A systematic review of the ecological and longitudinal methods to study daily stress



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Abstract

The objective was to review the methods used to assess daily stress, focusing on the types records used, as well as the methods used to describe daily stressors, the ways to operationally define stress, and the different research approaches. A search for quantitative research articles published between January 2008 and December 2017 was carried out on indexed entries of four electronic databases. Of the 254 publications found in the search after duplicates were removed, eft 57 articles were selected to analyse. A large diversity of recording methods was detected, a single daily record for a week being the most frequently used. The different ways to operationalize stress highlight the different implicit definitions of stress: the number or intensity of stressful event refers to stress as an external factor, negative feelings refer to the individual's responses, and reactivity or "pile-up" are related to the process by which stress develops over time. Such variation suggests that stress is not a precise concept that can be assessed by a single measure, stress is rather a generic label for the complex process of adaptation to specific situations. The first one is that it can be concluded that stress is a process that explains the short- and long-term effects of exposure to stressors on health and wellbeing through a complex chain of mediators and moderators. The second point is that although it is known that the changes produced in stressful situations are adaptive at first, studies of the negative side of stress prevail. And the third point is that the studies analysed were not reduced to the analysis of the stress process or of any particular aspect of stress but rather, the evaluation of daily stress served to study other processes with marked social and affective components.

Keywords: coping; experience; methodology; psychological distress; stress

Introduction

Daily stress builds up as the minor stressors experienced over the course of everday life accumulate (Serido, Almeida, & Wethington, 2004). These daily stressors can range from trivial occurances to highly significant events, and they are related to irritating, challenging, or anxiety-producing demands upon individuals in the course of their daily interactions with their environment. Moreover, the consequences of these interactions depend largely on how the individual perceives them, yet it is likely that no one's life is entirely free of stressors (Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer, & Lazarus, 1981).

It has been noted that exposure to everyday stressors, the emotional reactions to such stressors, and the accumulation and assimilation of the minor stresses that arise in the course of everyday life all affect the individuals health and well-being. Indeed, it has been proposed that daily stress has as similar or stronger impact on the individual than major life events (Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler, & Schilling, 1989; DeLongis, Coyne, Dakof, Folkman, & Lazarus, 1982; Segerstrom & O'Connor, 2012; Wagner, Compas, & Howell, 1988.)

The use of methods based on real-time data collection allow everyday life to be examined by capturing events as they occur, enabling the generation of models of their evolution over time (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013). Such longitudinal methodologies have been used for many years, initially taking the form of paper and pencil diaries and currently through smart phones. Such studies first appeared in the 1940s (See Bolger, Davis, and Rafaeli, 2003) and historically, they have been identified with the Experience-Sampling Method (ESM: (Csikszentmihalyi & Larson, 1992), the Ecological Momentary Assessment (EMA) method (Stone & Shiffman, 1994), the Day Reconstruction Method (Kahneman, Krueger, Schkade, Schwarz, & Stone, 2004) and other intensive longitudinal methods (Bolger, Davis, & Rafaeli, 2003; Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013). The use of these approaches to analyze exposure to stressors and emotional reactions, using simple questionnaires and pencil and paper diaries, was boosted towards the end of the last century (Bolger et al., 1989), since when the body of literature in this area has proliferated. Given the amount of research that has been published on this topic, it is now possible to design instruments to assess daily stressors whose use can be supported by established evidence of utility and validity (Mehl & Conner, 2012). Particular breakthroughs have been made in modernizing these methods and in how to analyze the data they record (Bolger &

Laurenceau, 2013). However, because the body of research on daily stress is so diverse, it is hard to arrive at firm conclusions regarding several basic issues, including how many times a day to take measurements, once at the end of the day or several times throughout the day. Likewise, it is unclear whether data on all the stressors that arise in different contexts throughout the day should be collected, whether it is better to ask the respondent to provide a description of the stressor, or whether the participant should simply select the stressor from a checklist.

The lack of agreement on to the operational definition of daily stress most likely explains the differences in how and how often daily stress should be assessed (Rodrigues, Kaiseler, & Queirós, 2015; Crosswell & Lockwood, 2020). It has been proposed that stress arises when individuals perceive that they cannot adequately cope with the demands of a situation (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988), a definition that means stress cannot be reduced to mere exposure to an event or a reaction to such an event. In terms of daily stress, there is a clear aim to capture the specific events, yet the question as to what daily stress is remains unresolved. Several, different responses to this question have been proposed, and one is to operationalize stress as exposure and consider the number of events that happen (Hankin, 2010). Another approach is the subjective evaluation of the importance or severity of these events (Aldridge-Gerry et al., 2011), whereas a further option is to define daily stress as the amount of negative feeling experienced from day-to-day (Gartland et al., 2014). Finally, daily stress could be considered a more sophisticated version of this last option, where it is computed as the change (mostly negative) in the mood of the individual produced by daily events, previously defined as reactivity (Bolger et al., 1989).

Empirical research on daily stress has been approached from different ways, as well. Traditionally, the most important approach of the stress research has been to point out its effects on health and wellbeing. Further, the approaches based of the identification of moderators and mediators of stress are also outstanding. So the considerations about assessment and operational definition of stress have to be done taking in account the approach of each study.

Therefore, the main aim of this review was to summarize the current ecological and longitudinal methods available to assess psychological aspects of daily stress, focusing on the different types records used

and their periodicity/duration, as well as the methods used to describe daily stressors, the different ways to operationally define daily stress, and the different research approaches. In the light of the information obtained, it should be possible to identify lines of improving the daily stress assessment and research. While studies on daily stress based on records of physiological responses have been reviewed previously (Rodrigues et al., 2015; Kudielka, Gierens, Hellhammer, Wüst, & Schlotz, 2012), this review will center on the psychological aspects of daily stress, which have received less attention to date and for which there is little consensuses regarding operative definitions (Crosswell & Lockwood, 2020).

Methods

Search strategy

A search for quantitative research articles published between January 2008 and December 2017 was carried out on indexed entries of four electronic databases: Web of Science, PychInfo, Scopus and Medline. The search was performed with the terms: (hassle* OR "daily hassle*" OR "daily stress*") AND (diar* OR "daily diary" OR "longitudinal study" OR "intensive longitudinal method" OR "ecological momentary assessment"). All the publications found in this manner were extracted using Endnote X4 software and after excluding repeated articles, the 254 remaining articles were examined for their suitability (see below).

Inclusion and exclusion criteria

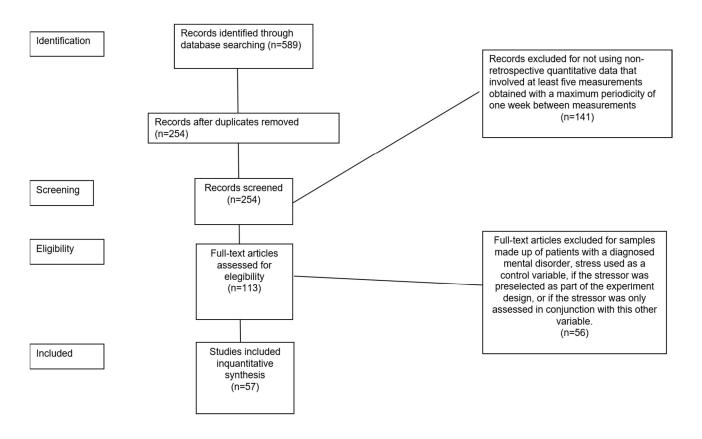
The following criteria were applied to include a publication in this study: the use of repeated quantitative data that involved at least five measurements obtained with a maximum periodicity of one week between measurements. The publications must also be written in English. Articles meeting these criteria were nonetheless excluded if they used samples made up of patients with a diagnosed mental disorder, or if the stressor was preselected as part of the experiment design. This latter criterion was applied as this study aimed to examine stressors that arise in all contexts of life and not just in a selected context. In addition, publications were also excluded when the stressor was subordinate to another variable and thus, was only assessed in conjunction with this other variable (e.g., cortisol, smoking or compulsive shopping).

In the first phase of the review process, publications were pre-selected based on their titles and abstracts. Subsequently, they were reviewed independently by four experts in the field to determine their final inclusion or exclusion. These experts applied the list of criteria to the pre-selected articles, on this occasion reviewing the full text and settling any disagreements by consensus.

Coding

The information contained in the selected articles was coded in a table with the following items: authors and year, aim, sample size, recorded days, record per day, stressor description method, operational definitions, and research approach.

Figure 1: - Flow chart of the selection of articles through the different phases of the systematic review.



Results

Type and duration of daily stress measurements

The number and frequency of the records used in the distinct studies that took measurements more than once daily are shown in Appendix 1. Fifty-one of the articles (89.47%) measure stress once a day (at bedtime) and while four studies did so several times throughout the day, the remaining two only collected weekly recordings. The total number of days on which recordings were made ranged from 5 to 56. Of the studies that took measurements once daily, readings were taken over 8 days in 17 studies (33.33%), over 14 days in 14 (27.45%), over 7 days in 10 studies (13.72%), over 5 days in 3 (5.88%), over 30 or 28 days in 2 studies (3.92% each), and readings were obtained over 21 days, 35 days or 56 days in only 1 study (1.96% each).

In the studies that took more than one reading daily, two made five records per day for 7 or 6 days, one obtained 10 readings over five days, and another obtained readings every three waking hours for 42 days. All the studies took measurements on consecutive days with the exception of two, one of which gathered data each week for 16 weeks (Faulkner & Smith, 2009) and another that obtained weekly records over 10 weeks (Ivarsson, Johnson, Lindwall, Gustafsson, & Altemyr, 2014).

Description of daily stressors

In 44 articles stressors were registered using checklists and the respondents were asked to mark all the items that applied to them. Other measurement methods included requesting open descriptions of stressors (Eight articles) or they asked for an evaluation of the stress using a Likert scale, without requesting any description of the event (Four articles). One article simply recorded the number of stressors that participants had experienced since the last prompt (Verkuil et al., 2012).

Operational definition

A wide variety of methods were used to operationalize stress and, in some articles, more than one method was used. Since no standard method was used, it was difficult to classify the methods used to

operationalize stress and as such, in Table 1 a column was included to indicate the method used to operationalize stress that most closely resembled that used in each study. In 20 articles, the number of stressors faced on each day were added up and the figure obtained was used to quantify daily stress, one of them recorded the number of stressors five times a day (Verkuil et al., 2012) In five articles both the number of stressors and the perceived intensity of each was registered, calculating an average, in one of them an average was calculated for hassles and another for uplifts. In another 5 studies the daily stress was operationalized using scales of intensity for the main stressor, without recording the number of daily stressors. In four articles, the intensities of the stressors occurred were added, obtaining a total sum; of those four, two articles calculated the sum separately for hassles and uplifts In 3 articles stress was identified through feelings as perceived stress or a negative appraisal, and in one of these studies (Gartland et al., 2014) stress was considered both as an increase in negative feelings and as a decrease in positive feelings.

The reactivity method compared the days on which the individual was exposed to stressful events with those on which no stress was experienced, and this was used in 16 articles. In this case, stress is not considered as the presence of a stressful event nor as a response but rather, stress is operationalized based on the differential response. Two articles operationalized stress as an accumulation of daily stressors ("pile-up"). While in one of these the number of days over the past three days a stressor was recorded was evaluated (Grzywacz & Almeida, 2008), another summed the individual's daily stress up to a specific day and weighting them according to their temporal proximity (Schilling & Diehl, 2014).

Finally, one article operationalized stress by aggregating three measures of appraised stressors, "distress", "control" and "coping", although stress was not associated with any specific variable (South & Miller, 2014), and another used simultaneously the number of stressors, the sum of intensities and also their average (Winzeler et al., 2014).

Research approaches

There were 19 articles focused in negative effects of stress on healths, wellbeing, and marital relationships. Moreover, in a notable number of studies, long term effects of daily stress were detected, such

as distress 10 years later (Charles, Piazza, Mogle, Sliwinski, & Almeida, 2013), the persistence of sub-clinical psychotic experiences (Collip et al., 2013), longitudinal recurrence of herpes (Faulkner & Smith, 2009), ten-year survival (Mroczek et al., 2015), and a risk of chronic disease (Piazza, Charles, Sliwinski, Mogle, & Almeida, 2013).

A more complex relationship between daily stress and health was proposed in some studies and for example, headache complaints were considered strongest when daily stress coincided with sleep disturbances (Houle et al., 2012). Similarly, daily stress was associated with an increase in unhealthy eating habits (O'Connor, Jones, Conner, McMillan, & Ferguson, 2008); O'Connor, Conner, Jones, McMillan, & Ferguson, 2009)and such changes may reflect an indirect pathway through which stress can influences health risk, over and above the physiological changes produced. Moreover, additional support for a reciprocal relationship between stress and health was reflected by the causal relationship in irritable bowel patients (Blanchard et al., 2008).

Nineteen articles studied how individual differences moderate daily stress, some of which showed the influence of socio-demographic factors, such as educational level. Other studies highlighted the role of specific psychological traits. A third group of studies explored how social differences moderate individual daily stress. Additionally, surviving cancer is also a moderator of daily stress, as cancer survivors were associated with a greater increase in negative effects related to daily interpersonal conflicts (Costanzo, Stawski, Ryff, Coe, & Almeida, 2012). Finally, genetic moderators of daily stress were also found (Conway, Slavich, & Hammen, 2014, 2015).

The most studied mediator has been coping, In addition to coping, other mediators of the effects of daily stress have been studied, such as getting social support (Cichy, Stawski, & Almeida, 2014) and showing gratitude (Krejtz, Nezlek, Michnicka, Holas, & Rusanowska, 2016), leisure time (Qian, Yarnal, & Almeida, 2014) and perceived control (Diehl & Hay, 2010). Personality was considered a moderator and a mediator of coping with daily stress, with self-critical perfectionism moderating the relationship between daily stress and daily disclosure (Richardson & Rice, 2015).

In two articles, daily stress appeared to mediate the well-established relationship between two variables. Daily stress moderated the relationship between smoking and any negative effects (Aronson, Almeida, Stawski, Klein, & Kozlowski, 2008), and a reduced exposure to stressors partially explained the agerelated reduction in negative effects (Charles et al., 2010)

Three studies addressed the stress generation mode (Hammen, 1991), whereby stress promotes depression and at the same time, individuals with antecedents of depressive feelings experience more episodes of stress. While there was evidence supporting that model also for daily stress (Cummings, Hayes, Laurenceau, & Cohen, 2010; Hankin, 2010), daily stress had an effect on daily activities distinct to major life events (Sahl, Cohen, & Dasch, 2009). Moreover, it is possible that the generation of daily stress displays a curvilinear relationship with adjustment, while with major events there is a positive and direct relationship.

Finally, in two studies daily stress was assessed but their aims were not that of daily stress itself but rather, their focus was on psychological processes triggered by daily stressors. Accordingly, a relationship was found between worry and somatic symptoms (Verkuil et al., 2012), and the role of internalizing and externalizing spectra on personality traits in affective reactions was assessed (South & Miller, 2014).

Discussion

The first issue that stands out in this study is the enormous variety of methods employed when evaluating daily stress. We have not been able to find any pattern that relates stress assessment method, operational definition and research approach. The most frequent method was to make a record once a day for eight days, counting the number of stressors occurred, by means of a checklist. This choice can been explained by the need to achieve a balance between the quality and quantity of the data, and the burden on participants, since this method seems to reflect the minimal effort of the participants to obtain a useful database. Being the economy of effort an inexcusable point in the research, it cannot pass in front of the need to obtain the most relevant and real data depending on the objective of each study.

In this review it has been seen that recording about a week allows us to reach conclusions, however, there is no evidence about how long must be a recording period to be assumed as representative. It can be assumed that more than longer periods would be better to record more than one period of one week

Regarding asking for daily stress once a day, it must be recognized that it is a retrospective measure, even within the last 24 hours. Stressors should tend to be recorded when they happen, although could be more obstructive (Ram, Brinberg, Pincus, & Conroy, 2017). This conflict between immediacy and obstructionism should be solve by future research.

The use of checklist and number of events responds to a vision of stress focused on the stressors. It is also possible to identify stress by asking open questions and recording the intensity or their appraisal which is consistent with the perception of imbalance between demands and resources viewpoint on stress.

Therefore, it should be requested that the investigations justify all those choices about the methods of assessment both methodologically and theoretically.

It would be useful if future research would attempt to standardize the evaluation of the distinct components of daily stress, as well as the terminology used, to facilitate comparison between different studies, something that is currently virtually impossible due to the diversity of methods used.

The different ways to operationalize stress highlight the different implicit definitions of stress (Rodrigues et al., 2015). The number or intensity of stressful event refers to stress as an external factor, while negative feelings (or the lack of positive feelings) refer to the individual's responses, and reactivity or "pile-up" are related to the process by which stress develops over time. Such variation suggests that stress is not a precise concept that can be assessed by a single measure, since the description of the external events, the individual's response and the interaction between both must all be considered. As has been repeatedly discussed, stress is rather a generic label for the complex process of adaptation to specific situations, yet to be studied scientifically. Thus, it must be specified in empirically verifiable terms which feature of stress is considered (Jones & Bright, 20011; Segerstrom & O'Connor, 2012). It should also not be forgotten that in order to achieve comprehensive assessment, the psychological measures of stress must be complemented with physiological measures (such as cortisol levels, heart rate, heart rate variability and blood pressure).

These measures are not measures of stress in themselves but rather, physiological indicators that are strongly associated with and influenced by stress (Kudielka et al., 2012; Rodrigues et al., 2015).

It was not possible to relate each approach to specific methods. But in analyzing the different approaches to research on daily stress, some point have emerged that deserve comment. The first one is that it can be concluded that stress is a process that explains the short and long term effects of exposure to stressors on health and wellbeing through a complex chain of mediators and moderators. The complexity of these relationships can be seen in different studies (Aronson et al., 2008; Charles et al., 2010) and indeed, exposure to some stressors can provoke negative emotions that are in turn stressors, generating a panorama of mutual interactions (Blanchard et al., 2008).

The second point is that although it is known that the changes produced in stressful situations are adaptive at first, studies of the negative side of stress prevail. The information regarding moderators and, especially that about mediators, allows criteria to be established to distinguish between the adaptive and maladaptive sides of stress. Even in clinical settings, it is relevant to highlight that stress is not only a negative response, because it was seen that a negative concept of stress interacted with stress interventions (Liu, Vickers, Reed, & Hadad, 2017).

And the third point is that the studies analyzed were not reduced to the analysis of the stress process or of any particular aspect of stress but rather, the evaluation of daily stress served to study other processes with marked social and affective components. For example, two studies treated daily stress as a moderator of other processes, while another two studies considered daily stress as an opportunity to study emotions in more detail.

However, this review has a limitation that cannot be overlooked, the information collected in these studies is based on self-reports and depends on the collaboration of the participants. Further, it cannot be assumed that the mere fact of taking measurements over time makes a method ecologically valid. Since all these techniques were first used, attention was drawn to the burden on the participant and the fact that these measures can be reactive (Affleck, Zautra, Tennen, & Armeli, 1999). Indeed, the need for non-

obstructive and more ecological measures has been recognized and this challenge will mark the progress of the ecological evaluation of daily stress (Ram et al., 2017).

In conclusion, daily stress is a process of adaptation that is activated by everyday events that beyond their importance or number are evaluated as overwhelming, however, it is not yet reached a point of having standardized methods to evaluate it in an ecological way. In the future it is needed to better standardize the methods used, bring them closer to daily experience and justify the choice of evaluation methods based on the research objectives to reach.

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Appendix 1: Summary of articles reviewed

| Issue | Authors | The aim of the study | Sample | Days | Records per day | Stressor Description. | Operational definition of Stress |
|-------------------------------------|----------------------------------|--|---|------|-----------------------------------|--------------------------|--|
| | Åkerstedt et al., 2014 | To investigate the connection between daily stress and sleep impairment | 33 | 42 | Every three waking hours | Likert Scale | Feelings |
| | Charles et al., 2013 | To identify long- term implications of affective responses to daily stressors | 771 | 8 | 1 | Checklist | Reactivity |
| and health | Collip et al., 2013 | To study the relationship between daily stress and persistence of subclinical psychotic experiences | 566 | 5 | 10 | Likert scale | Reactivity |
| aily stress on wellbeing and health | Faulkner 2009 | To investigate the relationship between daily stress and the recurrence of herpes simplex | 20 patients and 18 matched controls | 16 | Weekly | Likert scale | Feelings |
| Effects of daily str | Ivarsson et al., 2014 | To assess the relationship between daily stress and injuries in athletes. | 101 | 10 | weekly | Checklist | Sum of intensities of hassles |
| | Kiang et al., 2014 | To study same- day, lagged, and chronic associations of daily stress and emotional well- being | 180 | 14 | 1 | Checklist | Number of stressors |
| | Kotter- Grühn et al., 2015 | To test whether daily stress influences subjective age | 43 | 8 | 1 | Checklist | Number of stressors |
| | Mroczek 2015 | To use an index of daily stress to predict 10-year survival | 181 | 8 | 1 | Checklist | Reactivity |

| ing and health |
|---------------------------|
| of daily stress on wellbe |
| Effects o |

| Neupert 2008 | To examine the relationship between daily stress and memory failures | 333 | 8 | 1 | Checklist | Number of stressors |
|--|---|---|----|---|-----------|---------------------|
| Piazza 2013 | To examine whether to daily stress is associated with long-term risk of chronic physical health condition | 435 | 8 | 1 | Checklist | Reactivity |
| Ryon 2014 | To test whether daily stress influences locus of control | 78 couples | 21 | 1 | Checklist | Number of stressors |
| Stawski 2013 | To study the association between daily stress and salivary cortisol | 1,694 | 8 | 1 | Checklist | Reactivity |
| Volz 2014 | To study individual differences in the relationship between daily stress and daily cigarette craving | 56 smokers | 14 | 1 | Checklist | Reactivity |
| Winzeler 2014 | To study the relationship between daily stress and sleep efficiency | 145 | 14 | 1 | Checklist | Number of stressors |
| Totenhagen 2011 | To study how relational sacrifices and daily stress are associated with relationship satisfaction | 17 couples | 7 | 1 | Checklist | Sum of intensities |
| Buck et al., 2012 | To study stress spillover in early marriage | 171 couples | 14 | 1 | Checklist | Number of stressors |
| Totenhagen, Butler, and Ridley, 2012 | relational | 40 gay male couples and 55 lesbian couples | 7 | 1 | Checklist | Number of stressors |

| Effects of daily stress on wellbeing and health | Totenhagen 2013 | To study how relational sacrifices and daily stress impact positive relationship quality constructs | 164 couples | 7 | 1 | Checklist | Sum of intensities |
|---|---|---|---------------------------------------|----|---|---------------------|---|
| | Totenhagen, Serido, Curran, and Butler, 2012 | To study how both uplifts and hassles are associated with positive and negative relational quality | 313 couples | 14 | 1 | Checklist | Sum of intensities of social and non-social hassles |
| | Conway et al., 2014 | To identify genetic moderators of affective response to daily stress | 104 | 14 | 1 | Checklist | Number of stressors |
| | Conway et al., 2015 | To identify genetic moderators of affective response to daily stress | 104 | 14 | 1 | Checklist | Number of stressors |
| | Costanzo et al., 2012 | To study daily stress in cancer survivors. | 111 cancer survivors and 111 | 8 | 1 | Checklist | Reactivity |
| Moderators of daily stress | Dunkley 2014 | To test longitudinal explanatory conceptualizations of daily stress and coping | 223 | 14 | 1 | Checklist | Reactivity |
| Moderato | Galla 2015 | To study the association between individual differences in self-control and daily stress | 129 | 14 | 1 | Checklist | Number of stressors |
| | Gartland et al., 2014 | To establish whether conscientiousness moderates daily stress | 103 | 14 | 1 | Open description | Feelings |
| | Grzywacz et al., 2008 | To study the influence of educational level on daily stress | 1031 | 8 | 1 | Checklist | Pile-up |

| | Hahn et al., 2014 | To examine daily stress in widowed versus married older adults | 442 | 8 | 1 | Checklist | Reactivity |
|----------------------------|------------------------|--|---|----|---|-----------|------------------------------|
| | Hanson et al., 2010 | To explore whether childhood family environments moderated the daily stress | 87 | 7 | 1 | Checklist | Number of stressors |
| | Palder 2013 | To test whether affect-amplifying individuals would be more reactive to daily stress | 70 | 14 | 1 | Checklist | Average intensity |
| SSS | Quian 2014b Using | To assess gender difference in how daily stress severity and leisure time influence affective complexity | 2022 | 8 | 1 | Checklist | Number of stressors |
| Moderators of daily stress | Robbinete 2013 | To study neighbourhood cohesion and daily stress | 2,022 | 8 | 1 | Checklist | Reactivity |
| Moderator | Schilling 2014 | To study age differences in the effects of stressor pile-up on negative and positive affect | 289 | 30 | 1 | Checklist | Pile-up |
| | Stawski 2008 | To identify resilience and vulnerability factors associated with daily stress | 67 younger and 116 older adults | 14 | 1 | Checklist | Reactivity |
| | Stawski 2010 | To examine whether fluid cognitive ability predicts daily stress | 1,202 | 8 | 1 | Checklist | Reactivity |
| | Whitehead 2014 | To investigate the impact of daily stress on depressive symptoms, focusing on whether this effect differs according by age | 654 | 56 | 1 | Checklist | Average intensity of hassles |

| Moderators of daily stress | Wong & Shobo, 2016 | To analyse the influence of employment status on daily stress and cortisol levels and responsivity To study ethnic | 182 workers and 253 retirees | 8 | 1 | Checklist | Number of stressors Reactivity |
|---|------------------------------------|---|---------------------------------------|----|---|---------------------|---------------------------------|
| Modera | 11p 2008 | differential reactivity to daily stressors | 101 | 14 | 1 | CHECKIIST | Reactivity |
| Moderator: Personality and Mediators: | Richardson 2015 | To test whether perfectionism moderates relationship between daily stress intensity and coping | 396 | 7 | 1 | Open description | Intensity of stressor |
| | Ng 2013 | To study whether daily use of adaptive strategies would improve their effectiveness. | 101 | 7 | 1 | Open description | Intensity of stressor |
| Mediators: Coping | Aldridge- Gerry et al., 2011 | To identify protective coping strategies and ethnic group variation | 365 | 5 | 1 | Open description | Intensity of stressor |
| Mediat | Aldrige & Roesch, 2008 | To study coping with daily stress in Mexican American Adolescents | 67 | 5 | 1 | Open description | Intensity of stressor |
| | Bartley & Roesch, 2011 | To analyse how specific coping strategies mediate the daily stress effects | 366 | 5 | 1 | Open description | Intensity of stressor |
| Mediators: Leisure time | Quian 2014 a Does | To test the applicability of moderation and mediation models to leisure time as a daily stress-coping resource | 2022 | 8 | 1 | Checklist | Number of stressors |
| Mediator s: Perceived | Diehl et al., 2010 | To analyse risk and resilience factors in coping with daily stress | 239 | 30 | 1 | Checklist | Reactivity |

| | Krejtz 2014 | To test whether | 59 | 14 | 1 | Checklist | Average intensity |
|--|---------------|------------------------------------|---------------------|----|---|-------------|---------------------|
| Mediators: Showing gratitude | • | counting one's | | | | | |
| diat ow stitt | | blessings can | | | | | |
| Me Sh gra | | reduce the impact | | | | | |
| | 6: 1 2011 | of daily stress | 4.004 | | | | 5 |
| rs: | Cichy 2014 | To study ethnic differences in the | 1,931 | 8 | 1 | Checklist | Reactivity |
| ato cial por | | effects of family | | | | | |
| Mediators: Social support | | support on daily | | | | | |
| Σ " | | stress | | | | | |
| | Cummings | To examine the | 310 | 7 | 1 | Checklist | Number of stressors |
| | 2010 | associations | | | | | |
| | | between | | | | | |
| | | depression, | | | | | |
| | | interpersonal competence, and | | | | | |
| del | | daily stress | | | | | |
| mo | | generation | | | | | |
| ion | Hankin 2010 | To examine stress | 217 | 35 | 1 | Checklist | Number of stressors |
| rat | | generation model | | | | | |
| ene | | | | | | | |
| Stress generation model | | | | | | | |
| tre | Sahl 2009 | To evaluate the | 127 | 7 | 1 | Checklist | Number of stressors |
| 8 | | daily stress | | | | | |
| | | generation model | | | | | |
| | | and interpersonal competence as a | | | | | |
| | | moderator | | | | | |
| | | variable | | | | | |
| | Houle et al., | To analyse the | 33 | 28 | 1 | Checklist | Average intensity |
| Ŧ | 2012 | relationships | chronic | | | | |
| health | | between daily | migraine | | | | |
| l pu | | stress, sleep | and 22 | | | | |
| SS al | | duration, and headache pain | chronic tension- | | | | |
| tres | | neauache pain | type | | | | |
| \ \ | | | headache | | | | |
| dai | | | sufferers | | | | |
| - | Blanchard et | To assess the role | 200 | 28 | 1 | Checklist | Average Intensity |
| twe | al., 2008 | of daily stress in | patients | | | | |
| pe : | | symptom | and 66 | | | | |
| hip! | | exacerbation among Irritable | controls | | | | |
| ons | | Bowel Syndrome | | | | | |
| Complex relationships between daily stress and | | patients | | | | | |
| rel | O'Connor | To study the daily | 422 | 7 | 1 | Open | Number of stressors |
| - | 2008 | hassles-eating | | | | description | |
| | | behaviour | | | | _ | |
| ၂ ပ | | relationship and | | | | | |
| | | its moderators | | | | | |

| Complex relationships between daily | O'Connor 2009 | To study the daily hassles-eating behaviour relationship and the moderator role of conscientiousness | 422 | 7 | 1 | Open description | Number of stressors |
|---|---------------------------|--|-----|---|---|---------------------------------------|---------------------|
| as mediator | Aronson et al., 2008 | To assess the stress induction model of smoking | 256 | 8 | 1 | Checklist | Reactivity |
| Daily stress as mediator | Charles et al., 2010 | To examine age differences in daily stress | 101 | 8 | 1 | Checklist | Number of stressors |
| Daily stress as testing bench | South and Miller, 2014 | To examine the ability of internal and external problems to predict affective responses | 78 | 7 | 5 | Likert scale | 3 aggregated scales |
| Daily stres: ber | Verkuil 2012 | To test the perseverative cognition hypothesis | 72 | 6 | 5 | Number of stressors since last prompt | Number of stressors |