CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

A Brief History

1930s – Edward Thorndike describes the concept of “social intelligence” as the ability to get along with other people.

1940s – David Wechsler suggests that affective components of intelligence may be essential to success in life.

1950s – Humanistic psychologists such as Abraham Maslow describe how people can build emotional strength.

1975 - Howard Gardner publishes *The Shattered Mind*, which introduces the concept of multiple intelligences.

1985 - Wayne Payne introduces the term emotional intelligence in his doctoral dissertation entitled “A study of emotion: developing emotional intelligence; self-integration; relating to fear, pain and desire (theory, structure of reality, problem-solving, contraction/expansion, tuning in/coming out/letting go).”

1987 – In an article published in *Mensa Magazine*, Keith Beasley uses the term “emotional quotient.” It has been suggested that this is the first
published use of the term, although Reuven Bar-On claims to have used
the term in an unpublished version of his graduate thesis.

1990 - Psychologists Peter Salovey and John Mayer publish their
landmark article, "Emotional Intelligence," in the journal Imagination,
Cognition, and Personality.

1995 - The concept of emotional intelligence is popularized after
publication of psychologist and New York Times science writer Daniel
IQ.

What is Emotional Intelligence?

Emotional intelligence (EI) refers to the ability to perceive, control,
and evaluate emotions. Some researchers suggest that emotional
intelligence can be learned and strengthened, while other claim it is an
inborn characteristic.

In 1968, Cattell and Butcher tried to predict both school
achievement and creativity from ability, personality, and motivation. The
authors succeeded in showing the importance of personality in academic
achievement.
Emotional intelligence is a fairly new concept. In the 1940s and 1950s, there were several attempts to find a substantial relationship between achievement and personality, but these attempts did not meet much success (Barton, Dielman & Cattell, 1972).

In 1972, Barton, Dielman and Cattell conducted another study to assess more fully the relative importance of both ability and personality variables in the prediction of academic achievement. One of the conclusions they reached was that IQ together with the personality factor—which they called conscientiousness—predicted achievement in all areas. What was tested under personality was among others—whether the student is reserved or warmhearted, emotionally unstable or emotionally stable, undemonstrative or excitable, submissive or dominant, conscientious or not, shy or socially bold, tough-minded or tender-minded, zestful or reflective, self-assured or apprehensive, group dependent or self-sufficient, uncontrolled or controlled, relaxed or tense.

We can easily see that most of these factors are included in the components of emotional intelligence. In 1983, Howard Gardner introduced his theory of Multiple Intelligences which opened doors to other theories like Emotional Intelligence.

Since 1990, Peter Salovey and John D. Mayer have been the leading researchers on emotional intelligence. In their influential article
"Emotional Intelligence," they defined emotional intelligence as, "the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (1990).

Salovey and Mayer proposed a model that identified four different factors of emotional intelligence: the perception of emotion, the ability reason using emotions, the ability to understand emotion, and the ability to manage emotions. According to Salovey and Mayer, the four branches of their model are, "arranged from more basic psychological processes to higher, more psychologically integrated processes. For example, the lowest level branch concerns the (relatively) simple abilities of perceiving and expressing emotion. In contrast, the highest level branch concerns the conscious, reflective regulation of emotion" (1997).

Teaching emotional and social skills is very important at school, it can affect academic achievement positively not only during the year they are taught, but during the years that follow as well. Teaching these skills has a long-term effect on achievement. (Elias et al, 1991).

Finnegan (1998) argues that schools should help students learn the abilities underlying emotional intelligence. Possessing those abilities, or even some of them, "can lead to achievement from the formal education
years of the child and adolescent to the adult’s competency in being effective in the workplace and in society."

Students often experience failure in school, at home, with friends, and on the job because they have poor communication skills, argued by Cangelosi and Petersen (1998). In 2000, Coover & Murphy conducted a study that examined the relationship between self-identity and academic persistence and achievement in a counterstereotypical domain. The study revealed that the higher the self-concept and self-schema, the more positive the self-descriptions, the better the academic achievement at 18. The study also showed that self-identity improves through social interaction and communication with others, which would enhance achievement.

Some studies have shown that students with learning disabilities have shown more aggression and misbehavior (Tur-Kaspa et al., 1998). It was also found that there are antisocial behaviors, aggression and education deficiency in dyslexic children (Williams and McGee, 1994). There have been a few studies on the emotional intelligence and dyslexia. Emotional intelligence is such an important factor that the emotional capabilities of which is vitally important in making effective relations. Emotional intelligence can be applied to expressing the quality of relations, understanding people’s emotions, sympathizing with others and being
able to exploit a favorable mood. In fact this intelligence includes identifying one's own feelings as well as others' and applying it to make wise decisions in the daily life.

In September 1999, a conference on emotional intelligence was held in Chicago. The conference mission was to "provide the most comprehensive learning forum on emotional intelligence and its impact in the workplace." Linkage Incorporated claims that "research shows that well-developed EI distinguishes individual "star performers" and plays an important role in determining which organizations will outperform the competition, due in part to higher retention rates, better morale and heightened results." Another conference will be held this coming March in Amsterdam, Hay International Conference: The key to success in the 3rd millennium. This conference sees building people and organizational capability as the key to success.

Emotional intelligence (EI) has recently attracted a lot of interest in the academic literature (Charboneau & Nicol, 2002; Ciarrochi, Deane, & Anderson, 2002; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000; Palmer, Donaldson, & Stough, 2002; Petrides & Furnham, 2003; Roberts, Zeidner, & Matthews, 2001; Saklofske, Austin, & Minski, 2003). The distal roots of EI can be traced back to the concept of 'social intelligence,' coined by E.L. Thorndike (1920) to refer to the ability to understand and manage people.
and to act wisely in human relations. Its proximal roots lie in the work of Gardner (1983) and, more specifically, in his concepts of intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence. EI as a term has been present in the literature for a relatively long time (Greenspan, 1989; Leuner, 1966), although it was not until 1990 that the construct was introduced in its present form (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). EI was propelled into prominence by Goleman’s (1995) best-selling book and a subsequent lead article in TIME magazine (Gibbs, 1995). Thereafter, articles on EI began to appear with increasing frequency across a wide range of academic and popular outlets. Nevertheless, the quantity of empirical work carried out on the construct, including the development of appropriate measures, seems to bear an inverse relationship to the interest it has attracted in the scientific and popular literature.

**Trait Emotional Intelligence versus ability Emotional Intelligence**

Petrides and Furnham (2000a, 2000b, 2001) proposed a clear conceptual distinction between two types of EI, i.e., trait EI and ability EI. Trait EI (or ‘emotional self-efficacy’) refers to a constellation of behavioral dispositions and self-perceptions concerning one’s ability to recognize, process, and utilize emotion-laden information. It encompasses various dispositions from the personality domain, such as empathy, impulsivity, and assertiveness as well as elements of social intelligence.
(Thorndike, 1920) and personal intelligence (Gardner, 1983), the latter two in the form of self-perceived abilities. Ability EI (or 'cognitive-emotional ability') refers to one's actual ability to recognize, process, and utilize emotion-laden information. Trait EI is measured through self-report questionnaires and pertains to the realm of personality. Ability EI requires the use of maximum performance tests with correct and incorrect responses and pertains primarily to the realm of cognitive ability. This is an important distinction inasmuch as it bears directly on the operationalization of the construct and thence on the theories and hypotheses that are formulated about it.

The measurement of ability EI remains a challenging task given the difficulty of devising relevant items that can be objectively scored as correct or incorrect (Petrides & Furnham, 2001; Roberts et al., 2001). In contrast, the measurement of trait EI is much more straightforward and there already exist several widely used instruments for its assessment (e.g., Bar-On, 1997; Schutte et al., 1998). The theoretical underpinnings of trait EI, along with an operational definition of the construct and its precise location in established trait hierarchies are presented in Petrides and Furnham (2001). 1.2. The present study. The aim of this paper is to evaluate a series of hypotheses concerning the potential role of trait EI in academic performance and in deviant behavior at school. A finding that
has been viewed with some concern is that EI, measured through self-report, seems to be uncorrelated to cognitive ability and academic performance (e.g., Newsome, Day, & Catano, 2000; van der Zee, Schakel, & Thijs, 2002). Viewed within the context of the distinction between trait and ability EI, however, this finding is to be expected. Trait EI, which is assessed through self-report instruments, is a personality trait rather than a cognitive ability and as such it should not be expected to show strong associations either with psychometric intelligence or with proxies thereof (see Eysenck, 1994; McCrae, 1994; Zeidner, 1995). Indeed, all the available empirical evidence clearly suggests that trait EI is virtually orthogonal to cognitive ability (Derksen, Kramer, & Katzko, 2002; Newsome et al., 2000; Saklofske et al., 2003).

Any investigation of the potential effects of trait EI on academic performance must be pursued in a specific context, for instance, across clearly differentiated groups of individuals. As an example, it is worth noting a study by Reiff, Hatzes, Bramel, and Gibbon (2001), showing that students with learning disabilities had lower trait EI scores than their non-disabled counterparts. While an individual's emotion-related self-perceptions are unlikely to be directly associated with better or poorer scholastic achievement, it is quite possible that they might interact with variables that are (e.g., cognitive ability). In general, we may expect any
effects that trait EI might have on scholastic achievement to be more pronounced in vulnerable groups (e.g., low ability, maladjusted, learning-disabled). This is because inerable or disadvantaged individuals are more likely to experience stress and emotional difficulties during the course of their studies and, consequently, they are more likely to benefit from an adaptive disposition to deal with such difficulties. The present study examines this and other issues in a comprehensive multivariate investigation based on a large sample, several different academic subjects, and multiple criteria of both academic performance and deviant behavior in school. More specifically, we will investigate the relationship between trait EI and academic achievement with data from annual examinations in various academic subjects. Further, the trait EI may be especially relevant to vulnerable groups, e.g. students with social and emotional, it might be expected to act as a moderator of the effects of cognitive ability on academic performance. In particular, high trait EI is likely to be associated with better performance in pupils with low cognitive ability. It is unclear, however, whether such an effect might vary across different subjects (e.g., mathematics and English), as is the case with psychometric intelligence (Jensen, 1998). Low trait EI may be a key ingredient in a variety of deviant behaviors, many of which have been repeatedly linked to emotional deficits (Cohen & Strayer, 1996; Eisenberg, 2000; Roberts & Strayer, 1996). Moreover, there is evidence
that negative self-perceptions are associated with both truancy and classroom disruption at secondary school level (Fergusson, Lynskey, & Horwood, 1995; Williamson & Cullingford, 1998). A low level of emotional self-efficacy, in combination with increased impulsivity and poor social skills, are likely to be implicated in various forms of antisocial behavior. We hypothesized that trait EI will be negatively related both to exclusions (suspensions due to serious breaches of school discipline) and to unauthorized absences (truancy) from school.

Rational Underlying the Concept of Emotional Intelligence

In order to understand the concept of Emotional Intelligence, it is very important to have a little background of different types of intelligences such as general intelligence, multiple-intelligence and then emotional intelligence.

In fact, Wechsler discussed the “non-intellective factors in general intelligence” as early as 1940 (Wechsler, 1940). Although, he concentrated more on the “intellective’ (or cognitive) aspects of intelligence, he did not deny either the existence nor the importance of the non-cognitive components of the general intelligence. Gardner's “Multiple Intelligence” (Gardner, 1983) can be viewed as an expansion of Wechsler's concept of the “general intelligence”, and that aspect of multiple intelligence, which he refers to, as “personal intelligences” is an
expansion of Wechsler’s ‘non-intellective factors’. The Bar-On (1988) approach to non-cognitive is also related to this “non-intellective” component of intelligence. Cognitive intelligence, which has traditionally been measured with IQ attempts to indicate ones capacity to understand, learn, recall, think rationally, solve problems and apply what one has learned (Kaplan and Sadock, 1991). The concept of non-cognitive intelligence, which is measured by IQ brings new depth to the understanding of intelligence and increases out ability to assess general intelligence. In view of Goleman (1995), IQ alone is no more the measure for success; it only accounts for 20% and the rest goes for Emotional and Social Intelligences, and Juck.

Psychologists have been trying to define intelligence for nearly a century. Based on the difficulties encountered in defining intelligence on one hand and the extra ordinary amount of intelligence testing on the other hand, it is probably easy to measure intelligence than to define it. David Wechsler’s definition of ‘general intelligence’ is probably one of the most useful definitions among many others. He viewed the concept of intelligence as “the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his or her environment” (Wechsler 1958). Wechsler suggested that this definition includes the ability to adapt to new situation and to cope with life
situation successfully. Within this broad definition, it is possible to put together the nation of non-cognitive (emotional, personal and social) intelligence along side cognitive intelligence.

Like cognitive intelligence, emotional and social intelligence is difficult to define. The term "emotional intelligence" does not yet appear in dictionaries; as such, its definition is still an unsettled issue as are the boundaries of this new domain. Broadly speaking, non-cognitive intelligence addresses the personal, emotional, social, and survival dimensions of intelligence, which are often more important for daily functioning than the more cognitive aspect of intelligence, emotional, personal and social intelligence is concerned with the ability to understand oneself and others, relate to people, and adapt to and cope with the immediate surroundings, which increase ones ability to be more successful in dealing with environmental demands. While, cognitive intelligence is more strategic (i.e. ones capacity to function) non-cognitive intelligence is more practical (i.e. one's ability for immediate functioning). Non-cognitive intelligence helps to predict success, because it reflects how a person applies knowledge to the immediate situation. In a way, to measure emotional, personal and social intelligence is to measure ones ability to copewith daily situations and to get along in the world (Bar-On-1997a).
Non-cognitive intelligence is defined by Bar-On-(1997a) as an array of personal, emotional and social abilities and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures. As such, one's non-cognitive intelligence is an important factor in determining one's ability to succeed in life and directly influences one's general emotional well-being (i.e., one's present psychological condition or overall degree of emotional health).

Conventional Definition of Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence refers to an ability to perceive and recognize emotions, to assimilate emotions, to understand the massage and meaning of the emotions. Emotional intelligence is the ability of managing and regulating emotions (Mayer and Salovey (1997b), emotional intelligence reflects not a single trait or ability but rather, a composite of district emotional reasoning abilities; perceiving, understanding, and regulating emotions. Perceiving emotions consists of recognizing and interpreting the meaning of various emotions consists of recognizing and interpreting the meaning of various emotions states, as well as their reations to other sensory experiences, understanding emotions involves comprehension of how basic emotions are blended to form complex emotions, how emotions are affected by events surrounding experiences, and whether various emotional reactions are
likely in given social settings. Regulating emotions encompasses the control of emotions in oneself and in others. An individual's emotional intelligence is an indication of how he or she perceives, understands, and regulates emotions. In sum, emotional intelligence is a form of intelligence that involves "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Salvovey & Mayer, 1990 b).

It can be concluded that different people have different abilities regarding the management and regulation of emotions. An emotionally intelligent person would be the one who acknowledges emotions in him / her self, has an ability to express them appropriately in given social context, understands and accepts others emotions, has an ability to maintain fruitful relationships with others. He / she has positive self image, handles stressful situations wisely and knows how ones emotions affects thinking and behavior, such a person has an accurate perception of ones own and others emotions. Emotional intelligence is knowing when and how to express emotions as it does with controlling it.

**Emotional Intelligence a Significant Component of Personality**

Despite the fact that personality and intelligence have different grounds for establishment and for measurement, but they also have some
similarities. Such as intelligence and personality both are relatively stable components. Balance in both personality and intelligence is essential for the normal functioning in society. Personality is composed of cognitive and non-cognitive multiple factors. It is evident from the Wechsler intelligence test, which was first published in 1939, was actually an attempt to measure non-cognitive as well as cognitive aspects of general intelligence (Wechsler, 1943). Subtests like picture arrangement and comprehension taped social aspect of intelligence whereas mathematics and vocabulary were meant to be for measurement of congnitive intelligence. In 1947 Doll developed a tool for the measurement of non-cognitive intelligence, named Vineland social maturity scale for the measurement of social quotient (SQ), which actually determined the social maturity of an individual. It is intelligence that allows us to “Adapt successfully” to different situations.

Some psychologists believe that it is useful to make a distinction between different kinds of intelligence that allows a person to perform well with significant people, in offices, and in schools, Gardner (1983) believed that thee is no one type of intelligence responsible for success in life, therefore, he introduced theory of “multiple Intellignece”, which consisted of seven different intellectual components such as linguistic, musical, logical, mathematical, spatial, bodily – kinesthetic and
interpersonal. A person could be intelligent in one intellectual sphere, whereas, may appear average in other. A lot of emphasis was drawn in the previous decade towards emotional intellect of a person.

The author believes that self-knowledge plays a key role in the development of emotions for oneself as well as for others. For instance when “depressed self” is dominant a person would stop loving his own self. He / She would slowly and gradually stop eating, neglect his hygiene, would confine himself / herself in four walls and ultimately would try to take his / her life. His / her emotions (such as love and care) for his / her family would also decline. Hence, it can be said that emotions are the binding force in developing and establishing relationships with oneself and others. Emotions they convey meaning about relationships (Schwarz & Gilore, 1983). An emotionally intelligent person would be the one who is able to clearly perceive, understand, regulate, and alter his emotions to preserve his mental health.

Today intelligences include social intelligence (Sternberg and smith, 1985; Thornkdike, 1920), practical intelligence (Sternberg & Caruso, 1985); wagner & Sternberg, 1985; Sternberg et al, 2001), personal intelligence (Gardner, 1993), Non verbal perception skills (Buck, 1984; Rosenthal, Hall, Dimatteo, Rogers, & Archer, 1979), emotional creativity (Averill & Nunley, 1992) and emotional intelligence.
(Bar-on, 1997b). Each of these concepts forms coherent domains that divide human abilities in somewhat different ways and when combined makes a whole personality.

Intelligence is one of the components of personality yet the two have been defined very differently. Personality theory has its roots in one of the deepest thinkers of all time, Sigmund Freud, neo-Freudian, behaviorism, and humanistic and cognitive psychology. From the very beginning, personality theory has focused on how personality is shaped within the family and the larger cultural context, whereas, intelligence research has focused primarily on the more geneal question of the relative role of nature-versus-nurture, without a great deal of attention to how intelligence is shaped by culture. Personality theorists have probed the depths of the human psyche, while intelligence theorists have debated endlessly about whether intelligence is a unitary phenomenon. Which can be measured by a single equation, such as IQ, or whether there is a variety of different dimensions or types of intelligence (Collier, 1995).

Emotional literacy is defined as having the skills to understand an manage emotions, to communicate effectively in order to become an autonomous person (Bocchino, 1999). Salovey and Mayer (1990) reconceptualized Gardner's intelligences under the broader label of emotional intelligence, which is made up of five different abilities.
Capacity for self awareness, skill in managing emotions, power to motivate oneself, ability to empathize with others, and ability to deal with relationships. Goleman (1995) has tried to explain intelligent behaviour by stating that people who know and manage their feelings and deal effectively with other people’s feeling are at an advantage in any domain of life as compared to those people who have no control over their emotional life. Bar On (1997b) has attempted to bridge the gap between personality and intelligence by developing a test of emotional intelligence (EI). The board dimensions, which the test measures are, intrapersonal relationships, interpersonal relationships, adaptability, stress management, and general mood.

To develop emotional intelligence, it is very vital to explore oneself in the light of different confronting situations in every day life. This self-understanding makes it easy to bring new attitudinal changes for self nourishment and betterment, and for positive mental health. According to Hamachek (2000), knowing oneself, deeply and fully, involves facing oneself, directly and honestly. The self is not something with which individuals are born but some thing they create out of their experiences and interpersonal relationships. A person is better able to understand him or herself in social context. With the help of this social interaction he either develops positive or negative self depending on the
responses or reactions of people around him. He might develop understanding of successful and confident self further enhancing his self image and self esteem. On the other hand he could develop a neglected self, failure self or a depressed self which actually become the rout cause of mental illness and disorders.

**Emotional Intelligence and Management of Temperament**

Le Page – Lees (1997) explored the educational experiences of 21 academically successful women who were disadvantaged as children. Results indicated that resilient women who had endured stress as children often developed a highly advanced level of “emotional intelligence” or “interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence”. Another research, which threw light upon the role of EI in academics, was conducted by Ford in 1996. The participants were 104 African American male college students from urban areas. He examined the role of psychosocial variables (emotional intelligence quotient, bicultural behaviors, locus of control and social support) in facilitating academic resilience. The results indicated that only EI quotient was a significant contributor to academic resilience.

Wallace’s (1998) research explored the relationship of arts education to emotional literacy. Which includes interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. Some social scientists believe that art
education is a mean of developing positive self-esteem, self-expression, trust, self acceptance and acceptance of others. This study compared elementary school student responses at one school providing arts education and one that did not. The data revealed that students with education in the arts make more emotionally literate decisions and are more aware of their feelings and of the feelings of those around them.

Koifman (1998) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence (EQ) and cognitive Intelligence (IQ) and their relationship to creativity was examined. The EQ-I was found as a measure of emotional intelligence, grade point averages, as a measure of IQ, and the Jackson's Innovation scale, as a measure of creativity. EQ was significantly correlated with reported life satisfaction (r = 0.55, p < .001) and creativity (r = 0.41, P <.001). No significant correlation was found between IQ and creativity or between IQ and EQ.

The study of Kim and Kim (1999) investigated the construct validity and reliability, and analyzed the relationships of children's emotional intelligence (EI) with temperament and cogitative ability. The sample of 973 children participated in this study ranging from 3-6 years of age. Result identified six factors of children's emotional intelligence (EI). These were utilization of emotion, relationship between child and teacher, and relationship with peers. Subject's emotional intelligence
(EI) scores were significantly related with three temperament factors. The subject's emotional intelligence (EI) was positively related with the physiological responses, and positive child's emotional responses. Emotional intelligence scores were also positively related with cognitive ability, specially, inference ability, perceptivity, creativity, problem solving and originality in thinking.

Another study assessed children's ability to self-report on the emotional attention, emotional clarity, and emotional repair dimensions of emotional intelligence, using to trait Meta-Mood Scale for children (TMMS-C). A total of 691 elementary school children from grades 3 to 7 completed a 28 item scale combining adapted items from the TMMS and a measure of dispositional optimism. Subjects also completed scales measuring depressive symptoms, social anxiety and social avoidance, and life satisfaction, as well as a friendship assessment. Results indicated that children's reports about their emotional competence were linked in important ways to their social competence and adjustment (Rockhill and Greener, 1999).

Bar-On & Orme (2000), using the youth version of the EQ-I, presented a multiple regression model predicting who will do well in school and who will not. The first analysis was based on the student's own perception of scholastic performance. The multiple regression
analysis yielded an R of 0.88 with a sample of 231 with a probability level of .000) when the students evaluated themselves, with the best model being (1) Intrapersonal (2) Adaptability, (3) Stress Management, and (4) Interpersonal. The following correlations were found between the EQ-I scale scores and how well they thought they were doing in school; Intrapersonal = 0.82, Adaptability = 0.67, General Mood = 0.55, Stress Management = 0.59, and Interpersonal = 0.64. In the second analysis, teacher evaluations were used to assess scholastic performance. The multiple T was 0.36 with a probability level of .001 on a sample of 104. When using teacher evaluations, all EQ-I scores for those who were evaluated as doing well were higher than those who were evaluated as not doing well. The strongest EQ-I scale that is able to differentiate between the two groups is the Total EQ Scale. Composite scales were also significantly related to scholastic performance in various ways.

Corso (2001) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and giftedness in adolescence. Participants (N = 100) were students between 12-16 years, accepted into a verbally and mathematically gifted summer youth program held at Western Kentucky University. Students completed the EQ-I; YV, and their parents related the students in five areas of emotional intelligence on a 7-point likert
scale. The gifted adolescents scored significantly higher than their non-gifted same age person total EQ. Adaptability, and stress Management.

The above mentioned researches have indicated the relevance of EI with respect to social and emotional competencies, which are considered vital for a successful performance in academics. Emotional intelligence not only brings psychological well-being by making students good at interpersonal relationships, resiliency and stress management but also enhances their creativity, which flourishes their academic success.

**Emotional Intelligence Associated with Interpersonal Relationships:**

Recent researches are exploring the association between emotional intelligence and interpersonal relationships. Some of the researchers have conceptualized emotional intelligence both as ability and as a trait (Goleman, 1995; Mayer et al., 2000; Schutte & Malouf, 1995). Goleman (1995) as quoted by Schutte et al., (2001) hypothesized that emotional intelligence plays a role in establishing and maintaining relationships, and Saarni (1999) posited that the related construct of emotional competence is a crucial component of social development and contributes to the quality of interpersonal relationships.

Bar-On (1997b) defines interpersonal relationship in terms of empathy and social responsibility. Empathy is an innate ability, which is
further refined by social exchange. Empathy helps people to interact with others more effectively. Salovey and Mayer (1990; Mayer & Salovey, 1997) posited that empathy is an important component or correlate of emotional intelligence. Preliminary support for this notion came from Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999) who, by using a performance measures of emotional intelligence, found that individuals with higher scores for emotional intelligence has higher scores for empathy.

The central components of emotional intelligence are the ability to understand other's emotions and the ability to regulate and harness one's own emotions adaptively; one would expect persons with higher emotional intelligence to be more socially adopt and to display better social skills (Schutte et al. 2001). Social skills are the lubricants of social life that help individuals interact in mutually beneficial ways (Malouff & Schutte, 1998). Furthermore, social skills tend to be reciprocal; persons who display good social skills tend to receive good treatment in return (Gouldner, 1960) and to be liked by others (Anderson, 1968).

Schutte et al. (2001) examined the link between emotional intelligence and interpersonal relations. In studies 1 and 2, the participants with higher scores for emotional intelligence had higher scores for empathic perspective taking and self-monitoring in social situations. In Study 3, the participants with higher scores for emotional
intelligence had higher scores for social skills. In study 4, the participants with higher scores for emotional intelligence displayed more co-operative responses toward partners. In study 5, the participants with higher scores for emotional intelligence had higher scores for close and affectionate relationships. In study 6, the participant's scores for marital satisfaction were higher when they related their marital partners higher for emotional intelligence. In study 7, the participants anticipated greater satisfaction in relationships with partners described as having emotional intelligence.

Emotional intelligence not only brings contentment in one's life but also creative awareness as to how to nurture relationships with love, empathy and respect.

Emotional Intelligence Associated with General Mood

In several studies, researchers have reported the effects of depression, anxiety, and stress on academic performance. One report found depressed mood had no impact on medical school grades (Clark et al. 1988). Whereas, in 1996, Haines reported that measures of depression in college students were negatively correlated with academic performance. In addition, the authors found that self-reported mood ratings (e.g., level of happiness) better predicted academic performance than measures of intelligence.
Time-on-task is defined by Levin and Nolan as a measure of students' time spent actively engaged in learning. In 1988, Jere Brophy demonstrated that increased time spent on learning activities yields increased learning, provided that the teacher was competent and that learning activities were effectively designed and implemented.

Good relationships fulfill basic needs for belonging and nurturance; the social support provided by relationships buffers the negative impact of life stressors (House, Robbins, & Metzner, 1982; Oxman, Berkman, Kasl, Freeman, & Barrett, 1992; Pilisuk & Parks, 1986). Individuals who reported higher levels of maternal and paternal attachment, they reported lower levels of perceived stress and greater confidence in their ability to attend to and regulate negative moods and they also relived less on the use of suppression to cope with their feelings (Mc Cathy, Moller & Fouladi, 2001). Furthermore self reported mood such as level of happiness, better predicated academic performance than measures of intelligence (Haines, Norris, & Kashy, 1996).

An emotionally intelligent person believes in fostering friendly interactions by nurturing personal relationships. They tend to value people and their feelings and believe in showing empathetic attitude.

Good grades in college are highly related to career success (Tan, 1991, as quoted by Trockel et al. 2000). But factors like emotional
intelligence aptitude, previous academic performance, and study habits along with health – related behavior also influence academic performance and are also likely predictors of college GPA’s (Robbins, Spence, & Clark, 1991).

In 1995 Perok and colleagues (as quoted by Trokel et al. 2000) observed that the lower the GPA, the more likely were college athletes to engage in poor lifestyles and health – threatening habits. Such students became more emotionally vulnerable and lost their self respect. Egan and Perry (1998) tested hypotheses that low self – regard contributed over time to peer victimization and that behavioral vulnerabilities were more likely to lead to victimization when children had low self – regard than when they had healthy self – regard. They found that both hypotheses were supported with third through seventh graders, especially when self regard was assessed in terms of peer social competence.

Those who listen to their feelings and feel good about them tend to accept and respect themselves. Such people have higher rate to engage in healthier activities. Children at risk not only have poor self-esteem but also display emotional and behavioral problems, which negatively affect their academic performance.

Individuals who have diverse social support are able to handle stress better. It is seen that such people tend to have better grades as
compared to those who have weak support. Vance, Fernandiz & Biber (1998) found good problem-solving skills, reading at or above grade level, ability to get along with peers and adults, likeability, sense of humor, and having an adult mentor at school were associated with the positive educational progress of 652 boys (ages 13 to 17 years).

McCarthy et al. (2001) found that those subjects who reported higher levels of Maternal and Paternal Attachment, they reported lower levels of perceived stress and greater confidence in their ability to attend to and regulate negative moods, and they also relied less on the use of suppression to cope with their feelings.

Another theory that guided us was concept mapping. Concept mapping is a technique in which the learner links new knowledge to a framework of relevant concepts that the learner already knows. Ausubel maintained that this linking of new with existing knowledge was a key factor in successful learning and that it was the difference between meaningful learning and rote learning. Many researchers have studied the benefits of concept mapping and have determined some tangible outcomes; an improved ability to form conceptual relationships, improved clarity of reasoning and focus on key ideas, and an easier grasp of difficult or new concepts.
Ford and Trotman (2001) write in their article, that sharing the responsibility of student's success and failure makes them to adopt measures, which prove to be beneficial in promoting student’s achievement. They cajole, nag, pester, and bribe students to work at high levels. A teacher in Ladson – Billing's (1995) study put it this way' “we are a family we have to care for one another as if our survival depended on it. Actually, it does”. If a student fails means a teacher has failed.

Teachers being the builders of the nation prepare the youth to meet academic, professional and personal challenges of life. This a student teacher relationship, which is free of conflicts, biases and stereotypes, helps to build rapport and generate academic interest in students. They help students to strengthen those social and emotional skills, which are needed to meet academic challenges successfully.

Emotional intelligence not only assists to mold and adjust one's mood keeping in mind the demand of the situation but it also helps to minimize the emotional strain by adopting optimistic view of life.

**Emotional Intelligence Associated with social support:**

The stronger the social support the more confidence a person will have to fight with challenges, Results of studies linking social support options to college student’s academic performance are divided. Cutrona
and associates (1994) reported that parents social support predicted college GPA, after controlling American College Test (ACT) scores. By contrast, another study found that academic performance was negatively related to social support among medical students, particularly women (Rospenda, Halpert, & Richman, 1994). In another study Hackett and associates (1992), as quoted by Trockel et al. (2000), reported that encouragement from faulty members predicated university student’s academic performance but that peer support and academic performance were negatively related.

Another report indicated that social support ratings were significant predictors of graduate GPAs among African American, Hispanic, and Asian American doctoral students, but not among students of American Indian origin (Williams, 1996).

An emotionally intelligent person believes in fostering friendly interactions by nurturing personal relationships. They tend to value people and their feelings and believe in showing empathetic attitude.

**Emotional Intelligence Associated with self regard**

Good grades in college are highly related to career success (Tan, 1991, as quoted by Trockel et al. 2000). But factors like emotional intelligence aptitude, previous academic performance, and study habits
along with health – related behavior also influence academic performance and are also likely predictors of college GPA’s (Robbins, Spence, & Clark, 1991).

In 1995 Perok and colleagues (as quoted by Trokel et al. 2000) observed that the lower the GPA, the more likely were college athletes to engage in poor lifestyles and health – threatening habits. Such students became more emotionally vulnerable and lost their self respect. Egan and Perry (1998) tested hypotheses that low self – regard contributed over time to peer victimization and that behavioral vulnerabilities were more likely to lead to victimization when children had low self – regard than when they had healthy self – regard. They found that both hypotheses were supported with third through seventh graders, especially when self regard was assessed in terms of peer social competence.

Those who listen to their feelings and feel good about them tend to accept and respect themselves. Such people have higher rate to engage in healthier activities. Children at risk not only have poor self-esteem but also display emotional and behavioral problems, which negatively affect their academic performance.
Emotional Intelligence Associated with Stress Management

In the field of psychology the roots of EI theory go back at least to the beginnings of the intelligence testing movement. E.L. Thorndike (1920), Professor of Educational Psychology at Columbia University teachers college, was one of the first to identify the aspect of EI and he called it social intelligence; In 1920 he included it in the broad spectrum of capacities that individuals process, their “Varying amounts of different intelligences”. “Social intelligence”, wrote thorndike is “the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls – to act wisely in human relations”. It is an ability that ‘Shows itself abundantly in the nursery, on the playground, in barracks and factories and sales rooms, but in eludes the formal standardized conditions of the testing laboratory”. Thorndike did once propose a means of evaluating social intelligence in the laboratory – a sample process of matching pictures of emotive faces with descriptions of emotions. He also maintained that because social intelligence manifests in social interactions, “Genuine situations with real persons” should be necessary to accurately measure it.

Spearman (1927) talked about a common ability inherent in all the tests of intelligence and a specific factor in each test that is completely independent of other factors. Emotional Intelligence (EI) is one of the recent developments in the area of intelligence.
Ansari (1980) found that study habits and study attitudes are both significant variables which determine the academic performance of the students. Russell and Petrie (1992) have cited a research study aimed to find out the relationship between study habits and student attitude and academic performance (cumulative GPA) of college students. Findings of this study indicate a positive correlation between study attitude, study habit and academic achievement.

The term Emotional Intelligence appeared in a series of academic articles authorized by John D. Mayer and Peter Salvovey (1990, 1993, 1995). The first article presented the first model of emotional intelligence. However, the term "Emotional Intelligence" entered the mainstream only with Daniel Goleman in 1995. He argues in his book that IQ contributes only about 20% to success in life, and other forces contribute the rest. We can infer that Emotional Intelligence is a new concept indeed, but the existing data imply that it can be as powerful as IQ and sometimes even more. And, at least, unlike what is claimed about IQ, we can teach and improve the children some crucial emotional competencies. Emotional intelligent people are more likely to succeed in every thing they undertake.

An emotionally intelligent person is better able to manage stressful situation with the effective ability to meet challenges at school. Walter
(1991) found that, though a stress-management program had no effect on anxiety but did improve GPA among study participants. A more recent study revealed the opposite, finding that a stress-management program was effective in reducing adolescent anxiety, but was not effective in improving academic performance (Kiselica and Baker, 1994).

Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I) developed by Bar-On (1997) has 15 sub-scales; emotional self-awareness, assertiveness; self-regard, self-actualization, independence, empathy, interpersonal relationships, social responsibility, problem solving, reality testing, flexibility, stress tolerance, impulse control, happiness, and optimism. There was convergent validity was with Beck Depression Inventory. But there was no significant correlation between the mental ability intelligence embedded in the 16 PF and I.Q-I in terms of the whole scale or sub-components. However, there was a negligible correlation between EQ-I and the WAIS-R (Bar-On, 1997). Newsome, Day and Catano (2000) report that EI as measured by EQ-I was not significantly correlated with academic achievement, and concluded that EQ-I was largely a measure of neuroticism. Dawda and Hart (2000) claimed that EQ-I showed meaningful convergent validity in connection with normal personality, depression, somatic symptomatology, intensity of affective experience and alexithymia. The need for further validation of Bar-On's
(1997) EQ-I was expressed by many researchers (Bar – On, Brown, Kirkaldy & Thome, 2000; Dawda & Hart, 2000).

Cooper (1997) also developed the EQ-I map to measure EI and it consisted of four aspects. The first, Current Environment includes life pressures and life satisfactions. The second, emotional literacy measures emotional self – awareness of others. The third, EQ competencies, measures intentionality, creativity, resilience, interpersonal connections, measures intentionality, creativity, resilience, interpersonal connections, and constructive discontent. The fourth, EQ values and attitudes, are outlook, compassion, intuition, trust radius, personal power, and integrated self. Then, the final EQ outcomes measure general health, quality of life, relationship quotient and optimal performance. One the second aspect has something to do with emotion or intelligence. But, it is again not an ability test. The remaining aspects are beyond the constructs of emotion.

According to Goleman (1998) Emotional Intelligence ability involves some degree of skill in the affective domain, along with skill in whatever cognitive elements that are involved in each ability. This stands in sharp contrast to purely cognitive aspects of intelligence, which, to large degree, a computer can be programmed to execute about as well as a person can. Peter Salovey and John Mayer first proposed their theory of
emotional intelligence in 1990. Over the intervening decade, theorist has generated several distinctive EI models, including the elaborations by Salvey and Mayor on their own theory. The theory as formulated by Salovey and Mayer (1990; Mayer, Salvey & Caruso, 2000) framed EI within a model of intelligence. Reuven Bar – on (1998) has placed EI in the context of personality theory; Specifically a model formulates EI in terms of a theory of performance (Goleman, 1998). An EI - based theory of performance has direct applicability to the domain of work and organizational effectiveness, particularly in predicting excellence in jobs of all kinds, from sales to leadership.

Individuals who have diverse social support are able to handle stress better. It is seen that such people tend to have better grades as compared to those who have weak support. Vance, Fernandiz & Biber (1998) found good problem – solving skills, reading at or above grade level, ability to get along with peers and adults, likeability, sense of humor, and having an adult mentor at school were associated with the positive educational progress of 652 boys (ages 13 to 17 years).

McCarthy et al. (2001) found that those subjects who reported higher levels of Maternal and Paternal Attachment, they reported lower levels of perceived stress and greater confidence in their ability to attend
to and regulate negative moods, and they also relied less on the use of suppression to cope with their feelings.

Those who handle pressure well and withstand adverse events without loosing their emotional sanity tend to have effective problem solving ability. These people take precautionary measures before hand it could influence their performance.

Correlations between EI and grades are in the (r= .20 to .25) range for college students (Barchard, 2003; Brackett & Mayer, 2003, Lam & Kirby, 2002; Parker, Creque, Barnahart, Harris Irons, Majeski, Wood, Bond, & Hogan, 2004) and r= .28 to .32 range for high school students (Parker, Summerfeldt, Hogan, & Majeski, 2004). Once general intelligence and personality are partialled out, however, the relationship between EI and grades drops to non-significance in some studies (Barchard, 2003, Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Lam & Kirby, 2002).

Because academic grades tend to be inflated and restricted in college student samples, which attenuate correlations, the present study examines associations among EI, social competence, and academic grades in a sample of high school students. Moreover, this research examines whether the MSCEIT is a valid instrument in a European country in which Spanish is the primary language.
Previous studies using a variety of self-report measures have shown that EI is associated with important social outcomes, evidence for associations between EI ability and both social and academic success have been summarized in a number of recent book chapters and review articles (see Brackett, Lopes, Ivcevic, Mayer, & Salovey, 2004; Brackett, & Salovey; 2006; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004). In general studies have shown that EI ability is related to greater empathy, (Ciarrochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000), less negative interactions with peers (Brackett, Mayer, & Wamer, 2004), higher-quality relationships, less conflict and antagonism with friends (Lopes, Brackett, Nezlek, Schitz, sellin, & Salovey, 2004, Lopes, Salovey, & Straus, 2003), and lower levels of violence and drugs problems (Brackett et al., 2004; Gil-Olarte, Guil, & Mestre 2004; Rubin, 1999; Trinidad & Johnson, 2002).

Evidence for associations between EI and ability and both social and academic success have been summarized in a number of recent book chapters and review articles.

National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) in 1994 conducted a study to find out the relationship between study habits and academic achievement. Findings of the study revealed a positive correlation between study habit and academic achievements of elementary and secondary school students. Onwuegbuzie (2001) also
conducted a series of studies to find out relationship between study habits and academic success and reported positive relationship between study habits and academic success. The main objective of the study was to examine the effect of guidance services on students study attitudes, study habits and academic achievement.

National Studies

The emotions, feelings, and values are vital for a person's well being and achievement in life, according to Ediger (1997). He also states that science teachers should stress on the affective domain that can not be separated from the cognitive domain. Quality emotions and feelings help students to give their best potential in the class rooms. The students who are aversive and think negatively cannot concentrate for a long time and have more difficulty in reaching their potential than others.

Bharadwaj (1998) explored the prospects of emotional competence associated with laborers and non-laborers of both Genders on a sample of 600 early adolescents by employing a two – group design. The twelve independent studies brought to the fore that in comparison to female non – laborers, female laborers possess greater emotional competence. Male laborers have greater expression and control of emotions than male non- laborers ability to function with emotions and encouragement of positive emotions has been found to be greater in both males and female laborers
as compared with non-laborers there is a great need to reorient our policies with regard to child labor instead of it pseudo eradication endeavors.

Pradhan et al (1999) examined the concept of EQ competencies and leadership effectiveness in middle level managers in India. Their study reported a positive relationship between the two.

Sharma (2000) discussed the concept and characteristics of Emotional Intelligence. Emotional Intelligence is described as a type of social intelligence involving recognition and management of emotions and feelings in self and others for motivating self and dealing effectively with others.

Petrides and Adrian Furnham (2000) studied Gender Differences in measured and self-estimated trait of Emotion Intelligence. Results revealed that females scored higher than males on the social skills factor of measured trait of Emotional Intelligence. However, the 15 facts of self-estimated Emotional Intelligence were combined into a single reliable scale and the participant's measured trait Emotional Intelligence scores were held constant it was demonstrated that males believed they had higher Emotional Intelligence that females, Most of the correlations between measured and self-estimated scores were significant and positive, thereby indicating that people have some insight into their
Emotional Intelligence. Correlations between measured and self-estimated scores were generally higher for males than females and a regression analysis indicated that Gender was a significant predictor of self-esteem of Emotional Intelligence.

An investigation of the relationship between Emotional intelligence and Academic Achievement of Eleventh Grades was undertaken by Nada AbiSarma (2000). It was emphasized that there is significant positive relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Academic Achievement.

Mayer, Perkins, Caruso and Salovey (2001) conducted a study on Emotional Intelligence and giftedness, the result showed that those with higher Emotional Intelligence were better able to identify their own and others' emotions in situations and use that information to guide their actions and resist peer pressure than others.

It is often proved that those who fail in a job or who change jobs are high on IQ and expertise but low an Emotional Intelligence. The best part of emotional competence is that it can be acquired and improved in the course of life experiences. The competency level and nature may vary in various job situations and work culture. For example a doctor must be most empathetic, and a manager/leader need to be more influential. The components of what really constitutes Emotional Intelligence are still used for research. Similarly the assessment of Emotional Intelligence is
approached either through 'objective measures as a 'skill or as an ability'
or though questionnaires as a personality Trait.' (Nutan Kumar
Thingu jan, 2002).

Karen van der Zee (2002) examines the relationship of self
and other ratings of Emotional Intelligence with academic intelligence and
personality, as well as the incremental validity of Emotional Intelligence
beyond academic intelligence and personality in predicting academic and
social success. A sample of 116 students filled in measures for emotional
and academic intelligence, the Big Five, and indicators of social and
academic success. Moreover, other ratings were obtained from four
different raters on Emotional Intelligence and social success. Factor
analysis revealed three Emotional intelligence dimensions that were
labeled as Empathy, Autonomy and Emotional Control. Little evidence
was found for a relationship between emotional and academic
intelligence. Academic intelligence was low and inconsistently related to
Emotional Intelligence, revealing both negative and inconsistently related
to Emotional Intelligence, revealing both negative and positive
interrelations, strong relationships were found for the Emotional
Intelligence dimensions with the Big Five, particularly with Extraversion
and Emotional Stability. Interestingly, the Emotional Intelligence
dimensions were able to predict both academic and social success above traditional indicators of academic intelligence and personality.

Singh (2003) conducted a study on 347 professional from 18 different professions which reveals that different professions do require different E.Q levels.

Saroj (2003) examined the Emotional Intelligence college students and its relationship to their general well being. The sample consisted of 120 college students. Emotional Intelligence scale by Schutte and P.F.I measure of general well being by Verma and Verma were employed on postgraduate students. Two extreme groups were drawn on the basis of scores on Emotional Intelligence measure. High and low scores on Emotional Intelligence (male and female separately) were compared regarding their general well being.

Anjum Sibia and Girishwas Misra (2004) examined the notion of Emotional Intelligence (EI) in the Indian socio-cultural context. An attempt has been made to discern the indigenous notion of EI based on the perspectives of people (parents, teachers and children) in the contemporary Indian Society, where people exhibit a relational and context sensitive construal self. Results indicate that Indian view of EI is embedded in its highly valued social concerns, virtues, cultural traditions and practices. These provide a frame for emotional learning and are
therefore basic to the notion of EI. 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 EI takes into cognizance such factors as social sensitivity pro-social values, action tendencies and effective states. Results indicate that the Indian view of EI is context sensitive and focuses on the role of family and society in shaping one's emotions.

Bhanumurthy Sharma and Neeraja Sharma (2004) highlighted the discourse on emotion in the context of culture and human development. By adopting a qualitative mode of inquiring, it explores the notion of emotional competence among a sample of adolescents (N=70). Open ended interviews as well as written exercises accompanied by group discussions were the main strategies for making sense of the perspective of the children. The study enabled to discern the varied understanding and use of emotion in children's every day life their developing awareness of emotion as means of describing ones self demonstrates the interplay of thought and feeling.

Shailendra Singh (2004) study initiated for developing and standardize a measure of Emotional Intelligence (EI). While writing the items the study has followed Goleman's (1998) model of EI Competencies. Five dimension self awareness, Self Regulation,
Motivation, Empathy and Social Skills have been incorporated. Data were collected from managers (N=263) from various functional areas and represents a heterogeneous set of organization. The scale was constructed and tested to examine the hypothesized positive relationships with three variables viz., namely organizational commitment, emotional expression and quality of life. The five dimension of EI were positively correlated with organizational commitment, emotional expression and quality of life suggesting concurrent validity. Results are encouraging and providing enough indication towards reliability and concurrent validity of the scales.

Arati (2004) studied the relationship between dimensions of family environment and emotional competence of adolescents. A sample of 120 adolescent (60 boys and 60 girls) in the age group of 13-16 years studying in VII, IX And X classes was selected from different high schools of Hyderabad and Secunderabad. Family environment scale developed by Bharadwaj and Sharma were used to find our family environment and emotional competence of adolescents. Pearson product moment correlation method was applied to find out the relationship between family environment and emotional competence of the adolescents. The results revealed that family environment is significantly related to emotional competence of adolescents.
Rabindra Kumar (2005) probed the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and personal effectiveness. It was hypothesized that Emotional Intelligence enhances personal effectiveness. The study was conducted on 50 post graduates (25 male and 25 female) from various departments of Delhi University. The sample was administered Emotional Intelligence scale (Cooper and Sawat) and Personal Effectiveness scale (Udai Pareek, 1989). The study concluded that there exists a positive relationship between Emotional Intelligence and personal effectiveness.

Katyal (2005) studied the Gender differences in Emotional Intelligence among adolescents of Chandigarh. 150 students of Xth class from different government schools from Chandigarh were selected randomly. The data were collected through standardized emotional Intelligence tests. The findings revealed that girls were found to have greater Emotional Intelligence than that of boys.

It is a well accepted fact that the quality of the nation depends upon the quality of the education imparted to its citizens which in turn depends upon the Quality of its teachers this includes all the personality dimensions of a teacher i.e., span of knowledge, teaching skills and teacher behavior comprising his/her Emotional Intelligence. However, a teacher with innumerable degrees and high profile personality cannot
necessarily be termed as a good teacher. The primary quality that makes a whole lot of difference is that classroom interaction and teaching is predominately controlled by his emotional behavior, which in turn depends upon the degree of Emotional Intelligence possessed by him. In this way what makes a teacher successful in his classroom behavior and makes him popular among the students in nothing but his Emotional Intelligence of Emotional Competency Skills. (Indira Dhill, Shubhra Mangal, 2005).

Amritha and Kadhirvan (2006) carried out research on “the influence on personality on the Emotional intelligence of Teachers. The results revealed that Gender, age and qualification will influence the Emotional Intelligence of the teachers. It was also noted that Thinking, judging dimension of personality has significance positive impact on Emotional Intelligence.

Ajay Kumar Bhimrao Patil (2006) emphasized that there is no significance difference between Emotional Intelligence of Male and Female student teachers. It was also stated that Emotional Intelligence and Academic Achievement are significantly related.

The most important research known to the researcher with regard to the role of EQ in second language learning is the work of Fahim and Pishghadam (2007), in which they explored the relationship between EQ, IQ and verbal intelligence with the academic achievement of students
majoring in English language. Interestingly, they found that academic achievement was strongly associated with several dimensions of emotional intelligence (intrapersonal, stress management, and general mood competencies).

Viswanathan (2008) provided significant evidence in support for the role of socio-emotional factors in students' grades. Though there has been considerable research into the influence of emotional maturity on work performance of people, the impact of the same on academic performance has not been that extensively delved into. There have indeed been some studies, but few of them have sought to provide evidence of empirical relationship between students' 'Emotional Intelligence' (EI) and their scores in their studies. In this paper, an attempt has been made to investigate the effect of EI on academic performance of students, applying a methodology which seeks to reduce, if not eliminate, objections to the traditional measures of study on that linkage. A suitably-designed instrument, administered to more than two hundred students, has disclosed that there indeed could be a significant linkage between students' emotional disposition and their scores in exams. Overall, the results provide significant evidence in support for the role of socio-emotional factors in students' grades.
Moreover, it was found that academic achievement did not correlate much with IQ, but it was strongly associated with verbal intelligence which is a sub-section of IQ test. In another study, which was conducted experimentally, Pishghadam (2009) determined the impact of emotional and verbal intelligences on English language learning success in Iran. To fully understand the nature of learning, he calculated and analyzed both the product and the process data. The results of the product-based phase demonstrated that the emotional intelligence is instrumental in learning different skills, specifically productive ones. In the process-based phase, the analyses of oral and written modes of language exhibited the effects of emotional and verbal intelligences on turn-taking, amount of communication, the number of errors, and writing ability.
Study Skills

Study Skills are defined as those techniques such as summarizing, note taking, outlining or locating the material which employ to assist themselves in the efficient learning of the material at hand.

There is some difference of opinion as to the relative value of study habits in the prediction of academic success. Prosser (1928) found that students will superior ability studied least, factors connected with poor work were poor preparation, poor use of time, indifference and headstrong disregard of obligations. Freeman (1929) found low correlation between poor study Habits and grades. But wineland (1930) found that the successful students often studied alone, avoided distractions, did not work when tired, kept fairly complete notes and read rapidly. White (1932) reported that students with low intelligence scores and good scholarship were found to be more interested in their work, compared to under achievers who were more distracted by outside interests and more often handicapped by mental disabilities of the anxiety type. Reinhard (1933) found that poor achievement was related to worry about matters not connected with school work, slow reading, inadequate preparation and lack of proper place or for study. Alexander and woodruff (1940) held that academic success was not related to factors like study tiem, extracurricular activity, social activity, vocational plan etc.
In Wrenn's (1933) first study habits inventory, the items were based on the responses of the high achieving and the low achieving pupils, who were matched with regard to their intelligence. Cuff (1937) used a questionnaire to survey the study habits of grades IV to XII students. Half of the total students (samples) were defective in their achievements due to lack of study habits. Wrenn and Humber (1941) showed that the study habits are associated with scholastic achievement.

The most commonly taught study skill technique is Robinson's (1940) SQ3R method. It is useful from Junior High School age to adults. SQ3R consists of the following steps.

Survey: Look over the headlines of the chapter and discuss the points. It is just like watch the summary of the chapter.

Question: Each heading can be converted into question form.

Read: Read and search the answers for the posted questions.

Recite: At the end of every section or para recite the answer of the above posed questions.

Review: After successful completion of the chapter, read the notes and recite the major points under each heading or topic.
Valdina (1953) cited that the study habits are important correlates of emotional aspects of persons. From her point, the emotional feelings might prevent students from studying. Carter (1953) and Strange (1957) found that the personality structure is related to the study habits. Krishna (1956), observed that the personality factor A (emotionally stable, social type), factor B (adjusted schizoid Vs Maladjusted schizoid) and factor C (sociability) have a significant positive correlation with study habits of college students.

Brown and Holtzman (1955), Patel (1981) and Chauhan and Singh (1982) found a positive relationship between study habits and academic achievement of school going children. Carter (1955) found a moderate linear relationship between study methods and academic scores.

Michael et al (1957) reported that the study habits inventory was not sufficiently valid for predicting scholastic success.

Jamaar (1958) pointed out that there was significant correlation between study habits and achievement. In a subsequent study, he found no relation between intelligence and study habits. Jamaar (1974) found that study habit is related to scholastic achievement, independent of intelligence.
Reports of evaluation of 22 study skills were reviewed by Entwisle (1960), and concluded as follows:

Study skills courses are usually followed by academic improvement and any gains noted we note necessarily to course content. The study would evidence academic gain from such courses regardless of course content with makes one wonder whether some factor other than content is responsible for the improvement.

William (1970) described work – study on SQ3R reading skills, class room skills, and examination skills and writing skills. SQ3R method consists of five steps; survey, question, read, recite and review. The SQ3R method of reading is an excellent example of a systematic approach to reading as it is based on experimental findings in studies of learning, perception, retention, motivating etc., The students are suggested the following methods. Select what he is expected to know. Comprehend the very rapidly

Ansari (1980) found that study habits and study attitudes are both significant variables which determine the academic performance of the students. Russell and Petrie (1992) have cited a research study aimed to find out the relationship between study habits and student attitude and academic performance (cumulative GPA) of college students. Findings of
this study indicate a positive correlation between study attitude, study habit and academic achievement.

Study Skills is often defined as the ability to perform free of error, the complex task involving the activities of decoding and encoding linguistiv and other symbols, with specific reference to the activities—Listening, speaking, reading, writing, classroom activities that predominated in the life of students at school, college or University (Shinde, 1988).

Gall et al (1990) define Study Skills as the “effective use of appropriate techniques for completing a learning task”. In other words, a student who has good Study Skill can successfully carry out a learning task (example participating in class, etc) by using appropriate techniques (example taking notes that paraphrase what teacher has said) in an effective manner. A student with poor Study Skills may carry out same learning task using inappropriate techniques.

National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) in 1994 conducted a study to find out the relationship between study habits and academic achievement. Findings of the study revealed a positive correlation between study habit and academic achievements of elementary and secondary school students. On wuegbuzie (2001) also conducted a series of studies to find out relationship between study habits
and academic success and reported positive relationship between study habits and academic success. The main objective of the study was to examine the effect of guidance services on students study attitudes, study habits and academic achievement.

Everyone is different, and for some students, studying and being motivated to learn comes naturally. If you are reading this page, it's likely that you are not one of them, but don't despair, there is hope! Your success in high school and college is dependent on your ability to study effectively and efficiently. The results of poor study skills are wasted time, frustration, and low or failing grades. It's your life, your time, and your future. All I can say, upon reflection of many years as a teacher, is that time is precious and not to be squandered, no matter what you believe right now.

This guide is designed to help you to develop effective study skills. It is not a magic formula for success in preparing for tests, or written or oral assignments. Studying any material requires work! However, by using the techniques described in this guide, and by applying yourself, you can gain a valuable edge in understanding material, preparing for tests, and, ultimately, learning. This guide contains some of the best and most effective techniques of successful students - students who typically have high grades in high school and college regardless of the courses they
take. So read on, think about what you read, and prepare to become a successful student!

Students who create their own study aids are spending time making them, whereas those who use other's study aids are not. It may also be that the process of creating study aids helps the learner gain more meaningful knowledge through the process of synthesizing disparate pieces of information into new knowledge, as has been shown with note taking. The related literature on note taking and performance, as noted in the ERIC, indicates a positive relationship between note taking and retention. We wondered if students who used study aids made by others rather than making their own might be missing out on the benefits of time-on-task and concept mapping.

**Fix the ideas in memory and to review efficiency for examinations.**

The SQ3R method is more efficient and less time consuming than reading the lesson in a haphazard way.

Reddy (1972) observed that there was no significant difference between rural and urban pupils in their study habits. Nirmalakanta (1979) found significant difference between the urban and rural boys in respect to their study habits. But found no such difference between urban and rural girls. Rajeswari (1980) observed that there was a significant
difference between urban and rural intermediate students in their study Habits.

Girija, Bhadra and Ameerjan (1975) made a study on the relationship between study habits and academic achievement of first and final year students of the undergraduates of University of Agricultural Sciences, Bangalore. The two groups differed significantly with regard to their study skills and achievement. Best (1977) found that there a positive relationship between study habits and academic achievement. Asha Bhatnagar (1980) observed 600 X class students of Delhi and found a positive relationship between involvement in studies and Academic Achievement. Tuli (1980) observed that study habits are correlates of achievement in Mathematics.

Patel (1981) found that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the study habits of intellectually backward pupils from urban and rural areas. Munirathanam (1984) showed that there was a significant difference between the urban and rural IX class pupils. On the study habits Rai and Kumari (1986) found that the rural area B.Ed., students had exhibited better study habits than those of urban area B.Ed. students.

A good student must draw up a timetable for study. This timetable should ideally indicate day, time and subjects to be studied. Such
timetables are positively beneficial because they enable a learner to organize his study effectively. This takes a load off the learners' shoulders, enabling concentration on only one task at a time (Rowntree, 1983).

Tiwari (1982) and Shanmugasundram (1983) indicated a positive relationship between the study habits and academic achievement. Singh (1984) found that the study habits and academic achievement are significantly related. Deb and Grewa (1990) after their investigation on B.Sc., Final Year Home Science students revealed that, the components of study habits are positively correlate with the academic performance of students. Students with good study habits do better academically. Therefore, parents and teachers should help to promote good study habits in their children right from the beginning. Gray Lee (1990) indicated that there is significant difference between high and low achievers in study habits among boys and girls.

Singh (1987) conducted a study that gender and self-concept interact significantly in relation to study habits of students. Stock (1989) conducted a study of students. Stock (1989) conducted a study on 141 undergraduates and found that study times in the high performance expectation conditions would exceed those in the minimum performance expectation conditions.
Ram Mohan Babu (1988) reported that there was significant difference between the study Habits of residential school pupils and non-residential school pupils studying VIII Class.

Sinde (1988) classified study skills into three categories 1) skills for gathering information 2) Skills for storing information and 3) Skills for retrieving information. Few studies reported that motivation, interest among students along with good study skills yield good academic achievement on the part of the students. Therefore, there is need for research to uncover the relationship between academic Achiement and study skills at school level.

Patnaik and Basavayya (1991) reported that there was no significant relationship between study habits and achievement in mathematics. Ekins Judith (1992) investigated on study and the skill and the development of study skills, increased student achievement. Stella and purushothaman (1993) showed that there is no significant difference between the study habits are significantly correlated with the school grades of first year school students in Hong Kong. Aruna (1994) concluded that Scholastic Acheivement of the IX class pupils had significant influence on their study habits. Rawat Leela (1995) showed that there was no significant difference between the study habits of boys and girls and their academic achievement. Fruntera, Lucy and Rosalind
(1995) found that the students behavior of students was significantly related to their success.

Verma, Sheksh and Sangita (1996) found that the level of academic motivation and test anxiety had a significant impact on the study habits of adolescent students. Al-Hilawani, Yasser and Aziz (1997) investigated the influence of GPA, academic majors and academic levels on the study skills at United Arab Emirates University and found that students majoring in special education and educational psychology obtained a significantly high score than did students in the other majors.

Manchala (1996) showed that urban students had better study habits than rural students. Sampath and selvarajagnanaguru (1997) found that there was no significant difference between higher secondary commerce students studying in urban and rural schools in respect to their study habits.

Chopra (1996) identified that the study habits were positively related to academic achievement. Verma (1996) showed that students possessing good study habits scored high on achievement than students possessing poor study habits in the English, hindi and social studies. Narayan Koteswara (1997) showed that the study habits total score significantly influenced on reading achievement of high school students. Gordan (1998) found that the students having good study habits
possessed good achievement. Venden Hurk (1998) showed that the study habits of medical students were correlated with their Academic Achievement.

Vasantha et al (1999) conducted a study on study habits of tenth standard students. She used a sample of 100 boys and 100 girls in the age group of 13-15 years from two urban schools and two rural schools from Andhra Pradesh.

A key to academic survival and success in the classroom is efficient use of time outside the classroom (Battles, 1999). Time management is a skill few people master, but it is one that most people need (Treuer, 2006). Developing time management skills is a journey that needs practice and guidance (Landsberger, 2006). Students’ performance in school is a topic of great concern to teachers, parents, and researchers. It puts a lot of pressure on students, teachers, schools, and the educational system in general (Padma, 2007).

Nalini Devi (2001) has carried out a study on study habits of early adolescent. The study was undertaken in suburban and sindhi matriculation higher secondary students (boys and girls) in the age group of 16 to 17. The data were collected with the use of an interview schedule. The aspects analysed were the study schedule and leisure time activity, reading habits, note taking, revision, provisions made at home
for studies, satisfaction regarding the guidance received at home and school, hindrances faced in securing high academic achievement and educational and professional aspirations.

Virginia (2001) in a hand out for parents on importance of study skills stated that for children to learn good study skills, teachers and parents must work together. It is most important to help children build good habits, to develop a system that works for an individual child, and to use the system effectively and consistently. Preferred learning styles vary from child to child. Children need to discover how they learn and then work out a study system that fits best. Parents of elementary aged children usually help their children more than parents of adolescents. However, adolescents also need parental support and encouragement throughout high school.

The University of Wisconsin came out with master piece work in the name of “Keys to Study Skills (2002) which include skills such as note taking, study skills, management skills, learning Vs studying responsibility, communicating subject matter, test taking and preparation, reading subject matter, math - specific skills, science - specific skills they were designed to help students develop study Skills that will increase their performance in College. These materials can be disseminated to instructors of departments, guidance counselors and
students. Further the university had also developed a student hand out on study skills.

Nagaraju (2004) in his study on “Study Habits of secondary school students” reported that academic achievement has showed significant influence on all the study habit areas and study. Habits score. The academic Achievement of the pupils has significant influence on their study habits.

Bhuvaneswara Lakshmi (2004) examined the study habits of boys and girls in private and government school students, and students of residential and non-residential schools. The variables studied were Gender, management of the school, and type of the school. She suggested that the management of the residential schools need to devise suitable techniques to improve the study Habits of their students. The teachers should guide the students in developing good study habits. The parents should provide the necessary facilities to implement their plan of action in their studies. The students should also develop right study habits to improve their academic achievement.

Landsberger (2005) gave a list of keys to academic success: they are; taking responsibility, putting things in proper order, discovering one’s key productivity periods and places, prioritizing productivity periods and places for the most difficult study challenges, considering oneself in a
win-win situation, consulting with the teacher, and continuously challenge oneself.

Panchalingappa (2004) conduct a study on self-confidence, Anxiety, Study habits and mathematics achievement of underachievers at secondary school level. The sample consisted of 135 students of whom 94 were identified as normal achievers and 41 students as underachievers. The data were collected using an appropriate tool and analysed by Y test. The results indicated that there is significant difference between normal and under achievers in respect of their self-confidence, general anxiety, test anxiety, Study Habits and Mathematics achievement. It also reveals that lack of self confidence, general anxiety, test anxiety and poor study habits are all possible causal factors associated with under achievement in mathematics. The foregoing brief review of literature has shown that intelligence, study skills and study habits were related to achievement.

Seebach (2006) suggests a study break (not a relaxation break) after every 15 to 20 min in which to recall what has been studied. Some time spent on rest and relaxation may actually save time in the long-run (LaBine, 1999). Breaks are an important part of study and students should show them on the timetable. It is difficult for most people to work for more than three hours without a break and if a learner persists in doing
this, he is likely to find himself involved in ineffective cramming sessions (Freeman, 1982). The making and organisation of a study plan is a major factor in accelerating the academic progress of students. Lalitha (2000) describes that studying is essentially hard

Deborah A (2006) stated that the study habits were more similar than different when compared by exam performance. A majority of students used Study aids as a memory aid or for review, but students who performed in the top third of the class were less likely to use them at all. Pre-existing differences related to academic achievement and Study strategies were found when students at the top, middle and bottom of exam performance were compared. He concluded A better understanding of the differences in study habits and Study aid use in relation to examination performance can help in providing future students with appropriate academic support and advising.

Lakshminarayanan et al (2006) compared the study skills of achievers and non-achievement using a sample a 50 achievement and 50 non-achievements it was indicated that achievement use higher level on study skills than the non-achievement.

The above studies on study habits and academic achievement have shown that they are both relevant variables, which influence the quality
and quantity of work output. Academic achievement can be improved by creating good study habits, which students can stimulate towards study.

Adam Winsle et al (2008) believes that the Knowledge about self-regulation and motivation processes enables students to maximize their college career paths and allows universities to implement better intervention programs to encourage struggling students to persist and complete their educational studies. College administrators and instructors should focus on developing interventions to instill a healthy sense of self-efficacy in students and teach them how to manage their time effectively. Interventions in the form of learning how to learn courses and/or workshops should be designed specifically for first-year students to provide them with helpful adjustment strategies such as setting strategic goals, planning effectively throughout the first year of undergraduate study, and seeking help when needed. Furthermore, instructors of introductory-level classes should provide first-year students with successful peer role models to enhance their self-efficacy beliefs in completing their course requirements. For example, they can make available samples of past projects to their current students, which may allow them to observe successful peers and encourage them to believe that they can succeed. Equipping students with self-regulatory strategies and positive motivational beliefs earlier on in their studies will prepare
and sustain their motivation for more demanding, upper level courses as they progress through their academic career.

Muhammad Sarwar(2009) revealed in a study that the high achievers had better study orientation, study habits and attitude, than the low achievers. There was no significant difference between the study orientations of male and female students but the rural students differed significantly from urban students on study orientation.

Work and concludes that students who are not prepared to make appropriate efforts are wasting their time. Rote memorization does not bring about sustained learning and to be a good learner the student must plan his study time and spread it over a period. This conclusion has implications for educational systems that encourage strategic rote learning in students by basing their assessment methodology entirely on high stakes one off testing and exams. Time management skills are essential for successful students.
SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL PROBLEMS

Definition of social and emotional problem

Emotional refers to the attainment of emotional capabilities and their expansion as the child grows. These capabilities enable the children to have feelings about what they do and also about others. Emotional development provides children the capabilities and skills that they need to function and survive in the society as well as the world. There are many different stages in the development of a child’s emotions and at each stage; the child learns a new kind of emotion like sense of achievement, feeling loved or wanted. Social refers to the development of interaction with the human world around, including relationships with others and also the social skills we need to fit into our culture or society.

Social-emotional and life skills must be taught explicitly at the elementary and secondary levels. Like reading or math, if social-emotional skills are not taught systematically, they will not be internalized and become part of a child’s lifelong repertoire of valued activities. Although this is necessary, CASEL research would suggest it is not sufficient (Elias et al., 1997). Children also benefit from coordinated, explicit, developmentally sensitive instruction in the prevention of specific problems, such as smoking, drug use, alcohol, pregnancy, violence, and bullying. Obviously, different communities and cultures
will select and focus on preventing different problem behaviors. Perhaps of greatest importance and relevance to each teacher, children benefit from explicit guidance in finding a healthy lifestyle. Eating habits, sleeping patterns, and study and work environments are among the areas that are important to promoting academic learning and SEL. Finally, schools should be attentive to difficult life events that befall students and try to provide them with support and coping strategies at those troubling moments. Typically, such assistance is not given until children show problems that are the result of those difficult life events; unfortunately, during this time, many students are distracted from learning. Even when they are not actively disrupting class, they are not taking in all that their teachers are working so hard to provide. Providing social-emotional assistance to children facing difficult events is a sound prevention strategy that also promotes better academic learning. Children with special education needs must also receive social-emotional skill-building instruction and be included in related activities (Adelman & Taylor, 2000; Comer, Ben-Avie, Haynes, & Joyner, 1999; Elias et al., 1997; Jessor, 1993; Perry & Jessor, 1985).

Children are required to learn many things, but without a sense of connection between and to those things, children are not likely to retain what they learn and use it in their lives. When their learning is presented
in terms of understand able goals (goals that children can play a larger role in defining as they get older), children become more engaged and focused and less likely to exhibit behavior problems. Learning experiences that coordinate and integrate different aspects of learning across subject areas and over time, as well as those that link to their lives outside of school in the present and future, are especially valuable.

Masten, A.S., et al., (1998). The development of competence holds great interest for parents and society alike. This article considers implications from research on competence and resilience in children and adolescents for policy and interventions designed to foster better outcomes among children at risk. Foundations of competence in early development are discussed, focusing on the role of attachment relationships and self-regulation. Results from studies of competence in the domains of peer relations, conduct, school, work and activities are highlighted, lessons are drawn from studies of naturally occurring resilience among children at risk because of disadvantage or trauma and also from efforts to deliberately alter the course of competence through early childhood education and preventive interventions. Converging evidence suggests that the same powerful adaptive systems project development in both favorable and unfavorable environments.
Children also benefit from learning problem-solving strategies that they can apply to new situations that face them. Instruction in reading that includes examining the problem-solving and decision-making processes used by various characters in stories, as well as history and current events instruction that allows students to focus on the different perspectives of individuals and groups involved and the problem-solving processes they used (or might have used), is particularly enriching. A similar process can be used to help students understand the process of scientific and mathematical problem solving. When this takes place, students find that as they encounter new books, new civic situations, and new group processes, they will have strategies to apply that enhance their learning and performance and enable them to make better progress (Cohen, 1999; Elias & Bruene, 2005; Elias et al., 1997; Pasi, 2001; Topping & Bremner, 1998).

Fantuzzo, J.W., et. Al., (2005). The study examined the unique relationship between multiple dimensions of classroom behavioral adjustment problems and salient social – emotional competencies for urban Head Start children. These relationships were investigated using a hierarchical model that controlled for the variance in social emotional outcomes attributed to age, gender, and verbal ability. Class room behavioral adjustment problems were assessed early in the year by the
adjustment scales for preschool intervention (ASPI) across multiple, routine preschool classroom situations. Outcomes assessed at the end of the year included emotion regulation, peer play in the home and neighborhood context, and approaches to learning. Socially negative behavior in the classroom predicted emotional ability, maladaptive learning behaviors, and disruptive social play in the home at the end of the year. Withdrawn behavior uniquely predicted lower affective engagement in the classroom and disconnection from peers in the home context. Findings provide predictive validity for the ASPI. Implications for policy, practice and future research are discussed.

Gutermuth, L.G., et al., (2005). Young children develop social and emotional competence through interactions with others in the two major contexts in which they spend time. Home and preschool. This study examined whether parenting stress in the home context is related to the children's behavior while in preschool. Previous research has suggested that parenting stress negatively influences parenting behavior, which in turn has been shown to impact children's development. This study examined the direct relationship between parenting stress and children's behavior in two types of preschool programmes. Private day care centers and head start. Parenting stress was significantly related to teacher ratings of social competence, internalizing behaviors, and externalizing
behaviors, and the effects of parenting behavior do not appear to mediate this relationship. Parenting stress was most strongly related to children's social competence. Parent's reports of expectations for their child's behavior appear to weakly moderate the relationship between externalizing behavior and parenting stress. This study suggests that examination of a parent's level of stress, in addition to parenting practices, may be important in research and interventions with preschool children's behavior and social competence.

Bernard, M (2006). Discussed that the non-academic, social-emotional factors contribute to student academic achievement, including the cognitive-behavioral characteristics of underachieving students and those with learning disabilities; the “You can Do it! Education” (YCDI) theory of achievement; derivative research on social – emotional capabilities, called the Give Foundations (Academic confidence, work Persistence, Work organization, getting along emotional resilience) that, when delayed, produce achievement problems; and recommendations for developing students' social emotional competence. The research reviewed demonstrates that the Five foundations and associated Habits of the Mind can be taught to young people, producing increased effort with school work and better achievement.
Denham, S. (2006). The overall issue of assessment during early childhood, and its relation to school readiness and other decisions, is currently widely debated. Expanding early childhood education and child care enrollments, better scientific knowledge about early childhood development, and decisions about public spending, necessitate careful consideration of which assessment tools to use, as well as why and when to use them. More specifically, the disconnection between the importance of social and emotional domains of development, and their status within educational programming and assessment, has long been lamented. The last several years, have, however, witnessed a blossoming of attention to these areas during early childhood, as crucial for both concurrent and later well-being and mental health, as well as learning and academic success. Teachers view children’s “readiness to learn” and “teach ability” as marked by positive emotional expressiveness, enthusiasm, and ability to regulate emotions and behaviors. Based on these assertions, I suggest a battery of preschool social emotional outcome measures, tapping several constructs central to emotional and social competence theory, specifically emotional expressions, emotion regulation, emotion knowledge, social problem solving, and positive and negative social behavior.
Aviles, A.M., et al., (2006). Children and adolescents exposed to violence may develop mental health problems, impacting their ability to develop appropriate social – emotional skills. Limited development of social – emotional skills has been associated with poor performance in school. A review of the literature was conducted to better understand social – emotional development in children and its role in a child’s ability to function in the school setting. The developmental psychopathology framework is used to illuminate the dynamic relationship between children and their contexts. Specifically, the context of school is explored to identify its role in providing services that address the needs of children and adolescents with social emotional limitations.

Hemmeter, M.L., et al., (2006) Over the last several years, there has been an increased focus on school readiness and supporting children during the preschool years to learn the skills they need to be successful in elementary school and beyond. The capacity to develop positive social relationships, to concentrate and persist on challenging tasks, to effectively communicate emotions, and to problem solve are just a few of the competencies young children need to be successful as they transition to school. In this article, we described the teaching pyramid, a model for promoting young children’s social – emotional development and addressing children’s challenging behavior and its link to critical
outcomes for children, families, and early childhood programs. The pyramid includes four components. Building positive relationships with children, families, and colleagues; designing supportive and engaging environments; teaching social and emotional skills; and developing individualized interventions for children with the most challenging behavior. Given the unique characteristics of early childhood settings, implementation issues and implications of the model are a primary focus of the discussion.

Ha, Ly Thi (2008) conducted a study in Central North of Vietnam. Sample of children were drawn from 4 primary schools, 2 in urban area and 2 in rural area. Informants of the study were teachers. They rated sample children on social skills, problem behaviors, and academic achievement. The study's results reveal that internalizing problem has negative effect on academic achievement of children in the study. This effect seems to be more significant for girls than for boys. Similarly, social withdrawal is found to be negatively related to academic achievement. However, the magnitude of this relation cannot be computed since the number of children identified as socially withdrawn in the study is very low. This leads to one difficulty that the results could not be generalized. More research on social withdrawal should be done in
order to draw a definite conclusion about the relation between social withdrawal and academic achievement of children.

A study by Frey et al (2009) "Observed reductions in school bullying, nonbullying aggression, and destructive bystander behavior: A longitudinal evaluation," found a 31 percent decrease in bullying and victimization in schools that participated in the STEPS TO RESPECT program for two years. It also found dramatic decreases in destructive bystander behavior, which can encourage bullying. "The changes observed in destructive bystander behavior were so substantial that the behavior almost disappeared," the researchers wrote.

Effective, lasting academic learning and SEL are built on caring relationships and warm but challenging classroom and school environments.

There is abundant research in support of the idea that students are most responsive academically to classrooms and schools that are not threatening to students and challenge them to learn more but do so in ways that do not discourage them (e.g., Kriete & Bechtel, 2002; Lewis, Schaps, & Watson, 1996; O’Neil, 1997; Osterman, 2000; Zins et al., 2004). Also, these schools are places where students feel cared about, welcomed, valued, and seen as more than just learners—they are seen as
resources. In this kind of caring climate, educators can work on providing the eight elements necessary for the kind of academic-social-emotional balance that will lead students to success in school and life:

**Social and Emotional Learning**

The literature suggests that to be socially accepted, students should be cooperative, share, offer pleasant greetings, have positive interactions with peers, ask for and give information, and make conversation (Gresham, 1982). Some children with I.D have a real strength in the area of social skills. However, several characteristics of learning disabilities, such as those noted concerning language, can create difficulties in social and emotional life (Smith et al., 2004).

Some students with I.D, however, experience no problems getting along with peers and teachers. For example, Sabornie and Kauffman (1986) reported no significant difference in sociometric standing of 46 high school students with LD and 46 peers without disabilities. Moreover, they discovered that some of the students with I.D enjoyed socially rewarding experiences in inclusive classrooms. One interpretation of these contradictory findings is that social competence and peer acceptance are not characteristics of LD but are outcomes of the different social climates created by teachers, peers, parents, and others with whom
students with LD interact (Vaughn, McIntosh, Schumm, Haager, & Callwood, 1993; cited in Heward, 2003).

Wright-Strawderman and Watson (1992) found that 36% of a sample of students with learning disabilities indicated depression. Other researchers have reported psychological problems including feelings of inadequacy, anxiety, frustration, and anger (Bender, 2002).

During the periods of 1994-97 much of work on children with social and emotional problems was carried out by several researchers. But they had conducted these researches only on gifted children for example. Alvino, J. (1995) monograph offers practical suggestions for interacting with gifted children at home. Chapter titles include the following: "Parenting Styles Make a Difference," "The Enriched Environment," "Nurturing Your Child's Creativity," "Critical Thinking, Research, and Study Skills," "Academics at Home: The Core Subjects," and "The Value of Play." A summary of key parenting tips is provided.

After reviewing 152 different studies, Kavale and Forness (1996) concluded that 75% of students with LD exhibit deficits in social skills. Studies of teacher ratings also suggested that students with learning disabilities have lower social status than other students. Social skills deficits include acceptance by peers, Difficulty making friends, Being seen by peers as overly dependent, Being less likely to become leaders,
Resolving conflict Managing frustrations Initiating or joining a conversation or play activities Listening Demonstrating empathy Maintaining a friendship Working in groups

In simple terms, social and emotional learning (SEL) as the capacity to recognize and manage emotions, solve problems effectively, and establish positive relationships with others, competencies that clearly are essential for all students. Thus, SEL targets a combination of behaviors, cognitions, and emotions. As described by the Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL), SEL is the process of acquiring and effectively applying the knowledge, attitudes, and skills necessary to recognize and manage emotions; developing caring and concern for others; making responsible decisions; establishing positive relationships; and handling challenging situations capably. Similar to the way students learn academic skills, they learn, practice, and apply SEL skills by engaging in positive activities in and out of the classroom. Initial skills that they have learned become enhanced, nuanced, and better integrated over time to address the increasingly complex situations children face in terms of academics, social relationships, citizenship, and health (Elias et al., 1997; Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning [CASEL], 2003).
Caprara, G.V et. al (2000) conducted longitudinal research demonstrates robust contributions of early prosocial behavior to children's developmental trajectories in academic and social domains. Both prosocial and aggressive behaviors in early childhood were tested as predictors of academic achievement and peer relations in adolescence 5 years later. Prosocialness included cooperating, helping, sharing, and consoling, and the measure of antisocial aspects included proneness to verbal and physical aggression. Prosocialness had a strong positive impact on later academic achievement and social preferences, but early aggression had no significant effect on either outcome. The conceptual model accounted for 35% of variance in later academic achievement, and 37% of variance in social preferences. Additional analysis revealed that early academic achievement did not contribute to later academic achievement after controlling for effects of early prosocialness. Possible mediating processes by which prosocialness may affect academic achievement and other socially desirable developmental outcomes are proposed.

Although not all children with LD have social–emotional problems, they do run a greater risk than their nondisabled peers of having these types of problems. In the early years they are often rejected by their peers and have poor self-concepts (Sridhar & Vaughn, 2001). As adults, the scars from years of rejection can be painful and not easily

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forgotten (McGrady, Lerner, & Boscardin, 2001). A possible reason for these social–emotional problems is that students with LD often have deficits in social cognition. They may have the following characteristics. Misread social cues Misinterpret the feelings of others Not know when they are bothering others Be unaware of the effect of their behavior on someone else Be unable to take the perspective of others or put themselves in someone else's shoes.

Research has consistently found a higher-than-normal rate of behavioral problems in the classroom among students with learning disabilities (Cullinan, 2002). In a study of 790 students enrolled in K–12 LD programs in Indiana, the percentage of students with behavioral problems (19%) remained consistent across grade levels. However, it should be noted that the relationships between students' behavioral problems and academic difficulties are not known. In other words, we do not know whether the academic deficits or the behavioral problems cause the other difficulty. Furthermore, many children with LD exhibit no behavioral problems at all (Heward, 2003). Research further suggests that social interaction problems for students with LD seem to be more evident in those who have problems in math, visual-spatial tasks, tactual tasks, self-regulation, and organization (Worling, Humphries, & Tannock, 1999).
In some cases, the social dimensions of life pose greater problems for students with LD than their specific academic deficits, and yet this dimension is essentially ignored in the definitions and labels that relate to learning disabilities. Many professionals would not support broadening the definition of learning disabilities to incorporate social and emotional dimensions, although it is clear that these are substantial (Hutchinson, Freeman, & Bell, 2002).

Sabine J. Roza, and his colleagues (2003) predicted that the onset of mood and anxiety disorders from parent-reported emotional and behavioral problems in childhood across a 14-year period from childhood into young adulthood. Mood disorders were significantly predicted by high scores on the anxious/depressed scale and on the internalizing composite (withdrawn, somatic complaints, and anxious/depressed). Anxiety disorders were significantly predicted by the social problems scale and the externalizing composite (delinquent behavior and aggressive behavior). Anxiety disorders predominantly started in childhood and early adolescence, whereas the incidence of mood disorders increased sharply in adolescence and young adulthood. These results suggest different developmental pathways for mood and anxiety disorders. The predictions based on problem behavior remained stable during the 14-year period across adolescence and young adulthood. The results therefore underline
the importance of early intervention and prevention of behavioral and emotional problems in childhood.

Robert B. Rutherford, Jr., Mary Magee Quinn (2007) reviewed a range of evidence-based approaches to identifying, assessing, and intervening with this difficult-to-teach population. School practitioners and educators gain essential tools for developing and evaluating programs to improve student behavior, boost self-control and social skills, and maximize academic achievement. Findings on early intervention and prevention are presented, and implications for policy discussed.

Judith H. W (2007) evaluated the cognitive and social-emotional consequences in a general population of primary school children affected by the firework disaster in Enschede, the Netherlands, on May 13, 2000. The explosions caused tremendous damage in the surrounding neighborhood. Twenty-two people immediately died and 1000 were injured. This retrospective study assessed school performance and social-emotional behavior before and up to 3 years after the disaster. Objectively measured school test results in spelling and arithmetic/mathematics and multi-informant social-emotional behavioral assessment; were compared between exposed and nonexposed primary school children. Multivariate logistic-regression was used to assess the relationship between exposure and cognitive and social emotional functioning. On school performances,
the children exposed to the disaster performed over a period of 3 years after the disaster as good as or better than classmates, controls, and a national reference population. Shortly after the disaster, exposed children even seemed to have better school test results than nonexposed children. Two to 3 years after the disaster, a significant effect of disaster exposure was found on social-emotional behavior. Problematic behavior was reported by teachers, parents, and the school doctor. This study demonstrates a limited influence of disaster exposure on school performance in primary school children. This study also shows that teachers and youth health care practitioners especially should be aware of children starting school several years after a disaster. Although very young at the time of a disaster (1–4 years of age), they may experience disaster-related problems.

M. T. Kantomaa et al (2009) examined whether physical activity, mental health and socio-economic position were associated with the overall academic performance and future educational plans of adolescents aged 15–16 years. We used a sample of 7002 boys and girls from the Northern Finland Birth Cohort 1986. Data were collected by a postal enquiry in 2001–02. Multivariable logistic regression models were estimated and adjusted for family structure and all variables in the models. In the fully adjusted models, higher levels of physical activity and high parental socio-economic position were associated with higher
overall academic performance and future plans for higher education. High scoring on behavioural problems was related to lower overall academic performance and poorer future academic plans. In summary, a higher level of physical activity, fewer behavioural problems and higher socio-economic position were independently associated with high self-perceived overall academic performance and plans for higher education among adolescents. The interrelations of these factors and the positive relationship between physical activity, mental health and school outcomes provide a context of critical importance for future research, intervention programming and policy directed at improving the educational attainment of adolescents.

Jennifer S. Wong (2009) believed that victimization prior to the age of 12 years is significantly predictive of the development of several delinquent behaviors, including running away from home, selling drugs, vandalism, theft, other property crimes, and assault. Using meta-analysis, the final chapter of the dissertation assesses the overall effectiveness of school-based programs for preventing bullying and victimization. Results suggest that as a whole, prevention programs are significantly effective at reducing the problem of victimization in schools, but are only marginally successful at reducing bullying. After participating in bullying prevention programs, students report an effect size of .188 for reduction in
victimization, and an effect size of for reduction in bullying others. The possibility of systematic between-study heterogeneity was explored via moderator analyses, and several significant moderators of treatment impact on victimization were identified. More work is needed to determine why programs are more successful with victims of bullying than with perpetrators, and prevention efforts should focus on the development of programs that are more likely to bring about successful reductions in both bullying and victimization.
ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

What is academic performance

Academic performance refers to how students deal with their studies and how they cope with or accomplish different tasks given to them by their teachers. The educators, psychologists, policy makers are interested to investigate various factors affecting academic performance of the students.

A study using sixth and seventh graders aimed to see if by adding personality measures to IQ in the prediction (regression) equation, better prediction would be obtained than when IQ alone was used. And it also aimed if different areas of achievement were related to specific personality dimensions (Bartion, Dielman, and Cattel, 1972). The high school personality questionnaire (HSPPQ) was used to provide 14 measures of personality dimensions. These were used in regression equation to predict standardized school achievement scores in social studies, science, mathematics and reading. Results suggested that personality variables, when added to intelligence measures, significantly increase the ability to predict the high school achievement. The results also indicated that at least one personality trait (factor G: conscientiousness or super ego) is related to all areas of achievement for both the sixth and seventh grade. The results also suggested that there
may be developmental sequence in the relationship between personality and achievement. For e.g. factor A (warmth) was significantly and positively related to all areas of achievement in sixth grade but did not seem important at all in seventh grade. However, in seventh grade factor C (emotional stability) was significantly and positively correlated with all areas of achievement. Again in seventh grade but not in sixth grade factor O and Q3 (guilt proneness and self control) were correlated significantly with all areas of achievement. It is thus concluded, that personality variables can significantly increase the prediction of school achievement when added to intelligence and general ability measures; and some personality variables are more important than others especially factor G of the HSPQ (conscientiousness or super ego).

In a study, information on children’s academic achievement and social adjustment was gathered from multiple sources over the year, beginning in grades four and six. It was found that children’s academic achievement predicated their social competence and peer acceptance; and children’s social competence, aggression, leadership, and peer acceptance contributed to their academic achievement (Chen, 1997).

The relationship of Students Personality with Academic Performance

The relationship between personality and achievement stemmed from the finding that IQ only seems to account for 50% or so of the
variance in achievement score (Edwards and Tyler, 1965; Shinn, 1956; Wellman, 1957; Walking, 1955). Thus, it was reasoned, may be such variables in the personality can be used to explain the missing variance in the achievement scores. Since the Middleton and Guthrie (1959) reviewed, however, much more consistency has been attained in relating personality measures to school achievement.

The school success is not predicted by a child’s fund of facts or a precious ability to read much as by emotional and social measures such as being self-assured and interested; knowing what kind of behavior is expected and how to restrain impulse to misbehave; begin able to wait, to follow directions; and expressing needs while getting along with the children (Goleman, 1995).

Hart (1997) identified resilient, over controlled, and under controlled personality types among 7-year old children. He found that resilient children, throughout adolescence, had higher academic achievement and fewer concentration problems and they more developed a sophisticated understanding of friendship and an internal locus of control more quickly than the other children. Over-controlled children, throughout their adolescence, exhibited more social withdrawal and lower self esteem than the other children.
Onatsu-Arivilommi et al. (1997) examined how family composition, size, and atmosphere; parental control; and the level of parental education and socioeconomic status area associated with children’s problems at school results showed that underachievers came from families with absent natural fathers, lower parental control, and negative atmosphere; overachievers came from intact families with positive atmosphere.

Morrison (1998) analyzed fifth and sixth grade aggressive and acting out students from a latino community who were organized into two groups based on their classroom academic performance. Students who were rated as aggressive but were high on school learning reported more resiliency indicators than those low on school learning. Barental supervision was the key variable between the groups.

Miliotis, Sesma, and Masten (1999) investigated parenting as a protective process for school success in African – American 6 to 11 year olds from homeless families. He found that close parent / child relationships and high parent involvement in the child’s education were associated with high academic achievement and positive school behavior. Parent intellectual functioning, educational level, psychological distress, and firm disciplinary practices were unrelated to the academic success of their children.
These questions are rarely asked and seldom answered by those who are apparently concerned about education. Educational psychologists identify several psychological and social factors contributing to the educational achievement of students. However, when factors like socio-economic status, geographical location, intelligence, personality characteristics, levels of aspiration, etc., are shared commonly by majority of the students, it is imperative to search for and analyze the individual differences among the students.

The effects of Teacher's personality on the Academic performance of Students.

Exemplary teachers try to develop interpersonal relationships with their students and feel responsible for the successes and failures of students. Personal attributes not only affect how well a teacher is received by the students, but are also responsible for generating interest and high level of motivation and success in students. Whiteside (1976) claims that single most important teacher's quality is self-confidence, because self-confidence frees teachers from the need to belittle or degrade others. Whitlock and DuCette (1989), as quoted by Worrell and Kuterbach (2001), identified six competencies on which, outstanding gifted teachers at the elementary level differed from average teachers. These competencies were achievement orientation, ability to apply knowledge,
ability to play a facilitative role, commitment, enthusiasm, and self-confidence. Similarly, Feldhusen (1997) as cited by Chan (2001) observed, that the characteristics found in these successful teachers include being highly intelligent, achievement oriented, knowledgeable and flexible, having cultural and intellectual interests, respecting individual differences. In addition, high levels of positive regard were directly facilitative of high cognitive functioning in the classroom (Aspy & Roebuck, 1972 cited by Chan, 2001). Au and Jordan (1981) increased the reading achievement of native Hawaiian students by using story structures similar to those of the children and incorporating information about their culture into the curriculum. In addition, high levels of positive regard were directly facilitative of high cognitive functioning in the classroom (Aspy & Roebuck, 1972 cited by Chan, 2001). King (1994) and Ladson-Billings (1994) as cited by Ford and Trotman (2001), in their study found that even minority teachers (non-white) can have a positive and powerful impact on minority student’s achievement, self-esteem, and self-efficacy.

Teacher’s personality, attitudes and expectations have a profound impact on student’s academic performance. Teachers require specific skills and knowledge in order to facilitate the academic, cognitive, and affective development of students. In this connection, many researchers
have worked to identify characteristics of successful teachers. According to Jersild et al. (1978) the best liked teachers are warm, friendly and emotionally involved with their students, while the least liked are sarcastic, strict, moralistic and dull.

Here a question arises that there could also be other school related factors, which could influence a student's academic performance. In this connection, Rutter (1979) conducted an extensive study on twelve schools that varied in size, physical space per student, availability of sports facilities, leadership styles and educational aims. The students in these schools were measured on a number of factors such as verbal reasoning, parental occupation, behavior, attendance, success and delinquency. The results indicated that the school size and physical facilities were not as important as was the degree of academic emphasis, the teacher's activities and lessons, the availability of incentives and rewards, More specifically the teachers expectations and his or her interaction with the students, the style of maintaining discipline in the classroom, the pleasantness of environment and the opportunity for the students to feel responsible were found to be most important in student's achievement and satisfaction.

Dunlop (1984b) is of the opinion, that in the long-run, teachers are far more likely to be effective through the example they set among
students. They must, therefore, be emotionally educated themselves, in order to impart that education further in students. Above all, they must not be 'emotional misers', constantly inhibiting their own expressions of feeling (expect on rare occasions), but should be emotionally generous, imparting their own vitality to their pupils and taking away some of their fears of revealing themselves. They must be calm, and have a ready sense of humor, to create or restore a relaxed atmosphere. They must let the love of their subjects show in their outward demeanor. They must wish their pupils well, and have a steady affection for children and young people, because affective development (the foundation of intellectual and executive development) cannot take place in the face of hostility or indifference.

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Amar Kumar Singh and Meera Jaiswal (1981) in their research work reported that the scholastic advancement of the students is very decisively influenced by parental variables and certain lack of intelligence, within the 'average' range, is compensated by positive and favorable parental influences.

Ashock Kalia, (1985) reported that creative behavior and its relationship with intelligence and Academic Achievement has been the focus of research in the contemporary educational psychology. The findings reported that creativity scores were found significantly related to intelligence. Further, positive and significant relationship was observed among creativity components and science achievement. Also, mathematics achievement was found positively and significantly related to originality only. Extraversion was found significantly related to creativity, while neuroticism showed no significant correlation with composite creativity scores.

Astill (1986) using data from 411 Filipino students (aged 13-14) tested the hypothesis that application of pressure for better Academic Achievement from parents teachers and press mediate the relationship between school grades from one year to the next, no support was found for this predicted relationship after both linear and various curve linear regression models were examined.
Jagannadhan (1986) reported that social-economic status factors, such as father's income, father's education and occupation has got much impact on the academic performance of the wards. It is also found that childrens hailing from families where they subscribe to newspapers and magazines, progress better in their educational attainment. Some of the studies conducted by Lundberg and Beazely(1948), Chopra(1966), Abraham(1974), and Ganapathy and Singh(1981) have focused on the positive contribution of SES to academic Achievement. However, studies by Srivastava(1967), Sudama(1973), Ahuliwalia and shyam (1975), Sharma and Bhargava (1980) did find very little to negligible impact of SES on Academic Achievement.

Verma and Gupta (1990) made intensive study on the influence of home environment on children Scholastic Achievement. They concluded that congenial home environment for high Scholastic Achievement was difficult to define. However occupation of the parent, number of siblings and type of punishment which are a part of the home environment did not have an effect on children's Scholastic Achievement.

MacAulay (1990) reported that structure and organization of schools students' and teachers' characteristics are necessary conditions for maximizing pupils' cognitive, social and academic outcomes.
Studying the relationship between socio-economic background and Academic Achievement of students of class VI, VII, and VIII, Khanna (1991) established a significant and positive relationship between socio-economic status and Academic Achievement.

Mishra (1992) exposed the effect of self concept on achievement motivation and Academic Achievement. The sample consisted of 80 subjects of both (high and low self concepts) group, each group having an equal number of boys and girls. The findings of the study have shown that girl students have better Academic Achievement and the students with higher self concept perform better in academic task; High self concept students have slightly better achievement motivation in comparison with low self concept student but the difference is not significant at 0.05 level. To sum up, the findings of this study indicates significant effect of self concept on the achievement motivation and the Academic Achievement of students. The most significant findings of this study is that self concept plays a vital role in the achievement of girl students, and girls with higher self concept seem to perform better than boys. Hence, every effort should be made to raise the self concept of student in order to increase Academic Achievement.

Roy and Sinha (1994) investigated the impact of hardship style upon social, emotional climate, Academic Achievement and campus
activities of the students. The sample comprised 200 male and female students drawn from five high schools under private and public managements and located in rural and urban areas. Interview schedule, objective test and observational techniques were employed for data collection. It was found that the social emotional climate was more important factor. Similarly students’ Academic Achievement was better under nurturing headship and favourable social-emotional climate. It was also observed that frequency of mischievous activities of the students was higher under authoritarian headship and more studious activities under nurturing task headship.

Doubow et al (1994) focused on the relationship of the poverty status of the family and the effect of this on elementary school children’s Academic Achievement and variables such as maternal age at time of birth, number of siblings, deficits in Academic Achievements were all considered. Results showed that poverty status in children did not significantly show a decrease in reading and math’s scores.

Walker (1994) examined the impact of low family income on achievement test scores. In this longitudinal study in which children were followed from age 7 to 10 years. It was found that children from low income home continued to achieve lower scores. In addition this research
found that these differences in achievement were related to early
language experiences.

Naidu (1995) studied the influence of caste, father’s income,
occupation and family size on Academic Achievement of V class
students. He found that there is significant influence of caste, father’s
income and occupation, family size, on Academic Achievement. He also
found that home environment and school environment are the most
significant variables contributing to the achievement.

Basu, (1996) examined the effect of Gender role identity on
Academic Achievement of 74 girls and 69 boys (aged 17-18) at higher
secondary school levels in India. Subjects were divided into 4 groups
(Masculine, Feminine, Androgynous, undifferentiated) and were asked to
complete a culturally modified version of Bem’s gender role Inventory.
Academic Achievement was assessed in terms of overall grade point a
average and language science and social science scores. Results indicate
that in boys Gender role identity affected the achievement in Grade point
average, science and social science. While in girls it affected the
achievement in all 4 areas. Boys with more feminine and girls with
undifferentiated traits achieved highest scores in GPA, Language, science
and social science. The culture specific connotations of Gender role and
achievement seemed to influence their interrelationships.
Bisnaire (1996) studied the factors associated with academic achievement in children following parental separation. Majority of the students selected in the study experienced a marked decrease in their academic performance following parental separation and Bisnaire also concluded that having both parents seemed to be the most protective factor which was associated with academic achievement of children.

Sujaritha, Magdalin and karunaidhi (1997) studied the effect of life skills training on the assertive behavior, self-esteem and academic performance of higher secondary students, on the basis of skill deficits they identified in 300 adolescent students, and a suitable life skills training programme was formulated. It was implemented on the sample of 59 students (33 girls and 26 boys). Results indicated that the life skills training programme was effective in enhancing the self-esteem, academic performance, and assertive behavior of the students. No Gender-related differences were observed.

Dubey and Mishra (1997) revealed the determinants of academic success of rural girls belonging to scheduled castes (S.C), Backward castes (B.C), Muslims (MS) and Upper Castes (UC). Correlation research has been conducted taking academic achievement as a criterion variables and caste and religion as type-s predictor variables. The multiple regression analysis revealed an inconsistency in predictors of academic
success across all the groups. In the Backward caste girls, intelligence was significant predictor of academic achievement. In upper caste girls permissiveness, rejection, physical and social variables were the significant predictors of academic success. No significant trend has emered regarding the caste and religion variables as predictors of academic achievement. This trend has been attributed to the least conducive rural school environment in our country and under developed self – concept of the rural children.

Radha (1997) studied a discriminate achievement of high school pupils using a sample of IX grade students from different types of schools in Kottayam district. She examined the best discriminating variables that can be selected according to their ability to discriminate between high and low academic achievers. The results of the study indicate the performance difference between Boys and Girls is marginal and not statistically significant. There is a significant difference in Academic Achievement of pupils belonging to different religions in Kottayam districts. She also found that more English Medium students are high academic achievers than Malayalam Medium students. The lowest means is obtained by the Government Schools than Navodhaya. Socio-economic status appears to be the best predictor of Academic Achievement.
Singh et al. (1998) found that academic performance and achievement are significantly determined by classroom climate, teacher's effectiveness and their expectations from their students.

According to Cherniss (1998), to succeed educational leaders must be able to develop working relationships with many people and be mediators and mentors, negotiators and net-workers. Administrators must be self-confident, be able to modulate emotions, be unusually persuasive, cultivate positive relationships, and continually develop their emotional intelligence.

Lewkowicz (1999) writes that teachers can help lessen their student's frustrations, make classroom time more productive, and prevent behavioral and learning problems by providing students with information and skills with which, to make informed, positive, and independent choices regarding their emotional, social, physical, and mental well-being. This resource for teachers provides techniques for developing and applying five emotions: (3) self-control; (4) empathy' and (5) handling relationships.

Probe's report (1999) indicates, private schools do appear to have an advantage over government schools, but not such as would warrant the overwhelmingly positive response from parents about education in private schools. (a) A school building with a separate classroom for each
grade; (b) adequate number of trained teachers with minimum qualifications; (c) proper student sitting places; (d) Block board in useable condition with chalk and in duster in each classroom; (e) All children having textbooks and writing material. So private schools perform better than public sector schools.

In piñata (1999) view, emotionally warm relationships between teachers and students (characterized by open communication, support and involvement) provide students with a sense of security within the school setting, which promotes exploration and comfort, as well as social, emotional and academic competence. Pianta and his colleagues (Pianta, 1994; Pianta & Steinberg, 1992) found that children with greater children with greater levels of support in relationships with teachers had fewer behavioral problems, greater social competence and better school adjustment than did children experiencing greater conflict in their relationships, similarly, Birch and Ladd (1997) found that students who had closer relationships with teachers were better adjusted academically than students with conflicted teacher student relationships.

Stephen (1999) stated that qualification of teachers and organizational climate in schools is associated with the achievement of students. A sample of 345 teachers from 24 schools was selected and School Organization climate questionnaire was administered. Results
reveal that teacher's working with high qualification results in good organizational climate of schools which in turn lead to better performance of students.

Coover and Murphy (2000) examined the relation between self concept and Academic Achievement. It was revealed that the higher the self Concept the better the Academic Achievement.

Verma and Sinha (2000) examined the relationship between time orientation and Academic Achievement in a sample of 200 school students with an equal number of boys and girls. On the basis of the grades obtained in the last examination, subjects were divided into high and low achiever group. A modified version of the time orientation scale (Verma 1885) was used to assess time orientation, which included four dimensions: perception of sufficiency of time, sequencing and placing of activities, punctuality and time devoted to self-related or other related activities. On three dimensions of time orientation i.e., perception of sufficiency of time, structuring of time punctuality (accuracy) male high achievers obtained a high mean while female high achievers had the highest mean on the dimension of self related other related activities. The general notion that high achievers have better time orientation was substantiated even though the two groups of high achievers and low achievers did not differ significantly on the total time orientation. Overall
Gender differences were not significant though females had a more practical and pragmatic approach to time orientation.

Mohanty (2000) explored the role of school type in psychological differentiation and Academic Achievement of tribal and non-tribal students of grade 4 and 5. The sample comprised of 600 students, of these 200 tribals were from non-tribal schools, 300 non-tribal were from non-tribal schools, 100 tribals and 100 non-tribals were from mixed schools. Psychological differentiation was assessed by the Story Pictorial Embedded Figures Test (SPI:FT) (Sinha 1984). Total marks obtained in the last annual examination were taken as an index of Academic Achievement. There was a significant effect of school type on Academic Achievement. Students in non-tribals school obtained the highest academic scores, and the academic Achievement of students in triabl schools was better than that of those in mixed schools. The effect of school type on psychological differentiation was not significant. Psychological differentiation and Academic Achievement were positively and significantly correlated.

Carter (2000) found a positive relationship between the level of parental involvement and performance of students. The Researcher reported that parental involvement positively affected students scores,
increased the amount of time they devoted to homework and raised their grades.

Deshmukh (2000) studied anxiety, achievement motivation, intelligence, goal discrepancy and Academic Achievement of Jr. College students with high and low self concept. The high and low self concept groups of Jr. College students do not differ significantly on goal discrepancy and Academic Achievement.

LaForett et al. (2000) examined the relationship between home and family, school behavior, peer relations, and self-concept with reading achievement among head start graduates. Participating in the study were 43 girls and 37 boys ranging in age from 8 to 17 at the time of the study. Two groups were selected. The first group, identified as resilient, had average reading achievement scores on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS) above the 75th percentile throughout their schooling. The second group had average ITBS reading achievement scores between the 25th and 50th percentiles. The ethnic breakdown of the participants was as follows; 40 Latinos, 10 European Americans, 26 African Americans, and 4 Native Americans. Data on home and family, school behavior, peer relationships, and self-concept were collected from interviews with the student and his or her caretaker and ratings completed by participant-nominated teachers. Findings indicated that reading proficiency was
positively and significantly correlated with the generous psychological autonomy granting by parents as judged by parents and children, behaviors demonstrating harmonious relationships with peers and teachers, scholastic motivation, and emotional stability (as rated by teachers), and behavioral, global, and scholastic self-concept. Reading proficiency was negatively and significantly correlated with peer's classroom activities, homework engagement, and cooperation with classroom rules. There were no significant relations between reading achievement and classroom activities, homework engagement, cooperation, or antisocial behavior, as rated by the target child and teachers combined.

Koteswara Rao et al (2001) examined the impact of personality factors on reading achievement of high school students. High school achievement test and personality questionnaire were administered to 1296 students and results revealed that personality factors such as anxiety, intelligence, tense minded had significant influence on the Academic Achievement of student.

Basanthia et al (2001) observed (320 students of 8th and 9th standard), Using the effect of home and school environment on Academic Achievement. Home environment and school environment had an overall
impact on academic performance of students. High achievers both boys and girls enjoyed good school environment.

Maple (2001) conducted a three-year longitudinal study to ascertain the variables race, socio-economic factors and visual factors as predictors of Academic Achievement. The students from low socio-economic status scored lower marks than students from higher economic status. Visual factors were the most significant variables and an improvement in visual skills may positively have an impact on Academic Achievement.

Rita Goretti Lourdes (2002) reported that the influence of Psychological factors on the Academic Achievements of the Scheduled caste (SC) College student’s of the Mannonmaniam Sundaranar University. Results showed that the SC students were better and above all in their Academic Achievement. These students were also found to have freed themselves from psychological deprivations and they possessed good temperament, good adjustment, high self concept and high level of independence. One problem of the SC students, as the study indicates, is their high anxiety levels.

Teachers are capable of encouraging achievement and discouraging underachievement, by reinforcing acceptable or unacceptable behavior of the student, subsequently affecting learning outcomes”. Sensitive teachers
recognize that certain attitudes and behaviours can de-motivate students in school. Just as parents who love and value their children strive to give them the support and guidance they need to succeed in school, work, family, and community. Similarly, teachers who value students work to ensure that they graduate with the skills they need to succeed in college and the workplace (Jacobson, 2000).

Ford and Trotman (2001) write in their article, that sharing the responsibility of student’s success and failure makes them to adopt measures, which prove to be beneficial in promoting student’s achievement. They cajole, nag, pester, and bribe students to work at high levels. A teacher in Ladson-Billing’s (1995) study put it this way’ “we are a family we have to care for one another as if our survival depended on it. Actually, it does”. If a student fails means a teacher has failed.

Teachers being the builders of the nation prepare the youth to meet academic, professional and personal challenges of life. This a student teacher relationship, which is free of conflicts, biases and stereotypes, helps to build rapport and generate academic interest in students. They help students to strengthen those social and emotional skills, which are needed to meet academic challenges successfully.
The Atmosphere of the school

Dunlop (1984b) writes that feeling-states and moods have a foundational importance for the rest of mental life. This, the 'mood' or 'atmosphere' of the school, both as a physical environment and as an administrative and teaching community whose 'real' goals give it a particular kind of feeling-quality, are bound to affect emotional and other aspects of education. Some schools have a closed -n and depressing atmosphere, others an open and cheerful one; some seem dedicated to 'production' and have a tedious, 'mechanical' feel about them, others seem to promote growth and liveliness, and one catches in them a sense of the ultimate meaning of human life. A school which offers some extra-curricular activities along with academic activities helps to make the child more productive. It is also evident from the research of Coleman (1997) who stressed the importance of camps fostering the self-esteem and emotional intelligence of campers by creating an envelope of physical safety, building emotional security, creating a sense of identity, developing a sense of belonging, nurturing competence, and achieving a sense of mission. They have emphasized the fact that attainment of these goals is possible through the cooperation of parents and through effective staff development.
The Curriculum and the Aims of the School

Dunlop (1984b) in his book mentioned that the schools have failed to provide the ‘balanced curriculum’ to students because all the teachers follow the same style in teaching all the subjects in which, entire stress is put on conceptual understanding and justification of arguments. This aspect of schools denotes man’s flight from feelings and alienation from himself.

Intellectual, artistic and practical activities should constitute the curricula of school. The teacher should introduce and encourage the child in cognitive and non-cognitive activities appropriate to his age, which, can develop social recognition, and self-value in the child. He should be introduced to the ‘language of feelings’ so that he is aware of himself and the world around him.

It is a fact that schools have failed to provide such an atmosphere, where emotional development of the child is encouraged. On the other hand, cognitive and intellectual components of education are given considerable importance in terms of achievement, and the emotional and affective components are normally thought of first in terms of deficiencies. The acquisition of knowledge, of theoretical procedures and methods, of concepts are necessary to be acquired by teachers so that they can impart their knowledge to students. But when we come to the ‘heart’
or in other words talk about emotions and feelings, we normally hear about the lack of achievement and failure with respect to apathy, self-centeredness, emotional instability and over excitability, sentimentality in authenticity, emotional disorder and 'crudity' of coldness, repression, lack of self-control and self-knowledge which suggest that how less importance is given to 'affective achievement' in schools.

Elder (1997) asserts that student's emotions should be nurtured in the educational process to help foster positive reactions to instructional materials. The researcher also stated that the relationship between must be understood so that students will develop critical-thinking skills.

Teenagers need emotional stability and social proficiency. They need to be shown how to behave appropriately and have healthy, mature relationships. School schedules should be adjusted to promote healthy lifestyles. Administrators need to show teenagers how to think and act appropriately (Scott, 1999).

It is students right to have an emotionally nurturing environment at school. Teachers should develop relationships with students through a reciprocal process, and particularly should emphasize individual characteristics while dealing with them. It could not only develop students attachment with teachers but can also benefit students social, behavioral, emotional and academic performance.
Sarithadevi and Mayuri (2003) in their work on the effects of family and school on the Academic Achievement of residential school children reported that girls were superior to boys and family factors like parental aspirations and socio-economic status significantly contributed to Academic Achievement. Among school factors class room organization, method of teaching and also teacher – student interaction were found to be having effect on the Academic Achievement of the school children.

A study on “Parental involvement increases Academic Achievement” was conducted by Eirini Flouri (2004). A sample of 3,303 children were taken from the National Child Development Study. It focused on children, who were born between 3 and 9 March 1958 in England, Scotland and Wales. The study monitored the children at four different ages. Findings revealed that father involvement significantly predicted educational attainment by late adolescence. It was also found that neither emotional and behavioral problems nor academic motivation, affected the educational attainment.

Stephanie Moller et al., (2006) studied the relationship between retention and achievement. However, quantitative research on achievement trajectories has neglected this important variable. Given that retention policies are bring institutionalized in schools, it is important to
understand the relationship between retention and achievement trajectories. To examine the National Education Longitudinal study, 1988 – 1992 to determine if reading and mathematical achievement trajectories for black, white, poor and non-poor high school students vary by their experiences with retention. Utilizing growth modeling, we illustrate that an awareness of students past promotion patterns through school (i.e. experiences with retention) helps us better predict achievement trajectories. Moreover, by analyzing the co-joined effects of race and class, we reveal disparate costs of retention. In fact, we find that poor white retained students are particularly disadvantaged by experiences with retention. We interpret this finding in light of recent cultural explanations of race and class educational disparities and the historical and institutional stratification process from which they derive.

Oi-Man Kwok, Jan N. Hughes and Wen Luo (2007) investigated a measurement model of personality resilience and the contribution of personality resilience to lower achieving first grade students academic achievement. Participants were 445 ethnically diverse children who at entrance to first grade scored below their school district median on a test of literacy. Participants were administered an individual achievement test in first grade and 1 year later. Confirmatory factor analysis confirmed a second order latent construct of resilient personality defined by teacher –
rated conscientiousness, agreeableness, and ego-resiliency that was
district from measures of externalizing behaviors and I.Q. using latent
structural equation modeling and controlling for baseline economic
adversity, I.Q. and externalizing symptoms. resilient personality predicted
children’s concurrent and future achievement (controlling also for
baseline achievement in the prospective analysis). Model fit ws invariant
across gender.

Chander Kanta Zadoo and Krishna Raina (2008) studied to findout
the relationship between study habits, attitudes and academic
achievement of students of senior secondary school. The sample
consisted of 480 (boys 240, girls 240) from twelve government schools of
Himachal Pradesh. Test of study habits and attitudes by M.C. Joshi and
Jagadish Pandey was the tool used for measuring study habits and
attitudes of the students. Academic achievement scores obtained by
students in the Himachal Pradesh Board examination was taken as the
measure of their academic achievement. The data thus collected was
treated by Pearson product moment correlation and ‘t’ ratio. Result
revealed significant correlation between academic achievement and study
habit. Further, it was found that boys and girls at adolescent stage differ
significantly with respect to study habits and results go in favor of girls.
Nebbitt, Von E (2009) studied the effect of attitudes, behavior, peers, and family on the academic performance of African American students living in urban public housing developments located in a large Midwestern city. Results are presented from a sample of 238 African American adolescents aged 13-19 with a mean age of 15.6 years. Results suggested that youth with unfavorable attitudes toward deviance and who spend time involved in family activities are more likely to report above-average grades. As youth involvement in antisocial behavior and exposure to delinquent peers increased, they were less likely to report above-average grades. This investigation highlights the importance of examining family, peer, and individual correlates when assessing factors that influence academic performance among African American students living in public housing or similar urban settings.
APPRAISAL

It was observed from the literature that the researchers documented that there are number of studies on academic performance in relation to various variables like emotional intelligence and study skills. However, there are limited studies available regarding social and emotional problems relating to dyslexia and other learning disorders. Rather the researchers concentrated more on social emotional problems of the learning disabilities and their impact on academic performance.

It can be seen from the available literature that antisocial behaviors, aggression and education deficiency in dyslexic children. There have been a few studies on the emotional intelligence and dyslexia. But these studies did not include students with social emotional literature clearly demonstrates the role of Social Emotional Learning in promoting the healthy development and academic achievement of all students. It also shows that SEL reduces problem behaviors and emotional distress that interfere with the learning and development of some students. Therefore it was found that there is a need to include students who have social and emotional problem as a variable affecting academic performance.

Though many studies have revealed that a strong predictor of academic performance was emotional intelligence. Many of the studies both national and international available have concentrated on the impact
of emotional intelligence on personal variables. In the present scenario of excessive demand for the good performance in academics on the part of students, it felt that there is stressing need to include emotional intelligence as one of the main variables in the present study affecting positively on academic performance.

The researcher found that there are studies on study skills in relation to academic performance of the students. Also the literature revealed correlation coefficients among and between study skills and academic performance. However, there is no single study in combination of social and emotional problem, emotional intelligence and study skills in relation to academic performance. Hence, the study is undertaken to investigate the impact of emotional intelligence and study skills on academic performance of the pupils with social and emotional problems.