relationship between emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence.

Gill and Ghosh (2003) have described that children with high E.Q. are more confident, are better learner, have higher self-esteem, have few behavioral problems and are successful entrepreneur, one need to have a high emotional intelligence.

Bansibihari and Pathan (2004) in his study of "Emotional Intelligence of 500 Secondary Teachers," reported nearly 98% of teachers had low emotional intelligence. There was no significant difference between emotional intelligence of male and female teachers and age was independent of E.Q.

Mandeep (2004) in her study "Impact of Emotional Intelligence on the Well-Being of Female Teachers" found that no significant difference exists between rural and urban teachers in emotional intelligence.

Tyagi (2004) "Emotional Intelligence of Secondary Teachers in Relation to Gender and Age" found no significant difference in the level of emotional intelligence of male and female senior secondary teachers.

Behera (2005) found that there is a significant positive relationship between teacher effectiveness and emotional intelligence of junior college teachers as a whole and with the various dimensions of teacher.
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Katyal and Awasthi (2005) conducted a study on “Gender Differences in Emotionally Intelligence among Adolescents of Chandigarh,” and found that majority of boys, girls and total sample had good followed by low emotional intelligence. Girls were found to have higher emotional intelligence than that of boys.

Santesso et. al. (2006) found that boys had significantly lower emotional intelligence than girls and low emotional intelligence was associated with significantly more externalizing behaviors (i.e. aggressive and delinquency) and ultimately to stress.

Fernandez (2006) in his study “The Role of Emotional Intelligence in Anxiety and Depression among Adolescents” examined the relationship between emotional intelligence, anxiety and depression among adolescents and found that emotional abilities are more important and uniquely contributes to psychological adjustments.

Jain and Singh (2006) conducted “Effect of Emotional Intelligence and Personality Type on Role-Stress among Medico Couple: Behavioral Scientist” and found significant effects of emotional intelligence and personality type on role stress: the interaction effect is also found significant.

Kaur and Jaswal (2006) conducted a study on strategic emotional intelligence of Punjabi adolescents. Results revealed that majority (86%) of the respondents exhibited high performance level of understanding emotions of remaining were almost equally distributed over the next two levels i.e. competent and consider developing. Further high performance for understanding emotions does not guarantee high performance for both understanding and managing emotions make an individual high performer for strategic emotional intelligence.

Young (2006) conducted “A Study of Emotional Intelligence, Moral Judgment and Leadership of Academically Gifted Adolescents” and suggested that emotionally intelligent and gifted males were comparable to the students in the age normative sample and regardless of gender; gifted students had higher scores on adaptability but low scores on stress management.
Upadhyaya (2006) studied on "Personality of Emotional Intelligence of Student Teachers" and concluded that student-teachers with low emotional intelligence are more uneasy and worried about future unhappy feeling and failures; are less cautious, irregular and like to take more rest, strain others, have lack of energy and feel tired and uninterested and conform to the opinion or accepted path taken by most peoples with high emotional intelligence, are more competent and have more self-confidence, hard working, help others with constructive ways, more motivated, energetic and full of enthusiasm and turn away from accepted or given path or opinion.

Patil and Kumar (2006) “Emotional Intelligence among Student-Teachers in Relation to Sex, Faculty and Academic Achievement” and concluded that:

1. There is no significant difference between emotional intelligence of male and female student-teachers.
2. There is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of student teachers of arts and science faculty.
3. There is no significant relationship between the emotional intelligence and academic achievement of student-teachers.

Matthews; Emo; Funke; Zeidner; Roberts; Costa; Schulze(2006) “Emotional Intelligence, Personality, and Task-Induced Stress”(EJ741197) Emotional intelligence (EI) may predict stress responses and coping strategies in a variety of applied settings. This study compares EI and the personality factors of the Five Factor Model (FFM) as predictors of task-induced stress responses. Participants (N = 200) were randomly assigned to 1 of 4 task conditions, 3 of which were designed to be stressful. Results confirmed that low EI was related to worry states and avoidance coping, even with the FFM statistically controlled. However, EI was not specifically related to task-induced changes in stress state. Results also confirmed that Neuroticism related to distress, worry, and emotion-focused coping, and Conscientiousness predicted use of task-focused coping. The applied utility of EI and personality measures is discussed.
Lee; Olszewski - Kubilius (2006) “The Emotional Intelligence, Moral Judgment, and Leadership of Academically Gifted Adolescents” (EJ750760) Using 3 psychological scales, this study examined the level of emotional intelligence, moral judgment, and leadership of more than 200 gifted high school students who participated in an accelerative academic program or an enrichment leadership program through a university-based gifted institute. Major findings include that on emotional intelligence, gifted males were comparable to students in the age normative sample, while gifted females lagged behind the norm group. Regardless of gender, gifted students had higher scores on adaptability but lower scores on stress management and impulse control ability compared to the normative sample. On moral judgment, gifted students were comparable to the level of individuals with masters or professional degrees, and they showed an above-average level of leadership compared to the normative sample. No differences were found in students' scores on the 3 scales by the type of program (academic versus leadership).

Merrell; Parisi; Whitcomb (2007) “Strong Start--Grades K-2: A Social and Emotional Learning Curriculum” (ED497270) Social-emotional competence - it is a critical part of every child's school success, and just like any academic subject, children need instruction in it. Developed by a top expert, these proven curricula will help promote the social-emotional competence and resilience of children and adolescents. Divided into four age levels from kindergarten through high school, these innovative social and emotional learning curricula are filled with engaging, thought-provoking class activities that help students develop vital skills they will use for the rest of their lives: understanding emotions, managing anger, relieving stress, solving interpersonal problems, and much more. Each Strong Kids curriculum is: (1) easy for non-mental-health experts; (2) evidence-based; (3) a great way to boost academic skills; (4) brief enough to fit into any program; (5) age-appropriate; (6) effective for all children in any setting; and (7) low-cost and low-tech. Lessons in each curriculum include optional, easily adaptable scripts, sample scenarios and examples, creative activities, and "booster" lessons that reinforce what students learned. Every school and early intervention program will benefit from the lasting effect of these four
curricula: strong, resilient students with fewer mental health and behavior problems and better academic outcomes.

Caur (2008): “Emotional Intelligence of Teacher Trainees in relation to their Perceived Stress and Life Satisfaction”. The study was conducted on 100 teacher trainees. Study revealed emotional intelligence and life satisfaction of teacher trainees were found to be positively co-related with each other.

Chan (2008) in the study “Emotional Intelligence, Self-Efficacy, and Coping among Chinese Prospective and In-Service Teachers in Hong Kong” (EJ799375) Emotional intelligence (intrapersonal and interpersonal) and general teacher self-efficacy were assessed to represent personal resources facilitating active and passive coping in a sample of 273 Chinese prospective and in-service teachers in Hong Kong. Interpersonal emotional intelligence and interpersonal emotional intelligence were found to predict significantly active coping strategy, but teacher self-efficacy did not contribute independently to the prediction of active coping even though there was some evidence that teacher self-efficacy might interact with interpersonal emotional intelligence in the prediction of active coping, especially for male teachers. The implications of the findings for preventive intervention efforts to combat teacher stress through teaching to enhance emotional intelligence are discussed.

Sameer (2008) found in his studies that students have an average emotional quotients and low level of family related psychological problems.

Singh, Chaudhary and Asthana (2008) in his studies found that there is significant difference in emotional intelligence of rural and urban adolescents. This study also indicating urban adolescents are better than their rural counterparts. Male and female adolescents exhibit same emotional intelligence.

Mishra, Rao and Bhatpahri (2008) in his studies found that there is no significant difference in emotional intelligence of urban and rural girls.

Tait (2008) “Resilience as a Contributor to Novice Teacher Success, Commitment, and Retention” (EJ838701) Novice teachers often struggle in their first year. Some succumb to illness, depression, or burnout and some even decide to
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abandon teaching as a career option. The classic stressors identified by new teachers have been remarkably consistent over the years, and their challenges have been well chronicled. Less has been written, however, about the "human strengths" that novice teachers demonstrate when they confront and overcome the stress of first-year teaching. In this article, the author focuses on novice teachers' resilience as one of the assets that many beginners bring to their first teaching position and on the relationship between resilience and two related human strengths, personal efficacy and emotional competence. She briefly reviews the literature on resilience, personal efficacy, and emotional intelligence, and these three concepts are compared and contrasted within the context of novice teacher success and retention. She uses the profile of a novice teacher in Toronto, Ontario, to illustrate how beginning teachers cope with problems and overcome difficulties, remain optimistic about their choice of profession, and commit to teaching over the long term. She discusses possible implications for faculties of education, school boards, and schools. Finally, she makes several suggestions for future research.

Deniz; Tras; Aydogan (2009) “An Investigation of Academic Procrastination, Locus of Control, and Emotional Intelligence” (EJ847770) In this research, the effects of emotional intelligence on the academic procrastination and locus of control tendencies of a group of university students are investigated. The sample of this study consists of 435 university students including 273 female students and 162 male students who were randomly selected from the population of Selcuk University students. The age range of the students varies in between 17-21 years old and the mean age is 20.19 years old. A personal information form, the Emotional Intelligence Scale, the Academic Procrastination Scale and the Locus of Control Scale were administered to the sample. Research findings show that the sub-scales of the Emotional Intelligence Scale, adaptability and coping with stress, are highly correlated with the students' academic procrastination tendency scores (p less than 0.05). Secondly, it was found that the two sub-scales of the Emotional Intelligence Scale, adaptability and general mood, could significantly predict the students' locus of control scores (p less than 0.05). Lastly, a negative correlation was found between
emotional intelligence skills and both academic procrastination (p less than 0.05) and locus of control (p less than 0.01).

The above studies showed that the more emotionally intelligent the person is the less will be the stress. If a person has low emotional intelligence, he could not handle his/ her emotions intelligently. He has manifold emotional problems like depression, aggression and emotional illiteracy that enhance stress. Activities like role ambiguity, work overload, role conflicts that is the backbone of emotional intelligence and are also related to burnout dimensions of emotional exhaustion which ultimately leads to stress.


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girls as compared to boys in Indian environment. On the other hand, Padmashri (1992) found boys were more tense (stressful).


There was no such study which was on relationship of mental health, home environment and emotional intelligence with stress. Hence, the present study was conducted with the following hypotheses:

2.5 HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

The following will be the hypotheses:

1. There will be a significant difference in the mean scores of stress among teacher trainees, w.r.t.
   (a) rural and urban areas
   (b) males and females

2. There will be a significant difference in the mean scores of mental health among teacher trainees, w.r.t.
   (a) rural and urban areas
   (b) males and females

3. There will be a significant difference in the mean scores of home environment among teacher trainees, w.r.t.
   (a) rural and urban areas
   (b) males and females
4 There will be a significant difference in the mean scores of emotional intelligence among teacher trainees w.r.t.
   (a) rural and urban areas
   (b) males and females

5 There exist significant relationship between stress and mental health of teacher trainees w.r.t.
   (a) rural areas.
   (b) urban areas
   (c) males
   (d) females

6 There exist significant relationship between stress and home environment of teacher trainees w.r.t.
   (a) rural areas.
   (b) urban areas
   (c) males
   (d) females

7 There exist significant relationship between stress and emotional intelligence of teacher trainees w.r.t.
   (a) rural areas.
   (b) urban areas
   (c) males
   (d) females

8 The independent variables of mental health, home environment and emotional intelligence differentially predict stress among teacher trainees.
   (a) Significant variance towards stress among rural teacher trainees was contributed by major correlates such as mental health, home environment and emotional intelligence.
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(b) Significant variance towards stress among urban teacher trainees was contributed by major correlates such as mental health, home environment and emotional intelligence.

(c) Significant variance towards stress among male teacher trainees was contributed by major correlates such as mental health, home environment and emotional intelligence.

(d) Significant variance towards stress among female teacher trainees was contributed by major correlates such as mental health, home environment and emotional intelligence.

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