2.0 Introduction

In the words of Borg (2007, p. 708), “The Literature in any field forms the foundation upon which all future work will be built”. Without knowing the past we cannot do something new in the field of research. If we want to do some new work in a subject, it is very necessary that we should know the past of that subject.

“Particularly all human knowledge can be found in books and libraries, unlike animals that must start a new work with each generation men builds upon the accumulated and recorded knowledge of the post”.

(Best and Kahn, 2006, p. 403)

Review of Related Literature is an essential prerequisite to actual planning and execution of any research project. They help the researcher in formulating various hypotheses. They guide in respect of selection of problem, its statement, definition and delimitation. This avoids wastage of time in research.

The review of the related literature has of great significance for researcher, as it guides the investigator to know about the amount of work done in the discipline in which the investigator conduct the research. It also directs the researcher to tackling the problem chosen for research and avoids the risk of duplicity, in research. It is certain that the review of related literature saves time, money and energy of investigator. In the words of Goods (1973, p. 550),“The Survey of related literature may provide guiding hypotheses, suggestive methods of investigation and comparative data for interpretive purposes”. Keeping in view the stated purposes the researcher has made an attempt to survey the related literature in the field.

2.1 Reviews on Cognitive Abilities

Sharmista (2013) conducted a study, “Cognitive Development in Deaf Children”. In her study she pointed out that cognitive development entails more
than maturation of the child’s brain. Cognitive development is the product of the child’s attempts to understand the family, neighborhood, school and the world at large during the period of rapid brain growth and learning. Hearing loss is linked to a faster cognitive decline and cognitive impairment. The effects of deafness on cognitive development are, therefore, quite diverse and complex due to the multitudinous ways in which families, societies, and cultures, react to and interact with children who are born deaf and hence do not spontaneously learn to talk and comprehend speech.

Ruijs, Nienke, Van der, Peetsma and Thea (2010) conducted a study title of which was “Inclusive Education and Students without Special Educational Needs”. This study investigated whether there was a relation between inclusive education and the academic achievement and socio-emotional functioning of typical students, and, more importantly, whether inclusive education affects the achievement and socio-emotional functioning of more and less intelligent typical students differently. Furthermore, it investigated whether differences occur by type of SEN of the included students. It made a distinction between students with behavioral, cognitive and other problems. For the study a representative sample of 27,745 students without SEN in Dutch primary education from a large cohort study in the Netherlands was used. Language and arithmetic tests were used to assess academic achievement. For socio-emotional functioning, both teacher and student questionnaires were used. A non-verbal IQ test was used to assess student intelligence. Based on the number of students with diagnosed SEN, the students without SEN were divided into several groups: typical students with no, a few and more than a few students with (certain types of) SEN in their class. Multi-level regression analyses were used to compare these groups. For academic achievement, no differences were found between students without SEN in inclusive and non-inclusive classes. No differences between intelligent and less intelligent typical students was found. For socio-emotional functioning, some differences were found, but the practical importance of these differences is unclear, since the effect sizes were small. The functioning of typical students does not meaningfully differ by type of SEN of the included students. The
findings of this study were interesting in the light of the ongoing inclusion debate. Arguments against inclusive education often concern an assumed adverse effect on typical students. As in this study, hardly any differences were found between typical students in inclusive and non-inclusive primary school classes, this research strengthens the scientific evidence in support of inclusive education.

**Aluisio (2009)** explored that child development in birth cohort, effect of child stimulation was stronger in less educated mothers, its psychosocial determinants and interactions with maternal schooling and economic position. Child development was strongly associated with socioeconomic position, maternal schooling and stimulation. Cognitive stimulation can have an important effect and children, especially those from mothers with low schooling.

**Johnston (2009)** found that the impact of impairment depends on type, extent and timing of hearing loss. Students who were deaf from birth or as the result of illness in childhood may lip-read or use sign language. Students who use SL as a first language of communication may have difficulty with grammatical and syntactical structure of English and have a limited vocabulary. Some deaf students were non-verbal while others might spoke differently as they could not hear their own voices. The studies which had been conducted in the area of parenting had shown that parents had positive attitude towards children. With regard to individuals, extremely high and low parenting stress, over involved parent-child relationships, fewer previous surgeries, and younger age predicted greater disturbance. Mothers of developmentally delayed children reported that they were more anxious than mothers of children with normal mental ages (Wells, 1987). Similarly O’Sullivan (1982) explored that majority of the mothers found their pediatricians helpful about issues related directly to their child’s medical condition. However, few found them helpful with issues relating to the effect of the disability on their child’s development, or to their own personal or family needs.

**Antia, Jones, Read and Kreimeyer (2009)** conducted a study, “Academic Status and Progress of Deaf and Hard-of-Hearing Students in
General Education Classrooms. " The study participants were 197 deaf or hard-of-hearing students with mild to profound hearing loss who attended general education classes for 2 or more hours per day. Scores on standardized achievement tests of math, reading, and language/writing, and standardized teacher's ratings of academic competence annually, for 5 years, together with other demographic and communication data were obtained. Results on standardized achievement tests indicated that, over the 5-year period, 63%–79% of students scored in the average or above-average range in math, 48%–68% in reading, and 55%–76% in language/writing. The standardized test scores for the group were, on average, half an SD below hearing norms. Average student progress in each subject area was consistent with or better than that made by the norm group of hearing students, and 79%–81% of students made one or more year's progress annually. Teachers rated 69%–81% of students as average or above average in academic competence over the 5 years. The teacher's ratings also indicated that 89% of students made average or above-average progress. Students’ expressive and receptive communication, classroom participation, communication mode, and parental participation in school were significantly, but moderately, related to academic outcomes.

**Hauser and Marschark (2008)** discussed a variety of cognitive dimensions on which evidence points to differences between deaf and hearing students. Historically, investigators had pointed to differences in favor of hearing students and research that had sought to take advantage of the cognitive strengths of deaf students was only recently forthcoming (e. g., greater flexibility in mental generation, mental manipulation, and visuospatial memory). This emerging body of research suggests that such qualities may well be used to offset lesser language fluencies.

**Kang and Jaswal (2006)** undertook the relationship of educational level of parent’s with parenting patterns used by them on their children was vital. Results showed that parenting patterns used by parents vary with their level of education. Wolter (2006) viewed the relation between perceived parenting practices and achievement motivation in mathematics. In this study, perceived parenting styles and parental involvement were examined to determine children
motivation. The findings indicated that perceived authoritative parenting was positively related to both a mastery goal orientation and higher relative autonomy. Permissive parenting was negatively related to a mastery orientation and positively related to a performance approach orientation only. Also, behavioral involvement was positively related to both performance avoidance and goal orientation. A study on perceived parental bonding, fear of failure and stress during class presentations. Results indicated that paternal caring and to some extent maternal caring was associated with lower levels of fear of failure, anxiety and depression. It was also found out that children reporting an overprotective parental style approached the task with significantly elevated fears; they had elevated stress during the task, and lower task performance. Another salient finding was that children’ perception of their fathers’ parenting style was highly predictive of the stress response (Georgios, 2008). But Valorie (2009) found that kids from single parent families certainly had long term problems. However, single parenting, in and of itself, wasn’t necessarily the cause. In every given situation, there were a host of circumstances that could help guide and shape a young child into a successful adult. Factors include the child’s relationship with the residential parent, the child’s own personal tendency towards resiliency, as well as other adults that played a significant role in the child’s life.

Frederick (2005) studied early cognitive stimulation, emotional support and television watching as predictors of subsequent bullying among grade-school children. He concluded that the early home environment including cognitive stimulation, emotional support and exposure to television had a significant impact on bullying in grade school.

Wake, Poulakis, Hughes, Carey-Sargeant and Rickards (2005) conducted a study, “Hearing impairment: a population study of age at diagnosis, severity, and language outcomes at 7-8 years” to assess the impact of age of diagnosis and severity of HI in a population cohort of 7-8 year old children. The findings of the study revealed that the response rate was 67% (n = 89; 53 boys). Mean age at diagnosis was 21.6 months (SD 14.4); 21% had mild, 34% moderate, 21% severe, and 24% profound HI; mean non-verbal IQ
was 104.6 (SD 16.7). Mean total CELF score was 76.7 (SD 21.4) and mean PPVT score 78.1 (SD 18.1). Age of diagnosis, adjusted for severity and IQ, did not contribute to language scores. In contrast, adjusted mean CELF and PPVT language scores fell sequentially with increasing severity of HI.

Roopashri and Goanker (1994) found factors that influence the parental cognitive stimulation in three areas of child development i.e. academic aspects, social aspects and extracurricular activities and found that academics were affected positively by parental cognitive stimulation. It had also been observed that having studied the spanking by parents and subsequent anti-social behavior of children; they analyzed that when parents use corporal punishment by non-violent mode of discipline, it could reduce the risk of anti-social behavior among children and reduce the level of violence in society. But Andrea (2001) investigated parental influence on the academic outcomes of the child. He concluded that children who showed greater parental influences have more positive academic outcomes. Hubsetal (2002) examined the relation of maternal cognitive stimulation, emotional support and intrusive behavior during head start to children’s kinder garden cognitive abilities. It had been found that maternal cognitive stimulation affects the cognitive abilities of the children.

Mukherjee (1991) showed that the main concerns of philosophical and psychological theories were to determine whether concepts are organized ideally or experience physically. Under cognitive psychology, the emphasis was more on mental behavior and experiences. This school gave some importance to languages in the process of cognition.

Mishra (1991) Studied developmental changes on decoding competence and speech related cognitive processes. Performance in decoding as well as speech related processes, except sequence repetition, improved as a function of age and grade.

Gupta (1991) explored that the effect of deprivation on certain cognitive and non-cognitive behaviors of adolescent’s. The non –deprived children were more intelligent, creative and more high achieving than deprived
children.

**Kumari (1991)** indicated that the overall problem-solving ability and success in different types of problems were significantly and positively related to each cognitive capability separately as well as globally. The results of the discriminate analysis indicate that the obtained scores for internalizing, externalizing, emotional and conduct disorders did not predict group membership i.e. 46. 5% of children were misclassified while only 53. 5% parents were correctly classified using the obtained scores as predictors of instructional placement. Based on these results, it appears that placement in instructional setting is not determined by characteristics of children.

**Mandke (1991)** in his study analysed whether single modality stimulation to its maximum capacity reflects positively upon speech and language performance of hearing impaired individuals. The findings of study concluded that deaf children could identify all the ten items and answered them in the form of complete sentence. Children developed the concept of singular and plural number, gender, usage of adjectives, verbs, prepositions, cases and storytelling and found that there were significant differences in case of pre-test and post-test scores in the experimental group but not in the control group. It was also found that the single-modality approach worked more effectively than the multisensory approach. Children with profound hearing loss proved better than for speech-reading.

**Sadashive (1991)** found the effect of a supplementary education programme for hearing impaired children and their language development and socialization, and the effect of parental education programme on their awareness of acceptance of their child’s impairment. As a result of the supplementary educational programme, the children started speaking boldly. They were eager to express themselves without feeling shy. Parents gave up many wrong concepts regarding their 41 hearing-impaired children and developed the right concepts in many respects.

**Kapoor (1990)** found that deaf children did not differ from normal children in perceptions of parental behavior and perspective-taking ability and cognitive functioning. However, the difference between the deaf and normal
were significant.

**Bond (1987)** conducted a study. “An Assessment of Cognitive Abilities in Hearing and Hearing-Impaired Pre-school Children. He pointed out that there had been many investigations of cognitive development in older hearing-impaired children, but few with pre-school hearing-impaired children. The performance of 40 hearing and 40 hearing-impaired children of pre-school age (2 ½ to 5 ½ years) was compared on five nonverbal cognitive tasks and three subtests from the Perceptual Performance subscale of the McCarthy Scales of Children's Abilities (1972). For this set of tasks there was a significant effect of age consistent with a developmental change. A one-way MANCOVA on all dependent measures with age as the covariate revealed no significant differences between the hearing-impaired and hearing children. The results suggested that despite a deficiency in language abilities, the cognitive development of young hearing-impaired children was comparable to that of hearing children of the same age.

The study conducted by **Darshana (1986)**, had revealed that the children belonging with high intellectual commitment were more interested in science than those with low intellectual commitment. Chengappa (1989) explored that various deficiencies and deviances in terms of speech and languages behavior of cerebral palsied children were highlighted. Language comprehension was much better than language expression in both types of cerebral palsied children. Sharma (1988) explored that children of working mothers had a greater feeling of rejection than differed significantly from the children of working mothers. The study aims to comparing the children of working and non-working mothers regarding their self-concept, socio-economic status and adjustment.

**Ljubesic (1986)** investigated the factor structure or Cognitive abilities over 81 prelingually deaf children (aged 7.5-8.5 years). Analysis of results of verbal and non-verbal cognitive tasks revealed four factors visual education, verbal education, verbal understanding and short-term memory. When factors analysis was performed on seven non-verbal variables, visual education was extracted, indicating that non-verbal cognitive abilities had a similar structure for the deaf and hearing subjects. Contradictory evidence in the literature had
been found regarding existence of differences between deaf and normal children on cognitive development. Researchers reported a host of factors that lead to observed differences in cognitive functioning of these children.

**Aggrawal (1986)** explored that the parental encouragement and educational development were found positively correlated. Parental encouragement was found to have a pervasive influence on the educational development of high-development group, regardless of gender, district and urban rural variations.

**Zwiebel and Mertens (1985)** used factor analysis for comparing the score of 25 deaf children (6-15 years) and 101 hearing children (10-12 years). On Snijders and Snijders-Oomen’s (1958) non-verbal intelligence test, the result indicated that the factor structure for the deaf group differed from the hearing group. For deaf subjects, only one factor reflecting general intelligence emerged; for hearing subjects 2 factors reflecting general intelligence and abstract thinking emerged. Differences in cognitive structure were evident by age level for the deaf subjects of same age were also found. The major difference between the deaf and the hearing subjects of the same age was the weak presence of an abstract thinking component, accompanied by strong perceptual factor in the deaf subject. They relied on visual, perceptual skills, while the hearing subjects depended on abstract thinking skills.

**Sullivan (1982)** undertook two studies to investigate the effects of modifications in administration on subtest scaled-scores of the WISC-R performance scale with different groups of severely/profoundly hearing-impaired children. In experiment one he compared the standardized verbal subtest directions with total communications using 12 hearing-impaired subjects (aged 6 yrs. 4 months to 12 yrs. 4 months) from a public school. The total communication resulted in significantly higher scores. In experiment two he compared pantomime, visual aids, and total communication using 45 residential school subjects with genetic, questionable, and multiply impaired etiologies. The total communication resulted in higher scores on all subtests in the genetic and multiple impaired groups. Lower scores were found on coding subjects for the multiple impaired group irrespective of the mode of
administration. Differential sub-tests administration patters were found for the questionable group. Much of the early work in the area of cognitive functioning was conducted with the expectation indeed that deaf children would manifest a variety of deficiencies in addition their sensory deficit of the loss of hearing. Since deaf lacked one sensory system, it was hypothesized that this would result in the integration and function of the other sensory systems (Myklebust, 1964). Deaf children were also found to suffer from multiple impairedness. Schein and Delk (1974) estimated that about one third of those who were previously deaf had multiple impairedness. It was felt that if additional impairing conditions were as prevalent as they seemed to be in the deaf population, than random samples of deaf subjects were likely to include a substantial number of individuals whose performances were likely to affect group means adversely. Even if subjects were screened to exclude subjects known to have multiple impairment, the sample might include undiagnosed neurological impaired.

Bolton (1978) compare the factor structures for deaf and hearing children aged 3 to 10 years based on Hiskey-Nebraska Test of Learning Aptitude (HNTLA). He found different factor structures in these groups of children. The findings were interpreted in the light of sensory deprivation, perceptual and conceptual abilities. Braden (1984) using WISC-R performance scale on deaf (n=1, 2 to 8) and hearing (n=2, 200) found identical scale matrices. Though the sample did show small differences, the identical scale matrices indicated that the same principle factors emerged in the cognition of both deaf and hearing population. In a second study, using the same sample, Braden (1985a) compared factors extracted from the performance scale of the WISC with non-verbal tests (WISC N=300; WISC-R N=1,228). All data sets yielded that g (general) + p (performance) factors comprising the 1st Principle factor was virtually identical for the deaf and hearing samples. The similarity of the principle factor supported arguments the deaf and hearing children did not exhibit major qualitative differences in non-verbal intellectual structure. It also contradicted the suggestion that mental abilities developed more independently in deaf children than in the hearing children. Braden (1985b)
argued that deaf norms published for the Wechsler intelligence scale for children – Revised (WISC-R) performance scale were unnecessary since there was no evidence to suggest that internal consistency of the WISC-R performance scale was reduced when the performance Subscales were administered to deaf children.

Wilson (1975) selected 34 pupils on the basis of school records and gave them medical, pediatric, neurological, and audio logical examinations. They also administered an extensive battery of tests, to the children over two year period. Thorough examination disclosed evidence of organic dysfunction in eight pupils previously unsuspected of any impairment other than deafness. Braden (1984) attributed differences in performance between normal and deaf subjects to brain damage.

Vonderhaar and chambers (1975) also used WISC on deaf children. They confirmed the earlier findings that deaf children scored maximum on Object Assembly. Schlesinger and Meadow (1976) in their studies on deaf and normal children using intelligence tests found that the generalized deficit exhibited by deaf children was not distributed differentially over the range of skills tapped by different sub-tests. Using WISC-R, Anderson and Sysco (1977) collected data on 1228 deaf students that enable them to establish norms on the Performance scale for deaf students. Generally speaking, they found deaf children performed like normal children on all the performance subtests except on Coding and Picture Arrangement. On these two subtests, the deaf children perform significantly below their hearing peers. They also found more variance within the scores of deaf children than the comparable groups of hearing children. Previous research reporting differences in intellectual Abilities had been based largely on the comparison of average performance of deaf and hearing subjects. For better understanding of the similarities and differences in the cognitive structures of the two groups, some later researchers used factor analysis and identified significant dimensions of differences.

Schlesinger and Meadow (1972) in their researches showed language deficits to have a strikingly adverse effect on aspects of cognition measured by intelligence test performance. The deaf children who had better communication
skills were found to be performance an appreciably higher level than the deaf children whose communication skills were less developed. Even though every attempt was made to reduce the verbal skills necessary for understanding and responding to the tasks, skills in receiving and producing understandable language was found to correlate highly with the IQ measures. Tentative evidence suggested the priority of language in the relationship between language and intelligence or cognitive processes. Deaf children who are exposed to two different modes of language input from their parents did not have significantly different IQ test scores as measured on the Stanford-Binet in 1970. However, in the 1972 study, IQ test scores were significantly different: children who had received early and consistent bimodal language input (that is total communication) ranked first with mean IQ scores of 111; children who received early and consistent oral language input only ranked second with mean IQ scores of 107.5; children who mixed and less effective language input ranked third with mean IQ scores of 97.7. Thus the deaf children, who appeared to have similar intellectual potentials in 1970, were seen to different in their IQ scores two years later. The immediately identifiable differences between them were the kind of language inputs they had received during the intervening years. A higher level of communication skills seemed necessary for having a higher level of performance on the cognitive tasks. The researchers concluded that linguistic competence was an intervening variable mediating between IQ and the index of cognitive performance.

**Schlesinger and Meadow (1972)** used the Vineland scale in a study of 40 deaf pre-school. They found a strong positive relationship between the Vineland scores and an index of communicative competence. (This index included the machine language Development Scale score, teachers’ ratings for expressive and receptive communication action, speech, lip-reading and two communication ratings derived from videotaped mother-child interaction). The results showed that 65% of the children who scored below the median for communicative competence and 75 percent scoring above the vine land median also scored above the median for communication.

**Goetzinger and Houchins (1969)** investigated the effects of pantomime
and verbal instructions on student performance. They studied forty hearing children and 40 deaf children to determine the effect of pantomime versus verbal directions. Pantomime instructions were given to all deaf children. Only half of the hearing subjects received pantomime instructions and the other half received verbal instructions. Results showed that pantomime directions did not hinder the performance of deaf children. It was important note that the two previous studies compared the use of pantomime and verbal directions using Hearing populations. The deaf individuals in both instances were given directions only in pantomime. They did not in fact participate in the comparison, but appeared to serve as a control group to which results were then generalized.

Vygotsky (1962, 1978) disagreed with Piagetian that cognitive development was independent of the processes of learning and social interaction. They found experiential deficits responsible for manifested backwardness of deaf children.

Douglas (1964) suggested that children tend to work well when their parents take interest in their school progress and work badly when they are uninterested.

Blair (1957) matched groups of deaf and hearing children for IQ, age, and sex, and administered several visual memory tests to the 53 pair of children. The deaf children perform significantly better than the hearing children on the Knox cube test and on the memory for designs test. The hearing children had consistently higher scores on all for the Memory Span tests. Blair suggested that the memory-Span tasks required greater mental abstraction and conceptualization and that these areas were more difficult for deaf children.

Hess (1960) using WISC found that like Object Assembly, on the Block Design sub test too the deaf children scored higher relative to other sub–tests. The differences were ascribed to the greater manual manipulation required on these tests. The sub-tests on which the performance fell farthest below the mean performance score were Picture Arrangement and the Coding sub-tests.

Graham and Shapiro (1953) used WISC performance scale to evaluate the effects of pantomimed (nonverbal) instructions on children’s test
performance. They selected three groups of twenty children each, ages 6 to 12. In one group the children had a marked hearing loss (60 db or greater); the other two groups included children only with normal hearing. The three groups were matched on several demographic characteristics and were equated for intelligence by using the good enough draw-a-man-test. The deaf children and one group of hearing children received pantomimed instructions the other group of hearing children received standard verbal instructions. The hearing children who received standard instructions performed at a significantly higher level on the overall performance scale and on the three of the subtests: picture arrangement, coding, and mazes. The scores of the hearing children who received pantomimed instructions were significantly higher than the scores of the deaf children for picture arrangement, coding, and mazes but the deaf group scored higher on object assembly. Therefore, the use of pantomimed instruction, even on a test that was supposedly non-verbal, placed deaf children at a disadvantage. This finding had two significant implications for the testing of deaf children. Firstly, deaf children were at a disadvantage, compared to hearing pantomimed instructions. Even on performance subtests the deaf children were not had an equal opportunity to demonstrate their potential. Secondly, if deaf children knew sign language but did not have the advantage of the test being administered in the mode, the pantomimed instructions might place them at even greater disadvantage because some gestures might be misinterpreted as codified signs.

2.2 Reviews on Perspective-Taking Ability

Evelyn, Jonathan, Steve and Ryan (2011) conducted a study of teaching children with autism a basic component skill of perspective-taking, Behavioral Interventions. They pointed out that perspective-taking is an area of human functioning that was rarely studied by behavior analysis but likely entails a complex repertoire of verbal and relational behavior. Perspective-taking was generally acknowledged to be an important skill for successful social functioning and a significant amount of research had documented deficits in these skills in individuals with autism. However, little previous research had examined behavioral intervention procedures for remediating
these deficits. The current study evaluated the effectiveness of a multiple exemplar training procedure for teaching three children with autism to identify what other people could see, a simple component skill of perspective-taking. All participants demonstrated generalization to novel table-top tasks but generalization to natural environment probes was less consistent. Results were discussed in terms of the behavioral history required to develop perspective-taking repertoires, as well as for the development of effective interventions. Descriptors: Perspective-taking, autism, Theory of Mind, conditional discrimination, and multiple exemplar training.

**Heagle and Rehfeldt (2006)** conducted a study, ‘Teaching perspective-taking skills to typically developing children through derived relational responding’. The question of whether perspective-taking can be established via multiple example training should be address empirically, rather than being assumed. To date, few studies had examined this possibility; however, two recent studies provided initial data that appear promising. These studies used multiple exemplars training to teach basic perspective-taking abilities to typically developing children. Specifically, children were presented with vocal questions that required the child to identify features of the environment, based on someone else's perspective, as opposed to their own.

**Carpenter, Tomasello and Striano (2005)** conducted a study, “Role reversal imitation and language in typically-developing infants and children with autism and observed that typically developing children begin to show signs of perspective-taking from early infancy and by around the age of five, clearly demonstrate increasing ability to understand others’ minds. In contrast, children with autism spectrum disorders show severe deficits in their ability to understand others’ mental states and how these were said to be related to overt behavior. Studies had shown that the vast majority of children with ASD do significantly worse on tests of even basic levels of perspective-taking, compared to both typically developing children and children with other disabilities such as it was therefore commonly believed that deficits in perspective-taking lie at the core of the social, communicative, and imaginative difficulties seen in children with autism.
McHugh, Holmes and Holmes (2004) conducted a study, “Perspective-taking as relational responding: A developmental profile. According to them the cognitive and developmental psychologists commonly agree that the ability to take the perspective of another person greatly contributes to an individual's success in social situations, and involves a critical and complex set of skills. Perspective-taking involves inferring another person's desires and beliefs, in order to interpret their behavior and predict what they do next. Common human activities that were believed to involve perspective-taking include deception, empathy, self-consciousness, self-reflection, persuasion, and pretense, as well as being essential for effective communication.

Ozonoff and Miller (1995) conducted a study, ‘Teaching theory of mind: a new approach to social skills training for individuals with autism’. They pointed out that despite well-documented perspective-taking deficits, research into effective interventions for children with ASD has remained limited. Most of the existing literature on perspective-taking in children with ASD has taken the cognitive approach deemed ‘Theory of Mind’. Theory of Mind is a term for a set of complex cognitive processes, enabled by a system of cognitive mechanisms, which result in ‘the ability to infer the mental states of others, their knowledge, intentions, beliefs, and desires’ A complete analysis of the conceptual basis of ‘Theory of Mind’ is beyond the scope of this article. For a detailed description, conducted a key ‘Theory of Mind’ study that attempted to develop perspective-taking in nine adolescents with ASD in the context of a social skills training program. Five children in the treatment condition received specific instruction in perspective-taking strategies, while the remaining four (control group) received regular social skills training only. Groups were closely matched for cognitive abilities and receptive and expressive language levels. A variety of techniques were employed to teach perspective-taking skills, including role-play and video feedback. At the end of the study, 80% of the intervention group improved their Theory of mind composite score (a summary of performance on several Theory of Mind tests), whereas only 25% of the control group did, but no effect was seen on parent and teacher ratings of participant social skills.
Kapoor (1990) found that deaf children did not differ from normal children in perceptions of parental behavior and perspective-taking ability and cognitive functioning. However, the difference between the deaf and normal were significant.

Odom, Blanton and Laukhuf (1973) studied seven and eight year old deaf Children. They concluded that the deaf were less accurate than the hearing peers in the interpretation of emotions. Reflected in facial expressions. This finding apparently, was not due to some perceptual difficulty in recognizing the facial expression since deaf and hearing subjects performed comparable in the expression sorting task. The authors suggested that the decreased abilities of the deaf children might well be related to the lessened opportunities to receive interpretations and verbal explanations of the others. Verbalizations of feelings and attributes of a situation might serve to focus (orient) a child’s attention on its salient and relevant Aspects.

Schiff (1973) presented slides to deaf and hearing adolescents (12 to 19 years old) containing facial caricatures and six social interaction cartoon films. Results indicate little age difference in perceptual reports. A number of differences between deaf and hearing suggested that these groups often differed in their extraction of social information from eye region of the facial as well as from gross motor activity. These factors were viewed as correlates to deafness rather than the effects of intra-adolescent age or sex differences. It was also found that when judging only facial expressions deaf subjects tended to judge them as less hostile than the hearing subjects. Deaf subjects with trilingual onset deafness tending to make more errors in judging facial expressions than the hearing subjects.

2.3 Reviews on Emotional Intelligence

Attri, Ajay and Rai (2013) conducted a study, “Emotional intelligence of visually impaired adolescents studying in inclusive and exclusive settings. This study has taken on a sample of 120 visually impaired adolescent students (60 Boys and 60 Girls), equally from both the setting i.e. 30 boys and 30 girls.
form inclusive setting and same sample from exclusive setting. Results of the study show there exist no significant difference in emotional intelligence of visual impaired boys and girls first in inclusive and then in exclusive setting. Also, visual impaired girls of inclusive and exclusive setting show no significant difference in their emotional intelligence. But visual impaired boys of inclusive and exclusive setting show significant difference in their emotional intelligence. Boys in inclusive setting had more emotional intelligence than their counterparts. Same is the case with all the visual impaired adolescents in inclusive setting i.e. visual impaired adolescents in inclusive setting had more emotional intelligence than visual impaired adolescents in exclusive setting. As the study revealed sex doesn’t play significant role in the development of emotional intelligence, so there should be inclusive education setup to provide educational stimulation irrespective of sex so as to help develop personality of students in a harmonious way.

Rajput (2013) conducted a comparative study of Emotional Intelligence and Self Confidence among the Able and Disabled Students at Secondary School Level in Haryana. The study was an attempt to study emotional intelligence and self-confidence among students with disabilities and able-bodied peers at secondary school level in Haryana. A sample of 140 students of secondary schools of Haryana was selected on random basis. Mangal Emotional Intelligence Inventory developed by Dr. S.K. Mangal and Mrs. Shubhra Mangal and Self-confidence Inventory developed by M. Basavanna was used to collect the data. After statistical measures, it was revealed that able-bodied students were more self-confident and emotional Intelligent than disabled students.

Rani (2011) compared emotional intelligence and academic achievement of visually disabled students between integrated and segregated schools and correlated both the variables for two settings separately as well as for total sample irrespective of school setting. The investigator concluded that visually disabled students studying in integrated school setting were emotionally more intelligent than their counterparts in segregated setting. Integrated students
academically performed at parthan segregated peers. Moreover the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement was found significant for two schools separately as well as for total sample irrespective of school setting.

Clarke (2010) conducted a study, “Developing Emotional Intelligence Abilities through Team-Based Learning”. A few studies had appeared in the literature suggesting that team learning might be an effective means for developing emotional intelligence (EI) abilities in the workplace. This study investigated the effects of attending a one-day emotional intelligence training session followed by participating in team-based learning on ability-based measures of emotional intelligence in a sample of MBA students. Training alone had no effect but when followed by participating in team-based learning positive effects were found, but only for those who were categorized as participating more intensively in team learning and only on one specific emotional ability. The findings suggest that greater participation in team-based learning may create stronger relational bonds that support the development of emotional abilities once individuals have gained personal insights into their own emotional intelligence.

Panda (2009) studied emotional intelligence of visually impaired adolescent girls (N=100) in relation to their level of aspiration and educational achievement. The findings of the study revealed that blind girls studying in inclusive setting have more positive and better emotional intelligence than their counterparts studying in exclusive setting whereas no significant difference was found on the level of aspiration. Moreover emotional intelligence has been found positively correlated with level of aspiration and educational achievement of visually impaired adolescent girls.

Saenz and Tracy (2009) conducted a study, “An Exploratory Study of the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and IQ: Implications for Students with Learning Disabilities”. The current study was an exploratory study to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and IQ
scores in a research sample of students with learning disabilities. Emotional intelligence (EI) may provide information about non-intellective factors in the achievement and adjustment of students with learning disabilities. The Emotional Skills Assessment Process (ESAP) and the Wechsler Intelligence Scales (WISC-III) were used to quantify emotional intelligence and IQ. Evaluating the relationship between emotional intelligence (experiential) and IQ was the major focus of the proposed study. The findings of the study identified key emotional intelligence skills that were essential to the academic achievement and personal development of students with learning disabilities. The findings of the study showed there was no statistically significant relationship between total EI scores and IQ using a Pearson correlation. When using the Pearson correlation to determine a relationship between the 13 EI subtests of the ESAP and IQ there was no statistically significant relationship. These findings suggested that emotional intelligence as measured by the ESAP and IQ were two separate constructs. There was one ANOVA performed to investigate the difference between males and females on the EI assessment. When the ANOVA was performed for gender and EI there was no statistically significant difference. In the current study there were no statistically significant findings in Verbal, Performance, and Full Scale IQ when compared to emotional intelligence. These findings suggest that emotional intelligence skills as measured by the ESAP and IQ are two different theoretical constructs. Special education personnel, counselors, and teachers may find important uses of EI in designing educational interventions for students with learning disabilities. A value of the study could be that educators could use emotional intelligence to enhance academic and career performance of students with learning disabilities.

Polat, Soner, Ulusoy-Oztan and Yildiz (2009) conducted a study “Relationship Between Emotional Intelligence of Primary School 4th and 5th Grade Students and their Teachers”, Students gain many skills by observing, following and imitating others. Today one of the skills which students need
most is managing emotions. The models who the elementary students imitate most were the teachers in their learning process. Therefore, teachers had an important role in students’ gaining the skill of emotion management. From this point of view, teachers should exemplify the skill of emotion management well. Hence, this survey aims to reveal the relationship between fourth and fifth grade students and teachers’ emotional intelligence perception. The data of the survey was gathered from the fourth and fifth grade students and teachers in the schools in central district of Izmit chosen by chance with the emotional intelligence perception scale of Wong and Law (2002). At the end of the survey, a meaningful and positive connection was found out between the students and teachers’ emotional intelligence perception. It was seen that teachers' emotional intelligence management skill affects the emotional intelligence skill which students used positively and was an important explanatory variable. Accordingly, enhancing teachers' skilful use of emotional management had an effect on the improvement of students' own emotional management.

**Sharma (2008)** conducted a study on alienation, frustration and mental health in relation to emotional intelligence of college students with visual impairment and normal vision. The investigator found a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and mental health of college students with visual impairment whereas a negative relationship of emotional intelligence with alienation and frustration.

**Eniola (2007)** investigated the influence of two interactions –emotional Intelligence Tracing (EIT) and Self-Regulation Training (SRT) in remediating aggressive behavior in adolescence with visual impairment. Forty eight visually impaired (ranging from total blind to partially sighted) participated in the study. The interaction effects revealed that participants treated with the two interactions EIT and SRT showed significant improvement in their aggressive behavior pattern than counterparts in the control group.

**Eniola and Adebiri (2007)** examined emotional intelligence and goal
setting in enhancing motivation to work among visually impaired students. The study employed a pre-and post-test experimental group design (N=32) in which participants completed the Work Value Inventory. The study was carried over a period of six weeks. The results obtained indicated that there was significant difference in the level of motivation of those who had experienced emotional intelligence and goal setting interventions.

Eniola and Busari (2007) investigated the use of Emotional Intelligence (EI) in promoting self-efficacy of the visually impaired fresh students. Twenty eight visually impaired students (19 males and 9 females) participated in the study. The results indicated that the visually impaired students were unable to improve their self-efficacy with the use of emotional intelligence.

Justina (2006) conducted a study on “Enhancing emotional intelligence of student teachers through Enneagram Educational Programme and concluded that the knowledge and training in Enneagram enables the individuals to improve their emotional self-awareness, emotional expression, emotional awareness of others, creativity and interpersonal connections.

Gakhar and Manhas (2005) found that no significant difference was observed between boys and girls with respect to emotional intelligence. A significant difference was observed in the emotional intelligence of adolescents studying in private and government schools with the private school students scoring higher. No significant difference was observed between adolescents of rural and urban areas and scheduled and non-scheduled castes.

Dhull and Mangal (2005) conducted a study, “EI – Its significance for school teachers” and concluded that the success of an educational programme and the development of emotional intelligence among our children depend a lot on the level of emotional intelligence and competencies of a teacher.

Bridge (2004) opined that international comparisons show that many parents and their children do not benefit from the medical model of disability, and that serious consequences include the development of depressive illness.
among those who find that little help is available from public services. It had also been observed that the study reported experiencing grief in relation to their child’s illness as evidenced by intrusive thoughts and feelings and avoidance of behavior as well as difficulties adapting to and distress associated with reminders of the illness. Parental grief appears to reduce over time, but only in some aspects of grief and after an extended period. Increased parental grief was related to lowered psychological well-being and health status and associated with an anxious/ambivalent and a negative affective parent child relationship (Godress, 2005). Significant differences were found between the two groups when compared on mean hours spent per week by mothers in occupations involving child-care activities and recreational activities.

Petrides, Fredrickson and Furnham (2004) reported that emotional intelligence was significantly related to scholastic achievement; with its effect having noteworthy implications for low IQ pupils. It was further reported that trait EI was differently associated with educational subjects considered in the study of interest was the finding that trait EI had no considerable influence in mathematics or science performance but it moderated the effect of IQ on English and overall GCSE(General Certificate of Secondary Education) performance.

Bansibhari and Pathan (2004) studied the level of EQ of secondary teachers in relation to gender and age and found that nearly all (98.4%) teachers fall under low category of emotional intelligence and there was no significant difference between the emotional intelligence of males and females, and age is independent of EQ.

Mathur, Dube and Malhotra (2003) studied “EI: Inter Relationship of attribution, taking responsibility and scholastic achievements of adolescents”, and found that all variables have minor impact over scholastic achievement of adolescent.

Peletteri (2002) examined the relationship between the components of emotional intelligence (perception of emotion, affect regulation and emotional
knowledge) and personality factors associated with adaptation, represented by the hierarchical model of defense mechanism. The adaptive defense styles were correlated with overall emotional intelligence. Emotional knowledge was correlated with both adaptive and maladaptive defense styles and with general intelligence.

Slaski and Cartwright (2002) conducted a study on health, performance and emotional intelligence of retail managers and found that managers who scored higher in EQ suffered less subjective stress, experienced better health and well-being, and demonstrated better management performance.

Segalowitz and Rapin (2002) conducted a study, “Cognitive development in deaf children: the interface of language and perception in neuropsychology”. They pointed out that although deaf children had taught us a great deal, numerous questions remain. Little was known about the neurocognitive development of deaf children who mature in linguistic and/or social isolation. Little was known about how deaf children learn to read. Little was known about how poverty affects the development of deaf children. Little was known about the emotional development of deaf children in relation to their language development or lack thereof. How does congenital deafness affect human development? Both profoundly and not at all.

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 used that information to guide their actions and resist peer pressure. Emotional intelligence was highly correlated with the ability to actualize basic talents and skills, could distinguish between those who were less able to self-actualize and was more important than cognitive intelligence for self-actualization.

Furnham (2000) studied 260 participants, who completed a measure of trait emotional intelligence (EI) and estimated their scores on 15 EI factors on a
normal distribution with 100 points as a standard deviation. Females scored higher than males on the social skill factor of measured trait EI. However, when the 15 factors of self-estimated EI were combined into a single reliable scale and the participants’ measured trait EI scores were held constant, it was demonstrated that males believed they had higher EI than females. Most of the correlations between measured and self-estimated scores were significant and positive, thereby indicating that people have some insight into their EI. 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-estimated EI.

Davies (1998) investigated the relations among measures of emotional intelligence, traditional human cognitive abilities, and personality. The studies suggest that the status of the emotional intelligence construct is limited by measurement properties of its tests. Measures based on consensual scoring exhibited low reliability. Self-report measures had salient loadings on well-established personality factors, indicating a lack of divergent validity. These data provide controvertible evidence for the existence of a separate Emotion Perception factor that (perhaps) represents the ability to monitor another individual’s emotions. This factor is narrower than that postulated within current models of emotional intelligence.

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”.

Ediger (1997) revealed that emotional feelings and values were vital for a person’s well-being and achievement in life. He also states that science teachers should stress on the affective domain that cannot be separated from the cognitive domain. Quality emotions and feeling helps students gave their best potentials in the classroom. The students, who were aversive and think
negatively cannot concentrates for a long time and had more difficulty in reading their potential then others.

**Mayer and Salovey (1997)** pointed out that the four aspects of emotional intelligence: perceiving emotions, emotional facilitation of thoughts, emotional understanding, and emotional management are positively correlated with each other.

**Eakes (1995)** showed that 8 out of 10 parents experienced chronic sorrow. These grief-related feelings were most often triggered by the unending care giving responsibilities parents described. Those who evidenced chronic sorrow indicated that health care professionals could assist them by providing information about their child’s illness and by involving them in the treatment process. Measures of emotional adjustment and perceived emotional and instrumental support by 43 grandparents were administered to parents of young children with developmental disabilities. A significant positive correlation between paternal adjustment and grandparent support was found. Grandparents’ most frequent forms of assistance were babysitting and buying clothing. (Sandler, 1995) Similarly, this study indicated that greater support from an adult child to the caregiver resulted in greater satisfaction and less burden. It revealed that parents’ positive appraisal of their relationship with the target child was significantly predicted by their perceived care giving burden, but not by their child’s psychiatric status (Pickett, 1997). But Davies (1998) explored that the parental encouragement and educational development were found positively correlated. Parental encouragement was found to have a pervasive influence on the educational development of high-development group, regardless of gender, district and urban rural variations.

**Varni (1993)** explored that higher paternal depression predicted higher child depression and anxiety and lower self-esteem. Maternal depression and anxiety did not predict child adaptation, as did parent, classmate, teacher, and friend or social support. Eden (1994) examined that the communication of bad news is a two-way process requiring skilled medical staff, but also a receptive
audience. The emotional state of the parent determines his or her ability to hear and comprehend the information given. The results imply that repetition and clarification at consultation interviews is required until parents are emotionally able to hear, accept and comprehend complex news. Written material, taped interviews and simple videos can assist in this process.

Kapoor (1990) found that deaf children did not differ from normal children in perceptions of parental behavior and perspective-taking ability and cognitive functioning. However, the difference between the deaf and normal were significant.

Kusche and Greenburg (1983) evaluated the growth of social-cognitive knowledge in deaf and hearing children during the early and middle school years and assessed the relative importance of language in two domains of social cognition. This study also separately examined the child’s ability to evaluate the concepts of good and bad and to take another person’s perspective. Subjects consisted of 30 deaf and 30 hearing children divided into three developmental levels (52 months, 74 months, and 119 months old). For the good and bad evaluation test each child was shown 12 sets of multiple choice pictures. Each set had 4 alternatives, which included one good, one bad or all neutral activities. Role taking ability was evaluated in terms of the child’s Choice of strategy in a binary-choice hiding/guessing game. The results showed that deaf children had evidence of a developmental delay in the understanding of the concept good and bad with regard to role taking ability. The developmental delay among deaf children was no longer apparent by the age of six. The results also indicated that language was of varying importance in different domains of social and personality development.

Pietrzak (1981) administered deaf school children tests of ability to recognize the name emotional states. They presented subjects with a set of 16 pictures designed to elicit emotions and asked them to describe each picture and answer questions. The deaf were 4th, 7th and 10th graders and hearing 1st and 4th graders, with 15 subjects in each group. The 4th and 8th graders deaf
observed as many emotions and named as many different ones as did the hearing 1st and 4th graders. It was suggested that the deaf children could be taught to identify emotions by explaining to them the cause of their own expressions and by discussing with them pictures, slides and film slips.

Ekman and Friesen (1968) considered non-verbal behavior “the primary means of expressing or communicating emotions”. In communication, non-verbal information contributed to the Perception of the emotional context of messages more than verbal score (Mehrabian, 1972). How a speaker said was at least as relevant, as what a speaker said, in determining social and interpersonal knowledge. (Ekman, 1972). The listener must attend to both how and what components in Order to understand the meaning of the communication transmitted aurally and visually.

2.4 Other relevant Reviews

Prakash (2012) conducted a study, “Inclusion of Children with Hearing Impairment in Schools: A Survey on Teachers’ Attitudes” This study was undertaken in the state of Andhra Pradesh in India, to measure and compare teachers’ attitudes towards the inclusion of children with hearing impairment in schools. The findings of the study reveal that higher scores on domain 1 indicate that teachers feel effective strategies to benefit students with disabilities should be implemented in schools. The results also indicate that most teachers are agreeable to the inclusion of students with disabilities in their classrooms. Significant difference in attitudes was observed, based on the teachers’ qualifications, teaching experience, gender, level of teaching and management.

Chang, Halpeon and Kaufman (2007) examined maternal depressive symptoms and their impact on child behavior. He analyzed that reduction in mothers’ depression can also solve the child’s behavior problem.

Crowe (2006) explored that mothers of children with disabilities spent significantly more time in childcare activities and significantly less time in
recreational activities. In addition, mothers of children with disabilities reported fewer typical days and rated the quality of days as poorer. As children got older, the gap between the time mothers devoted to child care increased between the two groups.

**Dellve (2006)** found high parental stress, physical and emotional strain among mothers, especially among single mothers. Fathers showed high stress related to incompetence, which decreased after the intervention. Decreased strain was found among full-time working mothers and fathers after the intervention. Parents’ perceived knowledge and active coping and mothers’ perceived social support were increased at follow-up.

**Douma (2006)** revealed that most parents (88.2%) needed some support, especially a friendly ear, respite care, child mental health care and information. Parents who perceived both emotional and behavioral problems in their child needed support the most. In addition, parents whose child had any of these problems before the past year, who worried most about their child and suffered from psychopathology themselves, more often, needed support. Parents of children with moderate ID or physical problems especially needed ‘relief care’, respite care, activities for the child and practical/material help. The need for a friendly ear was met most often (75.3 :%), whereas the need for parental counseling was met least often (35.5%).

**Avidanetal (2006)** investigated maternal and paternal parenting styles in adolescents, their associations with self-esteem, depression and life satisfaction. They found variations in adolescent adjustment as a result of maternal and paternal parenting styles. Authoritative mothering was found to relate to higher self-esteem and life-satisfaction and to lower depression. Paternal parenting style was also related to psychological adjustment, however, although the advantage of authoritative mothering over permissive mothering was evident for all outcomes assessed; for paternal styles the advantage was less defined and only evident for depression.

**Ross and Karchmer (2002)** conducted a study, “Chasing the Mythical
Chapter-I: Review of the Related Literature

Ten Percent: Parental Hearing Status of Deaf and Hard of Hearing Students in the United States”. This study investigates the basis for the frequently reported statement that ten percent of deaf persons are born to families with one or more deaf parents. The prevalence of deaf children born to deaf parents (deaf-of-deaf) is important because it is often cited when describing linguistic and educational advantages, along with social and cultural differences, associated with deaf children born to deaf parents compared to deaf children of hearing parents. This analysis provides a current estimate for the distribution of parental hearing status among deaf and hard of hearing students in United States using data from the Annual Survey of Deaf and Hard of Hearing Children and Youth (1999-2000). This is the first national estimate that fully utilizes the distinction between children having deaf parents and hard of hearing parents, as well as hearing parents. The authors propose that the key demographic to report, other than that the overwhelming majority of deaf and hard of hearing students have hearing parents, is whether the child has one or two deaf parents. The Annual Survey findings indicate that less than five percent of deaf and hard of hearing students receiving special education are known to have at least one deaf parent, which is less than half of the presumed ten percent.

**Marika (2001)** researched that the mothers of disabled children had significantly lower extraversion, openness and higher neuroticism than the norms for Estonian women. The results demonstrated that fathers of disabled children were significantly lower in extraversion and openness, but significantly higher in conscientiousness than indicated in the norms.

**Schwartz (2000)** explored that all the parents reported receiving help and support from their child, but perceived the satisfaction gained from fulfilling their parental duties and from learning about themselves. Their assessment of this satisfaction was entirely unaffected by the subjective and objective burdens on them and the severity of the child’s illness.

**Sharma (1992)** assessed the effectiveness of adapted instructional
material in science on hearing impaired from IED and special schools. The performance of the hearing impaired from IED and special schools on post-test was better than on the pre-test. Significant differences were found on age variables, but not on gender variables among the hearing-impaired in both the settings. It showed that even when patient have minimal hearing with a hearing aid, it still helps them get input and helps them catch important sound cues. The inputs are complimenting each other. Hearing aids are better at giving temporal speech cues, while implants supply a fuller spectrum of sound frequencies.

**Panda (1992)** attempted to study the attitude of parents, teachers and community members towards disability of different categories of children. Major findings are that the attitude varies with gender whether they are teachers, parents or community members. Females showed favorable attitude towards normal, hearing impaired, visually-impaired and severely mentally retarded children on the evaluative dimension. Males showed more favorable attitude towards the educable, mentally retarded and speech impaired. Female parents had significantly more favorable attitudes than the male parents. On the activity factor, sex had no differential effect on attitudes towards disability. On the potency dimension, the females were slightly more favorable towards EMR and hearing-impaired than the males.

**Mohanpatra (1991)** attempted to study the problem of reading, memory and attention processes of normal and reading disabled children. Major findings were that the normal and the reading-disabled children did not differ with respect to their intelligence. In the case of decoding score, the normal subjects of both grades performed better than reading disabled subjects. In the case of oral reading errors, the normal children made significantly less errors than the reading-disabled children. The observations had also emphasized a weak sequential relationship between teachers’ praise, statements and children behavior and in particular, compliance. In addition to implications, relative to teacher training, teacher evolutions and planning for the transition of children.
from self-contained class rooms to less restrictive settings (Johnson, 1999). Similarly, Kagee (1999) supports the idea that a modest relationship exists between world view and health promoting behavior. There was also a slight indirect effect of sex on health promoting behavior, with women more likely to endorse an organism worldview and therefore more likely to engage in health promoting behaviors than men. No relationship was found between socioeconomic status and health promoting behaviors. Similarly, Ravinderan (1999) has observed that the performance goals, simple knowledge and certain knowledge beliefs were the best predictors for shallow cognitive engagement. Shallow cognitive engagement was the best predictor for the knowledge integration examination measure with a negative relationship. None of the independent variables came as predictors for the knowledge integration paper measure. The research concluded that in elementary schools was found visionary leadership and collaboration as the two outstanding characteristics of a meaningful educational environment. Other characteristics such as supports for staff and children, funding, effective parent involvement and accessibility were also evidenced. Transition planning and refocused use of assessment did not evolve as themes with this investigative approach. Teacher’s roles was in a state of change (Roth, 1998). Analysis of cognitive processing overtime showed markedly different processing by high and low performers within and across conditions, providing insight into the temporal nature of how readers attain understanding. The better instruments need to be developed to measure children’s use of no automatic elaborations (Condly, 1999). It indicates the interaction of year in program and cognitive developmental level are not related to empathy. These results suggest that empathy does develop over the course of counselor training programs as evidenced by the significant differences between first and second year children on both measures of empathy. One year of experience in a counselor education program was related to both cognitive skill based and affective/trait based empathy. These results also suggest that cognitive developmental level is not related to empathy.
(Lyons-Ruth, 1999) and Nauert (2009) founds the cognitive behavior therapy reduces anxiety in older adults. This study is to suggest that CBT can be useful for managing worry and associated symptoms among older patients in primary care. The researchers found that CBT, compared with EUC, significantly improved worry severity, depressive symptoms and general mental health. Wood and Wood (2009) attempted to identify and reduce the antecedents and consequences of problem behaviors. This approach has not shown success in the overall functioning. There is still a lack of high quality data on the effectiveness of these techniques in other behavior problems such as wandering.

Sahoo (1991) examined the comparative study of the behavioral characteristics of the blind, deaf and dumb and normal children. The normal children showed much better behavioral functioning as compared to the blind, deaf and the dumb. The blind, deaf and the dumb children exhibited low self-concept as compared to normal ones. But the blind children did not differ significantly from the deaf children with regard of their self-concept. The independence, responsibility and maturity of the normal children did not differ much from the deaf and dumb children.

Ramiah (1990) showed that there was significant relationship between parental involvement and self-concept of the children. The more parental involvement the better the self-concept. Female children had more parental involvement in the physical support dimension than male children.

Laughton (1988) compared the traditional approach of teaching art to teaching programmes geared to developing creative ability. He studied 28 deaf children between the ages of 8 and 10 years, who took part in one of two programs for 12 weeks. The children were tested in the Torrance formal test before and after the intervention. It was found that there was a significant improvement in flexibility and originality among the children who studied according to the new programme. He also claims that by means of the appropriate teaching strategy it is possible to develop creative aptitudes with
deaf children and to help them to become less concrete and rigid in their thinking.

**Sharma (1988)** explored that children of working mothers had a greater feeling of rejection and differed significantly from the children of nonworking mothers. The study aimed at comparing the children of working and nonworking mothers regarding their self-concept, socio-economic status and adjustment.

### 2.5 Conclusion

The review of research presented in the preceding pages shows that differently-abled and able-bodied school-going children were studied on different aspects of emotional intelligence, cognitive abilities and perspective-taking ability etc. After reviewing the related literature the investigator concluded that no attempt has been made so far to know the effect of disability on emotional intelligence, cognitive abilities and perspective-taking ability. This gap in the area led the investigator to explore these traits in differently-abled and able-bodied school-going children. It is further seen that satisfactory attempts have not been made to study inter-correlation among emotional intelligence, cognitive abilities and perspective-taking ability.