CHAPTER-II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Previous chapter namely Introduction dealt with the origin and statement of problem, objectives, and hypotheses, operational definitions of key terms used and rationale of the present study. The chapter in hand named ‘Review of Related Literature’ is concerned with comprehensive review of studies in India and abroad related to variables involved in the present study. Reviews of related studies develop the insight in selecting samples, tools for data collection and statistical techniques to be used for analysis of data. Thus reviewing the literature is one of the most indispensable parts of the research. This helps an investigator in many ways like knowing quantum of works done in the field knowing how to tackle his own problem and avoiding the risk involved in duplication of research. Besides, it gives an understanding of problem related to this field. Essentially, review economizes time and energy of investigator. Survey of related literature equips the investigator with adequate information regarding the field in general and problem in particular. It provides the investigator up to date information in the concerned field. The findings of earlier experiments encourage the new workers to embark upon useful project in education, on the basis of earlier pertinence, avoiding the past mistakes or defeats. It will be useful to see as what has already been done concerning the problem at hand. Moreover, researches conducted in the respective field have not been published owing to lack of publishing facilities. Thus there is a scarcity of Indian literature as well research in related field. Survey of related literature is an essential prerequisite to actual planning and execution of any research project. It is like surveying the area and judging the distance first and then to formulate a plan. It helps the researcher in avoiding duplication on the one hand,
and in getting benefit from similar studies or the other in respect of method adopted and devices used in the collection of data and their organization and interpretation. For all these reasons, research worker has to go through the available relevant literature before actually commencing the work of his own research. The review of related literature is must for scientific approach in all areas of scientific research. One can develop an insight into the problem to be investigated unless and until one has learnt what others have done in a particular area of his own interest. Thus the related literature forms the foundation upon which all work can be built (Bery, 1967). In the words of Good, Barr and Scates, ‘The competent physician must keep abreast of the latest discoveries in the field of medicine’ obviously the careful students of education or investigator should become familiar with the location and use of source of educational information. In the words of C.V. Good, ‘The key to vast stock house of published literature may open doors to the source of significant, problems and explanatory hypotheses and provides helpful orientation for definition of problem, background for selection of procedure and comparative data for interpretation of results, in order to be truly creative and original. One must read extensively and critically as a stimulus to thinking.

According to Best (1978) ‘practically all human knowledge can be found in books and libraries. Unlike some other animals that start a new with each generation man builds upon the accumulated and recorded knowledge of the past.’ Best has further said’ A familiar study with the literature keep the students to find out, what method of attack have to be promising and disappointing and problems remain to be solved.’ Further, the remark made by Van Dalen in this context is worth noting.’ The review of educational research gives you an excellent overview of the work that has been done in the field and helps to keep up with recent
developments. It helps to move further in the right direction. In the present chapter, the investigator has presented comprehensive and detailed review of research studies related to concerned field. Research studies for the review were from encyclopedia, journals, abstracts and other published materials. Some unpublished Ph.D. thesis and dissertations were also reviewed from university libraries and are included in this chapter.

It is not possible on the part of the investigator to get access to the entire published and unpublished researches in the field, yet an attempt has been made to review the available literature on the area under investigation in an exhaustive manner. The review of related literature has been mentioned variable wise in the following headings.

2.1 STUDIES RELATED TO SELF-CONCEPT

Arens, A. Katrin (2014) conducted a study on the topic native language self concept and reading self concept: same and different. Researcher had used scales for students' self-concepts in reading and in their native language interchangeably. The author conducted three studies with German students to test whether reading and German (i.e., native language) self-concepts can be treated as the same or different constructs. Compared with other facts of academic self-concept, reading self-concept was more highly related to reading test scores (study one) and German self-concept to German grades (Study two). In Study third, reading and general school self-concepts demonstrated similar relations to German grades. The findings of the three studies, albeit indirect, supported the specificity matching principle and caution researchers against applying reading and native language self-concept scales uncritically to infer verbal self-concept.
Rajkonwar, Soni and Dutta (2014) conducted a study on Adjustment, Level of Aspiration, self-concept and Academic Achievement of Visually Handicapped School Children of Assam. A sample of 400 visually handicapped children (200 boys and 200 girls) who were studying in the classes VI to X (age 12 to 16 years) in six visually handicapped schools of Assam was selected for the study. The objectives of their study were:

1. To study the adjustment pattern of visually handicapped school children.
2. To analyze the level of educational aspirations, self-concept and academic achievement of visually handicapped school children.
3. To find the relationship between (i) adjustment and self-concept; (ii) adjustment and level of educational aspirations; (iii) adjustment and academic achievement; (iv) level of educational aspirations and self-concept and (v) self-concept and academic performance of visually handicapped school children.
4. To find whether significant interaction exists between adjustment and level of educational aspirations of visually handicapped school children with academic achievement as the dependent variable.
5. To find whether significant interaction exists between adjustment and self-concept of visually handicapped school children with academic achievement as dependent variable.
6. To find whether significant interaction exists between adjustment and level of educational aspirations and self-concept of visually handicapped school children with academic achievement as the dependent variable.

The following conclusions were drawn from the study:
(1) The adjustment of visually handicapped boys and girls are found similar on overall adjustment.

(2) The study also reported both visually handicapped boys and girls possess same level of educational aspirations.

(3) It is found that visually handicapped boys are having better self-concept than their girl counterparts.

(4) The results of the study further showed that visually handicapped boys and girls do not differ significantly in respect of academic achievement.

(5) The study revealed that there exist no relationship between (a) adjustment and level of educational aspirations. (b) Adjustment and self-concept and (c) adjustment and academic achievement of visually handicapped children.

(6) The interaction between adjustment and level of educational aspirations among visually handicapped school children has no impact on self-concept.

(7) The interaction between adjustment and self-concept has no impact on academic achievement.

(8) The results of the study indicate that the interaction effect of level of educational aspirations and self-concept among visually handicapped school children has no impact on academic achievement.

(9) The interaction effect of self-concept and academic achievement among visually handicapped school children has little or no impact on adjustment.

Datta and Halder (2012) conducted a research on ‘Insights into Self-Concept of the Adolescents Who are Visually Impaired in India’. The aim of the study was to explore the nature of selected domains of self-concept namely behaviour,
Intellectual and school status, physical appearance and attributes, anxiety, happiness and satisfaction, of the sighted adolescents and the adolescents with a visual impairment. They found significant differences among the adolescents who are sighted and visually impaired with respect to the overall self-concept scores including the said domains.

Mishra and Singh (2012) carried a comparative study on self-concept and self-confidence of sighted and visually impaired children. A total sample of 200 students consisting of 100 sighted and 100 visually-impaired children was taken. The study revealed that visually impaired students are found to have low self-concept and sighted students have higher self-concept and also there was a significant difference in self-concept of visually impaired and non-challenged students. There existed no significant difference in self-concept of males and females. Sighted students were found to have higher self-confidence as compared to visually impaired students and also there is a significant difference in the self-confidence of visually impaired and non-challenged students. No significant difference between male and female was found.

Eugenia (2010) studied on teacher-student relationships, sense of belonging, academic self-concept and academic achievement of students enrolled and not enrolled in small learning communities. Across the country, large high schools were restructuring to create more personalized school environments. The adverse effects of large comprehensive high schools were represented in achievement gaps, especially significant with students from different demographic backgrounds and for students from low socio-economic backgrounds. The purpose of this study was to determine the relationships between the perceptions of high school students enrolled in small learning communities and those not enrolled in small learning
communities of teacher-student relationships, sense of belonging, and academic self-concept, and student achievement. Findings of this study indicate that there were no significant differences between students who were enrolled in small learning communities and students who were not enrolled in small learning communities towards the three personalization variables of teacher-student relationships, sense of belonging, and academic self-concept. However, all of the variables were closely interrelated. Students, who had strong academic self-concept, did develop positive relationships with their teachers, and felt a sense of belonging within their learning environment. These findings were positive, although not strong, and consistent across all demographic differences.

Sharma and Aqshim (2010) conducted a study with the objective to find out the impact of sex-role on school environment and school self-concept. The study was conducted on a sample of 100 students (50 girls and 50 boys) of class X of Pathankot School located in urban area for analysis of data, product moment correlation was computed. The result of the study revealed an impact of sex-role on the school environment, however, no impact was found on the self-concept.

Deepu (2010) conducted a study on the self-esteem and social relations of adolescents with learning disability. The size of the sample was 50 which include both genders and the sampling design was purposive sampling. Adolescents with learning disability of the age group 11 to 18 years were included for the study. The students’ level of self-esteem was assessed by using a 10-item scale developed by Rosenberg (1965). The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale was rated on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). The researcher reverse scored five items that were negative in nature so that higher scores would indicate higher level of self-esteem. The scale ranges from 0-30. Scores between
15 and 25 are within normal range; scores below 15 suggest low self esteem. A semi structured questionnaire was designed to gather information on the socio demographic profile and social relation of adolescents with learning disability. The study showed that, statically there was a significant relationship between the respondents relationship with parents with respect to respondents self-esteem. There was less significant relationship between the respondents relationship with peers with respect to respondents self-esteem. The study indicated that, statically there was a significant relationship between the respondents relationship with teachers with respect to respondents self-esteem.

Konstantinos et. al. (2009) carried out a study on ‘Self-esteem of Adults with Visual Impairments’ and the study revealed statistically significant differences with regards to the self-esteem amongst sighted adults and adults with low vision. Adults with low vision have less self-esteem when compared to sighted adults. With regards to the differences in self-esteem between the two genders, the findings of this study exhibited no significant differences exist between male and female participants with visual impairment.

Garaigordobil and Bernarás (2009) studied on the topic entitled ‘Self-concept, Self-esteem, Personality Traits and Psychopathological Symptoms in Adolescents with and without Visual Impairment’. The purpose of the study was to analyze self-concept, self-esteem, and other personality traits and psychopathological symptoms in subjects with and without visual impairment. The sample was made up of 90 participants aged 12 to 17: 61 with no impairment and 29 with visual impairment. After analyzing the data the results showed that there were no significant differences in self-concept and self-esteem in the samples, but the visually impaired adolescents scored significantly higher in various
psychopathological symptoms as well as in their capacity for kind behavior. It also revealed no gender differences in any variables in adolescents without visual impairment. However, women with visual impairment scored lower in self-esteem and higher in various psychopathological symptoms.

Li and Bornholt (2009) studied the self-concepts and parental reports on children’s social skills at home and found no association of self-concept and some of the social skills/behavior such as assertiveness and settled behavior of children. Findings also contribute to knowledge of children’s social self-concepts that has practical considerations for health and education programmes.

Sameer (2008) investigates the relationship between self-esteem and emotional intelligence among trainees of Tsunami affected coastal belt of Alappey district of Kerala, India. He found that both emotional intelligence and self esteem were positively correlated.

Lifshitz,, Hen and  Izhak (2007) conducted a study on Self-concept, Adjustment to Blindness, and Quality of Friendship among Adolescents with Visual Impairments. The self-concept and quality of friendship of 40 adolescents with visual impairments (20 in public schools and 20 in a residential school) were compared to those of 41 sighted adolescents. The findings of the study indicated a similar self-concept profile for sighted adolescents and adolescents with visual impairments, although the scores of the participants with visual impairments were higher in all domains.

Naseema and Usha (2007) compared school adjustment, self-concept and achievement in Mathematics of visually impaired and normal secondary school pupils in the integrated system. The study is intended to measure whether there is any significant difference in the achievement in mathematics and in the
psychological variables like school adjustment and self-concept between the visually impaired and the normal secondary school pupils. A sample of 500 normal and 147 visually impaired pupils studying in IX standard, in the integrated system of education, in the state of Kerala, were selected. Achievement test in Mathematics for IX standard pupils, self-concept questionnaire (SCQ) and school adjustment inventories (SAI) were made use of result revealed that there exists significant difference at 0.01 level, between visually impaired and normal pupils in respect of their school adjustment, self-concept and achievement in Mathematics.

Griffin-Shirley and Nes (2005) worked on Self-esteem and empathy in sighted and visually impaired preadolescents. Self-esteem and empathy of 71 students with visual impairments was compared with 88 sighted students. The results of the study revealed no significant difference between the two groups of students in their levels of self-esteem, empathy toward others, and bonding with peers.

Lopez-Justicia, Dolores, Maria Carmen, Antonio and Eduardo (2001) conducted a study on the Self-Concepts of Spanish Children and Adolescents with Low Vision and their sighted peers. Three studies of Spanish students with low vision, aged 4-7, 8-11, and 12-17 were carried out and found that overall participants' scores for some dimensions of self-concept were lower than those of comparison groups of sighted students. Teaching strategies such as cooperative learning are suggested to help improve the self-concept and academic performance of students with low vision.

Kong (2000) studied Chinese students’ self-concept structure, frame of reference, and relation with academic achievement.’ The school effects on students’ academic self-concept and achievement were evaluated in a large-scale
longitudinal study of Chinese secondary students in Hong Kong (7997 students, 44 high schools, 4 years). Consistent with prior ‘Big-Fish-Little-Pond-Effect’ (BFLPE) research on academic self-concept, this study showed that attending schools of high school-average ability led to initially lower academic self-concept and a further decline over time. The study extended previous BFLPE research by including a measure of perceived school status to tap the potentially positive effects on academic self-concept in attending high-ability schools. This study examined the internal/external frame of reference effects (I/E model) on subject-specific self-concept in students’ native language (Chinese), non-native language (English), and mathematics. Furthermore, analysis showed that Chinese and English language self-concepts were distinguishable and separable. The results provided strong support for the I/E model and the juxtaposition of self-concepts in native and nonnative languages. The validity of a Chinese version of a widely used self-concept instrument (SDQ-II) was evaluated by confirmatory factor analysis, multitrait-multitime analysis and factorial invariance analysis. The psychometric properties of the Chinese instrument were found to be as strong as or even stronger than those of the original Australian (English) version.

Shaw and Edwards (1997) studied the similarities and differences between the self-concepts and self-presentations of males and females. In this study, one hundred subjects described themselves using a checklist and then told a narrative that they frequently tell others; the narratives were content analyzed for self-defining characteristics. The results revealed that males and females have similar self-concepts, but present different, more gender typed selves in their narratives.

Obiakor and Stile (1990) compared the self-concepts of visually impaired (n = 61) and normally sighted (n = 229) American school children in Grades 6, 7, and
8. Students self-concept was measured with the Student Self-Assessment Inventory (SSAI; Muller, Larned, Leonetti, & Muller, 1984, 1986), which assesses children's self-knowledge, self-ideal, and self-esteem as related to physical maturity, peer relations, academic success, and school adaptiveness. They found that visually impaired students scored higher than normally sighted children on 5 of the 12 SSAI subscales, refuting the notion that visually impaired children have poorer self-concepts than normally sighted children.

Upreti (1988) reported lower self-concept in children with orthopedic impairments. The students with physically impairments felt more insecure and had poor adjustment. The girls felt more insecure than boys. These characteristics were related to the severity of disability like visually handicapped children.

Sherry, Verma and Goswami (1988) studied of self-concept during adolescence was very important. Because of their growing autonomy and physical strength, adolescence acquired a sense of freedom. Their self-concept is built on limited experience and it is tough for them to relate themselves with changed social world. The adolescent’s self-concept was also importantly affects his capacity to cope with his personal and non-personal environment. If he thinks of himself as competent and successful, he is likely to persist longer against difficulty.

Saraswat (1982) showed in his study that individual’s self-concept was positively and significantly related to academic achievement in both males and females. He further added that boys and girls differed significantly on total self-concept and its physical, social and moral dimensions; girls were found to be higher on all these dimensions.

Yarworth (1978) explored the relationship between various aspects of student self-concept (Tennessee Self-Concept Scale) and student participation in
the extra- and co-curricular activity programs of several Pennsylvania high schools. The study was a departure from previous studies because it combined psychological with personal variables in its examination of student participation. Known and hypothesized indicants of participation were explored. Results indicated that self-concept variables as well as personal variables are differential in the nature of their contributions to different activity classifications.

Bandura (1977) found self-concept as a very important component responsible for the personality of an individual. In broad term it can be defined as person’s perception of himself. These perceptions were formed through his experience with his environment and are influenced especially by environmental reinforcements and significant others. According to developmental psychologists, age is considered to be a very important factor in self-concept. In fact some believe that self-concept is developed before the age of five and remain basically constant (Wylie, 1961). Changes in the individual self-concept may occur at any time during his life but specifically they occur at the beginning of each developmental phase. The idea of self-concept and changes in self-concept are central to the psychology of adolescence. Adolescence has been considered as a time when self-concept increases in prominence. The development of self-concept completed in early childhood. The adolescent is faced with sometimes difficult task of forming and maintaining a coherent sense of who he is and what purpose he will ultimately serve in this world. The self-concept appears to play critical role in general psychological adjustment among adolescents. There is substantial evidence that those who make good adjustment have stable and realistic self-concept (McDuit, 1950).
Meighan (1970) administered the Tennessee Self-concept Scale (TSCS) to a sample of visually handicapped (blind and partially sighted) adolescents and found that their self-concepts were extremely low compared with the norm group. However, a study by Williams (1971) compared a sample of blind adolescents using Bill’s High School Index of Adjustment and values produced the opposite results, blind subjects reported significantly higher self-concept.

Zunich and Ledwith (1965) administered Lipsitt’s Self-concept Scale to sighted and blind boys and girls in the fourth grade. Each child judged how well or poorly adjectives such as friendly, trusted, lazy, and jealous applied to him. There were no overall differences between blind and sighted groups. There were some indications that blind girls showed more positive self-concept than their sight controls, and blind boys were more negative. Given the number of items, however, the number of significant differences on individual items was not greater than would be expected by chance.

### 2.2 STUDIES RELATED TO ADJUSTMENT

Nagra (2014) studied and identified the social intelligence level and adjustment levels of secondary school students in relation to type of school and gender. Social intelligence scale and adjustment inventory were used for collecting data from a random sample of 200 secondary school students. Statistical techniques such as mean, standard deviations and t test were applied for analysis of data. The results of the study revealed average levels of social intelligence and adjustment in these students. Insignificant differences were observed in social intelligence and adjustment in relation to type of school and gender.

Yau, Hon Keung (2014) conducted a study on “An empirical study into gender differences in the relationships among academic, social and psychological
adjustments of university support” and concluded. There were three dimensions through which to measure university support for students' transition to university life: academic adjustment, social adjustment and psychological adjustment. Previous research studies showed that there are relationships among those adjustments. However, less is known about gender differences in these relationships. The purpose of this study was to examine the perceived gender differences in perception of the relationships among these adjustments during the first year undergraduate transition period. The study was based on a survey of 114 first year undergraduate students from a Hong Kong local university. The findings showed that (1) female students perceived social adjustment to have more influence on academic adjustment than male students, (2) female students perceived psychological adjustment to have more influence on academic adjustment than male students, and (3) there was no significant difference in the relationship between social and academic adjustments for female and male students.

Masnabadi (2014) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and social adjustment and risk-taking of male and female students of Islamic Azad University. This research was a descriptive correlation one. The sample included 170 students (120 females, 50 males) who were selected by the relative stratified random sampling method with EI questionnaire of Schering or Siber, Social Adjustment Scale and risks taking ability scale of California. Pearson correlation coefficient formula was used in independent groups for data analysis. The results showed that there was a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and the social adjustment of female students. But emotional intelligence and risk taking of the students had no significant relationship. On the other hand there was a significant relationship between social adjustment and risk-
taking of female and male students. The T-test showed that there were no gender differences between emotional intelligence and social adjustment. But there was a significant difference between risks taking of two genders. Based on the results obtained, it can be concluded that people with high emotional intelligence level have high social adjustment and higher input to risk taking. On the other hand, there is no significant relationship between social adjustment and risk taking. In addition, there is no gender difference between emotional intelligence and social adjustment, but the amount of risk taking of students varies based on gender.

Chauhan (2013) conducted a study on adjustment of higher secondary school students of Durg district on 111 higher secondary students. She used the Adjustment scale by A.K.P, Sinha and R.P. Singh for the purpose of data collection. The results of her study indicated that there is significant difference in adjustment of higher secondary school’s student. She found that female students have good adjustment level when compared to the male students.

Murray, Christopher; Lombardi, Allison (2013) conducted a study on Social Support: Main and Moderating Effects on the Relation between Financial Stress and Adjustment among College Students with Disabilities and concluded that Students with disabilities are underrepresented in 4-year colleges and universities in the United States and those that do attend are at an increased risk of performing poorly in these settings. These difficulties for college students with disabilities may be compounded by additional stress related to financial concerns. The current study was designed to investigate the effects of social support on the adjustment of college students with disabilities generally, and among college students experiencing financial stress specifically. Results indicated that two types of social support (total support and satisfaction with support) had positive effects on the
post-secondary adjustment of college students with disabilities. Moreover, both forms of support moderated the effects of financial stress on some, but not all, indicators of adjustment. The implications of these findings for future research and practice are discussed.

Nyamayaro and Saravanan (2013) explored gender differences and relationships between adjustment problems and negative emotional states. In this study, 42 male and 57 female medical students completed the Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire and the Depression Anxiety Stress Scale. The results indicated a moderate adjustment level and no significant gender differences among medical students. There was significant gender differences were found in stress and anxiety but not in depression. There were significant negative correlations between various adjustment and depression, anxiety, and stress. Overall, in this study female students were more stressed and anxious compared to male students.

Asim, Zafar, Batool and Jamal (2012) studied the gratification and social adjustment of blind children in district Faisalabad, Pakistan. The study was designed to identify and analyze the need satisfaction and social adjustment of blind children. The universe of the study was particularly comprised of blind educational institutions in Faisalabad. It was found that majority of the respondents i.e. 78.8% were blind by birth due to inherited problems, some were blind by illness due to typhoid, anemia and accidently. Most of the children were satisfied with the attitude of friends and teachers toward them in socio-cultural norms of the society. Majority of the respondents were satisfied with the technical training being provided by them.

Randhawa (2011) studied adjustment among the university students. Adjustment is a complex and multi-faceted concept. The adjustment process is a
way in which an individual attempts to deal with stress, tensions, conflicts etc., and meet his or her needs (Kulshrestha, 1979). In this process the individual also makes efforts to maintain harmonious relationships with the environment. The study was aimed to examine the adjustment levels in the students’ life when they shift from school level to college or university level. A random sample of 100 students from faculty of commerce and business management has been selected which consists of 40 male and 60 female students respectively. This scale consists of 50 items distributed on five dimensions. Means, standard deviations and t-test values were used to analyze the data. The findings of the study revealed that male students are better adjusted than the female students. The study concluded that the successful transition of the students from school level to university level is essential for the bright and prosperous future of the students. For this proper and timely guidance and counseling on the part of parents and teachers is must.

Abdullah (2009) studied adjustment amongst first year students in a Malaysian University. Specifically the objectives of this study were: (1) to find out the level of adjustment amongst first year undergraduates. (2) To find out the differences between male and female students in college adjustment. (3) To determine the relationship between students’ adjustment and their academic achievement. 250 first year university students from six different faculties in University Putra Malaysia (UPM) participated in this study. They were selected using a multistage cluster sampling technique. There were 179 (71.6%) female respondents and 71 (28.4%) male respondents, ranging from 18 to 22 years old (M = 19.37, SD = 1.19). In terms of ethnic groups, there were 192 (76.8%) Malays, 43 Chinese (17.2%), 8 Indians (3.2%), and 7 others (2.8%). The Full Scale score were then divided into three categories (high, average, and low) based on the guidelines provided by the authors in the manual. The subscales scores were calculated and
categorized in the same manner. Findings indicated that 70% of the respondents’ overall adjustment was at the moderate level, while only 4% obtained a high level of overall adjustment. 26% were found to be in the low category for their overall adjustment.

Pal (2009) studied core teaching skills of in-service primary teachers in relation to their self-concept and adjustment’. One of the most important questions pertaining to self-concept and adjustment of in-service primary teachers is as to how the different teaching skills contribute towards making their teaching effective. The specific objectives of the study were:

1. To study the core teaching skills of in-service primary school teachers of Delhi schools.
2. To develop observation schedule for assessment of core teaching skills (CTS) at primary school level.
3. To identify and assess the extent of skill deficiencies of primary school teachers.
4. To study the relationship core teaching skills, self-concept and adjustment of primary teachers.

The study was designed and conducted into two phases, co-relational and differential phases. While the former study relationship between the core teaching skills, self-concept and adjustment of primary teachers the latter is concerned with the differences between the core teaching skills, self-concept and adjustment of primary teachers. The sample was selected in two stages. First; schools had been selected randomly from each district of National Capital Territory. Delhi. From each district 5% schools of different types i.e., Sarvodaya Vidyalayas and MCD
Primary Schools were selected. However if the total number of school in any
category is less than 20 at least one schools is included in the sample. Core
Teaching Skill Observation Schedule (CTOS) was used. It was developed by the
investigator in total ten skills have been taken into considerations Self - Concept
inventory (SCI). Self-Concept Inventory was used to measure Self- Concept of in-
service teachers developed and standardized by Prof. R.R. Bhatnagar. Mangal
Teacher Adjustment Inventory (MTAI). For the study ‘Teachers; Adjustment
Inventory’ developed and standardized by Prof. S.K. Mangal was used. This study
was analyzed into two phases of the collected data. Female primary teachers
showed more skill deficiencies than the male primary teachers. Primary teachers of
Sarvodaya Vidyalayas were reflecting more skill deficiencies than the primary
teachers of M.C.D. Primary Schools. Primary teachers having professional
qualification Diploma in Education (ETEJBTT) showed more skill deficiencies
than the professional qualification Degree in Education (B. Ed.).

Hussain (2008) conducted a study to examine the level of academic stress
and overall adjustment among Public and Government high school students and
also to see relationship between the two variables (academic stress and
adjustment). For that purpose 100 students of class IX were selected randomly
from two different schools out of which 50 were taken from Public and the
remaining 50 were taken from Government school Sinha and Sinha scale for
measuring academic stress was used to see the magnitude of stress and Sinha and
Singh Adjustment Inventory for school students was used to examine level of
adjustment among the students. Results indicated that magnitude of academic
stress was significantly higher among the Public school students whereas
Government school students were significantly better in terms of their level of
adjustment. However, inverse but significant relationships between academic stress
and adjustment were found for both the group of students and for each type of school. Method Altogether 100 class IX male students were randomly selected from two different types of schools of Delhi. Out of 100 students, 50 were taken from public school and the remaining 50 were taken from Government school. Tools for assessing academic stress of students a 30 items composite scale for assessing academic stress among students consisting of force choice type answer was used. The scale was developed by Sinha et.al. (2003) and was published in the Journal of Mental Health and Human Behavior.

Sjöberg (2008) conducted a study on emotional intelligence and life adjustment. Data from a sample of 153 respondents who were roughly representative of the population were obtained, including measurement of emotional intelligence, life/work balance and other indices of adjustment and social/psychological skills, and salary. EI was measured by both questionnaire items (trait EI) and a task of identifying emotions in social problem episodes as described in vignettes (performance EI). Balance was measured both in terms of family/leisure interfering with work and vice versa. He found that the both interference dimensions correlated strongly with emotional intelligence in the hypothesized direction. Results also revealed that emotional intelligence was positively related to salary both for men and women, and at different levels of educational achievement. Other indices of social skill were also related to EI. On the other hand, those high in EI tended to be less concerned with economic success.

Kaushik and Singh (2006) studied adjustment and self-concept of hearing impaired and normal children. Hearing impairment weather partial or whole, adversely affects educational performances and overall personality of the child. In
the study investigator tried to understand and compare the self-concept and adjustment of hearing impaired children with normal children. The result, however, showed significant difference with respect to both the variables between the two groups.

Meenashi (2005) studied ego strength and adjustment of blind and sighted schools students. She found no significant difference between blind and sighted students on adjustment except its one dimension i.e. social adjustment. Sighted students were better than visually impaired students with regard to social adjustment.

Adeyemo (2005) conducted a study on the buffering effect of emotional intelligence on the adjustment of secondary school students in transition. The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and adjustment of students transitioning from primary school to secondary school. The study was a descriptive survey research in which emotional intelligence stands as the independent variable and adjustment as the dependent variable. Two validated instrument measuring emotional intelligence and adjustment respectively were used to collect data from the participants. Results showed that there was a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and adjustment. It was also found that the strengths of emotional intelligence, defined in terms of high, moderate and low, significantly impacted the adjustment of students in transition.

Nayak (2005) studied on mental health and adjustment of secondary school teachers influencing development of self-concept. It was a co-relational and ex-post facto study. The sample of 352 secondary school of the undivided Puri district has been well drawn through random sampling. The Self- Concept Scale
has been systematically standardized through a sample of 400 in-service teachers drawn from 13 Teacher Training Institutes. RCE, Mental Health Scale (Anand, S.P., 1986), and Mangal’s Teacher Adjustment Inventory (MTAI, 1979) were suitably used for assessment of Mental Health, and Adjustment. The data was analyzed using suitable statistical techniques, namely, measures of central tendency and variability, t-value, zero order correlation, partial correlation and multiple correlations. The study revealed that female, unmarried, less qualified and more experienced teachers were found to be in possession of better self-concept than male, married, more qualified, less experienced teachers. There existed no statistically significant difference between the married and unmarried teachers in regard to mental health.

Sindhu (2005) studied the teachers’ motivation, student adjustment and their academic achievement. The objectives were to study male and female teachers’ motivation to work; to study and compare school adjustment of boys and girls; to study and compare male and female students’ liking towards their teachers; to compare the achievement of boys and girls; and to examine the extent of interrelationship between the above mentioned variables. A normative testing survey method and cross-sectional approach was used for collection of the data. 32 teachers and 680 Standard X students were selected from the Kendriya Vidyalayas of five zones of district Saharanpur through stratified random sampling technique. The tools used were Teachers’ Motivation to Work- the Test and Scale by B. Singh; Students’ Liking Scale by S.P. Malhotra and B.K. Passi and School Adjustment Inventory by N.M. Bhagia. Findings of the study were that the male and female teachers were found to possess average or above average level of motivation to work. Most students displayed average and above average adjustment with school environment. The girls displayed superior adjustment as
compared to the boys. The girls were found to have more liking for their teachers than the boys. No significant difference was found in the achievement of boys and girls.

Prasad (2004) studied Psycho-Social Factors of adjustment problems of primary school teachers of Garhwal Mandal. All the five objectives of the study have been well enunciated. All the eight hypotheses of the study have been well formulated in the null form. The sample of 500 Primary School Teachers was drawn through random sampling from the Government, Private, Rural and Urban Schools of Gharwal Mandal cutting across Chamoli, Uttar-Kashi, Rudra-Prayag, Paudi Gharwal, Tihari and Dehradun. The data gathered have been properly analyzed through Mean, Standard Deviation and t-value. The study was quite revealing as follows the well-adjusted primary school teachers of Gharwal have been found better adjusted and contented than the maladjusted teachers. The rural and urban teachers were not found differed significantly on their adjustment. The married and unmarried teachers were found differed significantly on their adjustment.

Kaur (2001) conducted a study on adjustment problems of adolescents of working and non-working women in relation to emotional intelligence. She concluded that the adolescents of working mothers are better adjusted as compared to that of non-working mothers.

Benergee (1988) investigated problems of adjustment of blind students reading in secondary schools of West Bengal. The sample comprised of visually handicapped adolescents in the age group of 12-18 years. Findings of the study revealed that the distribution of the two groups, visually handicapped (VH) and visually normal (VN) according to the intensity of total adjustment was found to be
significant. It was also found that the two groups of visually handicapped adolescent vary with age of onset of handicap in their adjustment to interacting environment.

Singh (1983) studied need patterns, achievement and adjustment of mentally superior children and found that need patterns, achievement and adjustment in social, emotional, health, home and education had a low positive relationship. Superior girls had better adjustment in social and sexual attitudes. High intelligent subjects belonged to high and upper middle SES category. There was a positive relationship between intelligence and achievement for the superior groups but a negative relationship for the average group. There was a significant relationship between adjustment in four areas health, home, social and emotional of the superior as well as average children.

While examining the personality adjustment of the visually impaired individuals and the extent to which they have been able to adjust themselves to emotional, social and educational levels Singh (1982) found that the visually impaired students were poorly adjusted than the normal students.

Rai (1979) conducted a study on adjustment and scholastic achievement of low and high achievers and found that high achievers differed significantly from low achievers in their adjustment. High and low achievers differed significantly in areas of emotional and educational adjustment but did not differ in social adjustment. There was a positive relationship between adjustment and scholastic achievement.

Panday (1977) studied the adjustment of bright and average students and found that bright students differed significantly in social, health, emotional and
Brieland (1950) compared the social adjustment of blind and sighted children. He selected the children in the age group from 12-18 years. He administered Bell Adjustment Inventory on children and found that sighted children scored higher on the scale in comparison to their visually impaired counterparts.

Hastings (1947) compared the emotional adjustment as measured by California Test of Personality and Mental Health Analysis, of blind and sighted children in grades 1 through 12. Since vital characteristics such as age, intelligence, and method of test administration differed between the blind and sighted samples, the results should be evaluated cautiously. However, the blind were found to be more disturbed on the self adjustment scale and to have more mental health liabilities, but not to score worse on the social adjustment scale.

Morgan (1944) carried out a study on emotional adjustment of visually-handicapped adolescents. He administered the Loofbourow Personal Index to all the boys and girls of 12 years or older in a school for the blind over a 4-year period. Then the tests were dictated to small groups, and the pupils recorded their answers in Braille. He found no significant difference between the sexes in either mean score or in variability. The percentage of scores showing high maladjustment was appreciably greater than in public school systems but somewhat lower than in reform schools. He concluded that the sight-saving pupils showed greater maladjustment than the partially-sighted pupils, while the totally blind showed fewer personal and social problems than either. Also all of the children who had been dropped from the school had made high maladjustment scores on the test.
Sommers (1944) administered the California Test of Personality to 143 students, aged 14 to 21 and drawn from residential schools. The mean percentile score of the blind on the self-adjustment scale was 46.5, while on the social adjustment scale it was 41.7. Sommers argued, however, that tests that are formed on sighted samples may not be appropriate for blind samples. She conducted subsequent work using an interview format. Of the 50 adolescents subjects, only seven were classified as having ‘wholesome compensatory reactions,’ while the remaining 43 were divided among categories including hyper-compensatory, denial, defensive, withdrawing, and non-adjustive reactions. Sommers found substantial relationships between the degree of maladjustment and the attitude of parents toward the child and his disability.

2.3 STUDIES RELATED TO EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Aiyappa and Acharya (2014) examine the gender differences in emotional intelligence of 973 Pre University college students ranging in age between 16-18 years studying in second year pre-university in Karnataka. There were 464 male and 509 female adolescents. The participants were administered Emotional intelligence scale developed by Mangal & Mangal (2004). The results of the study indicated significant difference between males and females only in two components of emotional intelligence. Male adolescents showed a higher intrapersonal awareness which means they have higher understanding of their own emotions and female adolescents showed higher ability to manage emotions in interpersonal relationships.

Attri and Rai (2013) compared the emotional intelligence of visually impaired adolescents studying in inclusive and exclusive settings. This study had 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 showed that 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 showed no significant difference in their emotional intelligence. But visual impaired boys of inclusive and exclusive setting showed significant difference in their emotional intelligence. Boys in inclusive setting had more emotional intelligence than their girl’s counterparts. Same was in the case with all the visual impaired adolescents in inclusive setting i.e. visual impaired adolescents in inclusive setting have 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.

Valadez Sierra (2013) conducted a study on “Emotional Intelligence and its Relationship with Gender, Academic Performance and Intellectual Abilities of Undergraduates” and concluded that Emotional intelligence has been linked to several variables, such as gender, and academic performance. In the area of high intellectual abilities, the literature showed controversy, without a unanimous result on the relationship between both variables. In the study the investigator analyzed the modulatory effect have academic performance in a sample of college students, one group with normal intelligence and other one with superior intelligence, and gender. The sample consisted of 129 students who admitted in health sciences careers, 64 students had high intelligence and 65 students had normal intelligence. To measure emotional intelligence was used Mayer, Salovey and Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) and grade point average for academic
performance. The results showed that the performance differential plays a role in some of the branches assessed by the instrument. Similarly, there were differences between the groups in emotional Facilitation, Strategic Emotional Intelligence and emotional understanding, being in all cases higher the score in the more intelligent and woman. The results indicated relationship between emotional intelligence and performance.

Hasanvand and Khaledian (2012) studied the relationship of Emotional Intelligence with Self-esteem and Academic Progress. The objective of their research was to examine the relationship of the emotional intelligence with the self-esteem and the academic achievement in the BA (bachelor of art) students. The sample size was selected based on the statistical methodology. For the correlation studies of 100 person among the students of in every majors had been chosen and examined using simple random sampling. In this research, the Ann-Bar questionnaire contains 90 questions about emotional intelligence and Cooper-Smith questionnaire contains 58 questions about self-esteem and the first half-year average scores were used. For analyzing data, the frequency, percentage, average, skew, Pierson- regression correlation coefficient and ‘t’ test were applied. The Results showed that there was a positive relationship between the exciting intelligence, general self-esteem, social esteem, public esteem, educational self-esteem and the academic achievement. The regression coefficients for realism and self-esteem variables were significant, such as these variables were predictors of self-esteem. Among the variables, realism has the maximum role in predicting the self-esteem. Also, results showed there was no significant relationship in the emotional intelligence and self-esteem between male and female students.
Pushpa and Yeshodhara (2012) conducted a study on emotional intelligence and self concept of B.Ed. Students. In this study the investigators examined the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Self concept of B.Ed. students. Emotional Intelligence and Self Concept inventory was administered on 150 B.Ed. students, and the data obtained was subjected to descriptive, correlation and differential analysis. The results revealed that there is positive significant relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Self concept. Students from unaided colleges have possessed high level of Self Concept compared to students from aided colleges. Female B.Ed. Students were significantly differed from male B.Ed. Students as far as Emotional Intelligence is considered. Students from unaided colleges have possessed high level of Emotional Intelligence when compared to students from aided colleges.

Jakhar (2012) carried out a research work on emotional intelligence and self-concept among prospective teachers. The main objective of the study was to see the relation between emotional intelligence and self-concept of would be teachers. Descriptive survey method was used to solve the purpose. A random sample of 120 prospective teachers from education colleges of Rohtak city was taken. The methodology includes central tendency, ‘t’ test and Pearson product moment correlation method to know the nature of data. The results of the study showed that there was a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and self-concept of prospective teachers. It was also noticed that there was a significant difference between self-concept of male and female prospective teacher.

Gupta (2012) studied self efficacy and self regulation in relation to emotional and spiritual intelligence of disabled and able bodied college students. The main objectives of the study were: (1) to find out relationship of emotional and
spiritual intelligence with self efficacy and self regulation. (2) To study the
difference between disabled and non disabled college students with regard to self
efficacy, self regulation, emotional and spiritual intelligence. She found that
emotional and spiritual intelligence were significantly and positively related with
self efficacy and self regulation. She also found that sighted college students were
better than blind students with regard to self efficacy, self regulation, emotional
and spiritual intelligence.

Borse (2012) studied the relationship between emotional intelligence and
self concept of B.Ed. teacher-trainee. A sample of 60 B. Ed. teacher trainees from
College of Education, Nasik was taken for the collection of data. The statistical
techniques Coefficient of correlation and t-value were used for analyzing the data.
He found that there existed a significant relationship between Emotional
Intelligence and Self Concept of B.Ed. teacher trainees.

Abbas and Haq (2011) studied the relationship between Emotional
Intelligence and Self Esteem in universities of Pakistan. 240 students and
employees (120 male and 120 female) were selected through convenient sampling.
The Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS by Schutte et al., 1998) and the Self-Esteem
Rating Scale by W. R. Nugent, (1993) were administered on the participants.
Emotional intelligence scores were compared with self esteem scores. The results
of this study showed that emotional intelligence and self esteem were positively
correlated and significant. Females were emotionally intelligent than males as
p<0.05 and males showed high self esteem than females.

Noor-Azniza et. al. (2011) conducted a study on moderating effect of gender
and age on the relationship between emotional intelligence with social and
academic adjustment among first year university students. This study examined
whether emotional intelligence is significantly correlated with social adjustment and academic adjustment. It also explored the moderating effects of gender and age factors and their linked between emotional intelligence and social adjustment as well as academic adjustment among first year university students. 289 first year university students (148 males and 141 females) at North of Jordan, participate in the study and were categorized based on two age groups, younger students between the age of 18 – 25 and older students between the range of 26 and above. Two valid and reliable instruments were used to assess student’s emotional intelligence, social adjustment and academic adjustment. Correlation and multi-group analysis using structural equation model were used to analyze these data. The result showed no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and of both social adjustment and academic adjustment. In addition, the moderating effect of gender was not found. However, the moderating effect of age on the relationship between emotional intelligence with social adjustment and academic adjustment were established.

Narain and Lakshmi (2010) made an attempt to find out ‘whether there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement of school children who have not yet reached the adolescent age’. The sample consisted of 200 children (100 boys and 100 girls) of class 4th having age range 9-10 years from various school of Patna. High and low achievers (50 boys and 50 girls in each) were differentiated based on their percentage in the last two consecutive examination results multifactor emotional intelligence scale developed by Dr. Vinod Kumar Shanwal was used which measured four components of emotional intelligence viz. perceiving, assimilating, understanding and managing emotions. The result revealed positive correlation between emotional intelligence and
academic achievement of school children in all the four areas significant
differences were also found between boys and girls high and low achievers.

Poonam (2009) studied of family relationship in relation to emotional
intelligence, social acceptability and academic achievement. The objectives of the
study were: (1) to study the relationship between parental acceptance behaviour
and emotional intelligence of students; (2) to study the relationship between
parental concentration behaviour and emotional intelligence of students; (3) to
study the relationship between parental avoidance behaviour and emotional
intelligence of students. Survey Method has been suitably employed for the Study.
The sample utilized for the study has been well drawn through simple random
sampling from 4 DAV Public Schools of Ambala, Kurukshetra, Gurgaon, and
Faridabad Districts of Haryana State. Finally, 300 students constituted the sample
for the Study. The characteristics of all the 3 Tools used for the study, namely,
Family Relationship Inventory by G.P. Sherry and J.C. Sinha, Emotional
Intelligence Scale by Anukool Hyde, Sanjyot Pethe and Upinder Dhar and
Sociomatrix by J.N. Sharma have been well established. Product Moment
Correlation, one way ANOVA and t-test were employed to analyze the data.
Significant relationship was found between self-awareness and parental
acceptance. No significant relationship was found between empathy and parental
acceptance. No significant relationship was found between self-motivation and
parental acceptance. Significant relationship was found between emotional stability
and parental acceptance.

Singh and Kumar (2009) have conducted a study on secondary
schoolteachers of convent schools (English medium) and Saraswati schools (Hindi
medium) to analyze their emotional intelligence. The results had indicated that
emotional intelligence of teachers of convent schools and Saraswati schools differed significantly. It was also observed that Saraswati school teachers are good in Self-motivation, Value orientation and Commitment whereas Self-awareness, Self-development, Managing relation, Integrity, and Altruistic behaviour aspects of emotional intelligence. It also has been observed that there is no significant difference between teachers of convent schools and Sarawati schools on Empathy and Emotional stability aspects of emotional intelligence. However, Gowdhaman and Murugan (2009) have been reported a significant effect of gender on emotional intelligence, in their study among 300 B.Ed. teacher trainees.

Singh, Chaudhry and Asthana (2008) in their studies found that there was significant difference in emotional intelligence of rural and urban adolescents. This study also indicated that urban adolescents were better than their rural counterparts. Male and female adolescents exhibited same emotional intelligence.

Bansal (2007) have made a study among a sample of 200 male students of the age group of 15 to 18 years, studying in eleventh class of the intermediate colleges of Mathura city. Results showed that high positive correlation (r=.65) was found between science achievement and emotional intelligence whereas very high positive correlation (r=.73) was found between science achievement and spiritual intelligence.

Singaravela (2007) conducted study to find out the level of intelligence of student teachers and to study the difference in the level of emotional intelligence between the groups regarding sex, locality and marital status. The sample for the study consisted of 220 student teachers selected randomly from Union Territory of Puducherry. Scale of Emotional Intelligence developed and standardized by Balasubramaniam (2003) was used to collect data. The finding showed that
emotional intelligence of student teachers was above average. No significant difference occurred in emotional intelligence of men and women student teachers. The study revealed that men and women student teachers have same intelligence level. The study also revealed that locality of residence and marital status has a significant effect on emotional intelligence of student teachers.

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

Similar study was reported by Varshney (2007) on influence of parental encouragement on emotional intelligence of intermediate students (N=100, 50 boys, 50 girls). Results revealed that parental encouragement had a positive effect on the emotional intelligence of boys and girls, revealing there by that higher parental encouragement was associated with good emotional intelligence and vice-versa. The higher mean scores of EI show that affectionate, liberal and considerate home environment promotes the E.I.

Rambir (2007) conducted a study on alienation, frustration and mental health in relation to emotional intelligence of college-students with visual impairment and normal vision. The objectives of the study were: To study the relationship of emotional intelligence with alienation, frustration and mental health of college students with visual impairment and normal vision. To study the difference between college students with visual impairment and normal vision with regard to alienation, frustration, mental health and emotional intelligence. He found a
positive and significant relationship of emotional intelligence with alienation, frustration and mental health. The study further revealed a significant difference with respect to all the four variables in favour of sighted college students.

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

Chen, Lin, Chen and Tu (2006) conducted a study on Emotional Intelligence Inventory for Adolescent. The purpose of the study was to develop the emotional intelligence inventory (EII). Pretest scores were obtained from 945 subjects among general high school, industrial high school and business high school students in Taiwan. Data analysis methods, based on methodologies reviewed from relevant literature, include statistical instruments for content validity, plus exploratory factor analysis, Pearson correlation, an independent t-test and reliability analysis measures. The EII is comprised of six factors: Firstly, facilitating thought is the ability to perceive emotions for thinking, choosing, planning, solving problems, inspiring, and to increasing self maturity. Secondly, emotional management is the ability to use strategies for improving emotional intensity – diminishing negative emotion or maintaining positive emotions. Thirdly, emotional perception is the ability to identify and understand others’ emotions and the true feelings, perceiving of possible emotional status to make correct decisions. Fourthly, emotional awareness is the ability to be open to feelings, understand the truth behind those
feelings, and awareness of others’ emotions. Fifth, emotional concern can praise others’ achievements actively and comfort friends’ when experiencing loss. On the other hand, sharing personal happiness and sadness with others is also included. Lastly, emotional control involves regulating personal impulse when facing interpersonal conflict and anger. The coefficients of Cronbach’s alpha were from .69 to .83 for the six factors and .89 in the EII. These factors could be explained from 53.8% of the total variance.

Patil and Kumar (2006) studied emotional intelligence among student-teachers relation to sex, faculty and academic achievement. The finding of the study showed that there was no significant difference in emotional intelligence of male and female student teachers. There was no significant difference in emotional intelligence of student teachers of Arts and Science faculty. There was no significant difference in emotional intelligence and academic achievement of student teachers.

Katyal and Awasthi (2005) conducted a study on ‘Gender difference in emotional intelligence among adolescents of Chandigarh’ and found that majority of boys, girls and total sample had good followed by low emotional intelligence. Girls were found to have higher emotional intelligence than that of boys.

Mathur, Malhotra and Dube (2005) evaluated the gender differences in the selection variables of emotional intelligence, which were attribution, taking responsibility and scholastic achievement in high school students (N= 83, M=36, F=47) with an age group of 13 to 15 years. The study did not reveal any significant gender-differences on the dimensions of emotional intelligence. So, the study concluded that there was no significant difference among boys and girls on the selected components of EQ.
Barchard (2004) examined the ability of emotional intelligence to predict academic achievement, in a sample of undergraduate psychology students using year-end grades as the criterion. The predictive validity of emotional intelligence was compared with the predictive validity of traditional cognitive abilities and the Big-five dimensions of personality. In addition, the incremental predictive validity of each of these three domains was assessed. Only some measures of emotional intelligence predicted academic success, and none of these measures showed incremental predictive validity for academic success over and above cognitive and personality variables. This might be due to the overlap between many emotional intelligence measures and traditional measures of intelligence and personality limits their incremental predictive validity in this context.

Banshibihari and Pathan (2004) conducted a study on 500 secondary teachers to study the emotional intelligence. The findings showed that 98% of teachers had low emotional Intelligence and there was no significant difference between emotional intelligence of male and female teachers and age was independent of EQ.

Bansibihari and Pathan (2004) conducted a study on Emotional intelligence of secondary school teachers and revealed that emotional intelligence was independent from gender and age. They also found no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of urban and rural male and female secondary school teachers.

Hunt and Evans (2004) have reported in their study on individuals [N=414 (181 male and 233 female)] having traumatic experiences and simultaneously studied on their emotional intelligence level, and the results showed that males have higher EI than females. However, Kafetsios (2004) had reported gender
differences in emotional intelligence from a sample of 239 adults aged between 19 to 66 years who completed the Mayer, Salovey and Caruso emotional intelligence test (MSCEIT V2.0) in which females scored higher than males on emotion perception and experimental area.

Study reported by Pandey and Tripathi (2004) on a sample of 100 individuals (50 males and 50 females) completing the measure of EI, consisting of identification of emotion, perception and recognition of emotion with probing, perception and recognition of emotion-without probing, understanding emotional meaning and emotion intensity rating. Results revealed that females scored significantly higher than male and were more proficient in managing and handling their own emotions as well as of others.

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

environmental quality of home and school were assessed. The results showed that gender had no significant effect. It was also found that perceived environmental quality of home as well as school was positively related to emotional intelligence scores.

However, Petrides, Frederickson and Furnham (2004) investigated the role of trait emotional intelligence in academic performance and in deviant behaviour at school on a sample of 650 pupils in British secondary education (mean age = 16.5 years). Trait EI moderated the relationship between cognitive ability and performance. In addition, pupils with high trait EI scores were less likely to have had unauthorized absences and less likely to have been excluded from school. It was concluded that the constellation of emotion-related self-perceived abilities and disposition that the construct of trait EI encompasses is implicated in academic performance and deviant behaviour, with effects that are particularly relevant to vulnerable or disadvantaged adolescents.

In the study reported by Devi and Rayal (2004) based on gender differences among EI (N=224) it was revealed that seventy six percent of girls have scored EI above average, whereas, eighty one percent of boys have scored their EI above average. This concluded that boys have scored slightly higher on their emotional intelligence as compared to their counterparts.

Tyagri (2004) studied emotional of secondary teachers in relation to gender and age. The finding of study showed that there was no significant difference in the level of emotional intelligence of male and female senior secondary teachers.

Chan (2003) stated that the higher the level of emotional intelligence positively correlated with the more use of coping by valuing peer acceptance and involvement in activities and the less the use of coping by attempting avoidance.
Significant difference was not obtained between male and female adolescents on emotional intelligence. Numbers of findings suggested that females use more frequently social support, avoidant and emotion focused coping strategies than males (Ptacek, Smith and Zanas, 1992, Stein and Nyamathe 1999).

Mathur, Dube and Mallhotra (2003) have studied the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement. Data was collected on a sample of 83 adolescents (boys and girls) from a local public school. Results revealed that emotional intelligence corroborates and compliments academic achievement. The data also exhibits that adolescent who have higher level of responsibility do better on scholastic performance, make better adjustments and are more confident.

Ghosh and Gill (2003) reported that children with high EI are more confident, are better learners, have high self-esteem and few behavioural problems, are more optimistic and happier, and also handle their emotions better.

Migliani (2001) conducted a study to see the relationship of emotional intelligence to academic achievement of adolescents. The findings showed that there was no significant difference between emotional intelligence of male and female adolescents. A significant relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement was found.

Taylor (2001) argued that if we are emotionally intelligent then we can cope better with life’s challenges and control our emotions more effectively, both of which contribute to good psychological and physical health. Bar-on (1997) includes stress management and adaptability as two major components of EI while Mathews and Zeidner (2000) stated that adaptive coping might be conceptualized as emotional intelligence in action, supporting mastery emotions, emotional growth
and both cognitive and emotional differentiation, allowing us to evolve in an ever changing world.

The popularity of the emotional intelligence during the past decade has led researchers to examine its potency in various areas of human functioning. Thus, it has been found that trait or ability EI is related to life success, life satisfaction and well-being work success and performance leadership etc.

In recent years, there has been an increasing interest in how emotional reactions and experiences affect both physical as well as psychological health. The negative emotional states are associated with unhealthy patterns of physiological functioning, whereas positive emotional states are associated with healthier patterns of responding in both cardio vascular activity and immune system (Herbert and Cohen, 1993).

2.4 STUDIES RELATED TO SOCIAL SKILLS

Kwon, Kyongboon (2014) conducted a study on ‘The Role of Beliefs about the Importance of Social Skills in Elementary Children's Social Behaviors and School Attitudes’ and concluded that Positive attitudes toward school have been suggested as a meaningful indicator of school engagement among elementary children. The study was guided by a social cognitive developmental perspective which suggests that social cognitions, including beliefs, play an important role in children's adjustment outcomes.

Francis, Grace L. (2013) concluded that Social skills instruction is as important for many students with disabilities as instruction in core academic subjects. Frequently, students with autism require individualized social skills instruction to experience success in general education settings. Literacy-based behavioral Interventions (LBBIs) are an effective intervention that instructors may
use to increase positive social skills among students. This article describes LBBIs, provides step-by-step instructions for creating an LBBI, and describes the benefits of LBBIs.

DiPrete and Jennings (2009) conducted a study on Social/Behavioral Skills and the gender gap in early educational achievement. Though many studies have suggested that social and behavioral skills play a central role in gender stratification processes, extent to which these skills affect gender gaps in academic achievement. Analyzing data from the Early Child Longitudinal Study-Kindergarten Cohort, they demonstrated that social and behavioral skills have substantively important effects on academic outcomes from kindergarten through fifth grade. Gender differences in the acquisition of these skills, moreover, explain a considerable fraction of the gender gap in academic outcomes during early elementary school. Boys get roughly the same academic return to social and behavioral skills as their female peers, but girls retain an advantage both because they begin school with more advanced social and behavioral skills, and because their skill advantage grows over time. While part of the effect may reflect an evaluation process that rewards students who better conform to school norms, our results imply that the acquisition of social and behavioral skills enhances learning as well. The results call for a reconsideration of the family and school-level processes that produce gender gaps in social/behavioral skills and the advantages they confer for academic and later success.

Betlow (2006) studied the effect of social skills intervention on the emotional intelligence of children with limited social skills. Children identified as socially deficient either did, or did not attend weekly group social skills intervention over an 8-week period. Both experimental and wait-list control groups
were assessed pre and post intervention using the Baron Emotional Quotient Inventory: Youth Version (Baron EQ-i:YV) to evaluate baseline and resultant levels of emotional intelligence. No statistically significant differences were found between children enrolled in a social skills training group, as compared to a wait-list control group on the Baron EQ-i:YV. Recommendations for future research in this area of study and suggestions for modifications in social skills training groups were discussed.

Peyton (2006) studied attitudes of school psychologists toward social skills training for children. The study revealed that social skills training is an intervention designed to teach children positive social skills and problem-solving strategies. This intervention is effective with children with varying disabilities and can be taught by a variety of school personnel. Hypotheses included that district-wide social skills training programs are not widely implemented and that psychologists in the Central Valley who have gathered most of their knowledge on social skills training from either journals, graduate education, or continuing education will have more positive attitudes toward this intervention than do school psychologist who received most of their information from colleagues. Means, medians, standard deviations, and an ANOVA were performed to analyze the data. It was found that over half (55%) of school psychologists in the Central Valley conduct at least one social skills group and school psychologists with colleague-based knowledge had more positive attitudes towards social skills than those who gathered their information elsewhere.

Tate (2006) revised the self-efficacy questionnaire of social skills for use with deaf college students and examined whether a measure of social self-efficacy could be modified for use with deaf and hard of hearing populations. Within
psychology, social self-efficacy is generally accepted as a key component in treating depression. Measures that reliably measure social self-efficacy are valuable to clinicians seeking to aid their depressed patients on the road to recovery; however, there was a dearth of research on social self-efficacy in the deaf and hard of hearing populations. The Self-Efficacy Questionnaire of Social Skills (SEQSS) has been established as a reliable and valid measure for use in hearing populations. It presented a relatively clear format that was amenable to revision for use with the deaf and hard of hearing populations. A pilot study was conducted to examine the reliability and validity of the SEQSS revised for use with deaf populations. Good internal consistency and reliability were found. However, the construct validity was not strong. The purpose of the study was to revise the pilot revision of the SEQSS to improve its construct validity. Deaf, hard of hearing, and hearing undergraduates were administered a small battery of measures. Hearing subjects were administered three versions of the SEQSS. Deaf and hard of hearing subjects were administered the first and second revisions of the SEQSS, along with a measure of self-concept (the Self-Description Questionnaire-1, SDQ-1), a measure of locus of control (I-E), and a measure of depression, the Beck Depression Inventory, Second Edition (BDI-II). Good internal and alternate forms reliabilities were found for all three versions of the SEQSS in both hearing and deaf groups. Partial correlations were found between social self-efficacy and depression. No relation was found between social self-efficacy and locus of control or self-concept. The results of this study suggested that the SEQSS was a reliable measure for use with deaf and hard of hearing subjects; however, further research was recommended to advance the SEQSS into a useful clinical tool.

Williams (2006) studied the effects of social skills and media on student achievement in elementary school students. The purpose of this study was to
determine whether or not a relationship existed between social skills and academic achievement in elementary school children. A second part to this study was to determine if social skills training could improve social skills. A second research question examined the relationship between media consumption and social skills and academic achievement in elementary school children. The research conducted for this study demonstrated that there is clearly a significant relationship between social skills and academic achievement. The research also demonstrated that there might not be a connection between media consumption and social skills, as most of the literature on this issue would suggest, i.e., no significant correlations were established. Lastly, although improvements were made for social skills ratings, those gains were made in both the treatment and control groups. The results suggest that a child’s social skills can improve when involved in structured group activities regardless of whether or not such activities are overtly focused on social skills training.

Rudolph (2005) studied the effects of a school-based social skills training program on children with ADHD: Generalization to the school setting. Researcher described that a diagnosis of Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder is given when a child exhibits developmentally inappropriate levels of inattention, impulsivity and hyperactivity. In addition to academic and behavior problems, these children often have significant social problems. Since social problems are associated with a greater risk for developing problems later in life, a number of interventions have been attempted to normalize the social interactions of children with ADHD. These have included stimulant medication, cognitive-behavioral interventions, behavior modification, and social skills training. Additionally, attempts have been made to maximize the benefits of these interventions by combining them. Typically this involves combining stimulant medication with one
of the other non-pharmacological interventions. The researcher further highlighted that no one intervention or combination of interventions has stood out as the clear choice for improving the social problems of children with ADHD. Therefore, more research is needed to clarify this issue. Social skills training is often used in clinical and school settings for children with ADHD who experience social problems, despite the apparent lack of empirical evidence for its effectiveness. Social skills training programs frequently report success, but the evidence for success is taken only from anecdotal reports by parents and teachers. The purpose of this study was to document the effectiveness of a social skills training program for children with ADHD. A social skills intervention program was implemented on four children with ADHD. Eight weekly sessions focused on six targeted social skills. All four children were administered their prescribed stimulant medication for the duration of the training. In addition to small group training with the four target children, weekly classroom guidance lessons were conducted in each child’s general education classroom focusing on the skill taught that week in small groups. The target children were observed weekly in the playground setting at their schools prior to and during the training. Their parents and teachers completed the ADHD Rating Scale-IV and the Social Skills Rating System both pre- and post-training. A multiple baseline across behaviors design was used. Although three of the four children showed improvement on teacher ratings scales. Further, none of the parent rating scales showed improvement. None of the children showed improvement as evidenced through direct observational data.

Schaefer (2004) studied preschool children’s learning behaviors, concept attainment, social skills, and problem behavior. This study provided concurrent and predictive validity and test-retest reliability evidence for scores from the preschool teacher-completed Preschool Learning Behaviors Scale (PLBS; McDermott,
Green, Francis, and Stott, 2002) using two regional samples of preschool children aged 3 to 5.5 years (Ns of 61 and 70). Teacher ratings of social skills and problem behaviors were collected using the Preschool and Kindergarten Behavior Scales (PKBS; Merrell, 1994), and estimates of preschoolers’ basic concept attainment were obtained using the individually administered Bracken Basic Concept Scale (BBCS; Bracken, 1984). Results indicated that preschoolers’ adaptive learning behaviors were positively correlated with social skills and negatively associated with problem behaviors but were not significantly related to subsequent basic concept attainment. Four-week test-retest coefficients for the PLBS Total score and Competence Motivation, Attention/Persistence, and Attitude toward Learning subscale scores were adequate. Results support the unique contribution of PLBS scores in understanding children’s responses to learning activities in preschool classroom environments.

In early childhood classrooms, approximately 10 to 24 percent of children are classified as popular, while 10 to 22 percent of children are classified as rejected and 12 to 20 percent as neglected. The rest of the children are classified as having an average status of popularity by peers. This was revealed by Kim (2003). While both rejected and neglected children were considered unpopular playmates, rejected children are well noticed and neglected children essentially are not visible. What was disturbing about these statistics is that a child’s popularity status will remain much the same for many years to come. Across five years of a longitudinal study (Coie and Dodge, 1983; Newcomb and Bukowski, 1984), the popularity of some children remained high, just as the unpopular children continued to be rejected by their peers. The ability to predict future social status of rejected children in particular was more stable than for any other group.
Sharma (2002) compared the social skills of visually disabled and sighted children in India. In their study subjects were selected from four residential schools in India. 246 sighted (M=12.36) and 200 visually disabled (M=11.31) students were assessed using the Hindi translation of the Matson Evaluation of Social Skills with Youngsters (MESSY). Overall, sighted children were found to have significantly more appropriate social skills and overconfident than visually disabled children irrespective of gender. The sighted boys scored significantly higher on appropriate social skills than visually disabled boys.

Pedersen (2001) found reliability of the social skills rating system with rural Appalachian children from families with low incomes. Reliability of scores on the parent and teacher forms of the Social Skills Rating System (SSRS) was examined with a sample of rural Appalachian, low-income, K-2 students. Coefficients of internal consistency, coefficients of stability for parents, and cross-informant coefficients were calculated. Internal consistency coefficients based on SSRS Total Score ranged from .86 to .90 for parents’ ratings and from .94 to .98 for teachers’ ratings. Parent and teacher ratings on the Behavior Problems supplementary scale averaged .87 and .92, respectively, and teacher ratings of Academic Competence had a median coefficient of .98. Long-term stability coefficients ranged from .32 to .72 for parent ratings. Cross-informant correlations on ratings by successive teachers ranged from .43 to .57, whereas parent-teacher coefficients ranged from .06 to .25.

Sharma (2000) assessed the Social Skills of Indian children with visual impairments. Since children with visual impairments may have deficits in social skills (Jindal-Snape, Kato, and Mackawa, 1998), educators need reliable and valid procedures for assessing these skills. In one relevant study, 75 children and young
adults, aged 9-22, with visual impairments were assessed using the Matson Evaluation of Social Skills with Youngsters (MESSY) (Matson, Heinze, Helsel, and Kapperman, 1986). The results indicated good reliability and response consistency, suggesting that the instrument can be used effectively for assessing social skills in children and young adults with visual impairments. The study presented here was designed to provide additional psychometric data on the use of the MESSY for assessing the social skills of children with visual impairments in India.

Billings (1998) studied the relationship of intelligence with self-concept, social skills, school achievement and academic performance for gifted and non-gifted students. A comparison was made between students in grade seven through twelve identified in their school district as gifted learners and those not so identified. Gifted students were identified by the district, and a matched number of students with equal grade representation were randomly selected. The results indicated that, non-significant relationship similarities were found between intelligence and self-concept, intelligence and academic performance and social skills. Positive relationship similarities were found between intelligence and achievement; self-concept and social skills and achievement and academic performance. Achievement was found to have the strongest relationship to academic performance. Differences that were found included gifted students and achievement, and self-concept and academic achievement, not found for the non-gifted students. The non-gifted demonstrated positive relationships between intelligence, and social skills and social skills and achievement; these relationships were not found for the gifted.
A relationship between temperament, social skill, learning conditions and learning outcomes was studied by Blazina (1998). The purpose of the study was to investigate relationships among individual differences in 152 economically disadvantaged first grade children’s temperament in classrooms that differed substantially in teaching practices and structure. The findings of the study suggest that when classroom activities and temperament variables are considered together, classroom activities are better temperament characteristics.

Buhrow, Hartshorne and Bradley-Johnson (1998) compared the Ratings by 23 parents and 21 regular education teachers of 20 elementary-aged students with blindness on the Social Skills Rating Scale (SSRS) to ratings for the SSRS sighted-norm group. They found no significant differences for overall ratings, students with blindness were rated as less academically competent and higher on problem behaviors than the sighted-norm group.

Mcalpine and Moore (1995) conducted a study entitled ‘Development of social understanding in children with visual impairments’. The study reports on the performance of 16 visually impaired children, aged 4-12, on tasks designed to assess their understanding of false belief, a central aspect of social understanding. The study found that the development of understanding of another’s false belief is delayed in children with severe visual impairments and that the degree of vision loss seems to be a key variable in that development. There is a growing recognition that people who are visually impaired are often socially isolated. Although this has been documented since 1951 (Cutsforth, 1951), it has become even more apparent with the increasing number of visually impaired students who have been integrated into mainstream schools (Hoben and Lindstrom, 1980; MacCuspie, 1990, 1992). In addressing this concern, much of the research and understanding has focused on
promoting sighted people’s awareness and understanding of those who are visually impaired (Augusto and McGraw, 1990; Warren, 1984) and training people with visual impairments in social skills (Erin, Dignan, and Brown, 1991; Huebner, 1986; Sacks, Kekelis, and Ross, 1992; Van Hasselt, Hersen, Kazdin, Simon, and Mastantuono, 1983; Van Hasselt, Hersen, Moore, and Simon, 1986; Van Hasselt, Kazdin, Hersen, Simon, and Mastantuono, 1985; Van Hasselt, Simon, and Mastantuono, 1982) to help make them more acceptable to sighted people. In reviewing this research, Erin (1991) found that many studies did not report empirical evidence of change. They concluded that continued work is needed on the development of a comprehensive framework for understanding all the factors that enhance effective social interactions. In addition to those listed by Erin and her colleagues (1991), there is a need to identify those factors that influence the establishment of meaningful human relationships. Warren (1977) speculated that the self-centeredness or egocentrism that is often observed in people who are blind or severely visually impaired is the result of limited social understanding. Social understanding is the knowledge that enables a person to understand, interpret, and take appropriate actions that are relevant to different social settings and personal situations (Greenspan, 1979). It provides the basis for formulating strategies for solving problems, perspective taking, and social inferences. Therefore, social understanding should be one of the components to be considered for the framework that Erin and her colleagues (1991) proposed.

Jindal and Kato (1994) analyzed generalization and maintenance of social skills of visually impaired children. This study used generalization-promotion strategies to promote the generalization and maintenance of social skills of two visually impaired girls. A multiple baseline across behaviours design was used. The target subjects were trained with two peers each, of both the sexes, in multiple
settings. The target behaviours were direction of gaze, reduction of stereotypic behaviour and on-task behaviour. Three steps of Free Role Play, Demonstration Role Play and Imitated Role Play were undertaken. Training was undertaken in multiple settings. Peers evaluated the target subjects’ role play. This was matched with the trainer’s evaluation. The target subjects and peers were reinforced and a reinforcement-fading schedule was followed. To check the maintenance of social skills, follow up was done after four months. There was a partial generalization and maintenance of social skills. Target behaviours and success of the treatment were socially validated.

In a social skills intervention programme for young children Evans (1994) used three methods i.e. (i) the arrangement of ecological variables; (ii) peer-mediated training procedures; and (iii) teacher directed promoting strategies to promote and reinforce social behaviour and physical interactive behaviour, across baseline and per-mediated conditions. The findings suggested that teacher-prompting procedures might be an effective teaching method to improve social skills of young children.

Mondzelewski (1991) conducted a study on the relationship between goal orientation, social skills and academic achievement at the middle school level. Results revealed significant positive relationships between aspects of a goal orientation social skills, and academic achievement. These relationships, although significant were low to moderate in strength, and indicated that knowledge of any one of the examined variables contributed only partially to knowledge of one of the others. Relationship between academic achievement and both goal orientation and social skills, however were supported by significant differences between high and low achievers in those areas.
Hirochige (1990) conducted a study on the effects of direct instruction of social skills and peer facilitation on recess intervention of students with physical disabilities. The results showed that direct instruction and peer facilitation significantly improved the knowledge of the rules, ritual and social skills necessary to participate in specific recess activities for children with physical disabilities. Also the social interactions among children with and without physical disabilities improved in terms of the duration of interaction and the quality of that interaction.

A study entitled ‘peer rating of childhood aggression: relation to social skills, problem behaviour, and peer acceptance’ was conducted by McIntosh (1990). Subjects were 310 students in first and second grade. Significant positive correlations were found between peer ratings of aggression and least liked friendships. Peer aggression ratings and teacher’s ratings of conduct disorders were significantly positively correlated. No significant correlations were found between peer ratings of aggression and teacher ratings of anxiety withdrawal. The relation between peer aggression ratings and teacher ratings of social skills showed significant negative correlations.

Hasselt, Kazdin, Hersen, Simon and Mastantuono (1990) conducted a behavioral-analytic assessment approach to identify social skill deficits in visually-handicapped adolescents. The investigation was conducted in two phases. In the first phase, a role-play test of social skill relevant to visually-handicapped persons was derived empirically using separate samples of professional and paraprofessional staff. Also, situation-specific criteria for evaluating levels of social skill were established. The second phase involved validation of the role-play test by determining the extent to which it discriminated visually-handicapped from non-handicapped participants. The results of the study indicated that blind students
showed deficiencies in selected verbal and nonverbal social skill components. However, their performance was not uniformly deficient. Indeed, visually-handicapped clients received higher ratings on a global skill measure. Overall, these findings support the notion that many blind individuals experience problems in social adaptation.

Matson (1986) tested 75 visually handicapped children and young adults ranging in age from 9 to 22 and averaging 14 years of age. All the persons were attending program for visually handicapped persons in Northern Illinois with many eye conditions present including albinism, cataracts, optic atrophy, retinoblastoma, and degenerative myopia. Both self-report and teacher report information were obtained. To ensure accurate self-report information, a number of response modes were used with participants. In some cases the typical survey was employed in combination with a magnifying glass while in other instances large print using an IBM Orator Element was employed. For those persons who could not read print due to very severe visual impairments, cassette audiotapes of the scale were employed. Response alternatives also varied according to the individual student’s communication method. Students using the printed survey form responded on the sheets. The other visually handicapped children and young adults responded on large-print answer sheets or with Braille answer sheets. The findings were in general very favorable. Inter item reliability was 93% for the teacher and 80% for the self-report. Similarly, high split half reliabilities were found. These results suggest the consistency of responses and the general workability of the MESSY with visually impaired children and young adults. The researcher further viewed that children’s social competence or social skills has been an area of great interest as studies of correlation and positive relationship between early social adjustment problems and their adjustment later in life suggest. Social adaptation of children
with vision impairment, in particular, has always been a point of discussion and of a great concern for special educators all over the world.

Relationship between academic achievement and home, health, social emotional adjustment was studied by Ray (1986). Findings of the study revealed that adjustment factors have some impact on academic achievement of the subjects.

Hasselt, Hersen and Kazdin (1985) provided a comprehensive behavioral assessment of social skill in visually-handicapped adolescents. Role-play tests, standardized interviews, parent ratings and judgments of physical attractiveness were employed to evaluate level of social functioning among: (1) 18 visually-handicapped adolescents in a residential school; (2) 17 visually-handicapped adolescents in public schools; and (3) 17 sighted adolescents in public schools. The results of their study indicated that visually-handicapped adolescents exhibited deficits on selected verbal components of social skill. Moreover, these deficiencies were most apparent in visually-handicapped students from a residential setting.

2.5 OVERVIEW OF THE REVIEW

On the basis of the review of related literature the researcher concludes that very few studies have been conducted in this field especially with reference to the special needs children. The present study is designed to determine the relationship of self-concept and adjustment with emotional intelligence and social skills. The study also aims to investigate difference between visually impaired and sighted school students with reference to self-concept, adjustment, emotional intelligence and social skills. Similarly the differences were also investigated on the basis of gender with regard to the said four variables.
The perusal of the review of related literature provides a clear picture of Self-concept, School Adjustment and its relation with other correlated variables such as emotional intelligence and social skills in different socio-cultural settings and population groups. The review of the related literature pertaining to these variables, under investigation provides certain indications that may be briefly summed up as under:

Review of related studies indicates the importance of self-concept and adjustment with social skills and emotional intelligence. Several studies show

a. the relationship of self-concept with other variables such as gender, academic achievement, level of aspirations, adjustment, sex role, quality of friendship, empathy, participation in co-curricular activities, emotional intelligence etc. (Pushpa and Yeshodhara, 2014; Jakhar, 2012; Borse, 2012; Abbas and Haq, 2011; Sameer, 2008, Rajkonwar, Soni and Dutta, 2014; Eugenia, 2010; Sharma and Aqshim, 2010; Saraswat, 1982, and Yarworth, 1978).

b. the relationship of adjustment with other variables such as scholastic achievement, social intelligence level, self-concept, academic stress, mental health, emotional intelligence, achievement etc. (Pal, 2009; Hussain, 2008; Nayak, 2005; Kaur, 2001; Singh, 1983; Rai, 1979; Sommers, 1944; Masnabadi, 2014; Chen, Lin and Tu, 2006; Adeyemo, 2005; Singh, 2011 and Sjoberg, 2008)

c. the relationship of emotional intelligence with other variables such as Gender, age, Academic Performance, Intellectual Abilities, Self-esteem, Academic achievement, Self-concept, self-efficacy, self-regulation, social and academic adjustment, social acceptability, interpersonal
relationships, alienation, frustration, mental health etc. (Valadez Sierra, 2013; Hasanvand and Khaledian, 2012; Pushpa and Yeshodhara, 2012; Jakhar, 2012; Gupta, 2012; Borse, 2012; Abbas and Haq, 2011; Narain and Lakshmi, 2010; Poonam, 2009; Bansal, 2007; Singh and Saini, 2007; Rambir, 2007; Tyagri, 2004; Parker, 2004; Miglani, 2001; Noor-Azniza et. al., 2011; Masnabadi, 2014; Chen, Lin and Tu, 2006; Adeyemo, 2005; Singh, 2011; Sjoberg, 2008).

d. the relationship of social skills with other variables such as Gender, emotional intelligence, academic achievement, temperament, social skill, learning conditions, learning outcomes, goal orientation etc. (DiPrete and Jennings, 2009; Betlow, 2006; Williams, 2006; Billings, 1998; Blazina, 1998; Ray, 1986 and Mondzelewski, 1991).

e. the difference between visually impaired and sighted school students with regard to self-concept. (Rajkonwar, Soni and Dutta, 2014; Halder, Santoshi; Datta, Poulomee, 2012; Mishra and Singh, 2012; Konstantinos et. al., 2009; Garaigordobil and Bernarás, 2009; Naseema and Usha, 2007 & Obiakor and Stile, 1990).

f. the difference between visually impaired and sighted school students with regard to adjustment. (Nagra, 2014; Nyamayaro and Saravanan, 2013; Meenakshi, 2005; Sindhu, 2005; Prasad, 2004; Rai, 1979; Panday, 1977; Brieland, 1950; Hastings, 1947; Morgan, 1944 & Sommers, 1944).

g. the difference between visually impaired and sighted school students with regard to emotional intelligence. (Aiyappa and Acharya, 2014; Pushpa and Yeshodhara, 2012; Gupta, 2012; Singh, Chaudhry and Asthana, 2008; Singaravela, 2007; Rambir, 2007, Patil and Kumar, 2006;
Mathur, Malhotra and Dube, 2005; Bansibihari and Pathan, 2004; Chan, 2003).

h. the difference between visually impaired and sighted school students with regard to social skills. (Sharma, 2002; Hasselt et. al., 1990, Hasselt, Hersen and Kazdin, 1985; DiPrete and Jennings, 2009; Media Williams, 2006; Schaefer, 2004; Kim, 2003; Mcalpine and Moore, 1995; McIntosh, 1990).

Justification of the study was derived from the dearth of research in the area and inconsistency in the results. Hypotheses of the present study were also formulated on the basis of evidences drawn from the review of literature.