CHAPTER – II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

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2.1 Introduction

Review of related literature is an essential aspect in the development of research. It enables the researchers to familiarize with the summary of previous research, the writings of recognized experts, what is already known and what is still unknown and untested and provides a background for the development of the present study and brings the researcher to the proximity of solution to the problem. The study of related literature gives the investigator an idea on the quantum of work done in the field and makes him/her to analyze the methodology used directs him/her to work along usefulness. Thus, this study will serve as a backdrop to the researcher to arrive at a decision to segregate the exact area to cover. It is in this context that the studies on Adjustment Emotional maturity and self-concept of college students are reviewed in the following pages.

As defined by Wikipedia, “A literature review is a body of text that aims to review the critical points of current knowledge including substantive findings as well as theoretical and methodological contributions to a particular topic. Literature reviews are secondary sources and as such, do not report any new or original experimental work”.

A well-structured literature review is characterized by a logical flow of ideas; current and relevant references with consistent, appropriate refusing style; proper use of terminology; and an unbiased and comprehensive view of the previous research on the topic.

The related literature with regard to three variables involved in the present study has been reviewed so as to get a proper theoretical orientation of the problem. The review of educational research summarizes a number of related studies on given topic. By reviewing the related literature, a researcher can investigate the problem of framing good hypotheses, planning for suitable tools and techniques, collecting appropriate data and analyzing them in the light of good
theoretical perspectives. In this chapter an attempt has been made to make a survey of literature related to the problem under study. Before going into any study, review of related literature is necessary as it is an eye opener for the research work. It helps the research work in determining sample size, in choosing tools and procedure for collecting data, in selecting appropriate statistical techniques and in analyzing the data and in interpreting the results. Also, it allows the researcher to acquire current knowledge in the area in which the researcher is going to conduct the research. Thus the study of review of related literature is very useful in the research work. In this chapter an attempt has been made to review literature with regard to the study undertaken.

2.2. Significance of review

Review of related literature is an important pre-requisite to actual planning and to the execution of any research work as well. Realizing the importance of this review Best (2005) writes, “a familiarity with the literature in any problem area helps the students to discover what is already known, what others have attempted to find out, what methods of research have been promising and disappointing and what problems remain to be solved”. Therefore, Good, Barr and Scates (1936) suggest that a careful student of education, a research worker and an investigator should become familiar with the location and use of the sources of educational information.

The importance of the survey of related studies can be stated as follows:

1. The study of related literature places researchers in a better position to interpret the significance of their own results.
2. It provides an understanding of the theory in the field which enables researchers to place their questions in proper perspectives.
3. Knowledge of related studies enables to define the frontiers of their field.
4. Through studying related research works, the investigators learn which procedures and instruments have proved useful and which seem less promising.
5. A thorough search through related literature avoids replication of previous studies.

The studies provided here have exposed various aspects with regard to the subject of adjustment, emotional maturity and self-concept. Keeping in view the above consideration made a comprehensive survey of the related study of past years which has been presented as following.

### 2.3 Adjustment

Collage adjustment was assessed by standardized achievement scores and by teacher ratings of behavior. Structural equation modeling indicated that positive parenting was related to higher achievement and lower behavior problems. Contrary to the hypotheses, coping strategies did not mediate or moderate this association.

***Agrawal, S, (1973)*** investigation was stared to find out as to how far psychological variables like medical aptitude, adjustment, intelligence and interest were associated with proficiency in medical examinations of UP. The sample comprised 629 students of five different medical colleges of UP. To measure adjustment of medicos, the Saxena Adjustment Inventory was used. It measured five types of adjustment and college or school adjustment. The measurement of intelligence was done by the Group Test of General Mental Ability (20/52) developed by Jalota and Tandon. Interest in medical studies was measured by Chatterjis’ Non-Language Preference Record. The medical examination marks were collected from the records. Data were analysed by computing mean, standard deviation and critical
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ratios. The findings were: 1. The adjustment was negligibly related with medical examination marks. 2. Intelligence was highly correlated with examination marks of medical students. 3. Interest was highly related to proficiency in medical examinations. 4. The correlations between combined scores of intelligence and aptitude and medical examination marks were positive. These variables contributed quite significantly to the examination success in medical course. 5. The correlations between combined scores of intelligence, interest and aptitude and medical examination marks were high. 6. The correlations of combined scores of intelligence, interest, aptitude and adjustment against medical examination marks high. 7. There was no significant relationship between age and adjustment for the age group 17 to 24 years. 8. In the field of intelligence, age, seemed to have a declining effect on mean scores from 17 to 24 years. 10. There was no significant relationship between interest and age. 11. Adjustment and intelligence were positively influenced by increase in economic status, while interest showed a negative influence.

Agrawal S. (1982) has made research to Study of causes and their Remedial Measures of Two Groups of 10th and 12th class of relatively identical intelligence but differing in Educational Achievements. The objectives of the study were (i) to determine the degree of relationship between independent variable-socio-economic status (SES), interest, intelligence and adjustment and the dependent variable academic achievement, (ii) to determine the degree of influence of interest, adjustment and SES on the scholastic achievement, keeping intelligence as constant, (iii) to estimate the amount contribution made by the causal variables, interest, SES, adjustment and intelligence, to achievement and (iv) to suggest remedial measures for the improvement in academic attainment of the students. The hypotheses were: (1) There is no relationship between independent and dependent variables. (2) The contributions of all the predictors, viz., interest, adjustment, SES and intelligence, to the
criterion variables is equal. The first hypothesis was checked on the basis of the obtained values of the coefficient of correlation; the second hypothesis against the amount of regression coefficient for the predictors. M.C. Joshi’s Test of Mental Ability (Verbal), the Adjustment Inventory by A.K.P. Sinha and R.P. Singh, the socio-economic status scale, from B(Urban), by S.P. Kulshrestha and the interest inventory designed by the investigator were used in this study. The sample comprised 550 girls of both science and humanities groups from the higher secondary and intermediate schools of Gorakhpur, Basti, Deoria and Azamgarh districts. The stratified random sampling technique was adopted. For remedial measures, 100 teachers of the same institutions and classes were selected randomly.

The conclusions drawn were as follows: 1. the scores of the high school and intermediate class girls on the independent variable as well as on the dependent variable showed a slight deviation from the plan of normal probability. 2. AN the three factors, viz., interest, adjustment and socio-economic status, played a positive role in the academic achievement of the girls of the 10th and 12th science classes. 3. These factors did affect the girls’ achievement. 4. The intercorrelations between dependent and independent variable were found to be positive in the cases of both 10th and 12th science girls’ which supported the view that these variables had a positive effect on achievement. 5. The regression weights indicated that interest appeared to be making the highest contribution to academic success in case of high school science girls, with SES making the highest contributions to academic success at the intermediate level. Intelligence made the least contributions at both the levels. 6. The multiple correlations revealed that approximately 50 percent and 70 percent variance were caused due to the variables selected for study in the case of intermediate and high school science girls respectively. 7. The hypotheses made regarding the zero correlation between variables and equal contributions of the predictors to success were
not supported. 8. Remedial measures suggested by the teachers stressed free education to lower income group students. Freedom to employ suitable teaching strategies, manageable class size in order to pay individual attention, theory correlated with practice and giving importance to individual interest in schools.

D. Randy Garrison, Martha Cleveland-Inne and Dr. Tak Fung (2004) have made research on the STUDENT ROLE ADJUSTMENT IN ONLINE COMMUNITIES OF INQUIRY: MODEL AND INSTRUMENT VALIDATION. The purpose of the study was to validate an instrument to study role adjustment of students new to an online community of inquiry. The community of inquiry conceptual model for online learning was used to shape this research and identify the core elements and conditions associated with role adjustment to online learning (Garrison, Anderson and Archer, 2000). Through a factor analytic process it is shown that the instrument did reflect the theoretical model. It was also useful in refining the items for the questionnaire. The instrument is for use in future researches designed to measure and understand student role adjustment in online learning.

Douglas Cullinan, Edward Polloway and Michael H. Epstein (2005) examined school adjustment problems of about 1000 students aged 6 through 17 years. The behavior problem checklist was factor-analyzed to identify multivariate factors of adjustment problems. Age and Sex-based subgroups were then compared on these factors and some estimates of criteria for abnormality were derived. Finally, the prevalence of each problem on the checklist was derived separately for age and sex-based subgroups, which were when contrasted on the items. The results provide basic information about the adjustment problems of those students who are not considered socially or personally maladjusted.
John L. Cotterell (2005) has done research on School as a factor in Adolescents’ Adjustment to the Transition to Secondary School. Secondary and High Secondary students’ adjustment was assessed at three time points (prior to the transition, shortly after the transition, shortly after the transition event and 4 months later). Results showed strong effects for transition for both the expectations and reactions measures, with no effects for gender or personality factors. Where ecological change was greatest. (i.e. moving from a small school to a large school) students were initially most optimistic, but also showed the greatest anxiety following the move. Later assessment of adolescents’ perceptions of classroom environment found less favorable views following transition, with an increase recorded in the level of pressure and a decrease in supportiveness. The purposes of the study were to develop a subjective adjustment scale for adolescents from the viewpoint of person–environment fit, to examine the reliability and validity of the scale and using the scale, to investigate the relation between school students, 786 senior high school students and 393 university students and in study 2375 junior high school students and 572 senior high school students, In study 1, using factor analysis on the data from the initial set of 47 items in the subjective adjustment scale, 4 main factors were extracted: “Sense of comfort”, “Existence to task and purpose”, Feelings of acceptance and trust” and “absence of feelings of inferiority”. The reliability and validity of the subjective adjustment scale were confirmed. In study 2, in order to examine the relation between school life and subjective adjustment, multiple regressing analyses were performed, with school life as the independent variable and subjective adjustment, the dependent variable. The results for all schools in the study showed that although relations with friends were strongly related to subjective adjustment, relations with teachers and studies were not related to subjective adjustment.
R.Babu and K. Kaliamoorthy (2006) have investigated the achievement and educational adjustment of higher secondary students in their study normative survey method was used in the present investigation. A sample of 700 higher secondary students was randomly selected from different schools of Cuddalore, Villupuram, Nagapattinam and Trichy district of Tamilnadu state. Accountancy Achievement Test (2006) was prepared and validated by the investigators. A part of adjustment inventory prepared and validated by Sinha and Singh (1993) was used to measure the educational adjustment of higher secondary students. Data were analysed in terms of mean, standard deviation and 't' ratio. The achievement test in accountancy was conducted for a maximum score of 39. Hence, having score of 28 or above was considered to be high achievement in accountancy and above a score of 19.5 was considered to be average and below 19.5 was considered to low achievement in accountancy. The mean (22.51) and standard deviation (6.59) of the higher secondary students’ achievement was average. Similarly educational adjustment inventory was conducted for maximum marks of 20. Hence, having a score of 10 or above was considered to be low educational adjustment and a score of 5 or above was considered to have average educational adjustment and a score of less than 5 was considered to be of high educational adjustment the mean (4.19) and standard deviation (3.13) educational adjustment of higher secondary students was high. It was found that the entire sample showed average achievement and high educational adjustment of higher secondary students. There was significant difference in respect of students having educated mothers.
with respect to achievement scores of students in respect of their fathers’ education. There was significant difference in mean educational adjustment scores of male and female higher secondary students. Female higher secondary students showed better educational adjustment than that of their male counterparts; whereas there was no significant difference in mean educational adjustment scores of urban and rural higher secondary school students, higher secondary students’ fathers’ education, and higher secondary students’ mothers education. Rural higher secondary school students had better educational adjustment than that of their urban counterparts. The result of the study show that there are no significant differences in respect of education level of fathers and mothers of students with respect to educational adjustment.

It has been shown that bullying victimization is associated with behavior and school adjustment problems, but it remains unclear whether the experience of bullying uniquely contributes to those problems after taking into account preexisting adjustment problems.

Louise Arseneault, Elizabeth Walsh, Kali Trezesniewski, Rhiannon Newcombe, Avashalom Caspi and Terrie E. Moffitt (2006) have made study on Bullying Victimization Uniquely Contributes to Adjustment Problems in Young Children. They examined bullying in the Environmental Risk Study, a nationally representative 1994-1995 birth cohort of 2232 children. They indentified children who experienced bullying between the ages of 5 and 7 years either as pure victims or bully/victims. We collected reports from mothers and teachers about children’s behavior problems and school adjustment when they were 5 years old and again when they were age 7. Experimental group was compared with control children; pure victims showed more internalizing problems and unhappiness at school when they were 5 and 7 years. Girls who were pure victims also showed more externalizing problems than controls. Compared with controls and pure victims, bully/victims
showed more internalizing problems, more externalizing problems and fewer prosocial behaviors when they were 5 and 7 years. They also were less happy at school compared with control children at 7 years of age. Pure victims and bully/victims showed more behavior and school adjustment problems at 7 years of age, even after controlling for preexisting adjustment problems at 5 years of age. Results revealed that being the victim of a bully during the first years of schooling contributes to maladjustment in young children.

Association between parenting dimensions and externalizing behavior in children was examined in the study of Vandana Sharma, PhD, Gurpreet K Sandhu (2006). Data on children from the middle class families of Patiala (N=240) were collected from schools and families. Parents completed questionnaires on parenting dimensions and externalizing behavior of children. Analysis of various of externalizing behavior indicated significant mean differences of gender and age on aggression and conduct disorders. Analysis of variance for parenting variables indicated significant differences for age and gender on indulgence, punitive, physical coercion and verbal hostility parenting dimensions. Correlations between non reasoning verbal hostility, physical coercion, autonomy and indulgence parenting dimensions and externalizing behavior were significantly positive whereas regulation and connection parenting dimensions showed a significant negative correlation with externalizing behaviors. Multiple regression analysis of parenting dimensions to each externalizing behaviors showed that autonomy, non-reasoning and indulgence parenting dimensions predicted externalizing behavior. Overall they concluded that Parenting significant influences externalizing behavior in children.

Over the past decade, concerns about bullying and its role in school violence, depression and health concerns have grown. However, no large studies have been examined the prevalence of bullying during elementary school or its association with objective measures of school
attendance and adjustment. In this regard Gwen M. Glew, Ming-Yu Fan, Wayne Katon’ Frederick P. Rivara’ Mary and A. Kernic (2005) have made study to determine the prevalence of bullying during elementary school and its association with school attendance, academic achievement, disciplinary actions and self-reported feelings of sadness, safety and belonging. Cross – sectional design was adopted to find out the objective and used 2001-2002 school data. Three thousand five hundred thirty (91.4%) third, fourth and fifth grade students from urban area were taken as a sample. Results revealed that Twenty-two percent of children were involved in bullying either as a victim, bully or both. Victims and bully-victims were more likely to have low adjustment than bystanders (odds ratios [ORS], [95% confidence interval [CI], 0.7-0.9] and 0.8 [95% CI. 0.6-1.0], respectively). All 3 bullying involved groups were significantly more likely than bystanders to feel unsafe at school (victims, OR, 2.1 [95% CI, 1.1-4.2]; bullies, OR 2.5 [95% CI, 1.5-4.1]; bully-victims, OR, 5.0[95% CI, 1.9-13.6]). Victims and bully-victims were more likely to report feeling that they don’t belong at school (ORs, 4.1 [95% CI, 2.6-6.5] and 3.1 (95% CI, 1.3-7.2], respectively). Bullies and victims were more likely than bystanders to feel sad most days (ORs 1.5 [95% CI, 1.2-1.9] and 1.8 [95% CI, 1.2-2.8], respectively). Bullies and bully-victims were more likely to be male (ORs, 1.5 [95% CI, 1.2-1.9] and 3.0 [95% CI, 1.37-7.0), respectively). On the basis of the present study it can be concluded that the prevalence of frequent bullying among elementary school children is substantial. Associations between bullying involvement and school problems indicate this is a serious issue for elementary schools.

The research by Mary J. Levitt, Gaston L. Bustos, Noel A. Crooks, and Jennifer Hodgetts in which they designed to address the school adjustment of newly immigrant elementary, middle and high school students in their first post-migration year. Students (N=638) originated in Argentina, Colombia, Cuba, Haiti or English-speaking
Caribbean nations and they had been in the United States for less than one year. School adjustment indicators were academic grade average (GPA) and school attitudes. Significant predictors of both GPA and attitudes included prior achievement, grade level, English language proficiency and parental support. Ecological risk predicted GPA, especially for younger students. Results revealed that Students experiencing more immigration stress had less positive school attitude. Experiences accompanying immigration affect initial school adjustment and may have long term consequences for school engagement.

During the last 30 years, several studies have indicated that children with disabilities are at increased risk for emotional and behavior morbidity. Population-based studies are needed to understand the relationship between functional status, family stressors and the psychosocial adjustment of children.

Using data from the year 1994 and 1995 National Health Interview Survey, Disability Supplement. **Whitney P. Witt, Anne W. Riley and Mary Jo Coiro (2003)** have made study to examine the associations between children’s functional status, family stressors and the psychosocial adjustment of school-aged children. Regression analyses indicated those children’s functional impairments in the areas of communication or learning, poor maternal health and mental health, family burden and poverty are significantly and positively associated with psychosocial maladjustment among children. They concluded that Children’s family stressors are significant correlates of psychosocial adjustment among children with disabilities. These data indicated a need for routine screening for mental health problems among children with disabilities, as well as a family-oriented approach to their medical care.
Adopting a social ecological perspective, the study of David J. Dewit and others, 2000 examined the role of adolescent personality and adjustment as mediating mechanisms linking school culture with adolescent behavioral problems. Data were obtained from the self-report of 1,100 grade nine students attending four southern Ontario high schools. Structural equation model results revealed that student exposure to an unfavorable school culture (marked by perceptions of low teacher and classmate support, student conflict, unfair school rules and disciplinary practices and low student autonomy in school decision-making and affairs) was positively associated with low attachment to learning and peer approval of deviance each of which were positively associated with problems, conduct disorder, oppositional-defiant disorder, attention-deficit hyperactivity and models. Significant direct effects of school culture were found for most outcomes.

One understudied aspect of first-year students’ transition to university is their relationship with parents. Maxine GallanderWintre and MordechaiYaffe (2000) investigated the contributions that perceived parenting style, current relationships with parents and psychological well-being variables make toward perceived overall adjustment to university, from both socio/emotional adaptation perspectives and actual academic achievement. Date were collected from a sample of 408 (116 males and 292 females) first-year students attending university in a large metropolitan Canadian city. Results indicated that mutual reciprocity and discussion with parents, as well as the psychological well-being variable, have direct links to adjustment to university. There was an indirect, positive relationship between authoritative parenting and adaptation variables. Furthermore, the predictor variables differed by both gender and outcome measures. Interpretation of these results, their congruence within the context of the theoretical frameworks and practical implications are discussed.
Hellen A. Lewis and Wendy Kliewer (1996) have tested mediator and moderator models of hope, coping and adjustment in 39 children. In home interviews parents provided information on demographics and functional adjustment. Children self-reported levels of hope, coping strategies and psychological adjustment. Coping strategies moderated, but did not mediate, the relationship between hope and adjustment. Hope was negatively associated with anxiety when active coping, support coping and distraction coping was high. Avoidance coping did not moderate the hope-adjustment relationship but was positively related to anxiety. No effects were found of depressive symptoms or for the functional measures of adjustment.

Previous research has shown that the transition into junior high school can be difficult for certain subgroups, particularly girls. Recent work done by L. Mickey Fenzal and Date A. Blyth (1986) in which they examined the social support roles played by best friends during the transition and found that high quality friendships can ease the adjustment to the new environment. The present longitudinal study of 410 students in a middle class sub-urban school district looked at adjustment to junior high school as a function of the quantity, frequency of contact and intimacy of same-sex and opposite-sex peer relationships at school and with peers attending other schools. Adjustment to the new school at seventh grade was defined in terms of changes from sixth grade in self-esteem, participation in school and nonschool activities, and perceived integration (or, conversely, anonymity) in the school environment. Overall, a significant decrease in the perception of being integrated into the school was found for both males and females but only small, non-significant changes in self-esteem and participation were evidenced. In order to test for relationships between school adjustment and social relations, only two extreme groups were examined, representing good adjusters (Gainers) and poor adjusters (Decliners). Results showed significant group-by-sex-of-subject interaction effects for self-esteem
on most frequency and intimacy measures. In particular, males who had gained in self-esteem had more frequent peer contacts and were somewhat more intimate with peers than were males who declined. For females, however, results were in the opposite direction. Few consistent results were found for adjustment in terms of participation or perceived integration.

Watley and Donivam, (1965) tested the hypothesis that adjustment and academic achievement will be positively related each other. For this purpose sample of 188 freshman male students was selected. Guilford Zimmerman Temperament survey was used to assess the adjustment level of students. A result of the study supported to their hypothesis. The positive relation existed between adjustment and academic achievement. Robert and Vernon, (1967) conducted a study on socio-psychological adjustment in collegiate scholastic success. Sample consisted of 186 college fresher. Data was collected through the survey and scholastic success scores were assessed through the examination score. Analyzed data showed that emotional adjustment and scholastic achievement were positively and significantly related to each other.

Arundhati Ray, (1983) conducted a study: ‘Academic achievement and adjustment among college students.’ For this study 101 college girls whose age ranged from 18 to 21 years were selected. Adjustment inventory was administered to collect the data and examination scores were collected as academic achievement. Analyzed data indicated that adjustment factors had some influence on academic achievement of college students.

Sue et al., (1985) studied academic achievement and socio-emotional adjustment among Chinese university students. 177 Chinese and Chinese- American university students were selected for the study. Academic achievement scores were collected through official university records and adjustment scores were obtained
through adjustment inventory. Results of the study indicate positive correlation between academic achievement and adjustment.

**Chen et al., (1997)** conducted longitudinal study on school students. The study aimed at to find out the correlation between academic achievement and social adjustment. After collecting the data through adjustment inventory and academic achievement score, they found that academic achievement and adjustment positively related to each other. Moreover, they found that adjustment uniquely contributed to academic achievement.

**Strage Amy, (2000)** conducted a study on Asian, American and Hispanic students. Sample consisted of 150 students enrolled at a large Metropolitan University in California. Respondents were asked to report their Grade Point Average (GPA) as academic achievement score. Moreover, they were asked to respond inventory which contained items designed to measure the students adjustment level in the college. Results of this study indicate positive and significant relation between adjustment and academic achievement.

**Wintre and Yaffe, (2000)** investigated the contribution of overall adjustment to university into academic achievement of students. For this investigation they selected 408 first year students attending university in a large metropolitan Canadian city. Data was collected through student adaptation to college questionnaire and grade point average. Pearson product moment correlation analysis indicated that adjustment and academic achievement was positively related to each other.

**Buddington Steve, (2002)** assessed the relation between psychological adjustment and academic achievement among college students. 150 Jamaican students who lived in the US for more than a year and studying at Howard University were selected. Global stress to assess psychological adjustment, behavioral acculturation scale, Rosenberg’s self-esteem scale, depression scale was used to collect the
data. Analyzed data, revealed the results that psychological adjustment and academic achievement or GPA had significant positive correlation.

**Caplan et al., (2002)** investigated the influence of adjustment on academic achievement among college students. 180 students studying at the University of North Texas were selected. The Student Adjustment to College Questionnaire was used to collect the data. Grade point average was also used as an academic achievement. Results indicated that academic achievement and adjustment were not related to each other.

**Mohanraj and Latha, (2005)** investigated the relationship between adjustment and academic achievement in adolescents. The sample consisted of 109 adolescents among the Chennai city. Bell’s adjustment inventory was administrated to the students. Academic achievement score was collected from the school record. Obtained data was analyzed through the Pearson product moment correlation method. It was seen that academic achievement and adjustment was positively and significantly related to each other.

**Farmer et al., (2006)** examined school adjustment and academic achievement of rural African American adolescents. Participants included 352 high school students studying in 7th and 8th grade standard. Scores on classroom adjustment scale and percentage of final examination were collected. Results showed gender difference in school adjustment and academic achievement. Female students had significantly higher academic grades than boys. Most important finding in the study was that students with high adjustment showed high academic grades while students who had low adjustment showed low academic grades.

**Ray and Elliott, (2006)** examined the hypothesized relationship between adjustment and academic achievement among students. 77 participants were selected by nomination given by teachers. Obtained data of participated students was analyzed and it was found that
social adjustment of students was positively related to their academic achievement score.

**Abdullah M.C. et al., (2009)** explored the predictors of academic achievement among first year undergraduate students. 250 first year university students from six different faculties in university Putra, Malaysia participated in the study. Adjustment inventory of Baker and Siryk was used to measure the adjustment level. Student’s academic achievement in the study was assessed. Based on their grade point average (GPA) obtained at the end of the first semester. Student’s ‘t’ test was employed to assess the gender difference. Results showed that there was significant difference between male and female students on overall adjustment. Results also revealed that students overall adjustment was significantly related to their academic achievement. Academic adjustment, social adjustment and personal or emotional adjustment was existed as strong and significant predictors of academic achievement of college students.

**Petersen et al., (2009)** studied adjustment to university and academic performance among disadvantaged students in South Africa. This study was conducted to explore the adjustment to the university environment as an important factor in predicting academic achievement. 194 first year university students were selected for the study. Path analysis showed that adjustment did not predict the academic achievements.

**Shankland et al., (2009)** measured student’s adjustment to higher education and its relation to academic achievement, for the study, sample consisted of 130 students. The adjustment was assessed through state-trait anxiety inventory by Spiel Berger and depression inventory by Beck and coping was measured through coping inventory by Endler and Parker.
Academic achievement was measured through marks of final year examination. Results showed that participated students were well adjusted to higher education and secured greater academic achievement.

**Sinha Smita, (2009)** studied the emotional, academic adjustment and academic achievement of high school students. A sample of 600 male students studying at 10th class from Oriya Medium Govt. schools in Mayurbhanj, Cuttack district of Orissa was selected. Adjustment inventory of AKP Sinha was used to measure the adjustment and the percentage of 9th class final year examination and 10th class final year examination of participated students was used as an academic achievement of students. Results showed that backward and non-backward students significantly differed on emotional and academic adjustment as well as on academic achievement.

**Yazedjian et al., (2009)** examine whether college adjustment mediated the relationship between parental education and expectations and academic achievement among first year white and Hispanic students. They found that adjustment and academic achievement of college students were positively related to each other.

**Calaguas, G. M., (2011)** conducted a study in a state college of Philippines with 329 college freshmen as participants. Study aimed at inventing the correlation between academic achievement and academic adjustment difficulties among college students. General Weighted Average in all subjects was taken as an indicator of students’ academic achievement. While academic adjustment difficulties were assessed through college freshman adjustment difficulties inventory. Statistical analysis existed with significant negative correlation between academic achievement and academic adjustment difficulties.
Ruth Purisman and Benjamin Maoz (1978) attempted to determine which factors might differentiate between a good adjustment to the loss of a son and a less than optimal adjustment. There were no statistically significant differences between men and women on any important variable. Good adjustment was significantly correlated with higher educational level, close social ties, and better marital adjustment. The study failed to support the authors’ hypothesis that religiosity and observance of mourning ritual would be associated with better adjustment. The authors noted that to ascertain the role of religion in adjustment to loss would require a control for educational level.

2.4 Emotional Maturity

According to Walter et al (1976) emotional maturity is a process in which the personality is continuously striving for greater sense of emotional health, both intra-psychically and intra personally. So, the study of emotional maturity is now gaining recognition. The concept of 'mature emotional behavior' at any level is that which reflects the fruits of normal emotional development. According to Chamberlain (1960), an emotionally mature person is one whose emotional life is well under control. An emotionally stable child has a capacity to make effective adjustments with himself, members of the family, and his peers (Smitson, 1974). Therefore the most outstanding mark of emotional maturity is ability to deal with the situations purposefully and to keep emotions stable and under control even in extreme situations. Adolescence is a period when the behavior is highly influenced by the emotions. This is the period of intensive storm and stress (Hall, 1904). Adolescence is the stage where extreme emotions are expressed or experienced with the intensity of adulthood but devoid of adult perspective. At no stage this emotional energy is as strong and dangerous as in adolescence. It is very difficult for an adolescent to exercise control over his emotions. The sudden functioning of sexual glands and tremendous increase in physical
energy makes him restless. Moreover, adolescents are not consistent in their emotions. Emotions during this stage fluctuate very frequently and quickly. It makes them moody. Sometimes they are very happy and at another time they are extremely sad and all this happens in a very short time. So there is too much uncertainty in the nature of their emotional states. **Aleem and Sheema (2005)** have reported a significant difference between the mean scores of male and female students on emotional stability and further found that female students are emotionally less stable than male students. On the other hand in a study by Sharma et al (2009) girls were reported to be emotionally more mature than boys. Nanda et al (2005) have reported that familial variable, family type and personal variable, age had an impact on emotional maturity of urban adolescent girls.

**Saima and Neeru Sharma (2012)** Emotions play an important role in the life of an individual and one requires a higher emotional maturity to lead an effective life. It is also true that our behavior is constantly influenced by the emotional maturity level that we possess. Especially, the adolescents who are observed to be highly emotional in their dealings need to be studied. As adolescents are the future and pillars of nation, so it is important to study their emotional maturity. The current study was undertaken to study the levels of emotional maturity and gender based differences in emotional maturity among 300 adolescents in the age group of 12 -18 yrs selected from five districts of Kashmir.

The older children displayed greater emotional competence than their younger counterparts. It has been found that Emotional maturity increases with age or grade. It has been also reported that emotional maturity was positively related with physiological maturity. Salovey and Mayer, 1990) have shown that the EM developed with increasing age and experience.
Goleman (1995) found that the signs of EM appear among very young children. Goleman (1996) have also stated that Emotional maturity increases with age and it can be learned, cultivated and increased in adulthood. In a series of longitudinal studies, it was shown that people can change their EM competencies over two to five years (Boyatzis, 2000).

Mayer et al. (2000) also showed with a series of studies that Emotional maturity increased with age and experience which qualifies it as ability rather than a personality trait. Wong and Law (2002) working with different samples have found that, age is positively correlated with Emotional maturity across different job situations. Similarly, Kafetsios (2004) had reported in his study among 239 adults aged between 19-66 years, that older participants scored higher on three out of four branches of EM i.e. facilitation,

Understanding and management. This study supports the view that Emotional maturity develops with age.

Srivastava and Bharamanaikar (2004) concluded from their study among the sample of 291 Indian army officers regarding the relationship between EM and their age, that EM had increased with age. To measure the Emotional maturity and its relation with age among secondary school teachers, Tyagi (2004) have conducted a study and found that the level of emotional maturity is low and independent of age. Another study examining the long term stability (32months) of emotional maturity related abilities over the course of a major life transition (The transition from high school to university) was reported by Parker, Saklofske, Wood, Eastabrook et al. (2005). During the first week of full time study, a large group of undergraduates completed the EQ-i: short; 32 months later a random subset of these student (N=238), who had started their postsecondary education within 24 months of graduating from high school, completed the measure for a second time. The study found EM scores
to be relatively stable over the 32 month time period. EM scores were also found to be significantly higher at time 2; the overall pattern of change in EM- levels was more than can be attributed to the increased age of the participants.

**Van Rooy, Alonso and Viswesvaran** (2005) have made a study in which a common measure of emotional maturity was administered to 275 participants. (216 female) to examine how different groups score on a test of EM differences were compared for age. Results indicated that emotional maturity scores tended to increase with age.

**Chapman and Hayslip** (2006) have made a cross sectional analysis in order to measure emotional maturity in young and middle adulthood. Differentiation of the construct of emotional maturity was investigated in young and middle-aged adults. Mid life adults reported significantly greater use of optimism (a component of emotional maturity) as a mood regulation strategy than was reported by young adults. Another study on relationship between Emotional maturity and age reported by Gowdhaman and Murugan (2009) among B.Ed. teacher trainees (N= 300) have revealed a significant effect of age on emotional maturity. Contradictory to this finding, Jacques (2009) had reported that age did not predicted emotional maturity among a sample of 221 college students.

**Thingujam and Ram** (2000) in their attempt of Indian adaptation of Emotional maturity Scale (Schutte et al, 1998) had developed Indian norms (N=811) for males and females separately and found that women were significantly scoring higher than men. Similarly, Mohanty and Devi. L (2010) have revealed in their study on gender differences among EM (N=60) that girls are more optimistic and well aware of their feelings in comparison to boys. Girls are more aware and understand their own feelings (Components of EM) than boys. Similarly Ciarrochi, chan and Bajgar (2001) found that EM was reliable measured in adolescents and was higher for females than
males. The relationship between Emotional maturity and sex differences among 134 adolescents involved in a six week training camp run by the military was investigated by Charbonneau and Nicol (2002). Results revealed that girls scored somewhat but not significantly higher than the boys on Emotional maturity.

Mishra and Ranjan (2008) have also been studied whether the gender difference affects Emotional maturity of adolescents (N=80, 40 male, 40 female). The results showed that adolescent boys and girls differ significantly on Emotional maturity and boys were found to be significantly higher on Emotional maturity than the girls. The higher scores of adolescent boys indicate that they are better on interpersonal, intrapersonal, adaptability and stress management skills and their overall general mood (happiness and optimism) are of higher order than the adolescent girls. To observe Emotional maturity levels of undergraduate male and female college students (N=200) (100 males and 100 female) 17-20 years,

Nasar and Nasar (2008) have made an attempt and the results ensure the presence of higher Emotional maturity in the adolescent girl’s students in comparison to the boys. Brackett, Mayer and Warner (2004) have also been reported in their study among 330 college students that women scored significantly higher in Emotional maturity than men. Lower Emotional maturity in males shows principally the inability to perceive emotions and to use emotion to facilitate thought was associated with negative outcomes including illegal drug and alcohol use, deviant behavior and poor relations with friends. In the study reported by Uma Devi and Rayal (2004) based on gender differences among EM (N=224) it was revealed that seventy six percent of girls have scored EM above average. Whereas, Eighty one percent of boys have scored their EM above average. This concluded that boys have scored slightly higher on their Emotional maturity as compared to their counterparts.
Hunt and Evans (2004) have reported in their study on individuals \([N=414 \text{ (181 male and 233 female)}]\) having traumatic experiences and simultaneously studied on their Emotional maturity level, and the results showed that males have higher EM than females. However, Kafetsios (2004) had reported gender differences in Emotional maturity from a sample of 239 adults aged between 19 to 66 years who completed the Mayer, Salovey and Caruso Emotional maturity test (MSCEMT V2.0) in which females scored higher than males on emotion perception and experimental area. Moving ahead to next review on sex differences in Emotional maturitys. Study reported by Pandey and Tripathi (2004) on a sample of 100 individuals (50 males and 50 females) completing the measure of EM, consisting of identification of emotion, perception and recognition of emotion with probing, perception and recognition of emotion-without probing, understanding emotional meaning and emotion intensity rating. Results revealed that females scored significantly higher than male and were more proficient in managing and handling their own emotions as well as of others.

Pant and Prakash (2004) have studied gender differences in Emotional maturity for Indian participants \((N=60)\). 30 male and 30 female subject/ individuals were approached for the study from personnel and human resources departments of both government and non-governments organizations; as well as students with an educational level of post graduation. Multifactor Emotional maturity scale was used for assessment process. Results showed no substantial gender differences on the various EM dimensions. More specifically indicating that both males and females do not differ significantly on the two sub- tasks of ‘managing emotions’. Whereas, ‘Managing others’ (sub tasks) has the males \((M=0.28, \text{ S.D.} = 0.08)\) scoring higher than the females \((M=0.26, \text{ S.D.}=0.08)\) on the sub-task of ‘managing self’, both the males and females have the same mean \((m=0.25)\). However, women scored higher, though not significantly than men on
total EM (M women = 5.13, M men=4.86). Petrides, Furnham and Martin (2004) examined participant’s estimates of own and parental psychometric intelligence (IQ) and Emotional maturity (EM). About 224 participants (82 male, 138 female and 4 who did not reported their gender) were asked to estimate their own and their parent’s IQ and EM scores on a normal distribution ranging from 55 to 145 points. The results confirmed the hypothesis supporting the view that people perceive psychometric intelligence as a primarily masculine attribute in contrast with Emotional maturity, which they perceive as a primarily feminine attribute. But this result has been altered when the participants had estimated their scores on a range of specific EM facets instead of overall self estimate. In order to measure the relationship between Emotional maturity and gender, Tyagi (2004) have conducted a study among secondary teacher. The results revealed that Emotional maturity is independent of gender.

**Mathur, Malhotra and Dube** (2005) have evaluated the gender differences in the selection variables of Emotional maturity, which were attribution, taking responsibility and scholastic achievement in high school students (N= 83, M=36, F=47) with an age group of 13 to 15 years. The study does not revealed any significant gender-differences on the dimensions of Emotional maturity. So, the study concluded that there is no significant difference among boys and girls on the selected components of EQ. Assessing on an ability measure of EM, Brackett, Warner and Bosco (2005) find out in their study on 86 heterosexual couples that, female partners were significantly higher on their Emotional maturity scores than male partners and that EM scores were uncorrelated within couples. VanRooy, Alonso and Viswesvaran (2005) in their study examined gender differences on Emotional maturity by administrating a common measure of Emotional maturity on 275 participants (216 female). Results indicated that females scored slightly higher than males. Similarly, Austin, Evans, Gold water and Potter (2006) studied among a group of
156 first year medical students who have been completed measures of Emotional maturity and physician empathy, and a scale assessing their feelings about a communications skills course component. Results showed that females scored significantly higher than males on EM.

Depape, Hakim-Larson, Voelker, page et al. (2006) has examined the gender as the predictor of Emotional maturity, in a diverse sample of 126 undergraduate participants (42 male, 84 female) and reported that gender was not a significant predictor of Emotional maturity, as contrary to their expectation.

Miville, Carlozzi, Gushue and Schara (2006) examined culturally relevant variables including, universal-diverse orientation (UDO - an attitude characterized by awareness and acceptance of similarities and differences between self and others, and Emotional maturity. 211 counseling graduate students completed measures of these variables as well as demographic sheets. Hierarchical regression analysis indicated that UDO and Emotional maturity along with gender, significantly explained variance in empathy. Contrary to this, Hunt and Evans (2004) have reported in their study on individuals [N=414 (181 male and 233 female)] having traumatic experiences and simultaneously studied on their Emotional maturity level, and the results showed that males have higher EM than females. Study done by Saranya and Velayudhan (2008) among 30 male and 30 female, university students regarding gender differences in Emotional maturity revealed that there exists no significant difference in self awareness, self regulation, social awareness and social skills among day scholars boys and girls. There exists a significant difference in the dimension of motivation. Girls are better motivated than boys, this is because girls have a better driving and pulling forces which result in persistent behavior directed towards certain goals.
Another study made by Singh Chaudhary and Asthana (2008) on impact of gender on Emotional maturity of adolescents, among a sample of 400 adolescents (200 male and 200 female) from various schools and colleges. The results revealed that male and female adolescents exhibit some Emotional maturity, concluding that both male and female adolescents are caring, giving, and supportive and enriching.

Carr (2009) have studied sex differences in Emotional maturity among a student sample of medical schools (N= 177). Results indicated that male candidates had higher Emotional maturity scores than females. However, Gowdhaman and Murugan (2009) have been reported a significant effect of gender on Emotional maturity, in their study among 300 B.Ed teacher trainees. Jadhav and Havalappanavar (2009) investigated the level of Emotional maturity among male and female police constable trainees (N=200). Results revealed that women police constable (WPC) trainees have scored significantly high on Emotional maturity than their counterparts. It may be because of the fact that men spend most of their time with peers and home, whereas, women spend most of their time from the childhood in the home, with family members and even in their later life at house. Hence they learn how to behave with others and how to control their emotions. Women are keener in every aspect and they utilize opportunities properly etc. Furthermore, the results also revealed that the women police constable trainees (WPC) scored higher on self motivation, emotional stability, commitment, altruism empathy and self awareness factors of Emotional maturity in comparison of male candidates.

Tatawadi (2009) have studied the differences in emotional maturity among male and female students studying in a management school. The results revealed that the females are emotionally stronger than the males. The girls score higher with regard to empathy, social responsibilities and interpersonal relationships than boys. They are more sensitive towards their relationships with parents, friends and
siblings. All these traits help them to acquire more Emotional maturity as compared to boys.

An exploratory study of the relationship between Emotional maturity and socio economic status was done by Holmes (2007) in which Emotional maturity was considered as criterion variable and SES as predictor, and measured by household income, parent education and occupation. Bivariate and multivariate correlational analysis revealed significant positive relationship except mother’s occupation and household income.

Further Namdar, Sahebihagh, Ebrahimi and Rahmani (2008) have found a significant relationship between Emotional maturity score and the student’s satisfaction of their family socioeconomic status among nursing students. In order to find out the effect of monthly income on the level of Emotional maturity among B.Ed. teacher trainees (N=300) Gowdhaman and Murugan (2009) have executed an empirical study and results showed that the socioeconomic status or monthly income do not cause any significant effect on the Emotional maturity. The relationship between Emotional maturity and socioeconomic status was studied by Jacques (2009) among 221 college students and the study reported that socioeconomic status did not predict Emotional maturity.

Mohanty and Devi, L. (2010) in their study, revealed that good education and occupation of parents in positively and significantly affects the interpersonal relationship (EM) of the adolescents. It means that parents having good occupation have adolescents having the ability in establishing and maintaining mutually satisfying relationship characterized by emotional closeness and intimacy.

Mayer and Salovey (1997) have suggested that individuals from different sub-cultures approach emotions differently. According to Sibia, Srivastava and Misra (2003) EM, differ across cultures. Study locating the discourse on emotions in the context of culture and
human development by Sharma and Sharma (2004) was explored the notion of emotional competence among a sample of adolescents (N=70) aged 12-18 years included boys and girls studying in class VI to class XII in a one senior secondary school in a rural zone of New Delhi. The children lived their sharing of common ecology, facilitative of greater interaction among each other and were much less exposed to the spaces and lives outside. On the basis of open ended interview and classroom-based enactments as well as written exercises accompanied by group discussions it was concluded that the developing awareness of emotions in children as means of describing oneself is revealing of the interplay of developmental aspects of thought and feeling. The study enabled to discern the varied understanding and use of emotion in children’s everyday lives. To delineate the human ecological factors affecting Emotional maturity skills of school teachers (N=60) a study was made by Duhan and Chhikara (2007). Study revealed a significant association between the developmental facilities (exosystem variables), provided in community surrounding and Emotional maturity skills of teachers. The results also revealed that most of the high category respondents (16.7%) were having more developmental facilities (i.e. hospital, bank, park, club, market etc.) in their surroundings, whereas near about 19% (out of 28%) of low category respondents were having less number of development facilities.

Carr (2009) has found in her study that Asian students demonstrated higher Emotional maturity total and branch scores than white students. The highest and lowest Emotional maturity scores were obtained for the branches understanding emotions (mean= 110, SD= 19.0) and perceiving emotions (mean=94, S.D.=15.6) respectively.

Gowdhaman and Murugan (2009) have studied the locate effect (mentioned as community) on the Emotional maturity of 300 B.Ed. teacher trainees and inconsistently found that there is not any significant effect of community on the Emotional maturity.
There are some studies available in the literature related to the Emotional maturity. Emotional maturity plays a significant role in establishing and maintaining relationships (Goldman, 1995) Molouff and Schette (1998) found in their study that the persons with higher Emotional maturity were more socially accepted and they display better social skills. Emotional maturity includes those traits that are most likely to ensure success in marriage or love affair and the lack of it explains the reasons why people face failures in their personal and professional life despite having high IQ. All meaningful relationships such as parent-child, teacher-student, between peers or colleagues etc., which are perceived as our strengths are usually based on dimensions of Emotional maturity. Theories supported that if one has a good amount of Emotional maturity, the person will have a good ability to adjust and a special capacity to solve problems of daily life. An analysis of the traits of persons high on psychometric intelligence (IQ) but low on Emotional maturity (EQ) yields the stereotype of a person who is critical, and uncomfortable with others. EM was correlated slightly but positively with belief in social relations (Thingujam and Ram 1999).

Schutte et al. (2001) found that higher scores EM had higher scores on close affectionate relationship. Lopes, Salovey and Straus (2003) had explored links between Emotional maturity and interpersonal relationships; in a sample of 103 college student and found that individuals scoring highly on the managing emotions subscale of the Mayer, Salovey and Caruso Emotional maturity test (MSCEMT), were more likely to report positive relations with others, as well as perceived parental support and less likely to report negative interactions with close friends.

Lopes, Brackett, Nezlek, Schutz et al. (2004) have studied on Emotional maturity and social interaction among a sample of 118 American college students. Higher scores on the ‘managing emotions’ subscales of the MSCEMT were positively related to the quality of
interactions with friends, evaluated separately by participants and two friends. Further in a diary study of social interaction with 103 German College students, ‘managing emotions’ scores were positively related to the perceived quality of interactions with opposite sex individuals, scores on this subscale were also positively related to perceived success in impression management in social interactions with individuals of the opposite sex.

An empirical study undertaken to conceptualize the notion of EM in the Indian social-cultural context was reported by Sibia, Misra and Srivastava (2004). Responding to open ended questions, the participants (N=1047) described the emotional qualities desired by them in children and those required to be successful in life. The indigenous view of EM takes into cognizance such as factors as social sensitivity, pro-social values, action tendencies and affective states. Results indicate that the Indian view of EM is context sensitive and focuses on the role of family and society in shaping one’s emotions. Another finding was that successful social adjustment was related to a more accurate perception of variations in other’s mood, which strengthens the hypothesis that emotion perception is essential for adaptation on a social level. To assess whether Emotional maturity is related to self-assessed relationship quality, an ability test of EM and measures of relationship quality were administered to 86 heterosexual couples in a university setting, as reported in the study made by Brackett, Warner and Bosco (2005). Results revealed that, couples with both partners low on EM tended to have the lowest scores on depth, support and positive relationship quality and the highest scores on conflict and negative relationship quality. Furthermore, couples with both partners high on EM did not consistently have higher scores on positive outcomes and lower scores on negative outcomes than couples with one high-EM partners. Linguistic characteristics of writing about the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks were evaluated through a social cognitive processing theory
framework by Graves, Schmidt and Andry Kowski (2005). A total of 537 people completed an internet based survey and 177 chose to write about their thoughts and feelings related to 9/11 people who wrote about their thought and feelings reported more total symptoms of 9/11 related distress and greater attention to feelings. Linguistic differences emerged among participants classified by high, moderate, or low distress and were also evident in terms of participant’s Emotional maturity and perceived social environment.

To examine the relationship between the dimensions of Emotional maturity and selected social variables among 120 parents and their children between the age range of 15-17 years a study was reported by Uma and Uma Devi (2005) and the results revealed that the parental education and occupation has significant and positive relationship with the dimension of Emotional maturity like social regard, social responsibility, impulse control and optimism. The total intra personal subscale is significantly and positively related to significantly and positively related to mother’s education, occupation and income emphasizing the significance of mother in enhancing the self development skills of adolescents. The second component of Emotional maturity is the interpersonal sub scale, which include the dimensions empathy, interpersonal relations and social responsibility. In the interpersonal subscale of Emotional maturity of the total sample it was noted that none of the parent related and family related variables had any significant relationship with any of the dimensions or to the total interpersonal sub scale.

Kim (2006) had examined the relations between adult attachment orientations and both Emotional maturity and cognitive fragmentation. Authentic self, which refers to a genuine sense of the self, was proposed as a mediator of such relations. 115 undergraduate students participated in the study. Applying structural equation modeling, the results showed that degree of authentic self mediated the relations between attachment dimensions and Either Emotional
maturity or cognitive fragmentation. Specifically, a higher score on the secure attachment dimension was associated with a greater degree of authentic self, which in turn, was associated with greater levels of Emotional maturity and having a fewer fragmented cognitive concepts about the self and romantic relationships. On the other hand a higher score on the anxious ambivalent attachment dimension was associated with lower degree of authentic self, which in turn, was associated with a lower level of Emotional maturity and having more fragmented cognitive concepts about the self and romantic relationships.

Kumar and Bhushan (2006) have examined the relationship among Emotional maturity and interpersonal communication practices (IPC); among 120 male students of IIT Guwahati. Results revealed that IPC neither correlated with EM. Dimensions of interpersonal communication were found to be negatively correlated with self management and social skill dimension of Emotional maturity. Moving ahead to another study made by petrides, sangareau, Furnham and Frederickson (2006) on trait Emotional maturity and children’s peer relations at school. Trait Emotional maturity (or trait emotional self efficacy) is a constellation of emotion related self-perception and dispositions comprising the affective aspects of personality. This study was aimed at investigating the role of trait EM in children’s peer relation at school.(N=160) participants were administered the trait EM questionnaire and were subsequently asked to nominate all, classmates who fitted each to seven distinct behavioral descriptions (cooperative, disruptive, shy, aggressive, dependent, leader, and intimidating). The teachers were also asked to nominate all pupils who fitted the seven descriptions. As a result, pupils with high trait EM scores received more nominations for cooperation and leadership and fewer nominations for disruption, aggression and dependence. Factor analysis of teacher nominations revealed two orthogonal factors encompassing pro-social and anti
social descriptions, respectively. Finally the study concluded that high trait EM pupils scored higher on the pro social and lowers on the antisocial factor. In order to investigate the relationship between social anxiety and Emotional maturity or of their shared impact upon interpersonal adjustment, Summerfeldt, Kloosterman, Antony and Parker (2006) have been made a study, by using structural equation modeling with self report data from a large nonclinical sample (N=2629). EM was found to be highly related to social interaction anxiety, but not performance anxiety. A model permitting these three predictors to inter-correlate indicated that the EM factor was the dominant predictor of interpersonal adjustment, substantially reducing the unique contribution made by interaction anxiety. This pattern reflected the principal contributions made to interaction anxiety by the interpersonal and particularly, intrapersonal domains of Emotional maturity.

Keeping this in view Yoo, Matsumoto and Le Roux (2006) made a study testing this hypothesis in international students at three times during the school year. Recognition of anger and emotion regulation predicted positive adjustment, recognition of contempt, fear and sadness predicted negative adjustment. Emotion regulation did not mediate the relationship between emotion recognition and adjustment, and recognition and regulation jointly, predicted adjustment. These results suggest recognition of specific emotions may have specific functions in intercultural adjustment, and that emotion recognition and emotion regulation play independent role in adjustment.

Singh and Saini (2007) have revealed in their study regarding Emotional maturity and interpersonal relationships, that the measures of emotional stability is significantly related with the variables of managing relations and integrity which concludes that the persons who are emotionally stable posit good interpersonal relations,
they enjoy the trust of other and they tend to be less aggressive and hostile to others.

Similar study was reported by Varshney (2007) on influence of parental encouragement on Emotional maturity of intermediate students (N=100, 50 boys, 50 girls). Results revealed that parental encouragement had a positive effect on the Emotional maturity of boys and girls, revealing there by that higher parental encouragement is associated with good Emotional maturity and vice-versa. It implies that discouragement do not flourish the Emotional maturity of students. The higher mean scores of EM show that affectionate, liberal and considerate home environment promotes the E.I. In order to analyze the effect of parent’s Emotional maturity on self destructive intelligence syndrome (SDI) of individuals, study was made by Goyal and Singh (2008), conducted on the sample of 80 students of MIT Moradabad. The subjects were requested to fulfill the self-destructive intelligence syndrome scale by themselves and the Emotional maturity scale by their parents (father only). The high emotionally intelligent father and the low emotionally intelligent father groups were formed on the basic of scores obtained from Emotional maturity scale. By mean of ANOYA, the results revealed that the parent’s Emotional maturity is a significant determinant of SDI Syndrome of the individual.

With a purpose of studying the effect of Emotional maturity training on peer relationship of the adolescent students; Purohit and Ajawani (2008) selected a random sample of 240 students studying in eleventh class, assigned equally to control (non training) and experimental (training) groups. Both the groups were initially tested for their peer relationship and then experimental group followed a EM training programmed for 18 days while the control group passed a silent period of 18 days, after 18 days they were retested for their peer relationship. Results revealed that, training group genuinely improved
more in comparison to those of Non-training group in regard to their peer relationship.

To see the difference among day scholars and hostel student (N=60) in prosocial behavior and Emotional maturity, Saranya and Velayudhan (2008). The results clearly indicated that there was significant difference among day scholars and hostel student in different dimensions of prosocial behavior viz Altruism, civic sense, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship and perception towards university environment. There is a significant difference among day scholars and hostel students in their Emotional maturity dimensions. Viz self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, social-awareness and social skills. Furthermore, the hostel students seem to have a better Emotional maturity than day scholars.

Sethi and Ajawani (2008) have studied Emotional maturity as the function of parent-child relationship. To study whether parent-child relationship exerts any effect on Emotional maturity, a sample of 120 students aging 16 to 18 years and studying XI and XII class with good parent-child relationship and 120 students with poor parent-child relationship were selected randomly from a large population. Parent-child relationship scale (Sharma & Chauhan, 2002) and Emotional maturity scale (Ajawani et al., 2003) were used to assess the parent-child relationship and Emotional maturity of the subjects respectively. An average Emotional maturity score of the subjects with good parent-child relationship (M=309.94) was found to be higher than that of with poor parent-child relationship (M=235.20). The obtained CR (CR=45.49) for the difference is significant at 0.01 level of significance.

Another study aimed at examining the direct and indirect relationships between Emotional maturity, subjective fatigue and the amount of social support gained, made by Brown and Schulte (2009). 167 university students completed the questionnaires assessing,
subjective fatigue, Emotional maturity and social support. Results indicated that the amount of social support and satisfaction with social support, both partially mediated between Emotional maturity and fatigue. It concluded that the association between subjective fatigue, Emotional maturity and social support may facilitate an understanding of the etiology of fatigue.

Mohanty and Uma Devi (2010) have examined the relationship between the EM of adolescents of secure attachment style and selected socio personal variables among 60 students, measuring attachment style by ‘Attachment scale Hazen and Shaver (1987) and Emotional maturity inventory (2003). Results revealed that those adolescents, who were securely attached with their parents, had better interpersonal relation, good problem solving skills and were happier. It was further concluded that the conducive home environment with secure feeling, give raise to emotionally intelligent individuals in future.

Kaur, (1992) Anxiety and stress owing to the competitive life are reflecting on the behavior of individuals in every sphere of life which not only negatively influence their emotional health and social interaction but also adversely affect their overall adjustment in their respective fields and performance. The consequent stress may lead to symptoms such as, headaches, backaches, high blood pressure, panic, stomach problems, sexual dysfunction, reduced autoimmune problems like allergies or some form of arthritis, mood and sleep disturbances and also disturbed relationship with family and friends.

Thingujam and Ram (2000) during the process of Indian adaptation of Emotional maturity scale (Schulte et al., 1998) reported, as a part of the convergent validity studies that EM was correlated strongly and positively with coping with stress, and moderately and negatively with trait-anxiety. It has been found that cognitive intellectual abilities are largely based in the neocortex areas of the
brain, while emotional functioning is largely supported by the neurologic circuitry found in limbic areas (e.g., the amygdala). In terms of the two cerebral hemispheres, the right hemisphere is more involved in emotional processing (particularly negative affect) than the left which sustains linguistic and logical activities (Carlson, 2001).

**Kulshreshtha and Sen (2006)** had investigated subjective well-being in relation to Emotional maturity and locus of control among 150 executives of different job strata. The results of the study reveal that emotion intelligence and locus of control have significant correlation with subjective well-being. The results further concluded that Emotional maturity is a strong predictor of subjective well-being. Subjects with high Emotional maturity and internal locus of control scored significantly high on positive affect and scored significantly low on negative effect. Similarly, subjects scored high on Emotional maturity and have internal locus of control scored significantly high on all the three dimensions of life satisfaction scale.

**Alan McCluskey (1999)** highlighted the importance of Emotional maturity to find their way into school curricula. According to him, introducing emotions in schools would be a radical change. A strong indication that Emotional maturity is predictive of academic success is provided in several studies (Parker, 2004; Swart, 1996). Pau et al. (2004) found that students with a high level of Emotional maturity were more likely to adopt reflection and appraisal, social and interpersonal, organization and time management skills. Whereas, low emotionally maturity students were more likely to engage in health damaging behavior.

Following are some more relevant reviews regarding academic success and Emotional maturity: - **Mathur, Dube and Mallhotra (2003)** have studied the relationship between Emotional maturity and academic achievement. Data was collected on a sample of 83 adolescents (boys and girls) from a local public school. Results
revealed that Emotional maturity corroborates and compliments academic achievement. The data also exhibits that adolescent who have higher level of responsibility do better on scholastic performance, make better adjustments and are more confident. The education sector, it has been reported that children with high EM are more confident, are better learners, have high self-esteem and few behavioral problems, are more optimistic and happier, and also handle their emotions better (Ghosh and Gill, 2003). Barchard (2004) had examined the ability of Emotional maturity to predict academic achievement, in a sample of undergraduate psychology students using year-end grades as the criterion. The predictive validity of Emotional maturity was compared with the predictive validity of traditional cognitive abilities and the Big-five dimensions of personality. In addition, the incremental predictive validity of each of these three domains was assessed. Only some measures of Emotional maturity predicted academic success, and none of these measures showed incremental predictive validity for academic success over and above cognitive and personality variables. This may be due to the overlap between many Emotional maturity measures and traditional measures of intelligence and personality limits their incremental predictive validity in this context.

Parker (2004) have studied on the relationship between Emotional maturity and academic achievement. The transition from high school to university was used as the context for examining the relationship between Emotional maturity and academic achievement. During the first month of classes 372 first-year full time students at a small Ontario university Completed the short form of the emotional quotient inventory (EQ-i short). At the end of the academic year the EQ-i: short data was matched with the student’ academic record. When EQ-i: short variables were compared in groups who had achieved very different levels of academic success (highly successful student who achieved a first-year university GPA of 80% or better
versus relatively unsuccessful students who received a first-year GPA of 59% or less academic success was strongly associated with several dimensions of Emotional maturity.

However, Petrides, Frederickson and Furnham (2004) investigated the role of trait Emotional maturity in academic performance and in deviant behavior at school on a sample of 650 pupils in British secondary education (mean age = 16.5 years). Trait EM moderated the relationship between cognitive ability and performance. In addition, pupils with high trait EM scores were less likely to have had unauthorized absences and less likely to have been excluded from school. It was concluded that the constellation of emotion-related self-perceived abilities and disposition that the construct of trait EM encompasses is implicated in academic performance and deviant behavior, with effects that are particularly relevant to vulnerable or disadvantaged adolescents. The relationship between Emotional maturity and academic achievement was examined by Parker, Croquet, Barnhart, Harris et al (2005) among 667 high school students. The students completed EQ-I: YV. At the end of the academic year EQ-I: YV, data was matched with student’s academic records for the year. When EQ-I: YV variables were compared in groups who had achieved very different levels of academic success (highly successful students, moderately successful and less successful based on grade-point-average for the year), academic success was strongly associated with several dimensions of Emotional maturity. Further, results are discussed in the context of the importance of emotional and social competency on academic achievement.

Reilly (2005) in his article suggests that negotiation courses using traditional lectures combined with role plays and simulated exercises can be used to train students in understanding emotion and increasing their Emotional maturity. The article defines emotion and Emotional maturity, describes and analyzes one simulated exercise
that has proven to be particularly potent in the classroom for teaching both the theory and practice of Emotional maturity; sets forth the rudimentary components of a possible curriculum for emotions training, and concludes with reasons why law schools and other professional degree-granting programs can and should make training in emotions a curriculum staple.

However, in the study of Bastian, Burns and Nettelback (2006) on 246 predominantly first year tertiary students investigating the relation between Emotional maturity and academic achievement, it was reported that correlations between Emotional maturity and academic achievement were small and not statistically significant.

Parker, Hogan, Eastabrook, Oke et al., (2006) had examined the relationship between Emotional maturity and academic retention. Participants were selected from a sample of 1270 young adults (368 male, 902 female) making the transition from high school to university. They were recruited during the first week of classes in the first year at the university and completed a measure of Emotional maturity. Participant’s academic progress was tracked over the course of the year and students were divided into two groups. The first group consisted of students who withdrew from the university before their second year of study (N= 213), and the second group consisted of a matched sample (on the basis of age, gender and ethnicity) of students who remained at the university for a second year of study (N=213). Results revealed that student who persisted in their studies were significantly higher than those who withdrew on a broad range of emotional and social competencies. The construct of Emotional maturity provides a framework for understanding emotional processes in students with reading disabilities.

Pellitteri, Dealy, Fasano and Kugler (2006) in their article examined underlying affective processes as they relate to cognition, motivation and social functioning. Ecological and individual
interventions for influencing learning and social adjustment were described. Consideration was given to the emotional factors in the school environment, the interpersonal interactions of peer groups, opportunities for facilitating emotional learning, and dynamic affective-aesthetic responses of the individual during the reading process. Moving ahead to an article created by **Hawkey (2006)** on Emotional maturity and mentoring in pre-service teacher education, the emerging discourse of Emotional maturity is discussed in relation to mentoring in pre-service teacher education. Possible reasons for the neglect of emotion and affect in pre-service teacher education, and in education more broadly, are discussed. The emerging focus on emotion in these fields is also examined in light of existing policy critiques. The dangers and pitfalls of using an emotional lens to look at the activity of mentoring and identified. The article focuses on policy and practice in relation to mentoring in pre-service teacher education in Britain, although the issues it raises and pertinent in the wider international field.

**Austin, Evans, Magnus and O’Hanlon (2007)** have done a preliminary study of empathy, Emotional maturity and examination performance among medical students in year 2, 3 (pre-clinical) and 5 (clinical). In order to find out whether EM and Empathy are related to academic success, questionnaires assessing EM and empathy were made completed by students. Associations of EM and empathy with academic success were examined using Pearson correlation. Results showed that associations between academic performance and EM were sparse and there were none between academic performance and empathy, but the effects of EM on problem-based learned (PBL) groups were found positively correlated. To explore the relationship of spiritual intelligence and Emotional maturity with science achievement of higher secondary male students, Bansal (2007) have made a study among a sample of 200 male students of the age group of 15 to 18 years, studying in eleventh class of the intermediate
colleges of Mathura city. Results shows that high positive correlation \((r=.65)\) was found between science achievement and Emotional maturity whereas very high positive correlation \((r=.73)\) was found between science achievement and spiritual intelligence.

To explore the relationship between teaching effectiveness and Emotional maturity. **Chhabada and Ajawani (2008)** have conducted a study on 30 teachers having high Emotional maturity and 30 of them having low Emotional maturity \((N=60)\). The study aimed at finding out the difference between teaching effectiveness of both the aforesaid groups of teachers. Results revealed that teachers having high Emotional maturity score higher on teaching effectiveness as compared to teachers having low Emotional maturity. Further it confirmed a significant relationship at \((0.01\) level of significance) between teaching effectiveness and Emotional maturity. EM is reported to be a predictor of the interpersonal and communications skills medical schools are looking for in applicants. Study done by Carr (2009) describes EM scores in medical students and explores correlation between EM and selection scores at the University of Western Australia. Mean scores of the 177 respondents \((58\%)\) reflected the normal distribution of scores \((98, \text{SD}= 15.0)\) in the general population. No significant correlations were found between EM total or EM branch scores and any of the selection scores.

Another study examining the influence of Emotional maturity on academic self-efficacy and achievement was reported by **Dey (2009)**, among 150 undergraduate students \((\text{age}= 18-20\ \text{years})\). The result demonstrated that Emotional maturity and academic self-efficacy significantly correlated with academic achievement. On the basis of findings, it was suggested that Emotional maturity should be integrated into undergraduate curriculum. The results confirmed the positive impact of academic self-efficacy and Emotional maturity in the relationship between academic self-efficacy and achievement. **Gowdhaman and Murugan (2009)** analyzed the Emotional maturity
among the B.Ed, teacher trainees (N=300). The mean EM score of 300 students is 129.58 and median value is 132 with SD=15.29. The results concluded that Emotional maturity of the B.Ed teacher trainees is normal (Average). A study was conducted to assess the impact of intervention package on Emotional maturity skills of school teachers by Duhan, Chhikara and Sangwan (2009). The intervention program was imparted to the 30 teachers in various schools for a period of 15 days in each school. After a gap of one month post testing was done and the impact of the given package was measured. To see the effectiveness of the program, a group of 120 children (10 children each from 6 preschool classes and 6 primary classes) were also pre-tested and post-tested (after implementation of the program to teachers) on a check list developed to judge the Emotional maturity. A significant difference between pre and post testing assessment of Emotional maturity skills in all the four aspects of Emotional maturity was found which was also observed in children’s behavior. The teachers were instructed to pass on the learned emotional skills (through intervention) to the children of their classes. It concluded that to inculcate the emotional skills and their appropriate use among children it is must for the teachers to be emotionally intelligent then only they can motivate the children to learn the Emotional maturity skills.

Singh and Kumar (2009) have conducted a study on secondary school teachers of convent schools (English medium) and saraswati schools (Hindi medium) to analyze their Emotional maturity. The results had indicated that Emotional maturity of teachers of convent schools and Saraswati schools differ significantly. It was also observed that Saraswati school teachers are good in Self-motivation, Value orientation and Commitment whereas Self-awareness, Self-development, Managing relation, Integrity, and Altruistic behavior aspects of Emotional maturity. It also has been observed that there is no significant difference between teachers of convent schools and
Saraswati schools on Empathy and Emotional stability aspects of Emotional maturity.

Tatawadi (2009) studied about emotional maturity among management students (N=200). Group one consist of 100 students of semester-I and group two consisted of 100 students studying in semester IV. The results showed that mean scores of students of semester one and semester four show no significant difference in their emotional maturity.

Bastia et al. (2005) claimed that people with higher Emotional maturity are more satisfied in their life and they perceived better problem solving and coping ability. Different studies revealed different amazing results on Emotional maturity. It was reported that overall E.M., perceiving emotion and regulating emotions all contributed positively to individual cognitive based performance, but understanding emotions did not add to the explanation of variance in individual cognitive based performance over and above the level attributable to general intelligence.

Bastian, Burns and Nettelbeck (2006) investigated relationship between Emotional maturity and problem solving on 246 predominantly first-year tertiary students and the results showed that higher Emotional maturity was correlated with better perceived problem solving.

Chan (2006) assessed the self perceptions of gifted students (N=212) regarding their creativity, family hardiness and Emotional maturity. The results of regression analysis indicated that family hardiness and Emotional maturity had separate and direct effects on self-perceived creativity, and their effects were additive, rather than multiplicative, as their interaction terms did not yield significant increment in variance accounted for in the criterion of prediction. Similar results were obtained when different components of Emotional maturity were considered with some suggestive evidence that family
hardiness could interact with specific components of Emotional maturity in the prediction.

Jahoda, Pert and trower (2006) reported two studies in which they compared the emotion recognition and perspective-taking abilities of 43 frequently aggressive individuals and 46 non aggressive individuals. The perspective taking task required participants to distinguish between reactions of angry versus calm characters. Although both groups had similar success with elements of the task, the aggressive group proved better at predicting character’s attributions. Results suggest that deficits in emotion recognition and perspective taking cannot be assumed to be causal or maintaining factors of frequent aggression.

Kumar and Bhushan (2006) have examined the relationship among Emotional maturity and personality factors. The questionnaires of EMQ and Big-5 were administered on 120 male students of ITI Guwahati. Regression analysis confirmed that personality predicted self-awareness and self management dimensions of Emotional maturity. Correlation between adjustment (personality dimension) and self-management (EM Dimension) was highly positive, showing that an adjusted person will also be able to manage him/herself. Personality was found as a predictor of self awareness and self management. However sociability (personality dimension) had a negative correlation with social skills (E.I. dimension). Another study, comparing Emotional maturity 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 EM was related to worry states and avoidance coping, even with the FFM statistically controlled. However EM was not specifically related to task induced changes in stress state. Results also confirmed that neuroticism is related to distress, worry
and emotion-focused coping and conscientiousness predicted use of task-focused coping (Matthews, Emo, Funke and Zeidner, 2006).

Suri (2008) investigated the impact of Emotional maturity on adjustment of adolescents (N=400) studying in class twelve of various schools affiliated to CBSE, New Delhi. They were subjected to Emotional maturity inventory’ (Mangal and Mangal) and Bell’s Adjustment Inventory developed and standardized by Ojha. Results revealed a significant correlation between Emotional maturity and adjustment among the students.

Rathee (2009) have investigated the interrelationship between Emotional maturity and adjustment among female college students (N=100), (50 sports person and 50 non-sports person) who were administered the sevenfold Emotional maturity scale and adjustment inventory for college students. The results depicted that a significant correlation at 0.01 level was found between Emotional maturity and overall adjustment, with regard to the sports group. The finding of this study has revealed that the sports and physical activities undoubtedly contribute positively to one’s Emotional maturity and overall adjustment. It was concluded that both Emotional maturity and overall adjustment do influence each other and are also interrelated.

Singh (2003) compared Japanese and Indian managers and concluded that Japanese managers were high on thinking, while Indian managers were high on feeling. Further it has been argued that since Indians, by and large have high affiliation need, this needs to be tapped effectively through the appropriate use of the concept of EM that yields enhancement in productivity. This shows that the need of EM is not uniform across occupations. The relationship of EM was studied with leadership effectiveness, success and job satisfaction among Indian army officers by Srivastava (2003). It was found that emotionally more intelligent army officers adopted a transformational style of leadership to motivate their subordinates to perform beyond
expectations. They also perceived them to be more successful in their careers.

**Pradhan, Awasthy, Kumar and Patnayak (2006)** have attempted to examine the role of Emotional maturity in conflict management and organizational commitment. The study was conducted on 66 (male) executives randomly selected from various departments of a reputed private organization, on which EQ inventory (Bar-On, 1997), conflict management scale (Sayeed, 2001) and organizational commitment scale (Sayeed, 2001) were administered. The results showed that Emotional maturity very poorly correlates and moderately contributes to organizational commitment and conflict management strategies. Further, it was revealed that different dimensions of Emotional maturity were found to be poorly associated with organizational commitment and conflict management. Except few, most of the correlations are not statistically significant. It shows that there exist a poor association between Emotional maturity, organizational commitment and conflict management. By implication it can be said that EM may not be having high correlation with organizational commitment and for better conflict management. EM is only contributing significantly to integrating strategy of conflict management and does not contributes much in predicting organizational commitment and for better conflict management. However, an another study investigating the relation of employee and manager Emotional maturity to job satisfaction and performance made by Sy. Tram and O’ Hara (2006) among 187 food service employees from nine different locations of the same restaurant franchise, have found that the employee’s Emotional maturity was positively associated with job satisfaction and performance. In addition, manager’s Emotional maturity had a more positive correlation with job satisfaction for employees with low Emotional maturity than for those with high Emotional maturity.
Thingujam and Ram (2000) made an attempt at Indian adaptation of Emotional maturity scale (Schulte et al, 1998) but no item modification was made. The internal consistency was estimated at 0.89. They made a classification of the individual status on EM ranging from below average to very superior, which is based on general intelligence classification. As a part of the convergent validity studies they also reported that EM was correlated strongly and positively with coping with stress, moderately and negatively with trait-anxiety, and slightly and positively with belief in social relations (Thingujam and Ram, 1999).

Brannick, et al., (2009) had compared the trait and ability measures of Emotional maturity among medical students, for evidence of reliability, convergence and overlap with personality. First and second year medical students completed the MSCEMT (an ability measure), the Wong & Law Emotional maturity scale (WLEMS - a trait measure) and an industry standard personality test (the NEO, Nr-Ex-openness test) results indicated that the MSCEMT showed problems with reliability. The MSCEMT and WLEMS did not correlate highly with one another (overall scores correlated at 0.18). The WLEMS was more highly correlated with personality scales than the MSCEMT. It was concluded that the different tests supposed to measure EM do not measure the same things the ability measure the same things the ability measure was not correlated high personality, but the trait measure was correlated with personality.

Layman (1972) conducted extensive review of literature that focused on emotional-social development as a consequence of sports participation and motor development and concluded that physical fitness and sports participation do have a positive influence on emotional and social well-being. Sports activities have a significant positive association with perceived Emotional maturity, psychological and interpersonal functioning. Sports participation do produce significant effect in controlling emotional disturbances, developing
healthy attitudes personality adjustments and regulating other personal characteristics like mood states and self-esteem (Salovey et al., 2002; Schutte et al., 2000).

Zizzi, Deaner and Hirschhorn (2003) had explored relationship between Emotional maturity and athletic performance in a sample of 61 divisions I baseball players (aged 18-23 years). The subjects completed an informed consent form and the Emotional maturity scale. This study provides modest support for the link between emotional skills (i.e. emotional awareness, control and utilization) and athletic performance. The results suggest that components of Emotional maturity appear to be moderately related to pitching performance, but not related to hitting performance. Study highlighting the importance of intervention programmers in enhancing Emotional maturity and thereby promoting meaning and quality in life intra and interpersonally, was reported by Pareek, Mittal, Hingar and Kaur (2005) to evaluate the effect of “Basic Human Process Laboratory” course in enhancing Emotional maturity and enriching meaning in life. Eight subjects participating in this course, who volunteered themselves for psychological assessment, comprised the sample. Results revealed the significant improvement in post mean scores of overall Emotional maturity and its components like self-awareness, self-management, internality/ optimism and empathy, except motivation and social skills. Pre and post mean scores of purpose in life also differed significantly showing enhanced meaning in life of the subjects. Moving ahead to the study of Resnicow, Salovey and Repp (2005) which reports that expression of emotion in music performance is a form of non-verbal communication to which people may be differentially receptive. Among 24 undergraduates, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional maturity test was applied to assess individual differences in the ability to identify, understand, reason with and manage emotions using hypothetical scenarios that are conveyed pictorially or in writing. Additionally, a listening test was
used applied in which they tried to identify the intended emotions in performances of classical piano music. Emotional maturity and emotion recognition in the music task were significantly correlated ($r=0.54$), which suggests that identification of emotion in music performance draws on some of the same sensibilities that make up everyday Emotional maturity.

Taute (2006) attempted to define the concept of Emotional maturity and determine whether individual differences in such a competence are discernable. Creation of such a measure allows experimentation to determine whether such a competence significantly moderates responses to positive and negative emotional appeals in public service announcements. Implications of differences in Emotional maturity for persuasive message with emotional content are discussed. In another study 343 students were exposed to self enhancement programmed with particular reference to Emotional maturity showed a significant difference in their Emotional maturity after the programmed for two weeks. The follow-up showed sustained Emotional maturity after three months (Amudhadevi and Velayudhan, 2007). Another study objected to assess the Emotional maturity in working and non-working women was reported by Shrivastava, Singh and Pandey (2008). For this purpose data was collected on 25 working and 25 non-working women, who were matched on age, education and class. Results revealed that the mean scores for different dimensions of Emotional maturity were found to be greater in non-working women than working women. The scores for self-awareness for working and non-working were found to be more or less similar. The T-ratios yielded significant difference for only three subscales of EM i.e. assertiveness independence and impulse control. The results did not yield significant difference between the total mean EM scores of working and non-working women, confirming the null hypotheses made for the study that there would be no significant differences between the working and non-working women mean scores.
Arora, Badaya and Bhatnagar (2009) have made an study to make comparison between the emotional quotient (EQ) of children of working mothers and home makers between children of working mothers with fixed time schedule and working mothers with unpredictable time schedule and between children of working women in service and children of working women in business. The result reveals that there is no significant difference between EQ of children of working mothers and home makers although it is slightly higher among children of home makers. Further it was discovered that EQ of children of working mothers with fixed time schedule is significantly higher than that of children of working mothers with unpredictable time schedule. No significant differences was found between EQ of children of working mothers in service and children of working mothers in business although it was slightly higher for children of working mothers in service. EQ of children of home-makers was significantly higher than children of working with unpredictable time schedule. But there was no significant EQ difference Either between children of home-makers and children of working mothers with fixed time schedule or between children of home makers and working mothers in service or between children of homemakers and children of mothers in business.

Rathee (2009) have investigated the level of Emotional maturity among sports person and non-sports person (N=100). The results revealed that sports persons had obtained significantly higher mean scores on the Emotional maturity as compared to the non-sports person, which indicate better Emotional maturity. The results further reaffirm the view that sports participation enhances the level of emotional competence and thus resulting in higher level of Emotional maturity.
2.5 Self Concept

According to Rogers (1959), self-concept governs individuals behavior and adjustment he found that the self-concept is viewed as the way an individual perceives himself and his behavior is strongly influenced by the way other perceive him.

Deshmukh, N.H. (2000) designed to study to compare high and low self-concept groups of junior college students with anxiety, achievement motivation, intelligence, goal discrepancy and academic achievement. 832 self-concept scores of students were classified into two extreme groups viz. high and low P73 and P27 being the cutting points. Results revealed that high and low self-concept groups of Junior college students differed significantly on anxiety, n Ach, intelligence. These groups did not differ significantly on goal discrepancy and academic achievement.

Kalyani Devi T. (2001) gave a special focus to examine the influence of ordinal position of the child in the family on self-concept of adolescents and also extended to age and sex differences in self-concept of first and third born adolescents. Self-concept of adolescents was measured by using modified version of Tennessee’s Self-concept scale cross validated by (Vasundara Devi, 1980). Altogether 150 adolescents (100 first born and 50 third born) were included in the study. The results indicated that ordinal position had significant influence on self-concept of adolescents. Self-concept of first borns was higher than that of the third borns. Significant age difference was found. Self-concept increased with age progression.

Lata Gairola (2001) made an attempt to examine the effects of castes and sex on the self-concept of Adolescents. A total sample of 80 students (age group 15-16 years) was taken from Government School of Srinagar Garhwal, and they were divided into four sub-groups (Non-SC. Boys, Non-SC. Girls, SC. Boys and SC. Girls). The self-concept scale of Pier-Harris, Hindi version by Ahluwalia S.P. (1969) was used.
From results it was concluded that there was no significant effect of caste on integrated self-concept among these groups. However the SC adolescents had higher self-concept on physical appearance and attributes with less happiness and satisfaction. As regard to the effect of sex, the difference was found significant in the dimensions – intellectual and school status, physical appearance and attribute and anxiety in case of scheduled caste adolescents only.

**Jayshree Dhyani and Jignesh Prashnani (2002)** made a study to know the significance of intervention programme to enhance the self-concept of the pre adolescents in school at Vallabh Vidhyanagar, District Anand in Gujarat. The sample consisted of total 60 normal students from VII class for an Experimental Group and Control Group. Findings show that the mean scores of an experimental group student in various areas of self-concept is significantly differing after an intervention. The mean score of control group in various areas of self-concept differed significantly after interval period. In short significant effects of an intervention programmed on self-concept of pre-adolescents were found in the study.

**Surinder Kumar Sharma (2002)** made an attempt to investigate the variations of self-concept (including its various dimensions) and self esteem in blind students attending integrated school settings and special school settings. The study involved 104 blind children drawn randomly and equally from different schools in NCT Delhi having integrated educational provisions and schools exclusively for the blind children. The sample included 60 boys and 44 girls (30 and 22 each from the two settings) with mean age 16.84 and 16.16 for boys in integrated and special school settings respectively. The mean age of girls in the two groups was 16.65 and 16.57 respectively. The samples from the two settings were matched for age, sex, intelligence and SES by one to one or student to student matching method.
Usha Mishra (2004) made an investigation to assess the effect of parental encouragement on self-concept of higher secondary girls. The sample of the study consisted of 200 girls drawn from higher secondary schools of Allahabad city. The result of the study revealed that the parental encouragement had a positive and significant effect on self-concept of higher secondary girls.

Hangal S. and Aminabhavi A. (2007) assessed the impact of maternal employment on the self-concept, emotional maturity and achievement motivation of adolescents. The results revealed that the adolescent children of homemakers have significantly higher self-concept (such as intellectual and school status, anxiety, happiness and satisfaction, as well as in overall self-concept). It was also noticed that children of employed mothers have high emotional maturity and female children of employed mothers were highly achievement oriented.

Franzis (2008) investigated gender differences in 181 gifted and 181 average ability VI graders in achievement, academic self-concept, interest and motivation in mathematics. Researchers found that boys earned significantly higher score than girls. Girls scored lower on measures of academic self-concept, interest and motivation.

Reema (2010) conducted a study on “Relationship between Self-Concept and Adjustment of Visually Impaired Adolescents Studying in Inclusive and Special Schools”. Two hundred visually impaired adolescents studying in special and inclusive settings have constituted the sample of the present study. The Visually Impaired adolescents studying in inclusive and special school setting were selected on the basis of stratified and random sampling procedure. Student to student or one to one matching method was adopted for this purpose. Tools used in the study were preliminary data blank (self-developed), self-concept questionnaire developed by Sarasvat R.K. and Adjustment inventory (self-developed). Statistical techniques used
to analyze the data were mean, standard deviation, t-test and correlation. The findings of the present study revealed that the development of self-concept was better in inclusive schools. But, it was even better in the case of male adolescent than the female ones. Similarly, in the case of level of adjustment also the male adolescents have shown better level of adjustment. Contrary to this the relationship between self-concept and level of adjustment in the case of female adolescents was better in inclusive school settings than their male counterparts. This trend was reversed in the case of relationship between those aspects in special schools. The overall results showed better relationship in the case of male visually impaired adolescents than the female visually impaired adolescents. The findings demonstrate that several benefits in terms of social emotional well being occur for visually impaired students in inclusive educational settings. Enhancing the self-concept and adjustment of disabled children here the visually impaired students remain an important goal in education.

**Adsul R.K. (2011)** conducted a study on “Self Concept of High And Low Achieving Adolescents”. The study intended to measure the self-concept of high achievers and low achievers of urban and rural secondary school students and to find out whether they differed from each other on the measures significantly or not. The universe of the study was limited to the X standard students enrolled in the secondary schools of Sangli city, Miraj and Tasgaon Taluka. Only the students enrolled in X standard were included in the sample. List of these students and percentage of marks obtained by them in the IX examination were collected. All these students were arranged in hierarchical order on the basis of marks obtained by them in IX examination. Those who had obtained more than 70% marks selected as high achievers and those who secured less than 45% marks as low achievers. The sample for the present study consisted of 400 students of which 50% were boys and remaining were girls. Thus the male
female ratio was 1:1. Age range of the students was 14 to 16 years. The findings show that there is no significant difference between high and low achievers on self-concept namely - physical, social, emotional, moral and educational. But it was found that there was significant difference in high and low achievers on intellectual self-concept.

**Hiralal D. Parmar (2012)** made a study on self-Concept, adjustment and academic achievement of tenth and twelfth standard students. Stratified random sampling method was employed to select the unit of sample. Total sample of the investigation comprised 400 students. The Adjustment Inventory was developed by Asthana H.S. in 1968 and the Self-Concept Questionnaire by Saraswat R.K. (1984) was used. A 2x2X2 factorial design was subjected to adequate statistical analysis viz. technique of Analysis of variance (ANOVA) in order to examine the roll of main variables and to study their main as well as interaction effects subsequently on students’ self-concept, adjustment and academic achievement. Self-concept of urban group of students was found significantly higher and more positive than rural group of students. Male and female students were not found significantly differing on their academic achievement. The mean score of the urban students was found significantly higher than rural students on their academic achievement.

**Rath, S. and Nanda, S., (2012)** made an attempt to examine the effect of gender and academic competence on the self-concept of adolescents. The study adopted a 2 (academically competent versus academically less-competent adolescents) × 2 (boys versus girls) factorial design. In the present study, two hundred forty adolescents (120 academically competent adolescents securing 80% or more marks and 120 academically less-competent adolescents securing 50% or fewer marks) are randomly sampled from different urban colleges of Odisha. In each group of 120 adolescents, there are 60 boys and 60 girls. All the subjects are first year graduate students. The participants of all the four groups are compared with respect to
their self-concept. The result indicated that academically competent adolescents have higher physical, moral, personal, family, social and overall self-concept than less-competent ones. The strength of association between personal self-concept and overall self-concept in boys is higher than the association found in girls. Similarly, the strength of association between physical self-concept and overall self-concept, as well as social self-concept and overall self-concept was higher in girls than that of the boys.

**Parmar Gira B., (2012)** made a study to know the self concept of XI Standard Student of Ghandhinagar District. In the study, effect of Gender and Area on self-concept of IX students checked. Total 300 students were selected from the secondary schools of Ahmedabad. Self-made Inventory was prepared to know Self- Concept. On the basis of the score obtained by the students mean, standard deviation and t-values were calculated to know Self-Concept of students. No Significance of any of the independent variable was found on the Self-Concept of IX Standard students.

**Ali (2002)** conducted a study on relationship of self-esteem, self-concept and academic achievement in Orphan and Non-orphans children. The effect of academic grades on self-esteem and self-concept was also determined. The sample consisted of 100 male children (both orphan and non-orphans) including 50 students of class 5th and 50 students of class 10th taken from Anjuman Faizul Islam and F.G.School Rawalpindi. Urdu Adjective Checklist of 52 adjectives was used to measure the self-concept of these children and Urdu translation of Self-esteem Scale comprised of 25 items was used to measure self-esteem. Academic achievement of the students was measured with the help of their marks in the last attended exams (high, medium, low). A positive correlation was found between self-esteem, self-concept and academic achievement.
Metcalf, Shannan D. (2004) reported that girls who belong to low socio-economic-status, their self-concept is continuously influenced by relationship with their peer group. They also reported that development of healthy self-concept in adolescence is partially depended on relationship with both parents and peers.

Joan D. Lewis (2000) used the Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale to investigate the self-concept of 368 intellectually gifted children in grades 4-12. Previous research had suggested that differences by gender and grade level might be masked by reporting only global self-concept scores; however, few studies reported subscale scores. In this population, gender was not a significant variable for global self-concept. Significant gender differences were observed on three sub-scales - behavior, intellectual and school status, and anxiety. Females rated themselves higher on the first two and males on the latter. School level was a significant variable for global self-concept. Students in junior high school reported lower self-concept than students in either elementary school or high school. Similar results were observed with the behavior sub-scale. The study supported the view that a global score for self-concept can mask underlying differences when subscale scores are summed.

Amy M. Gans (2003) compared self-concept in 50 middle school children with learning disabilities (LD) and 70 of their peers without LD. The students, primarily Hispanic, completed the Piers-Herris Children’s Self-concept Scale, and each obtained a score in six sub domains. Differences were found between the groups on the intellectual and school status and behavior subscales, with students without LD scoring higher on both scales. There was no difference between groups on global self-concept.

Dambudzo (2005) conducted a study about the relationship between learner self-concept and achievement in secondary schools in Zimbabwe. The sample consisted of 1281 adolescent learners in urban
and rural government and nongovernmental secondary schools. Data were collected by means of questionnaires and interviews. A positive and reciprocal relationship between learner’s self-concept and academic achievement was found. It was also revealed that sports had an influence on the academic achievement of male students in government schools. Students believed that sports improve their confidence, discipline, time management skills and social relationships.

**Naushaba Atta Ch., and Muhammad Jamil Bajwa (2011)** conducted a study to determine the impact of education on self-concept of adults. Population of the study was all the 25 - 45 years old citizens of Rawalpindi & Islamabad. Accessible sampling was done. Six hundred individuals including male and female having qualification of different levels were requested to participate in the study but only 451 responded back. The data were collected personally through an instrument originally developed by Jayne E Stake in 1994. There were six sub-scales of the instrument, i.e. likeability, morality, task accomplishment, giftedness and power. Researcher translated the instrument into Urdu and validated through team of three experts. It was used after pilot testing and getting formal permission from author. To explore the differences among six groups having education of different levels, i.e., under metric, metric, intermediate, graduates, masters & above and professional education. The impact of education was explored on all sub-scales of self-concept. One way ANOVA was applied. It was found that level of qualification affected the self-concept of adult. Mean values indicated that subjects with masters & above qualification had highest mean scores while subjects who were under metric had lowest mean scores on self-concept scale. The mean score of adults having qualifications masters & above, Graduation, Intermediate, Metric and Under Metric was 139.16, 132.37, 125.20, 116.67 and 98.23 respectively. For professional qualification mean score were 138.36.
The p-value was 0.000, for all levels of education and for all subscales of self concept it was highly significant, which showed that as the level of education increases, the self-concept of adults also increases and self-concept of adults is directly proportional to their qualification. Findings of the study showed that education affects the self concept of adults. Adults with highest qualification showed highest mean score and adults with lowest qualification showed lowest mean score on likeability, morality, task accomplishment, giftedness and power sub scales of self concept. Giftedness sub scale of self-concept was scored lowest by all groups while morality sub-scale was scored highest in all groups collectively.

Charles, Deserie M. (2004) examined in their study that socio-economic-status are significant factor in adolescences self-concept.

Singh S.K. and Ahmad Naseem (2004) revealed in their study that parents’ child relation affects significantly to the social self-concept where as other dimensions like physical, temperamental, educational as well as moral are not affected by the relation2ship between child and his parents.

Huckleberry, Trisrta Michelle (2002) examined the multidimensional self-concept of African-American college students to determine whether black racial identity, defined by vigrescence theory, provides a valid means for predicting both global self-worth and domain specific aspect of self-concept. The finding reinforced the need for multidimensional conceptualizations of both racial identity and self-concept.

A research by Cheng (2002) focusing on the configuration of self-concept in young people supported the notion of multiple self-concepts, consisting of six domain-specific self-concepts (social, intellectual, Appearance, Moral, Family and Physical) and the general self-esteem. It was found that Moral self-concept increased with age but Intellectual self-concept changed with age in a quadratic fashion.
No significant age effects were found on other self-concepts and general self-esteem, but girls tended to be higher than boys in moral and family self-concept. No significant age effects was found on Intellectual and social self-concept.

Cross cultural study, by Stersenko (2002), found close corresponding between children’s achievement and competence related beliefs (Competence self-concept) with the exception that young girls appear to specifically discount their talent.

Inoue (2001), Conducted study on title “Self Concept in Japanese students: Its relation to teacher rating”. The result shows that the significant positive correlation teacher’s rating regarding student’s academic level, social skills & student responses matching these traits, The internal consisting of the SEI (Self Esteem Inventory, Coppersmith, 1967) is adequate but somewhat lower than that of the SDQ (Self -Description Questionnaire, Marsh, Parker & Smith, 1983).

Cognitive discrepancy models posit self-concepts to be a function of differences between actual accomplishments and ideal standards; unrealistic ideals lead to poor self-concepts even when accomplishments are otherwise good. In a study by Marsh (1999), a sample of high school students indicated their Actual, Ideal, Future, and Potential body-image by selecting from 12 silhouettes and completed 7 self-concept factors on 2 occasions. Structural equation models demonstrated that actual effects on self-concept factors were positive and ideal effects were negative thus supporting the discrepancy models’ predictions.

Wexler’s (1996) study indicated that the Father-daughter relationship is pivotal in the formation of girl’s self-esteem and attachment style. The results suggest that a girl’s progress through the various developmental stages is influenced by her ongoing contact – with her father. The findings implied that fathers might be more ambivalent around areas of autonomy and achievement for their
daughters and more comfortable in the areas of promoting self-esteem and attachment.

**Gearhart (1994)** studied self-concept in adult women with a multi-dimensional approach and focused on relationships between age, social role and self-concept. The results showed that age was the primary predictor for dimensions of self-concept. Specifically, self-concepts for physical ability and opposite sex relationships were negatively co-related with age, while self-concepts for spirituality, honesty and emotional stability were positively co-related. Self-concepts for cognitive ability and same sex-relationships were also related to age, but in an on-linear fashion. These findings interpreted that self-concepts is not a fixed, stable construct over time, but rather shifts with development throughout the life cycle.

**Wang (1993)** concluded that students, especially males with emotional disturbance has a negative self-concept in the component area of physical self, moral-ethical self, personal self, family self, social self, identity, self- satisfaction, behavior self and total positive self and they functioned far below their no disabled peers in academic performance.

A study on class 9th Australian students by **Harper & Marshall (1991)** found that girls’ self-esteem declined dramatically at puberty. At this age, girls became more concerned about societal and personal relations, sex, marriage and physical development. Boys, however, were concerned about finance, education and career issues.

**Kipnis (1961)** stresses the importance of friends in self-concepts. He tested student living in a dormitory and found that those who perceived their best friends to be relatively unlike themselves tended to change their self-evaluations during the six-weeks of the study so that the differences between themselves and their friends were smaller.
### 2.4.1 Self-Concept Scales

**Mobera (2002)**, explored difference in female and male experiences is adolescence using scale that measures personality style, expressed concern, behavioral problems and depression. The analysis partially supports gender differences in the relationship between MAPI (Million Adolescent Personality Inventory) internalizing & externalizing scales. The result demonstrated that internalizing and externalizing YSR (Youth Self Report) scales, Gender differences are found on half of the MAPI subscale.

**Russell’s (1999)** study tested a multi-faceted, hierarchical self-concept model for university students. Self-concept was conceptualized as composed of their 1st order facets: academic self-concept (capability, achievement and confidence), social self-concept (same-sex peer, opposite sex peer and family) and self-concept presentation of self (personal confidence, physical and honest/trust worthy). Data from a convenience sample of 400 students were analyzed with the extended logistic model of Rasch. The 45 how I actually am items, separately, fitted the model and formed a valid and reliable scale. The 45 how I actually an items, together with 21 How I would like to be items (66 items), fitted the model and formed a separate, valid and reliable scale. The How I would like to be items were all easier than their corresponding how I actually am items as conceptualized. The results supported the multi-faceted, hierarchical model of self-concept as a one-dimensional latent trait.

**Song and Hattie (Hattie, 1992)** developed a 35 item self-concept scale, with fie items for each of the seven 2nd order self-concept orientations, and applied the scale to adolescents. Adolescents responded in one of six categories; from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Evidence was presented from Australia and Korean data, using traditional factor analysis and measurement technique,
supporting its validity and reliability in various aspects, confirming the conceptual structure of the scale.

**Bracken (1992)** developed a multidimensional self-concept scale comprising 150 self-report items with a Likert format. There are six domains each composed of 25 item sub-scales relating to social, competence, affect, and family, physical and academic self-concept. Evidence was presented, using traditional measurement techniques, for various aspects of validity and reliability of this scale, with data representative of the 1990 USA census by gender, race, ethnicity and geographic region.