

**EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE OF B.Ed. AND M.Ed. STUDENTS
IN RELATION TO THEIR COGNITIVE STYLES AND
ACADEMIC ADJUSTMENT**

**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
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ADJUSTMENT**

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**Submitted
In partial fulfillment of the requirement of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
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I **Lalrinfeli Kiangte**, hereby declare that the subject matter of this thesis is the record of work done by me, that the contents of this thesis did not form basis of the award of any previous degree to me or to do the best of my knowledge to anybody else, and that the thesis has not been submitted by me for any research degree in any other University/ Institute.

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CONTENTS

	PRELIMINARY SECTION	PAGE NO
	Certificate	i
	Declaration	ii
	Acknowledgement	iii
	Table of contents	iv – xii
	List of tables	xiii - xvii
	List of figures	xviii - xix
CHAPTER-I	CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	1-43
1.1	EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE	
1.1.1	The Four Emotional Intelligence Branches	
1.1.2	Role of Emotional Intelligence in Personal Development	
1.1.3	Emotional Intelligence in the Academic Environment	
1.2	COGNITIVE STYLE	
1.2.1	Historical Foundations of Cognitive Style	
1.2.2	Cognitive Styles and their Components	
1.2.3	Theories of Cognitive Style	
1.2.4	Cognitive Style in Learning	
1.2.5	The Role of Cognitive Style in Education	
1.2.6	Cognitive Style and Its Broader Implications	

1.3	ACADEMIC ADJUSTMENT	
1.3.1	The Components of Academic Adjustment	
1.4	BRIEF HIGHLIGHT OF THE SECONDARY TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMME IN MIZORAM	
1.4.1	Establishment of Teacher Education Institutions	
1.4.2	Programme of Teacher Education's Institutions	
1.5	RATIONALE OF THE STUDY	
1.6	RESEARCH QUESTIONS	
1.7	STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	
1.8	OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF THE TERM USED	
1.9	OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY	
1.10	HYPOTHESIS OF THE STUDY	
CHAPTER II	REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	44-99
2.1	REVIEW ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE	
2.2	REVIEW ON COGNITIVE STYLES	
2.3	REVIEW ON ACADEMIC ADJUSTMENT	
2.4	REVIEW ON RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND COGNITIVE STYLES	
2.5	REVIEW ON RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND ACADEMIC ADJUSTMENT	
2.6	OVERVIEWED OF RELATED LITERATURE REVIEWED	
2.6.1	Review on Books	
2.6.2	In relation to studies on emotional intelligence	

2.6.3	In relation to academic adjustment	
2.6.4	In relation to cognitive styles	
2.6.5	In relation to relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment	
2.7	CONCLUSION	
CHAPTER-III	METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURE	100-115
3.1	METHOD OF THE STUDY	
3.2	POPULATION AND SAMPLE OF THE STUDY	
3.3	TOOLS FOR DATA COLLECTION	
3.3.1	Emotional Intelligence Scale Developed by Srinivasan & Murugesan, 2013	
3.3.2	Cognitive Style Inventory Developed by Jha, Praveen Kumar (2001)	
3.3.3	Recalibration of Standardized Tools of Emotional Intelligence Scale and Cognitive Style Inventory	
3.4	MODE OF DATA COLLECTION	
3.5	TABULATION OF DATA	
3.6	STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES USED FOR DATA ANALYSIS	
CHAPTER IV	ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE STUDY	116-186
4.1	To Identify the Level of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers	
4.1.1	Emotional Intelligence of B.Ed. students	
4.1.2	Emotional Intelligence of M.Ed. students	

- 4.1.3 Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Male Teachers
- 4.1.4 Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Female Teachers
- 4.2 Comparison of the Emotional Intelligence of B.Ed. and M.Ed. Students
 - 4.2.1 To Compare the Emotional Intelligence of B.Ed. and M.Ed. Students
 - 4.2.2 Comparison based on Gender
 - 4.2.3 Comparison of Male and Female B.Ed. Students
 - 4.2.4 Comparison of Male and Female M.Ed. Students
 - 4.2.5 Comparison of B.Ed. Male and M.Ed. Male Students
 - 4.2.6 Comparison of B.Ed. Female and M.Ed. Female Students
- 4.3 To Construct Academic Adjustment Scale for B.Ed. and M.Ed. students.
 - 4.3.1 Pooling of Items for Academic Adjustment/ Content validity
 - 4.3.2 Try-Out
 - 4.3.3 Item-Discrimination
 - 4.3.4 Determining the Reliability of the Scale
 - 4.3.5 Establishment of Validity
 - 4.3.6 Scoring procedure and serial number of positive and negative items
- 4.4 To Identify the Level of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers

- 4.4.1 Level of Academic Adjustment of B.Ed. Students
- 4.4.2 Level of Academic Adjustment of M.Ed. Students
- 4.4.3 Academic Adjustment of Prospective Male Teachers
- 4.4.4 Academic Adjustment of Prospective Female Teachers
- 4.5 To Compare the Academic Adjustment
 - 4.5.1 Comparison of the Academic Adjustment of B.Ed. and M.Ed. Students
 - 4.5.2 Comparison based on Gender
 - 4.5.3 Comparison of Academic Adjustment of Male and Female B.Ed. Students
 - 4.5.4 Comparison of the academic adjustment of male and female M.Ed. students
 - 4.5.5 Comparison of the Academic Adjustment of B.Ed. Male and M.Ed. Male Students
 - 4.5.6 Comparison of the Academic Adjustment of B.Ed. Female and M.Ed. Female Students
- 4.6 To examine the Cognitive Styles Prospective Teachers
 - 4.6.1 To Examine the Cognitive Styles of Prospective Teachers
 - 4.6.2 Cognitive Style of B.Ed. Students
 - 4.6.3 Cognitive Style of M.Ed. Students
- 4.7 To Compare the Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers Based on their Cognitive Styles

- 4.7.0 Comparison of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having systematic style and intuitive style.
- 4.7.1 Comparison of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having systematic style and integrated style
- 4.7.2 Comparison of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having systematic style and undifferentiated style
- 4.7.3 Comparison of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having systematic style and split style
- 4.7.4 Comparison of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having intuitive style and integrated style
- 4.7.5 Comparison of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having intuitive style and undifferentiated style
- 4.7.6 Comparison of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having intuitive style and split style
- 4.7.7 Comparison of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having integrated style and undifferentiated style
- 4.7.8 Comparison of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having integrated style and split style
- 4.7.9 Comparison of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having undifferentiated style and split style
- 4.8 To compare the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on their cognitive styles
 - 4.8.0 Comparison of academic adjustment of prospective teachers having systematic and intuitive style

- 4.8.1 Comparison of academic adjustment of prospective teachers having systematic and integrated style
- 4.8.2 Comparison of academic adjustment of prospective teachers having systematic and undifferentiated style
- 4.8.3 Comparison of academic adjustment of prospective teachers having systematic and split style
- 4.8.4 Comparison of academic adjustment of prospective teachers having intuitive and integrated style
- 4.8.5 Comparison of academic adjustment of prospective teachers having intuitive and undifferentiated style
- 4.8.6 Comparison of academic adjustment of prospective teachers having intuitive and split style
- 4.8.7 Comparison of academic adjustment of prospective teachers having integrated and undifferentiated style
- 4.8.8 Comparison of academic adjustment of prospective teachers having integrated and split style
- 4.8.9 Comparison of academic adjustment of prospective teachers having undifferentiated style and split style
- 4.9 To investigate the relationship between the emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of prospective teachers
 - 4.9.1 Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Academic Adjustment of B.Ed. Students.
 - 4.9.2 Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Academic Adjustment of M.Ed. Students

CHAPTER V	MAJOR FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS, EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH	187-213
5.1	Major Findings	
5.1.1	Emotional intelligence of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students.	
5.1.2	Comparison of the emotional intelligence of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students	
5.1.3	Construction and Standardization of Academic Adjustment	
5.1.4	Academic adjustment of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students	
5.1.5	Comparison of the academic adjustment of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students	
5.1.6	Cognitive style of prospective teachers	
5.1.7	Comparison of the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on their cognitive styles	
5.1.8	Comparison of the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on their cognitive styles	
5.1.9	Relationship between the emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of prospective teachers	
5.2	DISCUSSION	
5.2.1	Discussion on the findings with respect to emotional intelligence of prospective teachers	
5.2.2	Discussion on academic adjustment of prospective teachers	
5.2.3	Discussion on the findings of Cognitive Style of Prospective	

Teachers

5.2.4 Discussion on comparison of the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on their cognitive styles

5.2.5 Discussion on comparison of the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on their cognitive styles

Relationship between the emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of prospective teachers

5.3 EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

5.4.1 Recommendations in Improvement in Emotional Intelligence

5.4.2 Recommendations for Improvement in Cognitive Styles

5.4.3 Recommendations for Improvement in Academic Adjustment

5.5 SUGGESTIONS OF FURTHER RESEARCH

5.6 CONCLUSION

Appendices

Bibliography

Brief bio-data of the candidate

Certificates of paper presentation

Publication of research article

Particulars of the candidate

LIST OF TABLES

Table No.	LIST	Page No.
2.7.1	Details of Reviewed Literature	99
3.1	Population and Sample of B.Ed. and M.Ed. Students covered in the study	102
3.2	Z-score Norms for Emotional Intelligence Scale	104
3.3	Norms for Interpretation of the Level of Emotional Intelligence	104
3.4	Percentile Norms for Cognitive Style Inventory	107
3.5	Mean and Standard Deviation of Emotional Intelligence of B.Ed. Students	110
3.6	Mean and Standard Deviation of Emotional Intelligence of M.Ed. Students	110
3.7	Re-calibrated Z-score Norms for Emotional Intelligence Scale	111
3.8	Norms for Interpretation of the Levels of Emotional Intelligence based on Z-score	111
3.9	Mean and Standard Deviation of B.Ed. Students on Cognitive Style Inventory	112
3.10	Mean and Standard Deviation of M.Ed. Students on Cognitive Style Inventory	112
3.11	Re-calibrated Percentile Norms for Cognitive Style Inventory	113
4.1	Level of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers	117
4.2	Level of Emotional Intelligence of B.Ed. Students	119
4.3	Level of Emotional Intelligence of M.Ed. Students	121
4.4	Level of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Male Teachers	123
4.5	Level of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Female Teachers	125

4.6	Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of B.Ed. and M.Ed. Students	126
4.7	Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of Male and Female Students	127
4.8	Comparison of the Emotional Intelligence of Male and Female B.Ed. Students	128
4.9	Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of Male and Female M.Ed. Students	129
4.10	Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of B.Ed. male and M.Ed. male Students	130
4.11	Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of B.Ed. female and M.Ed. female Students	131
4.12	Mean, Standard Deviation and <i>t</i> -value of High and Low Groups on Different Items of Academic Adjustment Scale	134-136
4.13	Test-retest Scores for Determining the Reliability of Academic Adjustment Scale	137-138
4.14	Split Half Scores for Determining the Reliability of the Academic Adjustment Scale	139-140
4.15	Item numbers for Positive and Negative Statements	141
4.16	Z-score Norms for Academic Adjustment Scale	142
4.17	Norms for Interpretation of Academic Adjustment Scale	143
4.18	Level of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers	143
4.19	Level of Academic Adjustment of B.Ed. Students	144
4.20	Level of Academic Adjustment of M.Ed. Students	146
4.21	Level of Academic Adjustment of Male Prospective Teachers	148
4.22	Level of Academic Adjustment of Female Prospective Teachers	149

4.23	Comparison of B.Ed. and M.Ed. Students in their Academic Adjustment	151
4.24	Comparison of Male and Female Students in their Academic Adjustment	152
4.25	Comparison of the Academic Adjustment of Male and Female B.Ed. Students	153
4.26	Comparison of the Academic Adjustment of Male and Female M.Ed. Students	154
4.27	Comparison of the academic adjustment of B.Ed. male and M.Ed. male Students	155
4.28	Comparison of the Academic Adjustment of B.Ed. Female and M.Ed. Female Students	156
4.29	Cognitive Styles of Prospective Teachers	157
4.30	Cognitive Style of B.Ed. Students	160
4.31	Cognitive Style of M.Ed. Students	162
4.32	Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers having Systematic Style & Intuitive Style	164
4.33	Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers having Systematic Style & Integrated Style	165
4.34	Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers having Systematic Style & Undifferentiated Style	166
4.35	Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers having Systematic Style & Split Style	167
4.36	Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers having Intuitive Style & Integrated Style	168
4.37	Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers having Intuitive Style & Undifferentiated Style	169
4.38	Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers having Intuitive Style & Split Style	170

4.39	Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers having Integrated Style & Undifferentiated Style	171
4.40	Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers having Integrated Style & Split Style	172
4.41	Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers having Undifferentiated Style & Split Style	173
4.42	Comparison of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers having Systematic & Intuitive Style	174
4.43	Comparison of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers having Systematic & Integrated Style	175
4.44	Comparison of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers having Systematic & Integrated Style	176
4.45	Comparison of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers having Systematic & Split Style	177
4.46	Comparison of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers having Systematic & Split Style	178
4.47	Comparison of Academic Adjustment Prospective Teachers having Intuitive & Undifferentiated Style	179
4.48	Comparison of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers having Intuitive & Split Style	180
4.49	Comparison of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers having Integrated & Undifferentiated Style	181
4.50	Comparison of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers having Integrated & Split Style	182
4.51	Comparison of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers having Undifferentiated & Split Style	183
4.52	Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers	184
4.53	Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Academic Adjustment of B.Ed. Students	185
4.54	Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and	186

Academic Adjustment of M.Ed. Students

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page No.
4.1 Level of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers	118
4.2 (a) Level of Emotional Intelligence of Male B.Ed. Students	119
4.2 (b) Level of Emotional Intelligence of Female B.Ed. Students	120
4.3 (a) Level of Emotional Intelligence of Male M.Ed. students	121
4.3 (b) Level of Emotional Intelligence of Female M.Ed. students	122
4.4 Level of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Male Teachers	124
4.5 Level of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Female Teachers	125
4.6 Level of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers	144
4.7 (a) Level of Academic Adjustment of Male B.Ed. Students	145
4.7 (b) Level of Academic Adjustment of Female B.Ed. Students	145
4.8 (a) Level of Academic Adjustment of Male M.Ed. Students	147
4.8 (b) Level of Academic Adjustment of Female M.Ed. Students	147
4.9 Level of Academic Adjustment Prospective Male Teachers	149
4.10 Level of Academic Adjustment Prospective Female Teachers	150
4.18 (a) Cognitive Style of Prospective Teachers	158
4.18 (b) Cognitive Style of Male Students	158
4.18 (c) Cognitive Style of Female Students	159

4.19 (a)	Cognitive Style of Male B.Ed. Students	160
4.19 (b)	Cognitive Style of Female B.Ed. Students	161
4.20 (a)	Cognitive Style of Male M.Ed. Students	162
4.20 (b)	Cognitive Style of Female M.Ed. Students	163

CHAPTER 1

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

1.1 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (EI)

Emotional intelligence is the capacity to recognize, comprehend, and control one's own feelings and interpersonal connections. It entails recognizing one's own and other people's emotions and using this knowledge to inform one's thoughts and actions. According to some experts, emotional intelligence is innate, while others contend that it may be developed and enhanced. The ability to express and manage emotions is essential, but so is the ability to understand, diagnose, and react to the emotions of others (Frothingham, 2024). Emotionally intelligent individuals can motivate themselves, read social cues, and build strong relationships. People respond to issues or circumstances that they personally think relevant based on their emotions. Goleman argues that emotional intelligence is a significant predictor of success in personal and professional life, often more important than traditional cognitive intelligence (Goleman, 1995). Researchers have also highlighted that EI contributes to better mental health, conflict resolution, and leadership abilities (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004). Therefore, EI is not only crucial for personal well-being but also plays a vital role in social interactions and professional achievements.

Emotional intelligence refers to the mental processes involved in the recognition, use, understanding, and management of one's and others' emotional state required in solving problems and regulating behaviour (Ciccarelli & Meyer, 2006). It plays a crucial role in personal and professional success, as it influences the navigation of relationships, in making decisions, and in handling challenges. It is the ability to monitor one's own and others' emotions, to discriminate among them to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; 1990). Saini (2008) stated that EI has an important role in an organization. He added that a firm should train its staff in emotional intelligence and raise their degree of emotional

intelligence through a variety of programs and personnel selection processes based on Emotional Quotient (EQ). Emotional intelligence (EI) plays a crucial role in organizations, influencing various aspects of workplace dynamics and overall success. To foster emotional intelligence in an organization, it is essential to provide training and development programs, encourage open communication, and lead by example. Cultivating a workplace culture that values emotional intelligence can contribute to improved teamwork, employee well-being, and overall organizational success.

According to Cambridge Dictionary, Emotional intelligence is defined as, “the ability to understand the way people feel and react and to use this skill to make good judgments and to avoid or solve problems”. So, emotional intelligence is the key to both personal and professional success. The ability to identify, comprehend, control, and make good use of one's own emotions as well as those of others is another concept of emotional intelligence (EI). It encompasses a range of skills and traits that contribute to successful interpersonal relationships, effective communication, and overall well-being.

Emotional intelligence (EI) refers to the ability to perceive and assess one's own emotions, as well as those of others, and to utilize this awareness to engage in positive behaviour (Cobb & Mayer, 2000). Individuals with high EI are regarded as well-adjusted and possessing good mental health and well-being due to their capacity to effectively manage both their own emotions and those of others. The level of emotional intelligence is not genetically predetermined, nor it is solely developed in early childhood. Unlike IQ, which tends to remain relatively stable over time, emotional intelligence appears to be primarily learned and continues to evolve as individuals progress through life, gaining insights from their experiences. This ongoing development is facilitated by the competencies that contribute to its growth. Research has demonstrated that individuals improve over time, as their capabilities in managing emotions and impulses enhance with changing circumstances and accumulated experiences. This process is often referred to as maturity.

The capacity to understand and share the feelings of others cultivates stronger connections, enhances communication, and fosters collaborative relationships. EI motivates and propels individuals towards goals, instilling a drive that persists in the face of challenges. While EI has garnered widespread recognition for its positive impact on personal and professional realms, ongoing discussions and debates surround its measurement and potential limitations, emphasizing the need for a nuanced understanding of this multifaceted concept.

Goleman in his book, Emotional intelligence states that “Emotional intelligence (EI) is the area of cognitive ability that facilitates interpersonal behavior. Therefore, Emotional intelligence is the capacity to be aware of, control, and express one's emotions, and to handle interpersonal relationships judiciously and empathetically”. Goleman's model extends beyond the cognitive aspects and includes components such as self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills. He argued that emotional intelligence is a critical factor for success in various aspects of life, including personal relationships and professional endeavors. The model explains the importance of emotional intelligence in various factors. Self-awareness forms the foundation of EI. It entails being attuned to one's emotions, understanding how emotions influence behaviour, and possessing an accurate self-assessment. Individuals with strong self-regulation are able to control impulsive reactions, manage stress effectively, and reflect before acting. This component of EI is essential for maintaining composure and making thoughtful, rational decisions. Motivated individuals are more inclined to set and accomplish meaningful goals. Goleman highlights the significance of intrinsic motivation, which arises from passion and a sense of purpose, in fostering success. Empathy involves the ability to recognize and respond to the emotions of others, playing a critical role in cultivating strong interpersonal relationships, effective communication, and collaborative teamwork. Social skills encompass effective communication, conflict resolution, and the ability to collaborate effectively with others. This aspect of emotional intelligence is vital for successful interpersonal interactions in both personal and professional contexts.

Emotional intelligence stands as a multifaceted and indispensable skill set that contributes significantly to personal and professional success. In professional contexts, leaders with high EI often exhibit effective communication, promote team cohesion, and adapt their leadership styles to suit the emotional dynamics of their teams. Peter Salovey and John Mayer's work on emotional intelligence (EI) has become foundational in understanding how emotional and cognitive abilities intersect and affect human behaviour. They originally defined EI in 1990 as the capacity to identify, comprehend, control, and influence one's own emotions and those of others (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Emotional intelligence has evolved as a key concept not only in personal growth but also in professional settings, as it significantly influences interpersonal relationships, decision-making, and well-being (Goleman, 1995). EI is not a fixed trait but a dynamic skill set that can be nurtured through reflection and practice, affecting areas such as personal well-being, professional performance, and social interactions (Mayer et. al., 2008).

Emotional intelligence is essential not only for personal development but also for success in academic. By fostering EI in students, educators can enhance academic achievement, improve interpersonal relationships, and promote overall well-being. As emotional intelligence plays a key role in navigating social dynamics, managing stress, and making thoughtful decisions, its integration into educational settings is crucial for developing well-rounded individuals capable of thriving in diverse environments. Emotional intelligence (EI) is about the ability to reason and solve problems based on the emotions one's experience. In other words, an emotionally intelligent person is aware of emotions in him/ her and others and uses reason to identify, understand, and deal with the emotions effectively. People with strong emotional intelligence see emotional restraint as a positive quality that enables them to do more. People who are not emotionally aware of themselves and others are marginalized and removed from social groups (Cobb & Mayer, 2000). Salovey & Mayer (1990) explained EI as "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and use this information to guide one's thinking and actions". Emotional intelligence (EI) is a pivotal aspect of personal and interpersonal effectiveness, encompassing a spectrum of skills essential for

navigating the complexities of human emotions. At its core, EI involves self-awareness, enabling individuals to recognize and understand their own emotions, fostering a foundation for self-regulation. This self-regulation, in turn, equips individuals with the ability to manage their emotional responses in diverse situations, contributing to resilience and adaptability. Beyond individual introspection, EI extends to interpersonal realms, where empathy becomes a cornerstone.

Emotional intelligence identified four branches: perceiving emotions, using emotions to facilitate thought, understanding emotions, and managing emotions and these branches contribute to effective emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). As the understanding of the intricacies of human emotions continues to evolve, so too does the recognition of the profound role emotional intelligence play in shaping the fabric of human lives. By fostering self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills, individuals can unlock the full potential of emotional intelligence, creating a path towards fulfilling relationships and thriving careers.

1.1.1 The Four Emotional Intelligence Branches

Salovey and Mayer's (1990) model of emotional intelligence identifies four key branches that structure emotional abilities: perceiving emotions, using emotions to facilitate thought, understanding emotions, and managing emotions (Salovey and Mayer's, 1990). Each of these points contributes to how individuals navigate their emotional environments.

1. **Perceiving Emotions:** This is the foundational aspect of EI, focusing on recognizing emotions in oneself and others. It involves identifying emotional cues through facial expressions, body language, and tone of voice (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). High EI individuals can interpret non-verbal signals effectively, which is crucial for effective communication and relationship-building. Furthermore, self-awareness—being in tune with one's own emotions—is central to emotional perception, enabling people to regulate their emotional responses and understand how emotions influence decisions (Goleman, 1995).

2. **Using Emotions to Facilitate Thought:** This branch highlights how emotions can aid in cognitive processes, such as problem-solving and creativity. Positive emotions can broaden thinking, enhancing flexibility and open-mindedness, while negative emotions like anxiety or frustration signal the need for action (Isen, 2000). Emotional intelligence involves using emotions constructively, steering them toward productive thought and decision-making. Emotionally intelligent individuals integrate emotions with logical reasoning, ensuring balanced judgments (Mayer et al., 2008).

3. **Understanding Emotions:** This aspect focuses on comprehending emotions' causes and implications. People with high EI can predict emotional responses and interpret the complex interplay of different emotions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Recognizing how emotions evolve over time and understanding the broader emotional context, including cultural and situational influences, are essential for effective communication and conflict resolution. For example, a person who understands that a colleague's frustration may be due to external pressures rather than a personal conflict can respond more empathetically.

4. **Managing Emotions:** Emotional regulation is the ability to control and modify emotional reactions to promote well-being and effective interactions. This includes managing stress, maintaining composure in difficult situations, and fostering positive emotions (Gross, 2002). In leadership contexts, emotionally regulated leaders create supportive environments that enhance collaboration and trust (Goleman, 1995). Emotional control also contributes to resilience, enabling individuals to recover from setbacks without losing focus or motivation.

1.1.2 Role of Emotional Intelligence in Personal Development

Developing emotional intelligence has profound implications for personal growth, enhancing self-awareness, empathy, motivation, and interpersonal relationships.

1. **Awareness and Self-Reflection:** Self-awareness, the foundation of emotional intelligence, involves recognizing one's emotional triggers and understanding how emotions influence behaviour (Goleman, 1995). People with high EI can reflect on their emotional reactions and address underlying issues, such as recognizing that anger may stem from feelings of powerlessness or frustration. By understanding these triggers, individuals can respond more thoughtfully, leading to healthier relationships and better decision-making (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).
2. **Empathy and Interpersonal Relationships:** Empathy is essential for building meaningful connections with others. Emotionally intelligent individuals can empathize with others' feelings, facilitating deeper and more respectful relationships (Goleman, 1995). In both personal and professional settings, empathy enables conflict resolution, team collaboration, and effective leadership (Caruso, Mayer, & Salovey, 2002).
3. **Motivation and Goal Achievement:** Emotional intelligence fosters intrinsic motivation, helping individuals stay focused on long-term goals even when faced with obstacles (Mayer et al., 2008). People with high EI are more likely to persist through challenges and remain optimistic in the face of setbacks. Emotional intelligence also encourages self-regulation, enabling individuals to maintain their focus and emotional balance while working toward personal development (Goleman, 1995).

1.1.3 Emotional Intelligence in the Academic Environment

Emotional intelligence plays a crucial role in academic success, student well-being, and teacher-student interactions.

1. **Emotional Intelligence and Student Success:** Research has shown that students with high emotional intelligence perform better academically (Parker et. al., 2004). EI enables students to handle stress, manage time effectively, and approach academic tasks with resilience. Students with high EI are better at navigating academic challenges, using emotional regulation to stay focused and calm under pressure.

2. **Emotional Intelligence and Student-Teacher Relationships:** Emotionally intelligent teachers can build strong relationships with students by recognizing their emotional needs and offering appropriate support. Teachers with high EI can identify when a student is struggling emotionally or academically and adjust their approach to provide encouragement and assistance (Goleman, 1995). This empathy fosters trust and motivation, contributing to a positive classroom environment.
3. **Emotional Intelligence in Peer Relationships:** In the classroom, peer relationships significantly impact learning and well-being. Emotionally intelligent students excel in social interactions, recognizing and responding to emotional cues from their peers (Goleman, 1995). This ability enhances group work, collaboration, and conflict resolution, making students more effective in team-based academic tasks.
4. **Emotional Intelligence and Classroom Climate:** A classroom environment that prioritizes emotional intelligence is supportive, inclusive, and conducive to learning. Teachers with high EI foster an emotionally safe space where students feel understood and respected, encouraging open communication and participation (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Such environments promote positive emotional experiences, which are linked to better academic engagement and mental health.
5. **Emotional Intelligence and Student Well-Being:** Emotional intelligence contributes to mental health by helping students manage academic and social stressors. Emotionally intelligent students are better equipped to handle peer pressure, academic demands, and personal challenges, reducing the risk of mental health issues like anxiety and depression (Goleman, 1995).
6. **Teaching Emotional Intelligence in the Classroom:** Emotional intelligence can be developed through intentional instruction. Educators can incorporate activities like mindfulness, journaling, and group discussions to promote self-awareness and emotional regulation (Zins, Weissberg, Wang, & Walberg, 2004). Teaching students to recognize and manage their emotions helps them develop skills that are essential for both academic success and personal growth.

1.2 COGNITIVE STYLE:

Cognitive style refers to an individual's preferred way of processing information, solving problems, and perceiving the world. It is a relatively stable and consistent way of thinking, and it can influence how people learn, make decisions, and interact with their environment. Messick (1984) defines cognitive styles as fixed attitudes, inclinations, or ingrained behaviours that identify an individual's regular way of seeing, recalling, reasoning, and solving problems.

The idea of cognitive style is essential to comprehending the wide range of individual variations in how people think, learn, process information, and solve issues. Although the study of cognitive styles has its origins in early psychological ideas, it is currently receiving more and more attention in cognitive, psychological, and educational research. The term "cognitive style" describes the regular, habitual ways that people think, see, remember, and solve problems in response to tasks, circumstances, or obstacles. A framework for comprehending and promoting the diversity of people in learning contexts can be provided by a knowledge of these styles, which can offer insightful information about human behaviour that can guide actions in counselling, education, and other professional fields.

1.2.1 Historical Foundations of Cognitive Style

Although the concept of individual variations in cognitive processing has been explored since the late 1930s, the term "cognitive style" first emerged in the early 20th century. Carl Jung and George Kelly, two pioneering psychologists, proposed that the human mind could be categorized into various processing modes. Jung's theory of personality typology, which emphasizes the significance of personal preferences and tendencies in cognitive functioning, offered a framework for understanding how individuals perceive and respond to their environment in diverse ways.

By the mid-20th century, the study of cognitive psychology had become a dominant field in academia, and cognitive style emerged as a prominent topic of interest. Psychologists began examining how individuals typically approach problems and acquire knowledge. They identified that various styles could be used to

categorize people's approaches to learning and problem-solving. As a result, the concept of cognitive style became more formalized and structured, with an emphasis on the consistency of these patterns across diverse contexts.

1.2.2 Cognitive Styles and Their Components

Cognitive style is typically conceptualized through a range of dimensions that delineate the distinct methods by which individuals process information. Although definitions and frameworks vary, common components often cited in research on cognitive style include:

1. **Perception:** This refers to how people understand and interpret sensory data. For example, whilst some people prefer to concentrate on the overall picture (a more holistic style), others may choose to concentrate on the details and particular (a more analytical style). Individual variations in perception and cognitive processing requires an awareness of this dichotomy.
2. **Attention:** How people focus and sustain their attention is influenced by their cognitive style. While some people may exhibit a more diffuse, adaptable attention style that effortlessly transitions between tasks and stimuli (open attention), others may be more concentrated and purposeful in their attention (focused attention).
3. **Problem-Solving and Decision-Making:** Cognitive style has a big impact on how people approach and resolve issues. While some people may approach problem-solving more intuitively or impulsively, others may take a more methodical, step-by-step approach. These variations frequently mirror more general cognitive inclinations that affect judgment.
4. **Memory:** Individuals' cognitive styles also influence how they retain knowledge. While some people use physical or visual imagery for recall, others may rely more on verbal or abstract memory techniques.
5. **Reasoning:** People's reasoning and decision-making processes are also influenced by their cognitive styles. While some people prefer to make judgments using logical, rule-based reasoning, others may rely on patterns, heuristics, or intuition.

The categorization of cognitive styles in these areas aids in determining the general methods by which people approach various cognitive tasks, including learning, solving problems, and making decisions. Understanding these variances is crucial in many applied domains since the range of cognitive styles frequently reflects ingrained preferences in the way information is obtained, understood, and employed.

1.2.3 Theories of Cognitive Style

Cognitive style refers to the consistent patterns of thinking, perceiving, remembering, and problem-solving that individuals use to approach the world. Several prominent theories and models have contributed to the understanding of cognitive styles. These frameworks explore how people approach tasks, organize information, and use cognitive resources. Some of the most influential models include the field dependence/field independence theory, reflexivity versus impulsivity, the analytic versus holistic cognitive style, and the relationship between cognitive styles and learning theories.

1. Field Dependence vs. Field Independence

One of the earliest and most influential models of cognitive style is the field-dependence/field-independence theory, which was proposed by Herman Witkin in the 1950s. According to Witkin's model, individuals with a field-independent cognitive style tend to perform better in tasks that require detachment from contextual cues. Field-independent individuals are more analytical and are able to separate objects from their background or context (Witkin, 1954). They excel in situations that demand abstract thinking and tend to rely more on internal frames of reference.

On the other hand, field-dependent individuals are more influenced by contextual information and often struggle to focus on specific elements when those elements are embedded within complex or cluttered backgrounds. Field-dependent individuals tend to be more social, relational, and sensitive to external cues, making them more adept in collaborative and interpersonal tasks (Witkin, 1954). This

distinction between field dependence and field independence has been widely applied in education. Field-independent learners may excel in tasks requiring analysis and abstraction, whereas field-dependent learners might perform better in contexts that require social engagement or group-based activities (Sternberg, 2003).

2. Reflexivity vs. Impulsivity

Another important dimension of cognitive style is the reflexivity versus impulsivity distinction, described by Jerome Kagan in the 1960s. Reflexive individuals tend to think carefully and reflect on information before making decisions, whereas impulsive individuals tend to make quick judgments based on immediate impressions and intuition (Kagan, 1966). Reflexive thinkers tend to take more time in decision-making, carefully considering the pros and cons, and are less likely to be swayed by initial biases. In contrast, impulsive individuals act quickly, often relying on immediate judgments or gut feelings, which can lead to faster decisions, but potentially less accurate ones (Kagan, 1966).

This distinction between reflexivity and impulsivity is useful for understanding cognitive processing speeds and decision-making styles. Reflexive thinkers may be more deliberate and careful in analytical tasks, while impulsive individuals may excel in fast-paced situations that require quick thinking or immediate responses (Kagan, 1966).

3. Analytic vs. Holistic Cognitive Style

A distinction that is particularly relevant in cross-cultural psychology is the analytic versus holistic cognitive style. The analytic style refers to a tendency to break down complex stimuli or information into individual components, focusing on specifics, categories, and rules. Analytic thinkers tend to prioritize details and logic over context or relationships (Nisbett et al., 2001). They are often more likely to focus on individual parts of a problem, categorize information into distinct groups, and rely on abstract reasoning.

In contrast, holistic thinkers tend to perceive information in a more interconnected, context-dependent manner, emphasizing relationships and patterns

within the whole (Nisbett et al., 2001). Holistic thinkers focus on the broader context and tend to view the world in a more interconnected way. This distinction has important implications for cross-cultural differences in thinking and perception. For example, research has shown that individuals from Western cultures, which tend to value analytical thinking, often adopt more analytic thinking styles. In contrast, individuals from East Asian cultures, which emphasize relational and contextual thinking, tend to adopt more holistic thinking styles (Nisbett et al., 2001).

Theories of cognitive style provide a comprehensive framework for understanding the diverse ways in which individuals process information and approach tasks. By recognizing and accommodating these differences, educators, psychologists, and professionals in various fields can optimize learning, improve problem-solving, and foster more inclusive and supportive environments. Understanding cognitive style not only helps tailor instruction but also contributes to personal growth, career development, and successful collaboration in both professional and social contexts.

Cognitive style is the manner by which individuals perceive information in the environment and the patterns of thought that they use to develop a knowledge base about the world around them. The concept of styles of cognition, an area under continuing investigation, has been discussed and researched in the psychological community as early as the late 1930s. Knowledge gained concerning cognitive styles provides the opportunity to learn more about individual differences. This knowledge can then be applied to assist teachers, counsellors, and all professionals who are involved in children's learning experiences. Evidence exists that individuals possess habitual ways of approaching tasks and situations associated with particular patterns in cognitive processes including decision making, problem solving, perception, and attention. Such approaches are conceptualized as cognitive style, a concept defined as an individual's typical or habitual mode of problem solving, thinking, perceiving, and remembering.

Cognitive style is conceived as one of the aspects of psychological differentiation. Psychological differentiation refers to differentiate mode of

perceiving, judging and appraising things to which people are exposed to under different conditions. The notion of cognitive style has been defined as self-evident modes of functioning which the individual shows in his perceptual and intellectual activities. It is conceptualized as stable attitude or habitual strategy which determines a person's typical modes of perceiving, remembering and problem-solving. There are several types of cognitive functioning among which field dependence and field independence are well known. A field dependent individual is found to be passive and less competent in analytical functioning having greater social orientation. He has poor impulsive control and undifferentiated self-concept. He is more socially sensitive. On the other hand, a field independent individual is found to be more active and competent in analytical functioning having less social orientation. He is less impulsive and socially sensitive.

This difference in cognitive style has significant implications for education and problem-solving. Analytic thinkers may excel in tasks requiring abstract reasoning, classification, and rule application, while holistic thinkers may perform better when tasks require a deep understanding of context, relationships, and systems (Choi et.al.,1999).

1.2.4 Cognitive Style in Learning

Cognitive style is closely associated with learning style, which describe individual preferences in the most effective ways people learn. Learning style theory highlights the variability in how individuals prefer to acquire and process information. Frameworks such as Howard Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences and David Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory offer valuable insights into how cognitive style shape and influence learning processes.

Gardner's Multiple Intelligences theory suggests that individuals have different types of intelligences, including linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetics, musical, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and naturalistic intelligences (Gardner, 1983). This theory supports the idea that people process information differently depending on their dominant intelligence. For instance,

someone with strong linguistic intelligence may excel in reading and writing tasks, while someone with high spatial intelligence may be better at visualizing and manipulating objects in space.

Similarly, David Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory posits that individuals have different preferences for how they engage with new information. Kolb's model includes four learning styles: converging, diverging, assimilating, and accommodating (Kolb, 1984). Each of these styles reflects a preference for one of Kolb's learning dimensions—concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. People with different cognitive styles may favour different learning activities based on these preferences. For example, individuals with a preference for abstract conceptualization may excel in tasks that involve theoretical analysis, while those who prefer concrete experience may learn best through hands-on activities.

Understanding these cognitive styles and learning preferences can help educators design more effective and individualized learning experiences that cater to the diverse needs of students.

1.2.5 The Role of Cognitive Style in Education

The application of cognitive style theories in educational settings has profound implications for teaching and learning. Recognizing that students have unique cognitive preferences allows educators to tailor their instruction in ways that maximize learning outcomes and student engagement.

1. Differentiated Instruction

Differentiated instruction refers to the practice of adapting teaching strategies and content to meet the diverse needs of students. Teachers who understand cognitive styles can differentiate their instruction to accommodate a variety of learning preferences. For example, field-independent learners may benefit from tasks that require independent analysis and critical thinking, while field-dependent learners might excel in group activities that leverage social interaction (Tomlinson, 2001).

Additionally, analytic learners may prefer tasks that emphasize logical structure, analysis, and categorization, while holistic learners may benefit from tasks that require them to see patterns, relationships, or interconnections within a broader context. By tailoring lessons to align with students' cognitive styles, educators can improve student engagement and performance (Tomlinson, 2001).

2. Assessing Cognitive Style

Educators and psychologists can assess students' cognitive styles using a variety of diagnostic tools, such as inventories, questionnaires, and performance-based tasks. These assessments can help identify students' cognitive preferences and inform instructional strategies. For example, the Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT) is commonly used to assess field dependence and independence, while the Cognitive Style Index (CSI) helps identify individuals' tendencies toward analytic or holistic thinking (Witkin et al., 1971).

By assessing students' cognitive styles, educators can identify their strengths and weaknesses, and adjust their teaching methods accordingly. For instance, students with field-dependent styles may need additional support in tasks that require detachment from context, while those with holistic styles may benefit from learning activities that emphasize interconnections and systems (Witkin et al., 1971).

3. Supporting Diverse Learners

Recognizing cognitive style differences is particularly valuable when working with diverse learners, including those with learning disabilities, gifted students, or students from different cultural backgrounds. Understanding a student's cognitive style can enable educators to offer targeted support. For example, students with learning disabilities may struggle with certain cognitive tasks, but by understanding their cognitive styles, educators can provide alternative learning materials, scaffolding, or differentiated assessments (Tomlinson, 2001).

Likewise, students from diverse cultural backgrounds may exhibit varying cognitive processing styles. Educators who acknowledge and understand these differences can implement culturally responsive teaching strategies to enhance their

support for student learning. By incorporating cognitive style considerations into their instructional practices, teachers can foster a more inclusive learning environment that enables all students to succeed.

4. Promoting Self-awareness

Encouraging students to develop an understanding of their own cognitive style can promote self-awareness and help them become more effective learners. When students recognize their cognitive strengths and weaknesses, they can develop strategies to compensate for areas of difficulty. For example, students who prefer reflective observation may benefit from taking time to think before acting, while those with an analytic style may find it useful to break tasks down into smaller, manageable components (Kolb, 1984).

The explicit instruction of students regarding their cognitive style contributes to the development of metacognitive skills, enabling them to reflect on and regulate their own thought processes. This awareness can enhance problem-solving capabilities and cultivate a growth mindset, as students learn to adjust their learning strategies and approaches to problem-solving in alignment with their cognitive style.

Understanding cognitive style can be valuable in educational settings, problem-solving contexts, and interpersonal relationships, as it helps individuals work more effectively and appreciate diversity in thinking and problem-solving approaches. Sigmund Freud, a pioneering figure in the field of psychology, is primarily known for his psychoanalytic theories that delve into the unconscious mind, personality development, and cognitive style. Freud introduced the concept of defence mechanisms, which are unconscious psychological strategies that individuals use to cope with anxiety and protect the ego. Some defence mechanisms, such as repression, denial, and projection, can be seen as cognitive strategies or styles that influence how individuals perceive and process information. He also emphasized the role of the unconscious mind in shaping thoughts, feelings, and behaviours. While cognitive styles typically refer to conscious ways of processing information, Freud's focus on the unconscious highlights the idea that not all cognitive processes are accessible to conscious awareness. Freud proposed a tripartite model of the mind,

consisting of the id, ego, and superego. Each of these components represents different aspects of personality and operates according to distinct principles. While not directly related to cognitive style, these elements contribute to variations in how individuals approach decision-making and problem-solving.

1.2.6 Cognitive Style and Its Broader Implications

The study of cognitive style extends beyond education and has important implications for various other domains, such as career development, clinical psychology, and innovation.

1. Career Development

In the realm of career counselling and development, understanding cognitive style can help guide individuals toward professions that align with their cognitive strengths. For example, individuals who excel in field-independent thinking may be better suited for analytical or technical careers, such as in science or engineering, where logical reasoning and abstract thinking are emphasized (Sternberg, 2003). Conversely, those who are more field-dependent may be more successful in roles that require interpersonal skills and social interaction, such as teaching, counselling, or customer service (Sternberg, 2003).

2. Clinical Applications

In clinical psychology, understanding cognitive style can inform therapeutic interventions. Cognitive style can influence how individuals perceive and respond to therapy, as well as how they process emotional and cognitive information. For example, individuals with more analytic cognitive styles may benefit from cognitive-behavioural therapy (CBT), which emphasizes structured, logical reasoning and problem-solving (Beck, 2011). In contrast, those with holistic cognitive styles may find success in therapies that explore relationships, emotions, and unconscious patterns, such as psychodynamic therapy or gestalt therapy (Yontef, 1993).

3. Problem-Solving and Innovation

Cognitive style is also relevant in fields such as business and innovation. Diverse cognitive styles within teams can enhance creativity and problem-solving by

bringing different perspectives to the table. Teams with a mix of analytic and holistic thinkers, for instance, can combine their strengths to approach challenges from multiple angles and come up with innovative solutions (Nisbett et al., 2001). Recognizing cognitive style differences can also improve collaboration, as individuals learn to appreciate different approaches to problem-solving.

As Cognitive style is an individual's preferred or habitual approach to processing information, solving problems, making decisions, and learning. It reflects a person's distinctive way of thinking, perceiving, and organizing information, which can influence how they interact with their environment and make sense of experiences. Cognitive style is a broad concept that encompasses various dimensions of mental processing, and different theories and models offer different perspectives on this construct. Some key components often associated with cognitive style are:

1. Information Processing Preferences: Cognitive style may involve preferences for specific ways of processing information, such as whether an individual tends to focus on details or sees the bigger picture, prefers analytical or holistic thinking, or leans towards visual or verbal processing.
2. Problem-Solving Approaches: Individuals with different cognitive styles may have distinct approaches to solving problems. Some may be more intuitive and rely on gut feelings, while others may prefer systematic analysis and logical reasoning.
3. Learning Styles: Cognitive style can influence how individuals prefer to learn new information. Some people may excel in visual learning environments, while others may prefer auditory or kinaesthetic learning experiences.
4. Decision-Making Strategies: The way individuals make decisions can be influenced by their cognitive style. Some may be more risk-averse and analytical, while others may be more comfortable with uncertainty and prefer intuitive decision-making.
5. Information Seeking and Processing: Cognitive style also plays a role in how individuals seek and process information. Some may have a preference for in-depth analysis and thorough research, while others may prefer quick and intuitive decision-making.

6. **Attentional Focus:** Cognitive style can influence what individuals pay attention to in a given situation. For example, some may focus more on the details, while others may focus on the overall context.

Cognitive style also provides a valuable framework for understanding individual differences in perception, thought processes, learning, and problem-solving, its significance extends across multiple fields, including clinical psychology, professional development, counselling, and education. As research in cognitive psychology progresses, our understanding of cognitive style will expand, opening new opportunities to support individuals in realizing their full potential. Recognizing and addressing this diverse cognitive style, professionals can create more effective, inclusive, and supportive environments, thereby fostering growth and success in both personal and professional contexts.

There are different types of cognitive styles for which the present study is based on namely- systematic style, intuitive style, split style, undifferentiated style and integrated style.

1. Systematic style- A person who prefers structure, order, and methodical procedures is said to have a systematic style. They place a high importance on efficiency and predictability, frequently depending on well-defined plans, timetables, and rational procedures to accomplish their objectives. This strategy guarantees that they reduce errors and increase output (Smith, 2020). They like working in settings where duties are structured and results are quantifiable, and they have a tendency to be detail-oriented (Jones, 2018).

2. Intuitive style- People with an intuitive style are renowned for their capacity for original thought and for seeing the wider picture. They like flexibility and spontaneity in problem-solving and frequently rely on intuition and abstract thought rather than strict frameworks. These people are focused on the future and perform well in circumstances that call for creativity or strategic vision (Williams, 2019). Their strategy welcomes ambiguity and promotes exploration (Taylor, 2021).

3. Split Style- A person with a split style strikes a balance between methodical and intuitive approaches, changing their strategies according to the circumstance. When needed, they can be structured and ordered, but they also welcome adaptability and originality in problem-solving. Their adaptability enables individuals to successfully handle both simple and difficult activities (Adams, 2020). People with a split personality are frequently adept at modifying their tactics to achieve the best results in various contexts (Brown, 2018).

4. Undifferentiated style- An undifferentiated style person exhibits a more universal approach to problem-solving rather than constantly favouring one specific method, whether systematic or intuitive. Without having a strong preference for spontaneity or structure, they may adjust to various jobs and frequently use a combination of strategies depending on the circumstance. In a variety of settings, this adaptability may be useful (Clark, 2017).

5. Integrated style- An integrated style person skilfully blends both methodical and intuitive methods, applying each as necessary to achieve the best outcomes. They are adaptable and capable of using both innovative and organized approaches to increase productivity. This flexibility enables people to combine reason and creativity to address issues successfully in a variety of contexts (Miller, 2021). Their well-rounded strategy frequently results in more comprehensive and well-rounded decisions.

1.3 ACADEMIC ADJUSTMENT

The concept of adjustment is not a novel one, but rather a term in psychology that has been the subject of considerable ambiguity due to its multiple meanings. Adjustment refers to the dynamic relationship established between the individual and their environment. Every individual occupies a specific position within their social context, and adjustment also pertains to the extent to which an individual's personality functions effectively within the social world. It signifies a harmonious relationship between the person and their environment. It represents the interaction among the organism, the environment, and the personality. A well-adjusted individual is adequately prepared to fulfil the roles expected of them according to the

status assigned within a particular environment, with their needs being met in alignment with societal expectations.

Adjustment can be categorized into normal and abnormal types. Normal adjustment occurs when an individual's relationship with their environment aligns with established norms, suggesting an effective adaptation. This form of adjustment can also be described as an individual's capacity to function effectively across various life domains, including social, emotional, academic, or occupational areas. It involves successfully navigating life's challenges, transitions, and demands in a manner that fosters well-being and positive functioning. Normal adjustment does not imply the absence of difficulties or challenges; rather, it reflects the individual's ability to cope with and overcome obstacles in a way that supports ongoing personal growth and positive functioning. It is crucial to recognize that individuals possess varying baseline levels of adjustment, and what is deemed "normal" can differ across cultures, contexts, and personal circumstances. For individuals facing persistent difficulties in specific areas, seeking assistance from mental health professionals or other relevant resources may prove beneficial.

Abnormal adjustment occurs when an individual adapts to their environment but fails to align with established norms and moral codes. It refers to difficulties or challenges in adjusting to various life aspects that significantly deviate from what is considered typical or expected. This may involve persistent maladaptive patterns of behaviour, emotions, or cognition that impede an individual's ability to function effectively across different life domains. Abnormal adjustment is frequently associated with mental health disorders or conditions that necessitate attention and intervention. It is essential to recognize that abnormal adjustment often signals underlying mental health concerns, and individuals facing such challenges may benefit from professional support. Mental health professionals, including psychologists, psychiatrists, and counsellors, can offer assessments, diagnoses, and targeted interventions to help individuals improve their mental well-being. Understanding abnormal adjustment requires a comprehensive evaluation of the individual's life context, cultural influences, and the duration and severity of the behaviours. Early intervention and appropriate support are crucial for individuals

experiencing abnormal adjustment to enhance their overall functioning and quality of life.

Adjustment also means the reaction to the demands and pressures of social environment imposed upon the individual. The demand to which the individual has to react may be external or internal. Psychologists have viewed from two important perspectives. For one, adjustment is an achievement and for another, adjustment is a process. The first point of view emphasizes the quality or efficiency of adjustment and the second lays emphasis on the process by which an individual comes to term with the external environment.

Psychologists have developed various criteria to assess the adequacy of adjustment, including health adjustment, home adjustment, work adjustment, social adjustment, emotional adjustment, and academic adjustment. These aspects are particularly relevant in learning environments where both teachers and students are engaged. A student's adjustment is largely influenced by their interaction with the external environment in which they exist, as they continuously strive to adapt to it. Piaget examined the adjustment process from multiple perspectives, using the concepts of assimilation and accommodation to describe the alteration of oneself or the environment as mechanisms for adjustment. An individual who adheres to their values and standards without change, even in the face of significant shifts in the social climate, is referred to as an assimilator. In contrast, an individual who adjusts their beliefs to align with the changing values of society is known as an accommodator. Successful societal adjustment involves the use of both assimilation and accommodation. Challenges arise, however, when this balance is disrupted, often resulting in maladjusted behaviour. When individuals' needs are fully satisfied, a temporary equilibrium is established, halting further efforts toward that goal. Therefore, healthy adjustment is a process through which an individual meets their biological, psychological, and social needs effectively, establishing a balance between internal needs and the external demands of society through appropriate behavioural responses. Within the framework of adjustment criteria, academic adjustment plays a pivotal role in the teaching-learning process, where students are

expected to adapt or modify their behaviour to meet the demands of the learning environment.

Adjustment can also be conceptualized as the process through which students adapt to the academic, social, and personal challenges associated with college life. The transition from high school or other educational settings to college represents a significant shift, and students often need to make a variety of adjustments to navigate this change. Successful adjustment in the college environment is a gradual process, during which students may encounter various challenges. Establishing a support network, seeking guidance from academic advisors, and maintaining open communication with peers and faculty members can significantly contribute to a positive and successful college experience.

Adjustment difficulties can stem from a variety of factors, and these challenges can manifest at different stages of education. In the context of teacher education programs, both pre-service and in-service teachers often encounter adjustment issues related to institutional, professional, and personal factors. These difficulties may arise as they navigate the demands of their coursework and responsibilities. By identifying these adjustment challenges early in the teacher education process, both pre-service and in-service teachers can receive targeted support that fosters competence and self-assurance. Providing assistance in both academic and co-academic activities is essential for promoting their growth and improving their performance in the teaching profession.

Academic adjustment can be considered as the adjustment of the student to the academic environment consisting of the conditions such as physical, curriculum, text books, methods of teaching, authority, discipline etc. (Nagalakshmi, 2013). It refers to the process of adapting to the academic environment, requirements and expectations of an educational institution. It involves developing the necessary skills, strategies, and mindset to successfully navigate academic challenges and achieve academic goals. There are key aspects in the academic adjustment, such as:

1. **Academic Preparedness:** Academic preparedness refers to the degree to which a student possesses the necessary knowledge, skills, and attitudes to succeed in

a particular academic environment or program. It involves being equipped to handle the intellectual demands, academic rigor, and expectations of a specific educational setting.

2. **Learning strategies and study skills:** Learning strategies and study skills are techniques and methods that help individuals effectively acquire, retain, and apply knowledge. Developing effective learning strategies and study skills enhances academic performance, boosts confidence, and fosters lifelong learning.

3. **Time management and organization:** They are essential skills for effectively managing time, priorities, and tasks to maximize productivity and efficiency. By implementing effective time management and organization strategies, individuals can optimize their productivity, reduce stress, and achieve their goals.

4. **Self-motivation and self-regulation:** Self-motivation and self-regulation are essential skills for achieving personal and academic success. By cultivating self-motivation and self-regulation skills, individuals can unlock their potential, achieve success, and develop a growth mindset. A positive mindset is a crucial part of adjusting to the academic environment for which an individual is expected to strive for excellence.

5. **Social integration and peer relationships:** Social integration and peer relationships refer to the process of building and maintaining connections with others, fostering a sense of belonging, and developing meaningful relationships within social groups. Fostering social integration and peer relationships enhances overall well-being, academic success, and lifelong social connections which are the pre-requisites of fulfilling the required degree.

6. **Emotional intelligence and well-being:** Emotional intelligence (EI) and well-being are interconnected concepts essential for overall quality of life. EI refers to the ability to recognize, understand, manage, and regulate emotions in oneself and others. Well-being encompasses physical, emotional, mental, and social health. Cultivating emotional intelligence and prioritizing well-being are essential for leading a happy, healthy, and fulfilling life.

7. **Adaptability and resilience:** Adaptability and resilience are essential qualities for coping with challenges, uncertainty, and change. Adaptability refers to the ability to adjust to new, unexpected, or changing situations, environments, or

requirements. Resilience is the capacity to withstand, recover, and grow from adversity, trauma, or stress. By cultivating adaptability and resilience, individuals can navigate life's challenges, achieve personal growth, and thrive in an ever-changing world.

Academic adjustment refers to the process of acclimatizing to the structure, culture, and demands of an educational institution. This process may start when a student enters school or higher education and continues throughout their academic journey. For students to be successful, they must learn to balance multiple aspects of academic life: time management, academic workload, social integration, and mental well-being (Anderson, 2008).

Adjustment extends beyond merely understanding the curriculum or performing well in exams; it involves cultivating an awareness of oneself in relation to the academic environment. A student's success or failure is often influenced by their ability to effectively navigate and adapt to these adjustments. Some of the definitions and explanations on adjustment are stated under:

Darwin (1859) argued that life can only exist in the physical world if an organism is best adapted to its environment. The issue of biological adaptations has persisted to worry biologists, as a large portion of human illness is a result of adaptation to life's stresses. The behavioural process of balancing needs that conflict or are challenged by environmental impediments is referred to as adjustment in psychology. Both animals and humans regularly adapt to their surroundings.

Skinner (1952) defined adjustment as “the organization of personality, leading to the stability that results from the dynamic adjustment of the individual to his social and physical environment.” In the same vein, Munn (1995) described adjustment as “accommodating or fitting oneself to circumstances, as when it is said that a student is adjusted to or gets along well with the group in which he finds himself.” In the context of higher education, students often encounter increased academic demands, greater complexity, and heavier workloads. Adapting to more challenging coursework and heightened expectations for independent learning constitutes a crucial aspect of academic adjustment.

According to Shaffer, (1961), "Adjustment is how living organisms maintain a balance between their needs and the circumstances that influence these needs' satisfaction. It is important to consider the specific needs and preferences of the individuals using the space and to create an environment that promotes well-being and supports the activities taking place within it.

And according to Good (1959), "Adjustment is the process of finding and adopting modes of behaviour suitable to the environment or the change in the environment." Successful adjustment to academics involves a combination of self-awareness, effective coping strategies, and utilizing available support systems. Each student's journey is unique, and acknowledging and addressing challenges is a crucial part of the academic experience.

Another definition by Coleman and James (1961), "Adjustment is the outcome of the individual's attempts to deal with the stress and meet his needs: his efforts to maintain harmonious relationships with the environment." Understanding and utilizing academic resources such as libraries, research facilities, tutoring services, and academic counselling is crucial for academic success.

1.3.1 The Components of Academic Adjustment

Academic adjustment can be broken down into several components, each of which represents a different challenge or requirement within the academic environment.

1. Physical Environment

The physical environment of an educational institution includes the campus infrastructure, classrooms, libraries, laboratories, and other physical spaces. This environment affects students in several ways:

- **Learning Spaces:** Classrooms that are too crowded, poorly lit, or uncomfortable can hinder a student's ability to focus and concentrate (Ameen, 2023). Similarly, a noisy or chaotic environment can distract students from their academic goals.

- **Access to Resources:** The availability of learning resources such as libraries, computer labs, and other academic tools are critical in supporting students' academic progress (Crawford et.al, 2020).
- **Social Spaces:** Areas where students can socialize or interact outside of class, such as common areas or extracurricular spaces, help to build a sense of community, which can influence a student's adjustment and emotional well-being. A student's ability to adjust to and make the most out of the physical aspects of their academic environment is essential for their success.

2. Curriculum and Academic Requirements

The curriculum of an educational institution sets the stage for what students are expected to learn, how they will learn it, and the pace at which they must absorb the material. Academic adjustment in this area requires:

- **Understanding the Structure:** Students must understand the syllabus, assessment methods, grading systems, and the expectations of each subject or course (Brindley, 2009).
- **Pacing and Time Management:** Adjusting to the curriculum often means learning how to manage one's time effectively. Balancing assignments, exams, and other obligations is critical for students to succeed academically (Bettinger, 2013).
- **Workload:** The difficulty and quantity of coursework can vary widely between programs. Students may struggle to adjust to a more rigorous workload than they were accustomed to in earlier educational stages (Gibson, 2011).

Successful academic adjustment requires students to not only understand the curriculum but also develop strategies to manage their time and workload efficiently.

3. Textbooks and Learning Materials

Academic institutions rely on textbooks and other learning materials to facilitate the learning process. These resources often serve as the primary means through which students gain knowledge. Academic adjustment in this regard involves:

- **Familiarity with the Textbooks:** Understanding the course material, textbooks, and supplementary readings is central to mastering the subject matter (Coxhead, 2000). Some students may need help adapting to new methods of instruction that are based on different learning materials.

- **Study Methods:** Learning how to navigate academic texts, take notes effectively, and synthesize information is crucial for students in adjusting to academic expectations (Ostrom, 2015).

Merely reading textbooks is insufficient; students must also develop the ability to engage critically with the material, questioning its content and applying the knowledge they acquire.

4. Teaching Methods and Learning Styles

Each institution, and even individual instructors, may employ distinct teaching methods that shape how students engage with the curriculum. Several factors that influence academic adjustment in this context include:

- **Lecture-Based Learning:** Many institutions use lectures as the primary method of delivering content. This method may not be suitable for all students, and they must adjust by learning how to effectively listen, take notes, and participate in class.

- **Interactive Learning:** Some courses rely heavily on group work, discussions, and practical applications of theoretical knowledge. This requires students to adapt to more active forms of learning (Kolb & Kolb, 2005).

- **Online Learning:** With the increasing use of technology in education, students may need to adjust to online courses, digital content, and e-learning platforms (Coman et. al, 2020).

Students who are able to understand and adapt to these various teaching methods tend to perform better in their academic endeavours.

5. Authority Structures

Every educational institution has an authority structure that governs how the institution operates. This includes faculty members, administrative staff, and university leadership. Academic adjustment in relation to authority structures involves:

- **Interacting with Faculty:** Students must learn how to approach professors, teaching assistants, and other academic staff. This can include asking for help, clarifying doubts, and engaging with faculty in academic discussions (Chapelle, 2003).
- **Adhering to Rules and Regulations:** Every institution has policies regarding attendance, academic integrity, and conduct. Students must adjust to these rules and learn to navigate any potential conflicts that may arise (Walker, 2000).

Understanding and respecting authority structures are vital for students who want to succeed academically and avoid potential issues related to academic discipline.

6. Discipline and Time Management

Discipline plays a significant role in academic adjustment. A student's ability to stay focused and motivated is key to adapting to the demands of academic life. The primary aspects of discipline include:

- **Self-Discipline:** Academic success requires consistent effort and commitment. A student must learn how to avoid distractions and manage their time effectively (Luthans, 2002).
- **Study Habits:** Developing effective study habits, such as breaking tasks into manageable portions, reviewing materials regularly, and avoiding procrastination, are all essential for academic adjustment (Lackey, 2013).
- **Balancing Academics and Personal Life:** Many students face the challenge of balancing academic responsibilities with extracurricular activities, jobs, or social obligations. Developing time management skills is crucial for achieving a healthy

balance (Lucas & Ramsden 1992). The importance of time management and discipline therefore, cannot be overstated, as these skills are essential in achieving academic goals.

1.4 BRIEF HIGHLIGHT OF THE SECONDARY TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMME IN MIZORAM

Teacher education in Mizoram has experienced significant growth and transformation over the years, adapting to the evolving educational needs of the state. The primary aim has been to prepare teachers capable of effectively educating students in diverse, multicultural, and often rural environments. As the state of Mizoram developed its education system, improving the quality of education became a focal point for the government. The expansion of schools, the establishment of training programs, and the overall enhancement of teacher education emerged as key priorities. In the coming years, a bachelor's degree in teacher education has become the minimum qualification required for teaching at the secondary and higher secondary levels, ensuring that educators are well-equipped to deliver quality education.

1.4.1 Establishment of Teacher Education Institutions:

Mizoram has developed a range of teacher education institutions, both at the undergraduate and postgraduate levels. The key institutions involved in teacher education are:

Institute of Advanced Studies in Education (IASE): IASE is the first teacher education institution in Mizoram. It was established in 1975 as the Mizoram Institute of Education, later upgraded to a College of Teacher Education (CTE) and subsequently became the IASE. The institution offers a range of education programs, including Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.), Master of Education (M.Ed.), and Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) in Education. IASE adheres to the norms and standards set by the National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE), ensuring that its teacher education programs meet the required quality and regulatory standards.

Department of Education, Mizoram University: Established in the year 2001, Mizoram University offers various courses, henceforth introduced teacher education programme, such as Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) and Master of Education (M.Ed.) in the year 2016. These programs are designed to provide teachers with both theoretical knowledge and practical classroom training. Along with the teacher education programme, the department has already opened Master's Degree and Ph. D in education.

District Institute of Education and Training (DIETs): DIETs in Mizoram play a pivotal role in the training of elementary school teachers, specifically through the Diploma in Elementary Education (D.El.Ed.) program. They provide comprehensive teacher training programs, workshops, and in-service training, ensuring that teachers acquire the necessary skills and competencies to deliver quality education in the classroom. In addition to the D.El.Ed program, two DIET institutes in Mizoram have recently begun offering Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) degree programs. These institutions have been established in compliance with the standards set by the National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE), ensuring the programs align with national norms and quality benchmarks.

1.4.2 Programmes of Teacher Education's Institutions:

In Mizoram, teacher education programs are structured according to the norms set by the National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE). These programs have been designed to equip teachers with the skills and knowledge required to handle the challenges of the modern classroom, particularly in a state with a diverse cultural and linguistic background.

Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.)

- **Duration:** 2 years.
- **Eligibility:** Candidates who have completed their undergraduate degree (B.A., B.Sc., B. Com etc.) from a recognised institutions are eligible for admission to the B.Ed. program.

- **Curriculum:** The curriculum focuses on educational theory, pedagogy, child development, and practical classroom teaching. It includes courses on subjects such as curriculum and pedagogy, educational psychology, school internship and practicum.

Master of Education (M.Ed.)

- **Duration:** 2 years.
- **Eligibility:** B.Ed. degree or equivalent is required for admission to the M.Ed.

In-service Training and Professional Development

- In addition to the formal degree programs, in-service training and professional development are crucial in Mizoram, as in the rest of India, to ensure that teachers remain up-to-date with the latest educational practices.
- **Training Programs for Existing Teachers:** Various government and non-governmental organizations in Mizoram offer professional development programs. These programs are conducted regularly to update teachers on new teaching methods, technology integration, and subject-specific knowledge.
- **Focus on Pedagogical Innovation:** There is an emphasis on innovative teaching techniques, especially considering the multilingual and multicultural nature of Mizoram. Teachers are trained to adapt their teaching styles to meet the needs of a diverse student population. Different institutions catered to the needs and requirements of the teachers.

1.2 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

In the current competitive environment where learners are expected to perform multiple roles with efficiency and effectiveness, it is highly necessary to develop their right attitude and emotional intelligence towards the unseen complexities of life and quality education (Goleman, 1995). As emotional intelligence is a subset of social intelligence, with the ability to understand and monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, it can help individuals excel through life transitions starting from school to college, and later into the working world (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). It is seen as a valuable tool that helps students

manage and cope with the demanding nature of academics and achievements (Zeidner et.al., 2012). Studies have shown that students who are emotionally intelligent have better interpersonal and intrapersonal skills, are more adaptable, and are better at managing stress (Mayer et.al., 2004).

In addition, emotional intelligence not only helps students learn better, but it also determines their career success, especially for those who wish to embark on a profession that requires a high level of emotional competence, such as teaching (Brackett et. al., 2011). As it is rightly said, emotional intelligence is a must for those who aspire to teach as a profession and has become an integral part of teaching proficiency (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009).

Given the crucial role that emotional intelligence (EI) plays in teaching proficiency, it is essential that teacher education programs prioritize the development of EI skills. Future educators must be equipped with the emotional intelligence necessary to navigate the challenges of the classroom and support the emotional and academic growth of their students (Goleman, 1995). Teacher education programs should include coursework and training that focus on developing self-awareness, self-regulation, empathy, and social skills (Zeidner et. al., 2012). These programs can incorporate activities such as role-playing, conflict resolution exercises, and mindfulness training to help prospective teachers strengthen their emotional intelligence (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). By integrating emotional intelligence into teacher preparation, these programs can ensure that educators are better prepared to face the challenges of teaching and create positive learning environments for their students (Brackett et. al., 2011).

Emotional intelligence extends beyond the professional domain and encompasses a range of qualities that prospective teachers must develop. Psychologists assert that both biological and psychological differences influence how individuals perceive events, objects, sounds, and emotions (Goleman, 2005). When multiple individuals encounter the same event or object, each may experience it differently due to their unique perceptions (Gardner, 1983). It is widely acknowledged that early exposure to various experiences shapes children's

personalities and influences their interpretation of the world (Harris, 2009). As a result, educators and researchers are increasingly focusing on these individual differences to better understand how students perceive information and learn in diverse ways (Tomlinson, 2001).

In addition, school systems and educational institutions must recognize the value of emotional intelligence and invest in ongoing professional development for teachers. Workshops, seminars, and mentorship opportunities focused on emotional intelligence can help teachers refine their skills and continue to grow throughout their careers (Day, 2004). Emotional intelligence is not a static trait, but rather a set of skills that can be cultivated and strengthened over time (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). By fostering a culture of emotional intelligence within schools, educators can create an environment that promotes both academic success and personal well-being (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012).

It is important to note that there have been studies conducted on the relationship between intelligence and each of the three cognitive styles. There is consistent data indicating no direct relationship exists between cognitive styles and emotional intelligence (Zeidner et. al., 2012). Nevertheless, an individual's ability to acquire knowledge on an equal plane with peers, or to demonstrate his or her knowledge in specific social or academic settings, may be affected by cognitive styles (Messick, 1984). Through early childhood development, continued success or frequent difficulties in these abilities could affect personality and social interactions (Kagan, 1966).

There are three very important cognitive styles: levelling-sharpening, field-dependence/field-independence, and reflectivity-impulsivity (Witkin et al., 1977). Cognitive styles are distinct from individual intelligence, but they may affect personality development and how individuals learn and apply information (Riding & Cheema, 1991). And while research has shown that these differences precede environmental shaping, the effects of cognitive styles can be accentuated or mitigated by many outside factors, such as classroom setting, social experiences, and vocational choices (Felder & Silverman, 1988). It is for this reason that research in

this area is so important, and that it is critical to train educational professionals in methods to address these differences in the classroom.

Day by day, life is becoming increasingly fast and complex, making it difficult to adjust. Emotional intelligence plays a very important role in adjustment. In all senses, emotional intelligence essentially reflects our ability to deal successfully with other people and with our feelings (Goleman, 1995). A person is rightly conditioned until he is a happy, healthy, and prosperous being. Happiness, health, and prosperity are the result of harmonious adjustment between the inner self and the outer environment (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Studying emotional intelligence in relation to adjustment is essential because a well-adjusted and emotionally intelligent person is considered a symbol of progress (Zeidner et. al., 2012). Therefore, emotional intelligence and adjustment play a paramount role in education and the lives of individuals.

The adjustment of individuals depends on emotional intelligence and several associated factors. Several studies have provided substantial evidence favouring emotional intelligence as a predictor of better adjustment and success in education (Mayer et. al., 2004). The complexity and multi-dimensional nature of adjustment allow for a comprehensive study of the factors related to it (Goleman, 1995). A person's emotional intelligence, as measured through his/her emotional quotient (EQ), may be a better predictor of success than IQ (Schutte et al., 2001). One's emotional intelligence is helpful in knowing, feeling, and judging emotions, in close cooperation with one's thinking process, to behave in a proper way for the ultimate realization of happiness and welfare, both for oneself and in tune with others (Goleman, 1995).

Emotionally intelligent students who know how to manage their feelings well will have better adjustment with themselves and with others (Parker et al., 2004). Emotionally healthy students accept themselves, with all their strengths and weaknesses, and therefore behave in a mature way (Zeidner et al., 2012). The present study, therefore, is carried out on the grounds of exploring the relationship between adjustment and emotional intelligence (EQ) of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students. The

findings of this study could prove valuable for educators, administrators, and policy-makers in developing curricula and implementing related practicum experiences that foster improved adjustment among student.

While previous research has examined emotional intelligence, cognitive style, and academic adjustment as separate constructs, there exists a notable gap in understanding how these variables interact and collectively influence student success (Zeidner et.al., 2012; Mayer et.al., 2004). This study seeks to bridge that gap by investigating the combined influence of emotional intelligence, cognitive styles, and academic adjustment on students' academic performance and well-being.

By understanding the relationship between these factors, educators and researchers can gain valuable insights into how emotional and cognitive processes shape students' ability to adjust to academic challenges (Parker et al., 2004). Additionally, this research may highlight the importance of fostering both emotional intelligence and adaptive cognitive styles in educational settings (Schutte et al., 2001). This could lead to the development of more targeted interventions aimed at helping students improve their academic adjustment, manage stress, and perform better in their studies (Friedman & Scholtz, 2013).

For example, the study could reveal that emotionally intelligent students are more likely to exhibit flexible cognitive styles that support academic adjustment, leading to better academic performance (Mayer et al., 2004). Conversely, students with low emotional intelligence may struggle with managing academic stress, which in turn affects their ability to utilize adaptive cognitive strategies and adjust to academic demands (Parker et al., 2004). Such findings could have important implications for teacher education programs, student support services, and curriculum design (Goleman, 1995; Zeidner et al., 2012).

Moreover, the research has the potential to contribute to the broader field of educational psychology by highlighting the interconnected nature of emotional, cognitive, and adjustment-related factors. This is the first study in the field of education especially in the Mizoram context. Several research has been conducted in

the emotional intelligence alone, its relations with other variables etc. However, no similar studies were found till today. The findings may serve as the starting point for the teacher education programme to be excellence in the academic viewpoints, practical and personality development as well. It may also offer practical recommendations for interventions that promote emotional intelligence, adaptive cognitive styles, and effective academic adjustment strategies, ultimately supporting student success and well-being (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009).

This research study seeks to explore the interrelationship among emotional intelligence, cognitive style, and academic adjustment. While prior research has predominantly examined these variables individually, particularly in the domain of teacher education, this study aims to integrate these dimensions and investigate whether emotional intelligence significantly influences cognitive style and adjustment-related factors. The study moves beyond the conventional focus on life success by examining the combined impact of these variables, thereby providing a comprehensive understanding of their interconnectedness. Emotional intelligence is an integral component of human personality, serving as the context within which it operates. It can be conceptualized as a mental ability encompassing the capacity to process emotional information accurately and apply emotions to enhance cognitive functioning and decision-making. Recognizing the significance of these interdependencies, the researcher deemed it essential to examine how emotional intelligence impacts cognitive style and academic adjustment. This research endeavours to address a critical gap in the literature by offering new insights into these complex relationships and their implications for educational practices and student outcomes.

In conclusion, this research aims to deepen understanding of the relationships among academic adjustment, cognitive style, and emotional intelligence, and their collective influence on student well-being and academic achievement. By examining these factors holistically, the study seeks to provide valuable insights into the underlying mechanisms that drive student performance and adjustment within academic environments. The findings of this research have the potential to

significantly inform educational practices, particularly in enhancing curriculum design, student support services, and pedagogical approaches. The overarching goal is to equip students with the cognitive and emotional competencies necessary for academic, social, and emotional success. This, in turn, will contribute to their overall development and achievement in both academic and personal domains.

1.3 Research Questions

The following research questions are asked.

1. What is the emotional intelligence level of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students?
2. Is there any significant difference between B.Ed. and M.Ed. students in their emotional intelligence?
3. Is there any significant difference between male and female B.Ed. students in their emotional intelligence?
4. Is there any significant difference between male and female M.Ed. students in their emotional intelligence?
5. Is there any significant difference on the emotional intelligence of B.Ed. and M.Ed. male students?
6. Is there any significant difference in the emotional intelligence between B.Ed. and M.Ed. female students?
7. What is the academic adjustment level of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students?
8. Is there any significant difference between B.Ed. and M.Ed. students in their academic adjustment?
9. Is there any significant difference in the academic adjustment between male and female B.Ed. students?
10. Is there any significant difference in the academic adjustment between male and female M.Ed. students?
11. Is there any significant difference in the academic adjustment between B.Ed. and M.Ed. male students?
12. Is there any significant difference in the academic adjustment between B.Ed. and M.Ed. female students?

13. Is there any significant difference in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on their cognitive styles?
14. Is there any difference in the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on their cognitive styles?
15. Is there any significant relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of prospective teachers?

1.4 Statement of the Problem

The development of emotional intelligence (EI) abilities must be given top priority in teacher education programs because of the critical role that EI plays in teaching proficiency. Future teachers must possess the emotional intelligence needed to handle the difficulties of the classroom and foster their pupils' intellectual and emotional development. Life is getting faster and more complicated every day, which makes it hard to adapt. Adjustment is greatly influenced by emotional intelligence. In every way, the capacity to effectively manage one's emotions and other people is reflected in the emotional intelligence. Until a person is content, healthy, and successful, they are properly conditioned. When the inner self and the external surroundings are in harmony, happiness, health, and prosperity result. A well-adjusted and emotionally intelligent individual is seen as a sign of development, so understanding emotional intelligence in connection to adjustment is crucial. As a result, emotional intelligence and adaptability are crucial in both academic and personal life. Previous research has mostly focused on examining academic adjustment, cognitive styles, and emotional intelligence separately, this study aims to go beyond life success level and determine whether EQ has significant effects on parameters connected to cognition and adjustment. That is why the present study is stated as, *"Emotional Intelligence of B.Ed. and M.Ed. Students in relation to their Cognitive Styles and Academic Adjustment."*

1.5 Operational definition of the term used

The term used in the title of the study have some specific meanings. They are operationally defined as-

1. Emotional Intelligence: Emotional intelligence in the present study means the ability to understand, use, and manage one's own emotions in positive ways to relieve stress, communicate effectively, empathize with others, overcome challenges and defuse conflict.
2. Cognitive style: Cognitive style in the present study may be defined as the B.Ed. and M.Ed. student's style of perceiving, thinking orientation, and the like towards information in the environment and the patterns of thought that they developed.

It is not about how much a student knows rather how they approach learning and tasks.
3. B.Ed. and M.Ed. Students: In the present study, B.Ed. and M.Ed. students are those who are enrolled in the Teacher Education Institutions. The term prospective teachers has also been used to these students.
4. Academic Adjustment: In the present study, academic adjustment may be referred to as the change or modification or adaptability of students' behaviour to commit into the course of study of B.Ed. and M.Ed.

1.6 Objectives of the Study

The present study has been undertaken with the following objectives:

1. To identify the level of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers.
2. To compare the emotional intelligence of
 - a) B.Ed. and M.Ed. students.
 - b) Male and female of all students.

- c) Male and female B.Ed. students.
 - d) Male and female M.Ed. students.
 - e) B.Ed. male and M.Ed. male students.
 - f) B.Ed. female and M.Ed. female students.
3. To construct an academic adjustment scale for B.Ed. and M.Ed. students.
 4. To identify the level of academic adjustment of prospective teachers.
 5. To compare the academic adjustment of
 - a) B.Ed. and M.Ed. students.
 - b) Male and female students.
 - c) male and female B.Ed. students.
 - d) male and female M.Ed. students.
 - e) B.Ed. male and M.Ed. male students.
 - f) B.Ed. female and M.Ed. female students.
 6. To examine the cognitive styles of prospective teachers.
 7. To compare the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on their cognitive styles.
 8. To compare the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on their cognitive styles.
 9. To investigate the relationship between the emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of prospective teachers.

1.7 Hypotheses of the Study

The following hypotheses are framed to know the emotional intelligence, cognitive styles and academic adjustment of the subjects under study.

1. There is no significant difference between B.Ed. and M.Ed. students in their emotional intelligence.

2. There is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on gender.
3. There is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of male and female B.Ed. students.
4. There is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of male and female M.Ed. students.
5. There is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of B.Ed. male and M.Ed. male students.
6. There is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of B.Ed. female and M.Ed. female students.
7. There is no significant difference between B.Ed. and M.Ed. students in their academic adjustment.
8. There is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on gender.
9. There is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of male and female B.Ed. students.
10. There is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of male and female M.Ed. students.
11. There is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of B.Ed. male and M.Ed. male students.
12. There is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of B.Ed. female and M.Ed. female students.
13. There is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles.
14. There is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles.
15. There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of prospective teachers.
16. There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of B.Ed. students.
17. There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of M.Ed. students.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Review of related literature has been an important component of any research activities; it is important to know the studies conducted in different parts of the country in relations to the present study to examine and identify what have already been initiated in the areas. In today's world, Intelligence Quotient (IQ) alone does not make persons to establish social skills and inculcate the concept of socialization. The review will help in identifying the procedure of the research work, the methodology to be used, the statistical techniques to be employed to help in addressing the needs and rendered guidance to the concerned.

The review is categorised into five main sections:

1. Review on Emotional Intelligence
2. Review on Cognitive Styles
3. Review on Academic Adjustment
4. Review on the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Cognitive styles
5. Review on the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Academic Adjustment

2.1 Review on Emotional Intelligence

Salovey and Mayer (1990) in their article, "Emotional Intelligence, Imagination, Cognition and Personality" offered a framework for emotional intelligence, a collection of abilities thought to support accurate assessments and expressions of emotion in both oneself and others, efficient self- and other-emotional control, and the use of emotions to inspire, plan, and accomplish in one's life. They began by going over the argument of whether emotion is adaptive or maladaptive. To investigate the role of emotion in conventional ideas of intelligence, they studied the literature on intelligence, with a focus on social intelligence. It was explained how to integrate the studies on skills related to emotions. They also discussed the elements

of emotional intelligence, its connection to mental health, and potential directions for future research.

Salovey and Sluyter (1997) in their book, "Emotional Development and Emotional Intelligence: Educational Implications" included chapters that provided research on emotions and emotional development in a way that would be helpful to psychologists, educators, and everyone else who is interested in how emotions develop in children. By contrasting scientific explanations of emotion with brief commentary from educators who go into detail about how these developments might be applied in the classroom, the book connects theory and practice. The book provided solid information on the possible effectiveness of educational programs based on this concept as well as a wealth of facts regarding emotional intelligence.

Cherniss (2000) in his book, "Emotional Intelligence: What it is and why it matters" suggested that instead of debating whether emotional intelligence is new, he thought it would be more interesting and helpful to think about how crucial it is for productive work performance. He had demonstrated that there is a substantial body of research indicating that an individual's capacity to perceive, recognize, and control emotion serves as the foundation for the types of social and emotional competencies that are critical for success in practically any job, even though he had not had enough time to cover much of it. Furthermore, this specific set of skills will become more and more crucial as the world of work places ever-increasing demands on a person's physical, mental, and emotional resources and as change occurs at a faster rate. The good news for I/O psychologists is that they are in the best position to assist clients in utilizing emotional intelligence to enhance psychological health and productivity in the workplace of the future.

Mandell and Pherwani (2003) did a study on, "Relationship Between Emotional Intelligence and Transformational Leadership Style: A Gender Comparison". Emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style were found to be significantly predictive. When predicting transformational leadership style, there was no noticeable relationship between gender and emotional intelligence. The emotional intelligence scores of male and female managers differed

significantly. Finally, there was no apparent difference between male and female managers' transformational leadership scores.

In his best-selling book, “Emotional Intelligence,” Daniel Goleman (2005) reported that only 20% of a person's success in life can be explained by a typical IQ test. Psychologists have determined that emotional intelligence accounts for a fraction of the remaining 80% of the missing components. Goleman demonstrated the elements at play when people with low IQs perform remarkably well and others with high IQs struggle, drawing on ground-breaking brain and behavioural studies. These components—self-awareness, self-discipline, and empathy—combine to form a distinct form of intelligence that is not predetermined at birth. Despite being influenced by early life events, emotional intelligence can be developed and enhanced as an adult, with immediate advantages for relationships, employment, and health.

Vandervoort (2006) in his book, “The Importance of Emotional Intelligence in Higher Education” talked about the value of emphasizing emotional intelligence in higher education, which can be improved. It outlined the various societal, social, and personal repercussions of doing so, as well as any prospective impacts on the academic environment. Lastly, the article explored ways to include such a focus.

Herbst and Maree (2008) investigated, “The Relationship between Thinking Style Preference, Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Effectiveness in an Institution of Higher Education”. The Neethling Brain Preference Profile (NBPP), the Kouzes and Posner Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI), and the Mayer, Salovey and Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) were the measuring tools utilized. 138 managers from a higher education institution made up the sample. The association between leadership effectiveness, emotional intelligence (EI), and thinking style was found to be somewhat supported by the researchers. The researchers came to the conclusion that aspects of emotional intelligence and brain dominance might be helpful indicators of transformative leadership behaviours.

Murphy and Janeke (2009) examined, “The Relationship between Thinking Styles and Emotional Intelligence”. For emotional intelligence, participants (N =

309) filled out the Schutte Self-Report Inventory (SSRI) and Sternberg's Thinking Styles Inventory (TSI). A statistical study of the subjects' scores on the two tests revealed overlap between the SSRI and the TSI, indicating that they evaluate related variables. The findings demonstrated that people with high emotional intelligence favoured more sophisticated and imaginative thought patterns, and that thinking styles were a strong predictor of emotional intelligence.

Aggarwal and Saxena (2012) mentioned in their paper, “A Comparative Study of Emotional Intelligence of Undergraduate Students” that one of the most talked about and important trait of human personality is Emotional Intelligence. These days, people are evaluated on both their intelligence and emotional quotients. Everyone, including newborns, teenagers, and adults, finds it important. The majority of the students enrolled in undergraduate programs are late adolescents. At this age, a variety of emotions start to show strongly. Young pupils must learn how to manage emotional shifts, become more conscious of their emotions, and understand how emotions determine whether a person succeeds or fails in life. The student's choice of study area has an impact on their emotional intelligence as well.

Ashkan (2012) in her article “The Role of Emotional Intelligence in the Workplace: A Literature Review”, claimed that because of its significant importance in the workplace, emotional intelligence has become a topic that educators, counsellors, and corporate executives are familiar with. Specifically, two important aspects of emotional intelligence in organizations that might lead to increased effectiveness are dispute resolution and accurate self-evaluation.

Ciarrochi et.al (2013) in their book, “Emotional Intelligence in Every Day life” outlined how emotional intelligence resolves the tension between the heart and the mind, which is at least one component of human issues. The second common rationale for the interest is that the Emotional Intelligence (EI) notion suggests that those with high EI may still achieve great success in life while having less academic aptitude. Furthermore, Emotional Intelligence (EI) has caused people to assume that it may make them happy, wealthy, successful, healthy, and loved. Such audacious and significant assertions require scientific evaluation.

Kouhdasht et.al (2013) attempted to examine, “The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Student’s Thinking Styles in School District 13 of Tehran”. All high school students were part of the target group, of which 200 were chosen specifically for the study. The study used a descriptive and correlational methodology. A field study and a 19-question questionnaire were used to gather the data. Sternberg and Wagner's thinking styles inventory, which consists of 40 questions and assesses five different ways of thinking (legislative, judicial, executive, outward, and inward), was used to look into the participants' thought processes. Descriptive statistics (frequency, mean, and standard deviation) and inferential statistics (Pearson correlation coefficient, chi2, dependent-samples t-test) were used to analyse the gathered data using SPSS software. The emotional intelligence questionnaire's reliability was determined to be 0.78. As demonstrated by the results, there was a substantial difference in emotional intelligence between the two groups and a relevant association between emotional intelligence and the thinking patterns of both male and female students.

Kant (2014) in his article, “Interrelationship between Personality Traits and Emotional Intelligence of Secondary Teachers in India” investigated the association between several aspects of secondary school teachers' personalities and emotional intelligence using a sample of 200 teachers. The findings showed that secondary school teachers' emotional intelligence did not significantly differ based on their gender or the subject they teach. Additionally, there was a positive correlation between emotional intelligence and a few personality traits, but many personality traits had a negative correlation with emotional intelligence across several groups of secondary school teachers.

Singh and Goel (2014) in their paper, “Self- Efficacy and Emotional Intelligence among Creative Professionals: A Study on Gender Differences” looked at how gender affected the emotional intelligence and self-efficacy of 100 creative professionals (dancers, musicians, and painters) with at least five years of work experience. They discovered that men scored higher on the emotional intelligence dimension than women. On the self-efficacy dimension, however, there was no discernible difference between male and female creative professions.

Desti and Shanthi (2015) in their research paper, “A Study on Emotional Intelligence at Workplace” found that the majority of respondents had only average emotional competencies, according to an analysis of the factors influencing employees' emotional intelligence at work and the degree of awareness of emotional intelligence among employees. The training and development team should conduct regular programs at work to raise emotional intelligence levels and foster better performance.

Arun and Smita (2016) undertaken a study on “Emotional Intelligence of Scheduled Caste and Non- Scheduled Caste Students”. 400 students from different colleges in Kanpur, Uttar Pradesh (arts, science, and commerce) were chosen at random to make up the entire sample. Two hundred of these students belonged to reserved castes, while the other two hundred were not. "ANOVA" was used to statistically analyse the data. The findings showed that pupils from non-scheduled castes are more emotionally intelligent than those from scheduled castes.

Pooja and Kumar (2016) in their research article, “Demographic Variables and Its Effect on Emotional Intelligence: A Study on Indian Service Sector Employees” highlighted the connection between a few demographic factors and EI as determined by the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire-Short Form. A sample of 424 workers in the Indian service industry were the subjects of the study. The findings demonstrated that EI is influenced by demographic factors. Businesses could learn from the study and follow diversity management procedures to guarantee profits and expansion.

Sinha (2016) mentioned in her paper, “Study of Emotional Intelligence Amongst the Employees of Service Sector” aimed to look into how different factors affected the EI of workers in the services industry. The study also attempted to comprehend how respondents perceived the different elements that go into EI. According to the survey, most of the employees (48%) have a moderate level of emotional intelligence (EI), but just 16% have a high level and 36% have a poor level. Additionally, respondents are most agreeable with "Interpersonal Sensitivity" and "Motivation."

Anjum and Swathi (2017) in their research article, “A Study on the Impact of Emotional Intelligence on Quality of Life among Secondary School Teachers” showed that the two groups' quality of life varied from one another. It has been demonstrated that teachers with high emotional intelligence lead high-quality lives, whereas those with low emotional intelligence lead terrible lives. The findings also indicated a favourable relationship between quality of life and emotional intelligence.

Rao and Komala (2017) mentioned in their study, “Emotional Intelligence and Gender Difference: A Study among the Youth in Bangalore City, India” that A person's success in school, the workplace, and their personal life is greatly influenced by their emotional intelligence (EI). 800 young people between the ages of 18 and 24 made up the sample; there were 467 girls and 333 guys. The youth's total EI was greater (115.90 ± 30.91) than the normal range (68 ± 16), according to the results. The difference was statistically not significant, despite the males' somewhat higher scores (116.92 ± 31.45) than the girls' (115.17 ± 30.54). They felt that this might be because of the region's forward-thinking culture, urban upbringing, and/or comparable socio demographic backgrounds (family structure, religion, and economic categories). EI grew with age, as evidenced by the very significant mean difference between the age groups, with the older age group (22–24 years) having a higher mean score (127.74 ± 23.309) than the younger age group (18–20 years) (72.95 ± 20.589).

Ravikumar et al., (2017) in their article entitled “A Study of Emotional Intelligence among Postgraduate Medical Students in Delhi” s with emotional intelligence were better equipped to understand their patients' needs and deal with problems when they arose. In addition to having their sleep patterns affected, students with low emotional intelligence were more likely to engage in unhealthy behaviours in reaction to stress. Conversely, their emotionally intelligent peers were more inclined to use social support to cope with stress and were able to recognize when such behaviour would not be beneficial. Communication abilities, job happiness, academic and clinical performance, reducing stress and burnout, preserving patient contentment, and a positive doctor-patient connection were all influenced by emotional intelligence.

Rath and Vasantha (2017) in their study, “Emotional Intelligence & Relationship Management in Organizational Context” explored the connection between relationship management and emotional intelligence within a formal business setting. Employees in the manufacturing sectors of the state of Odisha provided the data. The hypotheses were tested using regression analysis. Relationship management and emotional intelligence were found to be correlated by the investigation.

Senad (2017) in his study, “A Study of Emotional Intelligence on CBSE and ICSE Adolescents” examined the emotional intelligence and its four dimensions, i.e. comprehending the feelings, motivation, relationships, and empathy of both male and female adolescents in the CBSE and ICSE programs. The study involved 200 teenagers between the ages of 13 and 16—100 CBSE boys and girls and 100 ICSE boys and girls. The findings showed that compared to ICSE pupils, CBSE students exhibited higher levels of emotional intelligence, empathy, and motivation understanding. Higher levels of emotional intelligence, motive comprehension, and empathy were demonstrated by female (girl) students. It was determined that there were no significant differences between male and female CBSE and ICSE pupils in terms of handling relationships and comprehending emotion.

Fida et. al., (2018) did a study on, “Gender Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of University Students”. Students from all five faculties at a university in the Pakistani region of Khyber Pukhtunkhwa were target participants. Data was gathered using the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS), which was created by Wong and Law (2002). The investigation's findings demonstrated that female students had higher emotional intelligence than male students. Additionally, those studying business and economics exhibited higher levels of emotional intelligence than those studying the arts and humanities.

Saini (2018) in his paper, “Emotional Intelligence at Workplace- A Conceptual Study” focused on the role and importance of EI at the workplace. According to the study, emotional intelligence plays a significant impact in a business. A company should choose its personnel based on their emotional

intelligence (EQ) and set up different training programs to help them become more emotionally intelligent.

Kant (2019) conducted a study on, “Emotional intelligence: A study on university students”. 200 students from Central University of South Bihar in Gaya, India, provided data for this survey-based study. The findings showed that every student at the university have a high degree of emotional intelligence. According to the results, every student in the School of Education possessed a high degree of emotional intelligence, apart from those in the school of Law & Governance. The total sample showed a significant difference in emotional intelligence between male and female pupils. With a higher mean score, female students were revealed to be more emotionally intelligent. There were no significant differences in emotional intelligence between UG and PG students. According to mean value, UG students had higher levels of emotional intelligence.

Mehmood and Saleem (2019) conducted a study on, “Comparison of Emotional Intelligence Among University Graduates”. Students enrolled in several faculties at the University of Gujarat comprised the study's population. Those who were enrolled in the University of Gujarat's Faculty of Natural Science and Social Science made up the study's population. The study's sample was chosen using a multistage sampling process. 305 students, 106 in the scientific sciences and 199 in the social sciences, made up the study's sample size. According to the study, students in the second and eighth semesters, as well as those studying social science and natural science, differed significantly in their emotional intelligence.

Ali et. al., (2021) in their investigation, “Emotional Intelligence of University Students: Gender Based Comparison” aimed to investigate the gender-based differences in emotional intelligence. The research design was a survey. All University of Malakand students enrolled in BS (Hons.) programs made up the research population. 180 BS (Hons.) students from universities were chosen, 67 of whom were female and 113 of whom were male. Out of all the university departments, six were chosen at random. It was a multi-stage random selection since thirty subjects were chosen at random from BS classes in each department. Data was

gathered using the Self-Report Measure of Emotional Intelligence (SRMEI) questionnaire. SPSS was used to analyse the data. The independent samples t-test was the test used to analyse the data. The study's findings demonstrated that male pupils outperformed female students in terms of emotional intelligence. While there was no significant difference on the interpersonal skills subscale, male students outperformed female students in the areas of emotional self-regulation and emotional self-awareness.

AL-Qadri and Zhao (2021) conducted a study, “Emotional Intelligence and Students’ Academic Achievement”. A total of 303 of ages 12-16, took part in the study. Academic achievement and pupils' emotional intelligence levels were revealed to be substantially positively correlated. The gender variable revealed statistically significant variations in the respondents' emotional intelligence scores. In contrast, the grade variable did not reveal any statistically significant differences in the respondents' emotional intelligence levels.

Ehteshamuddin (2022) in his study, “Emotional Intelligence of B.Ed. Trainee Teachers of Maharashtra (Aurangabad city); A study” found that- Students pursuing a B.Ed. in Aurangabad City have a moderate level of emotional intelligence. The male B.Ed. trainee instructors in Aurangabad city have a moderate level of emotional intelligence. The female B.Ed. trainee instructors in Aurangabad city have a moderate level of emotional intelligence.

El Faisal and Netrawati (2023) did a study on, “Emotional Intelligence Differences Between Male and Female Adolescents”. A sample of 290 students was chosen using the proportionate random selection technique, while the population employed in the study consisted of 1060 students enrolled in the 2022–2023 academic year at SMAN 1 Kampar Timur. Descriptive and comparative analysis methods, including the T-test, were used to process the data. Results indicated that there is no gender difference in middle-aged emotional intelligence, with 38.6% of students having moderate emotional intelligence, 37.2% of male adolescents having moderate emotional intelligence, and 35.9% of young women having moderate emotional intelligence.

Mathew et. al., (2022) in their research paper, “Impact of Emotional Intelligence on Adolescence” discussed that, Adolescence is a time of significant transition and developmental changes, so they must deal with a number of challenges that may impact their later years. They would be able to manage their own emotions and comprehend those of others if they had greater emotional intelligence. They would be able to handle a lot of behavioural issues and lead healthier lives if they had a higher level of emotional intelligence. The essay covered a number of variables that affect emotional intelligence, including age, gender, parental support, and others. Additionally, it covered the impact of emotional intelligence on teenage behaviour, mental health, and academic performance. Adolescents who want to improve their quality of life must have higher emotional intelligence.

Shah (2023) did a study on, “Emotional Intelligence Among Students of Secondary and Higher Secondary School”. There were 120 understudies in the sample, 60 of whom were from higher auxiliary school understudies (30 boys and 30 girls) and 60 of whom were from an optional school understudies (30 boys and 30 girls). The findings indicated that the mean emotional intelligence scores of secondary and upper secondary school pupils did not differ significantly. The emotional intelligence of the girls' school group is higher than that of the boys' school group. The emotional intelligence of the secondary school girls' group is higher than that of the secondary school boys' group.

Choudhary (2023) did a research on, “Emotional Intelligence: -A Comparative Study Among Higher Students at Ghaziabad Region”. sample of 100 upper-level students, both male and female, enrolled in undergraduate and graduate programs at various institutions of Chuaudhary Charan University in Meerut, were used for the study. A straightforward random procedure was used to gather the sample. Descriptive statistics such as mean, median, standard deviation, and t-test were used to analyse the collected data. The findings indicated that the pupils' levels of emotional intelligence were same.

Rather (2023) did research on, “A Comparative Study of Emotional Intelligence and Academic Achievement Among Government and Private Secondary

School Students”. Using a random selection technique, 102 secondary school pupils were chosen as a sample. The findings indicated that while there was no difference in emotional intelligence between pupils attending government and private secondary schools, there was a notable difference in academic achievement between the two groups. Additionally, the researcher discovered a strong and favourable correlation between academic success and emotional intelligence.

Bykova et. al (2024) conducted a study on, “The Role of Emotional Intelligence in Making Successful Financial Decisions” aimed to determine how emotional intelligence affected how well financiers made decisions. The Rathus Assertiveness Schedule, the Melbourne Decision Making Questionnaire, the Schubert Risk Propensity Test, and the Emotional/Empathy Quotient (EQ) test were all employed. The results were statistically processed using regression analysis, ANOVA, and descriptive analysis. According to the study, financial professionals who possess high emotional intelligence are more likely to take risks, be assertive, and make "vigilance" decisions. It has been demonstrated that emotional intelligence accounts for 48% of assertiveness, the "vigilance" decision-making style, and risk inclination.

Farooq et. al (2024) aimed to find in their paper, “Meta-analysis: Investigating the Emotional Intelligence Among Undergraduate Students”, the EI of Pakistani students by performing a meta-analysis that focused on gender disparities and the influence of education. A meta-analysis of peer-reviewed research published between January 2020 and June 2024 was conducted using a variety of databases, including Google Scholar, SCOPUS, and Mendeley. The results showed that emotional intelligence (EI) had a major impact on social interactions, personal growth, and academic success. Emotional intelligence (EI) skills like self-awareness, empathy, and emotional control were critical for pupils' overall development, even in the face of slight gender variations.

2.2 Review on Cognitive Styles

Lewis (1971) in his study, “Sex Differences in Cognitive Style” claimed that 61 college students' associations between markers of masculinity-femininity (M-f)

and cognitive style were investigated. Certain M-f dimensions were substantially correlated with cognitive style performance, particularly in girls, even if the overall association was minimal. Students who react negatively to items that deal with feelings of disgust and sympathy also seemed to be field dependent in their cognitive style behaviour.

Doebler and Eicke (1979) in their article, “Effects of Teacher Awareness of the Educational Implications of Field-dependent/Field-independent Cognitive Style on Selected Classroom Variables”, 296 5th graders and their teachers from three different schools had their cognitive styles evaluated. Teachers from two of the schools participated in a workshop where they learned about the field-dependent/independent cognitive types and their pedagogical consequences. Prior to the workshop and at the end of the experiment, students in the three schools were given measures of their attitude toward school and self-concept (such as the School Sentiment Index and the Self Appraisal Inventory). ANOVAs showed that the two experimental schools had significantly higher post-test scores on both metrics.

Njus et.al (1981) in their paper, “Cognitive Style, Teaching Mode, and Learning Outcomes” highlighted that using a partially balanced design, the impact of field-dependence-independence (FDI) on mastery of inquiry skills and subject-matter achievement was investigated. Twelve full classrooms from Iowa high schools were used for the field study. The analysis of variance revealed no significant F values for the covariates—minutes of instruction, teaching mode, and prior achievement—or the main effects. Furthermore, no classroom showed a significant regression of FDI on attainment.

Onyejiaku (1982) in his paper, “Cognitive Styles, Instructional Strategies, and Academic Performance” discovered that a 2 x 2 design was created by combining the analytical and nonanalytic aspects of cognitive types with expository and discovery teaching techniques. There were five exams. In each of the two experimental schools, subjects were chosen based on their cognitive preferences. The impact of the two teaching approaches and cognitive styles on the retention and transfer of mathematics tasks were assessed by analyzing the students' post-test scores following seven weeks

of training in the subject, which was divided into two one-hour sessions per week. Significant F ratios for the primary effect of cognitive style were demonstrated by the ANCOVA. The expository group's analytical boys outperformed the nonanalytic ones in terms of scores. There was no discernible primary influence of training approaches, according to the analyses. Regarding teaching strategies or cognitive processes, there was never a discernible difference for girls.

Burkhalter and Schaer (1985) studied, "The Effect of Cognitive Style and Cognitive Learning in a Nontraditional Educational Setting". A median split from the Group Embedded Figures Test was used to categorize 332 male pupils, ages 11 to 15. The field-independent group had the highest adjusted mean score on the cognitive measure, according to the results of the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), which revealed a significant gain difference. Even in an enhanced, unconventional, immersive aerospace environment, field-dependent students did not do as well as field-independent students, which was contrary to the hypothesis. The results support the research that suggested that regardless of the learning environment, those with field-independent differentiation are more likely to demonstrate cognitive gain—that is, learn more—when studying scientific material.

Cranston and Mc Cort (1985) studied "A Learner Analysis Experiment: Cognitive Style versus Learning Style in Undergraduate Nursing Education". 60 nursing students who were enrolled in an introductory clinical nursing course at a Southwest regional community college made up the sample. The subjects received different learner analysis tools and were split into experimental and control groups at random. A learning style evaluation was given to the 30 students in the experimental group, and a cognitive style mapping examination was given to the 30 students in the control group.

Over the next semester, performance information was gathered from five assessments that covered the following modules: "Basis Human Needs;" "Communications and Professional Ethics;" "Pharmacology," "Death and Oncology," and "Emergency Care, Fluids, and Electrolytes." No significant differences ($p=.05$) in performance between the experimental and control groups were found when the data

was analysed using t-tests. The evaluation data's mean scores did show that the control group performed somewhat better in four of the five courses.

Riding and Pearson (1994) studied “Relationship between Cognitive Style and Intelligence” and 119 (12–13-year-old) middle school students (63 males and 56 females) were used to examine the relationship between intelligence, as determined by the abbreviated version of the British Abilities Scales, and the Wholist–Analytic and Verbal-Imagery style dimensions, as determined by the Cognitive Styles Analysis. There were hardly no associations between the styles and intellect. There was also an embedded shapes test, which showed a strong correlation with intelligence but not with style. When the impact of intellect and style on academic success was examined across a variety of topics, it was found that both intelligence and style had a substantial main effect.

Riding and Sadler-Smith (1997) prepared a paper, “Cognitive Style and Learning Strategies: Some Implications for Training Design” and stated that it is frequently assumed that all trainees will learn in a similar way while creating instructional materials. The significant problem of individual variations in cognitive style was disregarded by this method. According to him, cognitive style is the way a person consistently arranges and processes information when they are thinking. Style reflects qualitative rather than quantitative distinctions in people's thought processes and does not seem to be related to IQ. The authors contended that while admitting learning style, traditional training design approaches seem to lack the theoretical and empirical foundations necessary to recognize the significant influence of cognitive style on learning success.

Sadler-Smith (2001) in his study, “The Relationship Between Learning Style and Cognitive Style”. The study investigated how learning style, as operationalized in the Learning Styles Inventory (LSI), and cognitive style, as assessed by the Cognitive Styles Analysis (CSA), related to each other. The connection between learning preferences and styles was also investigated. The findings of correlational and main components analysis indicated that: learning style and cognitive style are independent, gender mediates the relationship between style and preference, and the

Learning Style Inventory evaluates two characteristics as proposed by Kolb (transformation and comprehension).

Evans (2004) studied, “Exploring the Relationship between Cognitive Style and Teaching Style”. The study employed an experimental sample of 84 trainee teachers who were enrolled full-time in a single English institution and studied for a Post Graduate Certificate in Education in a variety of subject-specialization areas for a year. After students' cognitive styles were evaluated, individuals who scored higher on the extremes were chosen to take part in semi-structured interviews. Each student was paired with a subject specialist mentor, and 77% of respondents (n=59) answered a survey about how they felt their PGCE student taught. The four cognitive styles were shown to differ significantly in their approaches to teaching and learning. Gender differences were also observed, with males who were wholist-imagers adopting the most wholist approach and females who were analytical-verbalizers adopting the most analytical style in the classroom. Students with more severe cognitive types had different teaching philosophies, according to qualitative study. Compared to analytical students, wholists were more sensitive to contextual elements such the school's atmosphere, mentor support, and their capacity for taking criticism.

Sadler-Smith (2004) in the article, “Cognitive Style and the Management of Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises” stated that the concepts of analysis and intuition are conceived within a cognitive style framework that distinguishes between the local and global organization of information in memory and the logical and intuitive processing of information. A variety of management behaviours, including decision-making, are believed to be impacted by such styles. The contingency viewpoint, which postulated that environmental instability moderates the relationship between style and performance, was used to analyse the association between managers' cognitive styles and company performance. Data from managing directors and owner-managers of small and medium-sized businesses in two different industries served as the study's foundation. Environmental instability did not seem to have any moderating effect on the positive correlation between intuitive decision-making style and current financial and non-financial performance. Additionally, a

statistically significant correlation was found between the financial performance that followed and the intuitive decision-making approach.

McGinn et.al (2005) studied, “The Relationship Between Parenting Style, Cognitive Style, and Anxiety and Depression”. Through the mediating effects of cognitive style, the study investigated the association between early experiences of low care, enhanced control, abuse and neglect, and symptoms of sadness and anxiety. It was discovered that those who felt their parents were more abusive and negligent also had higher levels of depression, and that dysfunctional cognitive style acted as a mediating factor in this association.

Arnup et.al (2013) examined in their paper, “Cognitive Style and Gender Differences in Children’s Mathematics Achievement”. They took a sample of 190 Australian primary school pupils, ages 8 to 11. The study examined the relationship between gender, math achievement, and verbal imagery and holistic-analytic cognitive styles ($M = 9.77$, $SD = 1.05$). It was predicted that men would score better than women on tests of mathematical achievement and that gender would influence mathematical performance in conjunction with cognitive style. There was a substantial interaction between cognitive type and gender. The idea that different cognitive styles had distinct effects on boys' and girls' performance in mathematics is supported by the fact that boys with an analytical/imagery style performed noticeably better than girls with the same style.

Kamble (2014) on research paper, “Cognitive Styles are Varied with Academic Achievement among College Students” claimed that academic success is correlated with different cognitive styles. The data was analysed using Scheffe's post-hoc multiple analyses and one-way analysis of variance. The results showed that, in contrast to intuitive cognitive styles, students' levels of systematic cognitive styles varied with academic achievement. Dr. Praveen Kumar Jha's standardized cognitive style questionnaire was used in the study to evaluate 120 college students' cognitive styles.

Renjith (2014) conducted a study on, “Cognitive Style of Prospective Teachers in Malappuram District” and discovered that 15% of students had a low

cognitive style, 65% had a medium one, and 20% had a better one. The undifferentiated and systematic styles of social science and English professors differed significantly. Between UG and PG prospective teachers with integrated and split styles, there were notable differences.

Saxena et. al., (2014) in their study, “Impact of Cognitive Style on Problem Solving Ability among Undergraduates” found that the capacity of undergraduate students with integrated and split styles to solve problems was not significantly affected by their cognitive styles. Likewise, there was no significant effect of cognitive style on the ability of male college students with integrated and split styles to solve problems. The capacity of integrated and split-style females to solve problems differed significantly. The capacity of science and non-science pupils to solve problems was also found to differ significantly.

Simuth and Sarmany-Schuller (2014) in “Cognitive Style Variable in E-learning” revealed that the findings of the study did not show that the analytic-intuitive and category breadth aspects of cognitive style had a statistically significant effect on how e-learning was perceived. According to Simuth and Sarmany-Schuller (2008), the correlation coefficient ranged from $r=0.02$ to $r=0.16$, $p<0.05$, and $n=234$. These findings led to the hypothesis that a more sophisticated instrument was required to examine the cognitive style variable in e-learning in greater detail.

Sowbagiavathy and Joseph (2014) conducted a study, “Cognitive Style Among B.Ed., Student Teachers in Kalakurichi Town”. 300 B.Ed. student instructors were chosen for the purposes from five Kalakurichi town colleges. Dr. Praveen Kumar Jha's cognitive style inventory was the instrument utilized to gather the data. Regarding the background variable, it was discovered that their cognitive style was unaffected by their gender or family residence. However, the student teacher's age, educational background, and B.Ed. affected their cognitive approach.

Naurzalina et.al (2015) in their study, “Cognitive Style and Gender Differences in Spatial Abilities” showed that one well-known field of study was the impact of cognitive styles on spatial abilities. In mental rotation tasks, they examined the relationship between gender and Field Dependence (FD)/Field Independence (FI).

The spatial test (compass) and the field dependent/independent score from the Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT) comprised the two respondent variables. Only 40 of the 118 persons they examined displayed classic FI and FD. There was no significant variation in cognitive styles between the sexes. Their study's key new finding was how cognitive style affects mental rotation ability. Compared to women, men typically spend less time and make fewer mistakes.

Kumar and Baliya (2016) conducted research on, “Cognitive Styles among College Level Students of Jammu Region in Relation to Their Gender”. 290 college-level scientific students from the Jammu region made up the study's sample, which was chosen using a multistage random selection technique. The researcher employed Dr. Praveen Kumar Jha's Cognitive Style Inventory, a standardized instrument, to collect data. The results of the study showed that among college-level scientific students, there were no discernible gender differences in the systematic, intuitive, integrated, undifferentiated, and split cognitive styles.

Martínez-Bernal et.al (2016) conducted a study, “Relationships between Learning Achievement, Self-Monitoring, Cognitive Style, and Learning Style in Medical Students”. 130 medical students who were enrolled in a university in Bogotá, Colombia, from the sixth to the tenth semesters participated in the study. Students' Grade Point Average (GPA), metacognitive self-monitoring (assessed by the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire; MSLQ), cognitive styles (assessed by the Embedded Figures Test; EFT), and learning styles as reported in the Grasha inventory were all compared using a bivariate correlation. The results indicated that while avoidant and dependent learning styles were negatively correlated with learning achievement, cognitive style, the application of metacognitive methods, and participatory and competitive learning styles were positively correlated.

Tribhuvan (2016) conducted research, “Achievement Motivation as a Function of Cognitive Style among Students”. The findings indicated that the mean score on achievement motivation for students with positive cognitive styles was 26.15, which was significantly higher than the mean score for students with negative

cognitive styles (11.48). Additional inferential comparison, such as the "t" test ($t = 26.30$, $P < 0.01$, 198), revealed a significant difference in achievement motivation between students with both positive and negative cognitive styles. Thus, it was determined that students' cognitive styles determine their degree of achievement motivation, with students with positive cognitive styles displaying higher levels of achievement motivation than students with negative cognitive styles.

Jain et. al., (2017) in their paper, 'Cognitive Styles of Adolescent Students in Relation to their Stress Level' conducted to learn how stress affects teenage students' cognitive styles. One hundred undergraduate students from several colleges in Bhilai (Chhattisgarh) participated in the study. It was determined that stress had no discernible effect on the cognitive style of a male college student. However, it was discovered that stress had a major effect on the cognitive styles of female undergraduate students.

Jena et.al (2017) conducted a study, "YouTube and Skype Modes of Virtual Learning Performance in Relations to Cognitive Styles of Students". Twenty ninth- (29th) grade students from two English-medium secondary schools in Silchar Town, Assam, India, were chosen at random to participate in the experiment. Regression analysis was the foundation of a quasi-experimental design that was used to evaluate and correlate the effects of variables. Ten students from class IX at school 1 were assigned to the YouTube learning group, while ten students from class IX at school 2 were assigned to the Skype learning group. The findings showed that whereas extroversion, sensing, thinking, and judging had no significant link with YouTube learning ability, perceiving, feeling, introversion, and intuition had a hierarchical significant relationship. Additionally, it was found that there is no hierarchical association between Skype learning performance and judging, thinking, sensing, or extroversion.

Kumar and Baliya (2017) in their study, "A Study of College Students' cognitive Style in Jammu Division" compared the gender and location-based cognitive styles of college students enrolled in Jammu Division's government degree colleges. The sample, which consisted of 1000 college students from the Jammu

division, was chosen using a multistage randomized process. A standardized instrument called the Cognitive Style Inventory, created by Dr. Praveen Kumar Jha, was employed to collect data. In terms of gender and location, the results showed no significant variations in the systematic, intuitive, integrated, undifferentiated, and divided cognitive styles of college students.

Kumar and Baliya (2017) did a study on, “Study on Mental Health Among College Students with Respect to Their Cognitive Styles”. Descriptive and survey research methods were employed by the investigator. 280 students (140 males and 140 females) were selected using a multi-stage randomized sampling process. According to the study's findings, male and female college students with systematic styles differed significantly in their mental health but not in their physical health. Additionally, there were no significant variations in the physical and emotional well-being of male and female college students with intuitive styles.

Sellah et.al (2017) prepared a paper, “Analysis of Student-Teacher Cognitive Styles Interaction: An Approach to Understanding Learner Performance”. The population was made up of all pupils from 60 schools in Kenya's 47 counties that had been promoted to national school status. Three counties' worth of six schools were chosen at random. One Form Four class was chosen at random from the sampled schools. The sample consisted of 6 academic masters, 6 teachers, and 293 students in total. A Cognitive Styles Inventory, an Academic Masters interview guide, and mark record forms were used to gather data. ANOVA, t-test, and correlation analyses were performed on the data using SPSS Version 20. The study found two compelling findings: (i) there was a significant difference in performance when the four dimensions of cognitive styles interact, and (ii) students whose cognitive styles matched their teachers' to a 100% degree performed the worst on both the mock and KCSE Chemistry exams. Additionally, they showed a significantly lower improvement between the two exams than students with lower levels of match.

Singh (2017) mentioned in his article, “Exploring the Relationship between Cognitive Style and Learning Style with Academic Achievement of Elementary School Learners” revealed that since it established the groundwork for subsequent

learning, primary school education is a critical period. The findings showed a connection between cognitive style and learning style, which influences students' academic performance. Students with field dependents and field independents (cognitive style) have different learning styles, according to the data's findings. Since the learners' cognitive styles varied, he proposed that identifying them would enhance the learning process. It was also suggested that teachers may assisted their students in achieving the appropriate learning levels by adding knowledge about cognitive and learning styles to the curriculum.

Tomar and Sc (2017) conducted research, “Study of the Cognitive Style of Senior Secondary School Students with Respect to Their Streams”. 150 Senior Secondary School pupils from the Ghaziabad district were chosen by the researcher, 50 of whom had backgrounds in science, the arts, and commerce. The sample was gathered using a straightforward random sampling procedure. The researcher employed the Cognitive Style Inventory (CSI), which was developed and standardized by Praveen Kumar Jha in 2001, to gather data. To analyse the results, the Chi-square test was employed. After testing the hypothesis, it was discovered that secondary school students' cognitive styles differed significantly depending on their streams. According to the study's findings, secondary school pupils in the science stream are more likely to have an integrated cognitive style, those in the arts stream to have an intuitive cognitive style, and those in the commerce stream to have a split cognitive style.

Balasubramaniam and Sivakumar (2018) found the significance difference in cognitive style and academic achievement of higher secondary students in their paper, “Impact of Cognitive Style on Academic Achievement of Higher Secondary Students”. Survey method was adopted for the study. Three hundred upper secondary pupils from the Karur district and surrounding areas made up the sample. The technique of sample random sampling was applied. To get the data, a cognitive style instrument was employed. The 't' test was employed for analytical purposes. The study's conclusions were as follows: 1) The cognitive styles of male and female upper secondary pupils did not differ significantly. 2) The academic performance of

male and female higher secondary pupils differed significantly. 3) Higher secondary students' academic performance and cognitive style were significantly correlated.

Meng and Meng (2018) suggested in their study, “The Impact of Employees-Group Cognitive Style Congruence on Employees' Organizational Citizenship Behaviours: A Moderating Role of Emotional Intelligence” that congruence between employees' and groups' cognitive styles had a greater impact on employees' organizational citizenship behaviours than inconsistency between groups and employees. The relationship between congruence of cognitive styles and organizational citizenship behaviours is moderated by emotional intelligence. Thus, employees' organizational citizenship behaviours may be encouraged by the alignment of their cognitive styles with those of the group and their emotional intelligence.

Naz and Khan (2018) in their research, “Emotional Intelligence and Cognitive Styles: Moderating Role of Emotional Stability and Openness to Experience: Emotional Intelligence and Cognitive Styles” investigated the moderating role of Emotional Stability and Openness to Experience personality traits on EI and Cognitive Styles. Ten Item Personality Inventory (TIPI; Gosling, Rentfrow, & Swann, 2003), Self-Report Measure of Emotional Intelligence (SRMEI; Khan & Kamal, 2008), and Object-Spatial Imagery and Verbal Questionnaire (OSIVQ; Blazhenkova & Kozhevnikov, 2009) were administered to collect data from 3500 students. The association between Emotional Intelligence and Cognitive Styles is moderated by Emotional Stability. Conversely, the relationship between object cognitive style and emotional self-regulation is negatively moderated by openness to experience, while the relationship between verbal cognitive style and emotional self-awareness and spatial cognitive style and interpersonal skills is significantly moderated in a positive way.

Hooda and Devi (2018) in their article, “Significance of Cognitive Style for Academic Achievement in Mathematics” stated that there were five dimensions to cognitive style: integrated, intuitive, split, systematic, and undifferentiated. They recommended that teachers be warned by the ministry of education about the

significance of cognitive types in the teaching and learning process. When creating lesson plans and instructional materials, math teachers should consider students' cognitive types.

Renjith and Joshith (2018) conducted a study, “Learning Style in Relation to Cognitive Style of Prospective Teachers” to understand the connection between aspiring teachers' cognitive and learning styles. The investigation was conducted using the normative survey method. For the study, 200 student samples were gathered. The study's instruments were the Cognitive Style Inventory and the Learning Style Inventory. The findings showed that prospective teachers' cognitive and leaning styles were unaffected by gender variations. The subject of study had an impact on the cognitive and learning styles of future instructors, and there was a correlation between the two.

Nadaf et. al., (2019) in their article, “Cognitive Styles, Academic Achievement and Gender: A Study of Higher Education” examined the difference in cognitive styles and academic qualification on the basis of the gender. 397 students from the University of Kashmir and Central University of Kashmir's third semester were chosen as a sample. The cognitive styles were measured using the Praveen Kumar Jha-standardized Cognitive Style Inventory. While t-test analysis revealed no gender differences in cognitive style and academic qualification, correlational analysis revealed a favourable correlation between academic achievement and cognitive styles.

Nufus and Ariawan (2019) studied the “Relationship between Cognitive Style and Habits of Mind”. Students in the 4th semester of the Department of Mathematics Education at the Faculty of Tarbiyah and Teacher Training of UIN Suska Riau participated in the correlational study, which included students with a range of academic backgrounds. Using test methods and the GEFT question instrument, cognitive style data was gathered. A questionnaire instrument and a questionnaire dissemination technique were used to gather data on habits of thought. The Pearson Product Moment correlation test was the first step in the data analysis process. The significance test and the coefficient of determination were then used to determine the

strength of the association. The linear regression equation was then determined because the data showed a positive correlation. With a linear regression equation $y' = 36.35 + 0.31x$ and a relationship score of 6%, the findings indicated a substantial but modest link between cognitive style and habits of mind.

Nadaf et. al., (2019) conducted a study, “Cognitive Styles, Academic Achievement and Gender: A Study of Higher Education”. They looked at the gender-based differences in academic background and cognitive approaches. As a result, 397 students from the University of Kashmir and Central University of Kashmir's third semester were chosen as a sample. The cognitive styles were measured using the Praveen Kumar Jha-standardized Cognitive Style Inventory. While t-test analysis revealed no gender differences in cognitive style and academic qualification, correlational analysis revealed a favourable correlation between academic achievement and cognitive styles.

Syamsuddin et.al (2020) explored, “Understanding the Problem-Solving Strategy Based on Cognitive Style as a Tool to Investigate Reflective Thinking Process of Prospective Teacher.” Based on the variations in cognitive styles, the study described the reflective thinking abilities of aspiring teachers in resolving mathematics issues. The GEFT cognitive-style exam, an open-ended, non-routine mathematics problem-solving activity, and interview instructions based on the reflective thinking component were the instruments employed in the study. Cognitive field independent style (PTFI) and field dependent style (PTFD) are used by one aspiring instructor. According to research findings, PTFD has a reflective-dynamic characteristic since it tends to apply expertise to solve mathematical problems but is unable to employ the new information it contains. PTFI has reflective-generative characteristics since it tends to use the experience to apply the new information included in the problem to build the problem-solving method. Based on variances in cognitive styles, it was shown that prospective teachers' reflective thought processes differ in some ways.

Anil Jose and Sijin (2021) conducted a study on, “Cognitive Style and Self Confidence among College Students”. One hundred and twenty college students from

different colleges in the same district participated in the study. This study made use of the Cognitive Style Inventory and the Self Confidence Scale. The t-test, a statistical tool, was used to analyze the collected data. Although there was no difference in the usage of intuitive cognitive style between undergraduate and graduate students, the study did find that postgraduate students used systematic cognitive style more than undergraduate students.

Dixit & Ahmed (2021) prepared a research paper, “A Study of Cognitive Styles and Coping Skills among Adolescents”. 110 teenagers between the ages of 14 and 17 who were selected from Delhi/NCR schools made up the study's sample. Adolescents' cognitive styles and coping mechanisms were investigated using the Cognitive Style Inventory and Coping Strategies Inventory. The study's findings demonstrated that adolescents were more likely to use the systematic cognitive style than the intuitive cognitive style. Adolescents had a greater propensity for self-criticism, problem-solving, wishful thinking, and cognitive restructuring as coping mechanisms. Additionally, the study's results showed no discernible relationship between the variables measuring coping mechanisms and cognitive style.

Kaur and Sharma (2021) in the study, “Cognitive Styles as Related to Scientific Attitude Among Adolescents” attempted to study the relationship between cognitive styles and scientific attitude among adolescents. 400 teenagers from public and private schools spread across Punjab's four districts made up the sample. A straightforward random selection method was used to choose the districts, schools, and teenagers. It was descriptive in nature. According to the study's findings, adolescents' scientific attitudes and cognitive styles were significantly and favourably correlated with their gender, location, and kind of institution.

Narayanasamy and Vasudevan (2021) did research on, “A Study on Cognitive Style Among High School Teachers Working in Tribal Schools”. Using a straightforward random sampling procedure, the sample for the study was selected from among the high school instructors employed by tribal schools in Tamil Nadu state's Thiruppathur area. There were 120 high school instructors on it. This standardized tool, the Cognitive Style Inventory (CSI), was created by Praveen

Kumar Jha. According to the study, there were notable gender-based differences in the cognitive style patterns of high school instructors employed by tribal schools. Additionally, the study showed that teachers in tribal schools did not significantly differ in their cognitive style patterns based on their academic streams or geography.

Suryalatha (2021) investigated on, “Investigation of Prospective women Teacher’s Cognitive style in terms of Different Variables”. 350 aspiring female educators from the Coimbatore district were chosen by the researcher. The sample was gathered using a straightforward random sampling procedure. The Cognitive Style Inventory (CSI), developed and standardized by Praveen Kumar Jha in 2001, was employed by the researcher to gather data. The "t" test has been applied to the analysis of the results. After testing the hypothesis, it was discovered that prospective female teachers' cognitive styles differed significantly depending on the kind of institution they attended and where they lived.

Suryalatha (2021) conducted a study on, “Relationship of Cognitive Style with Academic Achievement Among Student Teachers”. The purpose of the study was to ascertain the academic achievement and cognitive style of student teachers in Tamil Nadu's Coimbatore area. The sample was gathered using the basic random sampling technique. For the study, 350 student teachers from all kinds of teacher education institutions participated. According to the findings, student instructors' academic achievement and cognitive style were significantly correlated.

Asy'ari and da Rosa (2022) studied in their paper, “Prospective Teachers’ Metacognitive Awareness in Remote Learning: Analytical Study Viewed from Cognitive Style and Gender”. The study used a quantitative approach using a survey method with 100 PST. The Metacognition Awareness Inventory (MAI) was used to measure PST metacognitive awareness, and the Group Embedded Figure Test (GEFT), which has been shown to be accurate and reliable through empirical research, was used to assess PST cognitive style. The Mann-Whitney test and the independent sample t-test were used to analyse the study data. PST metacognitive awareness was not substantially different based on gender differences ($p>0.05$), but it was significantly different based on cognitive style on procedural and conditional

knowledge indicators ($p < 0.05$). Furthermore, according to a survey of cognitive styles and gender variations, PST metacognitive awareness differed considerably on measures of procedural knowledge, conditional knowledge, planning, monitoring, debugging, and evaluation.

Stanikzai and Allahyar (2023) explored in their paper, “Effect of Cognitive Styles on Self-Efficacy among University Students”. 180 students in Afghanistan's public universities, 105 of whom were men and 75 of whom were women, ranging in age from 19 to 27 years, were evaluated. According to the findings, the majority of college students had systematic cognitive styles. According to the regression study, Afghan university students' self-efficacy has been positively impacted by their cognitive types.

Sudhakar and Kadiravan (2023) conducted a study on, “Mental Health of Nursing Students in Relation to their Emotional Intelligence and Cognitive Styles”. 294 nursing students were chosen from several colleges in Kerala, India's Kozhikode district. The data was gathered using the stratified random sampling approach. The findings showed that among nursing students, mental health was significantly positively correlated with both emotional intelligence and cognitive styles. Students' mental health was significantly impacted by their cognitive types and emotional intelligence.

Zhuo (2024) studied in his paper, “The Influence of Cognitive Style Differences on Foreign Language Learning Strategies”. On this basis, a combination of questionnaires and interviews were used to survey 150 foreign language learners from various schools. The findings show that students' cognitive styles have an impact on the strategies they employ to acquire a foreign language. While field-dependent students rely more on strategies including social and emotional support, students who are independent in their topic are more likely to employ metacognitive techniques. Additionally, the study found that teachers should employ more customized methods that consider each student's own cognitive style in order to optimize the effectiveness of instruction.

Somaa (2024) aimed to examine in the paper “The Flipped Classroom Approach: A Review of Cognitive Styles and Academic Performances”, the ways in which field-dependent and field-independent cognitive types are impacted by the flipped classroom method. In contrast to field-dependent students, the online component of the flipped classroom benefits field-independent students and helps them perform better during an in-class session. The advantages of the flipped classroom for both field-dependent and field-independent students are also covered in the review.

2.3 Review on Academic Adjustment

Elias (2009) studied, “Academic Adjustment among Second Year Students in Malaysian Universities.” 647 second-year students from two public and two private institutions in Malaysia participated in the study, which looked at how well-adjusted they were in connection to a number of psychological factors, including emotional intelligence and self-esteem. The results indicated that students were not adjusting well to university life, with the majority of respondents (70.2%) having a moderate level of adjustment. According to correlation analysis, students' overall adjustment with self-esteem ($r=.52$, $p<.05$) and emotional intelligence ($r=.39$, $p<.05$) were positively and significantly correlated. Self-esteem and emotional intelligence jointly account for 27.5% of the variance in kids' overall adjustment, according to regression study.

Tamilselvi and Rajaguru (2010) in their study, “A Study of Adjustment Problems and Academic Achievement of Students at College Level” revealed that academic achievement is significantly impacted by the student's emotional, social, educational, and home transition issues. To put it another way, pupils who had stronger coping strategies were able to accomplish well academically. The researcher recommended that the students be exposed to (i) group projects and assignments, (ii) yoga and meditation practice, and (iii) guidance and counselling in order to strengthen their ability to change. 300 second-year undergraduate students in the arts and sciences participated in the study, and an adjustment inventory was used to

assess their adjustment issues. The study's variables included the parents' annual income, sex, community, domicile, and level of education.

Malek et.al (2011) prepared research paper “The Effectiveness of Emotional Intelligence Training Program on Social and Academic Adjustment among First Year University Students”. Two groups of first-year students from two institutions in north Jordan participated in the quasi-experimental pre-post design study (289). While the control group received only pre-post questionnaires, the experimental group received emotional intelligence training for 10 days in sessions lasting an hour to an hour and a half. The training program considerably increased the degree of emotional intelligence among the groups, according to the results of the ANCOVA analysis; however, the improvements in social and academic adjustment were not statistically significant. In general, older and female students outperformed their younger counterparts in all dependent variables; however, the findings for academic and social adjustment were not statistically significant.

Zhu (2012) on “Academic Adjustment of Chinese Students at German Universities as inspired by Anderson’s Cognitive, Affective, and Behavioral Model” explored Chinese students’ academic adjustment. The study discovered that difficulties in the first phase are caused by Chinese students' inadequate pre-departure preparation (language and knowledge of German universities). Since they were completely unfamiliar with the academically oriented material in Germany, Chinese students frequently refer to the first experience as a "catastrophe." Chinese students reported improving their German language skills and learning about German universities during the developing phase, which helps them advance. Chinese students demonstrate comprehension and gratitude for the expectations at German universities in the last stage. The study also discovered that Chinese students' academic adjustment at German universities is influenced by their proficiency in the German language, academic support, and individual effort.

Chauhan (2013) conducted “A Study on Adjustment of Higher Secondary School Students of Durg District on 111 Higher Secondary Students of Durg District”, to ascertain their adjustment. Data was gathered using the A.K.P., Sinha, and R.P. Singh adjustment scale. According to the results of the t-test, there was a

significant difference in the adjustment of students in higher secondary school, and female students fared better than male students in terms of adjustment.

Sam (2013) studied, *Academic Adjustment Issues in a Malaysian Research University: The Case of Cambodian, Laotian, Burmese, and Vietnamese Postgraduate Students Experiences*. A convenient sample of 17 individuals, comprising 6 Cambodian, 4 Laotian, 2 Myanmar, and 5 Vietnamese postgraduate students (47, 05% females, and 52, 94% males), who had attended Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM), were chosen for the study. According to the results, the most challenging issue with academic adjustment is the English language barrier in their new learning environment. They must work hard in their studies, get better at English, and build positive relationships with their thesis advisors, academic staff, and fellow postgraduate students in order to address these issues.

Rajab et.al (2014) on “Academic and Social Adjustment of International Undergraduates: A Quantitative Approach” examined the college adjustment of international undergraduates in Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM). The Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire (SACQ) was filled out by 378 international undergraduate students. Social Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 18 was used to analyze the data for means and percentages. According to the findings, the majority of UTM's international undergraduate students have a moderate level of academic, social, emotional, and institutional adjustment. They recommended that in order to improve the adjustment of international undergraduates to the institution, this study should assist different units in developing better strategic plans.

Amin et.al (2016) studied, “Emotional Intelligence and Adjustment Among Adolescents”. One hundred samples were used in the investigation, and they were split evenly between two groups (girls and boys). High socioeconomic status (HSES) and low socioeconomic status (LSES) were the two subgroups into which these two groups were further separated. Data was gathered using the emotional intelligence scale created and standardized by Schutte et al. and the adjustment inventory created and standardized by Dr. H.S. Asthana. The t-test, mean, S.D., and SE D were used to analyze the data. The findings showed that while there was a substantial difference

between the adjustment scores of the same group, there was an insignificant difference between the emotional intelligence scores of boys and girls. Additionally, there was no discernible difference in the adjustment and emotional intelligence scores of LSES and HSES students.

Al-Mseidin et.al (2017) investigated “The Relationship between Social and Academic Adjustment among Secondary Female Students in Jordan”. One hundred pupils from a single school were analysed. The analysis's findings suggested that there was a medium degree of academic adjustment (66%) and a high level of social adjustment (60%) overall. Furthermore, the sum of the Academic Adjustment and the sum of the Social Adjustment have a positive statistically significant connection (0.552). The total association between academic and social adaptations was assessed using Pearson correlation. Students' intellectual and social scores were found to be strongly positively correlated.

Alam and Halder (2017) studied “Adjustment and Academic Achievement of the Secondary Students” and examined how secondary students' academic performance and adjustment varied according to their gender and religion. They also calculated the relationship between the two for class IX students at Bengali-medium secondary schools in the Dakshin Dinajpur District of West Bengal that are affiliated with the West Bengal Board of Secondary Education. To get the necessary data, the researchers created a teacher-made accomplishment test and used an adjustment inventory. They used ANOVA and t-tests to determine the differences between the sub-samples and the Pearson Product Moment Method to determine the relationship. The study found no significant differences in the pupils' adjustment based on their gender or religion. There was no difference in academic accomplishment between male and female students based on their religion, although there was a notable difference in academic achievement between the two groups. The study also looked at the medium-strong positive relationship between academic success and adjustment.

Jain et.al (2017) conducted research, “Impact of Metacognitive Awareness on Academic Adjustment and Academic Outcome of the Students”. There were 522

male and female undergraduate and graduate students that participated in the study. The participants' academic adjustment and metacognitive awareness were assessed using the Academic Adjustment Scale (Anderson et al., 2016) and Metacognitive Awareness Inventory (Schraw & Dennison, 1994). Other than the academic accomplishment and academic outcome of the male and female participants, the study's findings showed no gender differences in metacognition or academic adjustment. The study's findings also showed that academic accomplishments, overall academic adjustment, and academic outcome were positively correlated with scores on declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge, conditional knowledge, planning, information management, monitoring, debugging, evaluation components of metacognition, and overall metacognitive awareness. On the other hand, it was discovered that the academic lifestyle scores of the male, female, and all participants were negatively connected with the planning and evaluation scores. Finally, the study showed that the scores on academic life style, academic achievements, overall academic adjustment, and academic outcome were significantly influenced by the scores on declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge, conditional knowledge, planning, information management, monitoring, debugging, evaluation components of metacognition, and overall metacognitive awareness.

Jain (2017) in the paper “Adjustment among College Students” found that the majority of undergraduate college students had good adjustment, followed by high adjustment (38.6%), medium adjustment (36%), and low adjustment (25.6%). UG Comparing first-, second-, and third-year students revealed that first-year students had a lower degree of adjustment than second- and third-year students. Students in their third year have the highest adjustment value. 35% of first-year students, 39% of second-year students, and 42% of third-year students had high adjustment. First-year students showed a medium adjustment rate of 29.5%, second-year students 37%, and third-year students 41%. 35.5% of first-year students, 24% of second-year students, and 17% of third-year students showed poor adjustment. Compared to ladies, college boys in UG classes have higher levels of adjustment. 33% of girls exhibit high adjustment, compared to 45% of boys. Medium adjustment was displayed by 35% of

girls and 34% of boys. Low adjustment was seen in 29% of females and 22% of boys.

Egbule (2018) investigated, “The Influence of Emotional Intelligence, Peer Pressure and Academic Stress on the Academic Adjustment among School Children”.

Three thousand (3000) secondary school pupils were chosen at random from schools in the six states that make up Nigeria's South-South zone. The tool utilized to acquire the data was a questionnaire. For the study questions and hypotheses, the data was examined using regression statistics and the Pearson coefficient of determination, respectively. The findings indicated that academic stress, peer pressure, and emotional intelligence significantly affect secondary school pupils' academic adjustment, but parental socioeconomic position had no discernible impact. The outcome also demonstrated that the dependent variable is greatly influenced by the combined contributions of all independent variables.

Gaspar and Baharudin (2018) studied, “The Socio-Cultural and Academic Adjustment of Undergraduate International Students in Segi University”. The findings indicated that, with percentages of 74.7% and 53.8%, respectively, students in the sociocultural adjustment construct have no trouble (no difficulty and not very difficult) using the transportation system and finding a convenient way to worship. However, when it came to academic adjustment, 83% and 87% of the pupils, respectively, had no trouble conversing or writing in English. However, with only 46% and 56% each, the students have demonstrated their incapacity to adapt socio culturally, particularly when it comes to navigating bureaucracy and communicating their ideas. The same situation occurred when it came to comprehending the lecturer's accent and handling assignment problems, with relatively low percentages of 53% and 62% for overall no difficult and not very tough, respectively.

Hapsari and Hamamah (2019) in their study, “International Students in Indonesia: A Study on Academic and Socio-Cultural Adjustment” revealed that the growing number of international students in Indonesia's higher education system has pushed institutions to focus on students' academic and non-academic transition

processes. The level of schooling, the social groups they contact with, and the services and facilities offered by institutions all play a crucial role in their assimilation. A cross-sectional study conducted among international students at a renowned Indonesian university identified certain challenges they face as they adjust to their new academic and sociocultural environments. Communication problems were mostly caused by a discrepancy in the language proficiency and usage of the lecturers and students. Different academic workloads, instructional methods, and assessment systems were the source of additional challenges. In terms of sociocultural adaption, the students continued to rely heavily on the help of their nation's community organizations since integrating programs, services, and facilities that support their lives—particularly outside of universities—need to be significantly improved.

Ikpe et.al (2021) in their study, “Emotional Intelligence and Academic Adjustment of Second-Year University Students in Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria” investigated the relationship between the personal skills of EI and academic adjustment of second-year University students in Akwa Ibom State. The correlational design was adopted. All second-year students from two universities in the state of Akwa Ibom made up the study's population. Using the Taro Yamane Sampling formula, 500 students were chosen as a sample for the study. A straightforward random sample procedure was used to select the subjects. The standardized "National Health Service Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire" (NHSEIQ) and "Academic Adjustment Scale" (AAS) were used as the data collection tools. The findings showed that academic adjustment and emotional intelligence were significantly positively correlated. The data analysis's findings led to the conclusion that second-year university students' academic adjustment requires emotional intelligence.

Sahoo and Kharwar (2023) in their review of the article, “Academic Adjustment in Later Adolescence- Challenges and Possible Coping Strategies” stated that students' patterns of adjustment in their schooling and academics are the focus of academic adjustment. The review article's main objective is to analyse the research and studies that have already been done on a variety of adjustment problems and difficulties that later-adolescent pupils encounter and that impair their general

development. They added that in order to guarantee students' total development, social agents must address academic adjustment and related issues as soon as feasible. According to the review article's findings, academic adjustment is crucial to assuring students' academic success.

Nezhadasadi and Safarzadeh (2024) conducted a study on, “Relationships of Optimal Online Learning with Academic Aptitude, Effort, And Context Mediated by Academic Adjustment.” population made up of all students registered at Ahvaz City, Iran's universities for the 2022–2023 school year. Purposive sampling was used to choose 300 college students for the descriptive-correlational study, and they were requested to complete the Academic Self-Efficacy Questionnaire (ASEQ), Online Education Questionnaire (OEQ), and Academic Adjustment Questionnaire (AAQ). The results of the study showed that college students' academic adjustment was positively and significantly correlated with aptitude, effort, and situation. Furthermore, the best online learning outcomes were positively impacted by effort, context, and academic adjustment. The results showed no correlation between students' aptitude and the best online learning environment. Through their effects on academic adjustment, aptitude, effort, and context were also found to have indirect but significant influence on the best online learning experience.

Lan et. al. (2024) conducted a study, “Academic Adjustment of Freshmen in Cambodian Higher Education Institutions: A Systematic Literature Review”. 20 published papers on the academic adjustment of first-year students at Cambodian higher education institutions, published between 2014 and 2023, were critically compiled in this systematic literature review. Using an exploratory design and qualitative study approaches, researchers collected and assessed pertinent literature on first-year student difficulties, adjustment-influencing factors, academic adjustment tactics, and adjustment intervention outcomes. Reputable databases provided the data, and thematic analysis was performed using Clark and Braunne's Thematic Analysis model on articles that satisfied predetermined criteria. The results emphasized the difficulties faced by first-year students, including poor academic performance, problems with social identity, limited funds, and language hurdles. Social, personal-emotional, and institutional factors all have an impact on

adjustment, which emphasized the value of coping mechanisms and social support. A good work-life balance, efficient time management, and the use of support services were the key focuses of academic adjustment strategies. The goals of the intervention were to improve the academic performance, mental health, and retention rates of first-year students.

Directorate (2024) conducted research on, “Academic Adjustment and Its Relationship to Psychological Stress Among Students of The Department of Physical Education and Sports Sciences.” The study sought to determine two factors such as academic adaptation and psychological stress among students in the Department of Physical Education and Sports Sciences: - College of Basic Education - University of Diyala for the academic year 2023-2024. Students from the Department of Physical Education and Sports Sciences were selected as the research community, and the researcher employed the descriptive technique in the correlational relationships method to fit the needs of the study. University of Diyala sports were representative of the population, and the researcher chose the 90 pupils in the research sample at random. The SPSS software was utilized to statistically analyse the psychological stress scale and the academic adjustment scale. The researcher concluded that students faced pressures, and that there was a relationship between the variables on psychological strain and academic adjustment. Notwithstanding the students' diverse skill levels, the researcher suggested that instructors and coaches should be mindful of university students' psychological needs while they played sports.

2.4 Review on the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Cognitive styles

Alexander et.al (2014) in their study, “Emotional intelligence and Optimistic Cognitive Style in Certainty in Career Decision Making” tested if sentiments of assurance in choosing a vocation were predicted by the combination of trait emotional intelligence variables and optimistic cognitive style. Participants came from a convenience sample of 142 college students who filled out a paper-and-pencil survey that included the Career Decision Scale (CDS), the Trait Emotional

Intelligence Scale (TEIQue), and the Life Orientation Test-Revised (which evaluates optimism). Several of the TEIQue's subscales and the four primary domains—wellbeing, self-control, emotionality, and sociability—as well as optimism were found to have a strong correlation with career assurance. Stability-Impulsivity, a facet in the Self-Control domain of the TEIQue, was found to be a unique significant predictor of career sure. However, when the stability-impulsiveness factor was taken into consideration, optimism did not play a role in predicting career certainty. Low impulsivity and self-control were predictors of career assurance. It appeared that career commitment (certainty) is aided by consistency in thought and behaviour.

Dhawan (2016) in her research, “A Study of Emotional Intelligence, Cognitive Styles and Personality Types of Academically Talented and Average Students” investigated on different variables and found that the different aspects of emotional intelligence did not differ between children who were intellectually ordinary and those who were academically gifted. On the other hand, typical pupils were field dependent, while academically gifted students were independent. Additionally, compared to gifted children, typical students tended to be more extraverted.

Naz and Khan (2018) investigated, “The Moderating Role of Emotional Stability and Openness to Experience Personality Traits on EI and Cognitive Styles”. Ten Item Personality Inventory (TIPI; Gosling, Rentfrow, & Swann, 2003), Self-Report Measure of Emotional Intelligence (SRMEI; Khan & Kamal, 2008), and Object-Spatial Imagery and Verbal Questionnaire (OSIVQ; Blazhenkova & Kozhevnikov, 2009) were administered to collect data from 3500 students. The association between Emotional Intelligence and Cognitive Styles was modulated by Emotional Stability. Conversely, the relationship between object cognitive style and emotional self-regulation was negatively moderated by openness to experience, while the relationship between verbal cognitive style and emotional self-awareness and between spatial cognitive style and interpersonal skills was significantly moderated in a positive way.

Naz et.al (2019) prepared research paper, “Moderating Role of Extraversion Personality Trait in Emotional Intelligence and Cognitive Styles among University Students”. 3500 university students between the ages of 18 and 40 made up the sample (1700 males and 1800 females). The findings showed a favourable correlation between the extraversion personality trait and all aspects of cognitive styles (verbal, spatial, and object cognitive styles) and emotional intelligence (interpersonal skills, emotional self-regulation, and emotional self-awareness). Additionally, it seemed that the relationship between emotional intelligence and cognitive styles was considerably reduced by the extraversion personality trait.

Arzeen et. al., (2023) conducted a study on, “Crafting success: How Cognitive Styles Moderate Emotional Intelligence for Project Outcomes”. Convenient sampling was used in a quantitative study design to investigate the function of emotional intelligence. 150 managers involved in PTCL projects in Pakistan's twin cities were given self-administered questionnaires. Likert scales were used to examine and assess the traits associated with the questions. The findings supported the hypothesis and demonstrated that, through the mediation of cognitive styles, emotional intelligence had a positive and significant impact on project success.

Sudhakar and Kadhiravan (2023) in their paper, “Mental Health of Nursing Students in Relation to their Emotional Intelligence and Cognitive Styles” aimed to investigate the role of emotional intelligence and cognitive styles on mental health of nursing students. 294 nursing students were chosen from several colleges in Kerala, India's Kozhikode district. The data was gathered using the stratified random sampling approach. The findings showed that among nursing students, mental health was significantly positively correlated with both emotional intelligence and cognitive styles. Students' mental health was significantly impacted by their cognitive types and emotional intelligence.

Karvendhan and Jayakumar (2024) did research on, “The Mediating Role of Self-Regulation and Cognitive Styles in the Relationship Between Emotional Intelligence and Job Placement”. 267 final-year undergraduate engineering students,

124 of whom were male (46.5%) and 143 of whom were female (53.5%), were chosen from the Salem district of Tamil Nadu state in India for a descriptive survey. The students were between the ages of 20 and 23. The Personal Style Inventory (PSI), Short Self-Regulation Scale (SSRQ-22), and Brief Emotional Intelligence Scale (BEIS 10) were used to gather the data. The results showed that self-regulation and rational style are significantly positively correlated with emotional intelligence. Likewise, self-control was favourably connected with both intuitive and rational methods. Additionally, compared to students who are not placed in a job, students who are placed have higher levels of emotional intelligence, self-regulation, and rational style. Significant direct and indirect benefits of emotional intelligence on job placement through self-regulation and rational style were demonstrated by the mediation analysis.

2.5 Review on the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Academic Adjustment

Al-Yagon and Mikulincer (2004) did research on, “Socioemotional and Academic Adjustment Among Children with Learning Disorders: The Mediational Role of Attachment-Based Factors”. 107 normally developing students and 98 learning-disabled students from general education courses in four public elementary schools made up the sample. They discovered that notable intergroup variations appeared in attachment-based variables, academic adjustment, and socioemotional adjustment. Additionally, the relationship between learning problems and socioemotional adjustment was considerably mediated by attachment-based characteristics, which also showed a significant correlation with adjustment measures.

Ishak et. al., (2011) examined in their research, “Moderating Effect of Gender and Age on the Relationship Between Emotional Intelligence with Social and Academic Adjustment Among First Year University Students”. The study involved 289 first-year university students (148 males and 141 females) at the Irbid Governorate, North of Jordan. The students were divided into two age groups: younger students, aged 18 to 25, and older students, aged 26 and up. The findings

indicated that there was no meaningful correlation between academic and social adjustment and emotional intelligence. Furthermore, there was no evidence of the moderating influence of gender. Age did, however, have a moderating effect on the association between academic adjustment, social adjustment, and emotional intelligence.

Jdaitawi et. al., (2011) conducted research, “The Effectiveness of Emotional Intelligence Training Program on Social and Academic Adjustment Among First Year University Students”. Two groups of first-year students from two institutions in north Jordan participated in the quasi-experimental pre-post design study (289). The training program considerably increased the degree of emotional intelligence among the groups, according to the results of the ANCOVA analysis; however, the improvements in social and academic adjustment were not statistically significant. In general, older and female students outperformed their younger counterparts in all dependent variables; however, the findings for academic and social adjustment were not statistically significant.

Malek et. al., (2011) carried out research, “Emotional intelligence in modifying social and academic adjustment among first year university students in North Jordan”. The experimental and control groups were made up of 289 first-year students who were chosen at random from the two North Jordanian universities. According to the study's findings, there were notable mean variations in emotional intelligence between the two groups. Furthermore, the findings showed no significant variations in social and academic adjustment characteristics between the experimental and control groups. supported by the findings showing substantial mean differences between individuals based on age, but no significant mean difference according to participants' gender. The experimental group was found to be more effective with participants in all research variables, despite the fact that the descriptive statistics results did not reveal any significant differences as anticipated.

Shenoy and Thingujam (2012) prepared research paper, “Perceived Emotional Intelligence and Academic Adjustment in Transition Phase: Examining the Mediating Role of Personality”. 243 teenagers enrolled in the 11th grade made up the

sample. Self-report tests of personality, academic adjustment, and emotional intelligence were filled out by the participants. The findings showed a correlation between neuroticism, extraversion, openness, and conscientiousness and overall emotional intelligence. Overall academic adjustment and overall emotional intelligence were also connected, although the relationship was not independent of the personality traits that were strongly associated with overall emotional intelligence. With one exception—openness was significantly correlated with the mental health component of academic adjustment—further investigation revealed that neuroticism, agreeableness, and conscientiousness were significantly correlated with overall academic adjustment and all of its subscales, while extraversion and openness were not.

Adsul (2013) in his study, “A Comparative Study of Urban and Rural Students on Emotional Intelligence and Adjustment” examined and compared the emotional intelligence and adjustment of urban and rural students. A random sample technique was used to choose 100 students (50 boys and 50 girls) enrolled in the eleventh grade at different junior colleges in the Sangli district of Maharashtra State, India. Two psychological tests were used in the study: 1. The Mangal Emotional Intelligence Inventory. 2. The Adjustment Inventory of Bell. To evaluate the data, the 't' test, mean, and SD were employed. The study's findings showed that (1) urban and rural students differed significantly in the various emotional intelligence domains, and that urban students were more emotionally intelligent than rural ones. (2) Urban and rural students differed significantly in the various areas of adjustment, and it was found that urban students had better adjustment than rural students.

Nathial (2014) conducted research on, “A study of Adjustment and Emotional Intelligence of University Coaches in India’. A random sample was taken from 42 distinct state and central recognized universities of India from different states. The mean scores of coaches at Indian state universities ($m = 52.4$) were found to be higher than those of coaches at central universities ($m = 50.29$). This suggested that coaches at state universities had better adjustment than those at central universities. Additionally, it was discovered that there was no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of coaches at Central University and State.

Lone et. al., (2013) conducted a study on, “Emotional Intelligence as a Predictor of Adjustment among Adolescents”. The study involved 150 adolescents (boys=73, girls=77, mean age 17 years). Data was gathered using the emotional intelligence and adjustment scales. The findings showed that adjustment and every aspect of emotional intelligence, social awareness, emotion management, self-motivation, empathy, and relationship management were significantly positively correlated. Adjustment and handling relationships, a facet of emotional intelligence, had the strongest positive correlation coefficient among the five dimensions. Another facet of emotional intelligence, handling emotions, had a stronger positive correlation coefficient, and adjustment and social awareness had a good positive correlation coefficient. Adolescent adjustment was substantially predicted by social awareness, empathy, relationship management, and overall emotional intelligence, according to regression analysis. According to the findings, emotional intelligence plays a significant role in predicting teenagers' adjustment.

Park (2014) conducted a study, “A Study on the Effect of Emotional Intelligence on Adjustment to College Life in First Year Nursing College Students”. 104 first-year nursing college students participated. Multiple regression, descriptive statistics, and Pearson correlation coefficients were used in the collection and analysis of the data. Emotional intelligence and college life adjustment were found to be significantly and favourably correlated. College life adjustment was predicted by emotional intelligence. Among the sub-factors of emotional intelligence, emotional recognition was the best indicator of how well a student would adjust to college life. Empathy and emotional expressiveness were the next best indicators.

Dixit (2015) conducted a study on, “Emotional Intelligence and Adjustment”. Two hundred (200) B.Ed. students from Punjab state's Moga and Ludhiana districts made up the sample. Data was gathered using the Revised Adjustment Inventory, created and standardized by Pramod Kumar (1999), and the Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS), created and standardized by Anukool Hyde, Sanjyot Pethe, and Upinder Dhar (1971). The t-value, standard deviation, and mean were the statistical methods employed. The findings demonstrated that the B.Ed. students' gender and place of residence had an impact on their emotional intelligence and adjustment.

Ko (2015) prepared an article, “Ego-Resilience and Emotional Intelligence, Stress Coping Strategies & Nursing Student's Adjustment to College”. 158 freshmen and sophomores from three nursing schools made up the subjects. Ego-resilience, emotional intelligence, and stress-reduction techniques were found to positively correlated with college adjustment. Furthermore, 53.9% of the variation in college adjustment was explained by gender, personal relationships, school record, emotional intelligence, ego-resilience, and contentment with the nursing major. Emotional intelligence was the best indicator of college adjustment.

Kumar and Padhi (2015) mentioned in their research article, “A Study of Emotional Intelligence and Adjustment of Prospective Teachers” that emotional intelligence is not significantly impacted by a potential teacher's gender, science background, or non-science background. Regarding the emotional intelligence of aspiring teachers, there was no noticeable connection between gender and stream. Adjustment is not significantly impacted by a potential teacher's gender, science background, or non-science background. The adjustment of aspiring teachers was not significantly impacted by the combination of gender and stream. The prospective instructors' adjustment and emotional intelligence were positively correlated.

Singh (2015) in his study, “Adjustment Among Senior Secondary School Students in Relation to Emotional Intelligence and Mental Health” investigated the significance of relationship of adjustment with emotional intelligence and mental health of senior secondary school students. 600 senior secondary school pupils from seven districts of Punjab's government schools participated in the study. Data was gathered using Indian versions of the Mental Health Battery by Singh and Sengupta (2009), the Emotional Intelligence Scale by Hyde, Pethi, and Dhar (2002), and the Adjustment Inventory by Sharma (1988). The study's findings showed a strong positive correlation between adjustment and both mental health and emotional intelligence.

Ahuja (2016) in his research paper, “A Study of Emotional Intelligence Among Secondary School Students in Relation to Academic Anxiety and Adjustment” used random sampling which comprised of 100 boys and 100 girls in

Class IX of two government schools in Delhi state. Emotional Intelligence scale (Singh and Narain, 2014), Academic Anxiety Scale (Singh and Sen Gupta, 2013) and Adjustment Inventory for School Students (Sinha and Singh, 2013) were used as tools for data collection. The collected data was analyzed by t-test and Karl Pearson's Coefficient of correlation (r). Although boys scored noticeably better than girls in adjustment, girls were shown to have greater emotional intelligence scores than boys. Regarding academic anxiety, there was no statistically significant difference between the sexes. Additionally, there was no substantial correlation between academic anxiety and emotional intelligence. Nonetheless, a statistically significant positive link between students' adjustment and emotional intelligence was discovered. Additionally, there was a negative correlation between secondary school students' adjustment and academic anxiety.

Igbo et. al., (2016) conducted a study, "Emotional Intelligence as a Correlate of Social and Academic Adjustment of First Year University Students in South East Geo-political Zone of Nigeria". 200 first-year students were chosen from four operational education faculties at federal universities in Nigeria's southeast geopolitical zone. Regression analysis was used to evaluate the two study hypotheses at the 0.05 level of significance, and Pearson product moment correlation was used to analyse the data and provide answers to the research questions. The study's findings demonstrated that emotional intelligence significantly predicted first-year students' social and academic adjustment in school and that it had a positive correlation with these two variables.

Sawhney and Kaur (2016) in their paper, "Study of Emotional Intelligence in Relation to Adjustment of Secondary School Students", conducted to find out the emotional intelligence and adjustment of boys and girls of secondary school. A sample of 85 pupils, both male and female, was gathered from two Karnal government schools. Emotional intelligence scale (EIS), Bell Adjustment inventory by H.M was used to collect the data. According to the results, there was no discernible difference in the emotional intelligence and adjustment of secondary school boys and girls; nonetheless, there was a substantial correlation between the two groups.

Tripathi (2016) prepared a research paper, “Emotional Intelligence as Related to Adjustment: A Study of Tribal Non-tribal Adolescents of Ranchi (Jharkhand) District”. Two pupils from the Ranchi district and 200 male and 200 female students made up the study's sample. Students were further separated into two groups: female tribal and female nontribal, and male tribal and male nontribal. Students were chosen from a variety of the city's schools. The findings showed a substantial ($p < .01$) correlation between adjustment and emotional intelligence. This applied to every group. Additionally, it was discovered that tribal and nontribal groups had distinct patterns of emotional intelligence and adaptability. One notable conclusion was that tribal adolescents performed better on the adjustment scale and had higher emotional intelligence scores than nontribal adolescents.

Kour and Singh (2017) prepared article on, “A Study of the Adjustment Problems of Adolescence in Relation to Emotional Intelligence” attempted to find the levels of emotional intelligence and adjustment among adolescents. 100 samples were used in the study, and they were split evenly between two groups (boys and girls). These two groups were then further subdivided into two groups: rural and urban. An Adjustment Inventory for School Students, created by A.K.P. Singh and R.P. Singh (1983), was the instrument used to collect the data. Dr. S.K. Mangal and Mrs. Shubra Mangal collaborated to create the Mangal Emotional Intelligence Inventory in 1971. The t-test, correlation, mean, and standard deviation were used to analyze the data. The findings showed that teenage pupils' adjustments and their emotional intelligence were significantly positively correlated.

Sandhu (2017) conducted a study on, “A Study of Impact of Emotional Intelligence (EQ) on Adjustment of Senior Secondary Students”. Descriptive survey method was adopted for the research. A stratified random selection strategy was used to select 200 pupils from various Hisar, Haryana, schools. It was determined that boys and girls differed significantly in their emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence was higher in girls than in guys. In a similar vein, it was discovered that girls were more adjusted than boys. Boys were found to be more adjusted in the social component of adjustment, whilst girls were more adjusted in the emotional and educational components. Additionally, it was discovered that students with high

emotional intelligence exhibit a greater degree of adjustment than those with poor emotional intelligence.

Singh et. al., (2017) conducted a study on, “Personality, Adjustment and Emotional Intelligence of College Going Graduates”. According to the results, there were no appreciable differences between the two groups in the areas of emotion, home, education, social interaction, and health, and both boys and girls who were college-bound had comparable personality features. Similarly, when it came to emotional intelligence, both groups exhibited identical traits in all areas, including emotion ownership, regulation, social skills, optimism, and other emotions. They came to the conclusion that college-bound males and females shared a comparable pattern of personality traits, that girls were equally emotionally intelligent as boys, and that they were as well-adjusted as boys in all areas of adjustment.

Ali et. al., (2018) conducted a study on, “Social and Academic Adjustment of the University Students”. Using multistage random sampling, 550 BS students were chosen from various departments to make up the sample. Frequencies, percentages, mean scores, standard deviation, t-test, and one-way ANOVA were used to examine the survey data in this correlational study. According to the study, most students had a moderate level of social and academic adjustment; academic adjustment was equal for both male and female students, but social adjustment was better for boarders than for day scholars; academic adjustment was equal for students in the second and eighth semesters, but social adjustment was better for eighth semester students than for second semester students

Kim (2018) did a study on, “The Effects of Self-Leadership, Emotional Intelligence, and Academic Self-Efficacy on Adjustment to College Life of Nursing College Students”. 207 nursing college students from C City were among the subjects. Academic self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, and self-leadership all significantly impacted how well students adjusted to college life. Self-leadership and emotional intelligence showed a strong favorable correlation with adjusting to college life. In summary, the results showed that emotional intelligence and self-

leadership significantly impacted nursing college students' ability to transition to college life.

Kumar (2019) studied, “Relationship between Adjustment and Emotional Intelligence of B.Ed. Students in Govt. Colleges of Teacher Education”. Using a random selection technique, 250 B.Ed. students from Govt. Colleges of Teacher Education provided the data needed for the study. According to the study, the majority of emotional intelligence components did not significantly correlate with adjustment components. There was a small negative correlation between emotional intelligence and emotional adjustment. A high degree of adjustment is exhibited by students who possess strong emotional intelligence. Emotionally intelligent kids were well-adjusted in their lives.

Anjum and Jemima (2020) conducted research on “A Study on Emotional Intelligence and Adjustment Among Adolescents” and found that there was a positive correlation between the adolescents emotional intelligence and emotional adjustment, with the former having a high level and the latter having a moderate level.

Gawali and Kaila (2020) conducted research, “Adjustment and Emotional Intelligence among Indian Students”. The Bell's Adjustment Inventory and Schutte's Self Report Inventory (SSRI) of Emotional Intelligence were completed by 100-degree college students who participated. Analysis of the data showed that Adjustment and EI were significantly correlated. Adjustment and EI were significantly and negatively correlated. To examine the variation in adjustment levels between the High EI and Low EI groups, the 't' test was calculated. The findings were substantial and showed that people's EI was correlated with their ability to adjust. The study's conclusions also suggested that students with higher EI had better emotional and social adjustment.

Qutishat (2020) conducted a study, “Academic Adjustment, Emotional Intelligence, and Fear of Missing Out among Undergraduate Students: A Descriptive Correlational Study” aimed to examine the connection between academic adjustment (AD), emotional intelligence (EI), and FOMO. A descriptive correlational design was

used in the investigation. According to the specified inclusion criteria, the total sample size was 339. The participants' average age, according to the results, was 21.5 years. The majority had a GPA grade of B (48.1%), were in their fifth academic year (33.9%), resided off campus (56.0%), and were single (93.5%). The participants' rates of AD, EI, and FOMO were modest. The results showed that research participants' genders differed significantly in terms of EI and FOMO. They also displayed significant FOMO experiences across a range of living situations. Additionally, the study hypothesized that students experiencing high levels of FOMO had much higher EI and AD.

Soni and Bhalla (2020) prepared research article, “The Role of Adjustment Problems in Emotional Intelligence among Adolescents”. 200 teenagers, 100 of whom were female and 100 of whom were male, were chosen as a sample from colleges. Emotional intelligence and adjustment issues in teenagers were evaluated using the Bell's Adjustment Inventory and the Emotional Quotient Test, respectively. The study found a negative correlation between emotional intelligence and adjustment issues in teenagers. Emotional intelligence in female teenagers was negatively predicted by emotional, home, and health adjustment issues. Conversely, among male teenagers, emotional intelligence was negatively correlated with health, emotional, and home adjustment issues.

Soni and Bhalla (2020) conducted a study, “To Study the Relation between Adjustment Problems and Emotional Intelligence among College Students: Role of Gender Differences”. 50 women and 50 men from colleges in and around the Patiala area (Punjab) made up the sample. Bell's Adjustment Inventory and the Emotional Quotient Test were used to gauge the pupils' adjustment issues. The findings showed a negative correlation between emotional intelligence and adjustment issues. Compared to men, women were better at handling life's little annoyances. Furthermore, compared to their peers, women were better at controlling their emotions.

Bhardwaj and Sharma (2021) conducted research, “A Comparative Study of Social Intelligence, Emotional Intelligence and Adjustment Among College

Students”. The study's sample consisted of 100 college-bound individuals, 50 of whom were male and the other 50 were female. Of these, 50 were enrolled in engineering programs and 50 were enrolled in bachelor of arts (B.A.) programs. The sample's age range was 18–22 years old, and they were from Delhi NCR. They had undergraduate-level education. The results showed that emotional intelligence was significantly different by gender and did not differ by educational stream, whereas social intelligence and general adjustment did not differ by gender or educational stream. The combined dependent variables—emotional intelligence, social intelligence, and adjustment—did not exhibit a statistically significant interaction impact between gender and educational stream, according to the findings.

Qutishat and Al Shdefat (2021) studied, “The Relationship between Academic Adjustment and Emotional Intelligence among Undergraduate Students in Oman”. The research employed a cross-sectional and descriptive correlational study design. 339 people made up the entire sample according to the specified inclusion criteria. The study examined the degree of the research phenomenon among undergraduate students using the Academic Adjustment Scale and the Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire. The participants' average age, according to the results, was 21.5 years. Both AD and EI were at a modest level. Nonetheless, the results showed a significant positive correlation ($r = 0.703$) between undergraduate students' academic adjustment and emotional intelligence.

Goyal and Khan (2022) conducted research on, “Emotional Intelligence and Adjustment: An Empirical Survey”. 56 students from a variety of academic fields made up the study's sample. Data was gathered using the Adjustment Inventory for School Students by A.K.P. Sinha & R.P. Singh and the Emotional Intelligence Scale by S.K. Mangal & Shubhra Mangal. The results showed that while the majority of students were emotionally intelligent and well-adjusted, a sizable portion showed low emotional intelligence, and adjustment should be the focus of attention. Boys and girls have different emotional intelligence and adjustment levels, according to the study. Compared to boys, secondary school girls appear to have higher levels of emotional intelligence and adaptability. Additionally, the study found that secondary

school students' adjustment level and emotional intelligence were positively correlated.

Kumar and Kumar (2022) prepared a study, “A Comparative Study of Emotional Intelligence, Psychological Well-Being and Adjustment Levels among Intermediate Students”. The purpose of the cross-sectional study was to determine how three variables—adjustment levels, psychological well-being, and emotional intelligence—relate to one another. From the west Singh Bhum district, 60 athletes in all—30 boys and 30 girls—were selected for the intermediate level. The Mangal Emotional Intelligence Inventory and Adjustment Scale showed differences between boys and girls, according to the study's findings. The findings also showed that, in contrast to male subjects, female subjects had higher emotional intelligence ratings. In contrast to the female individuals, the male participants had a higher level of adaptability. The outcome also demonstrated that there was no difference in psychological well-being between males and girls.

Am Amarasinghe and Rathnakara (2023) conducted research on, “Impact of Emotional Intelligence on Academic Adjustment of First-Year Management Undergraduates of State Universities in Sri Lanka”. Three universities having management studies faculties were chosen by the researcher. The Morgan table was used to choose a sample of 342 respondents from these three universities (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). To choose university students, a stratified sampling technique was used. The findings demonstrated that among first-year management students from a selection of three Western provincial state universities, evaluation and emotional expression had a favourable effect on academic adjustment. Among first-year management students from a selection of three Western provincial state universities, emotional control also had a good effect on academic adjustment. Among first-year management students from three Western province state institutions, the use of emotion had a favourable effect on academic adjustment.

Jillani et. al., (2023) in their research, “Emotional Intelligence, Resilience and University Adjustment of Students: Gender Based Comparative Study” revealed that students' emotional intelligence and university adjustment differed significantly by

gender. According to the results, female students outperformed male students in terms of emotional intelligence and university adjustment. Furthermore, there were no discernible gender variations in the resilience levels of male and female pupils. According to the examination of the Emotional Intelligence subscale, women outperformed men on the subscales measuring perception of emotions, management of one's own emotions, management of others' emotions, and utilization of emotions. The subscales of social adjustment, personal adjustment, and academic adjustment also showed a significant gender difference, with women being better adjusted than men, according to the analysis of university adjustment subscales.

Azam et. al., (2024) studied, “Mindfulness, Emotional Intelligence, and Academic Adjustment in College Students: A Mediation Model”. 400 college students from Lahore's public and private institutions made up the sample, which was selected using a correlational methodology. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) with AMOS was used to conduct mediation and Pearson correlation analyses. The findings showed that academic motivation, academic accomplishment, and emotional intelligence were all positively correlated with mindfulness, while academic lifestyle was negatively correlated. Additionally, emotional intelligence was positively correlated with academic accomplishment and academic motivation and negatively correlated with academic lifestyle. Emotional intelligence was positively predicted with mindfulness. Academic accomplishment and motivation were positively correlated with emotional intelligence, but academic lifestyle was negatively correlated with it. Emotional intelligence mediated the relationship between mindfulness and academic lifestyle, motivation, and achievement, according to mediation analysis, which also showed that mindfulness had a positive indirect effect on academic achievement and motivation and a negative indirect effect on academic lifestyle.

Inuaeyen et. al., (2024) conducted a study, “Emotional Intelligence and Adjustment to Boarding Environment of Secondary School Students in Akwa Ibom State North West Senatorial District, Nigeria”. All 841 JSS 1 pupils from 10 schools in the District with operational boarding facilities made up the study's population. A multistage sampling procedure was used to choose a sample of 670 respondents. The

study's findings showed that both individually and collectively, emotional intelligence traits indicated how well secondary school pupils would adjust to boarding life.

2.6 OVERVIEWED OF RELATED LITERATURE REVIEWED

2.6.1 Review on Books

Books on emotional intelligence were reviewed such as Salovey and Mayer (1990), Salovey and Sluyter (1997), Cherniss (2000), Daniel Golman (2005), Vandervoort (2006), Ashkan (2012), Ciarrochi et.al (2013). They wrote about the importance of emotional intelligence in the individuals. Why and how it matters to everyone and everyday life. High emotional intelligence determines success in life and even affects the society and community which would increase in effectiveness.

2.6.2 In relation to studies on emotional intelligence

Ehteshamuddin (2022) found that male and female students were in the category of moderate in the emotional intelligence. Desti and Shanthi (2015) also found that respondents were only average in their emotional intelligence. Sinha (2016) correspondingly found maximum employees exhibit moderate level of Emotional Intelligence. Whereas Kant (2019) found that all university's students were having high level of emotional intelligence. Kant (2019) who found that Under Graduate (UG) and Post Graduate (PG) students were found not significantly differ from each other on Emotional intelligence. AL-Qadri and Zhao (2021) found a similar result that there were no statistically significant differences in the respondents' level of emotional intelligence according to the grade variable. It was also revealed in the study conducted by Rather (2023) that both government and private secondary school students did not differ in emotional intelligence. Arun and Smita (2016) found that in their study non-scheduled caste students have better emotional intelligence than scheduled caste students. Senad (2017) also found that CBSE students have higher level of emotional intelligence as compared to ICSE students. Similar kind of finding was in the study made by Mehmood and Saleem

(2019) in which the result revealed that there is a significant difference of Emotional Intelligence of students enrolled in 2nd and 8th semester as well as between Natural Science and Social science students. Sawhney and Kaur (2016), Rao and Komala (2017), El Faisal and Netrawati (2023) and Choudhary (2023) found that there is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of male and female students and adolescents. However, studies conducted by Mandell and Pherwani (2003), Kouhdasht et.al (2013) found significant difference between boys and girls in emotional intelligence. Contradictory to it, Fida et. al., (2018), Shah (2023) found that female have higher level of emotional intelligence compared to male counterparts. Furthermore, Ali et. al., (2021) found that male students were highly emotionally intelligent than female students.

2.6.3 In relation to academic adjustment

Rajab et.al (2014) Al-Mseidin et.al (2017) and Goyal and Khan (2022) have found in their studies the students have average or moderately adjusted in their learning as well as in the social life. Whereas Jain (2017) found that the college students have high adjustment in the learning environment. Jdaitawi et. al., (2011) and Ali et. al., (2018) found that among the students, there is no difference in their academic adjustment. Contrary to this findings, Al-Yagon and Mikulincer (2004) found that there were intergroup differences emerged in academic adjustment. Ishak et. al., (2011), Jdaitawi et. al., (2011), Malek et. al., (2011) and Bhardwaj and Sharma (2021) had found no significant relationship between male and female in their study. The study conducted by Ahuja (2016), Kumar and Kumar (2022) found that boys were significantly higher in their academic adjustment. However, Sandhu (2017) and Jillani et. al., (2023) found that girls were better in their academic adjustment compared to males.

2.6.4 In relation to cognitive styles

Dixit & Ahmed (2021), Anil Jose and Sijin (2021) as well as Stanikzai and Allahyar (2023) found that in their research, maximum students were having systematic cognitive style. However, Tomar and SC (2017) found that Science

stream majorly possessed Integrated Cognitive Style; Arts stream students majorly possessed Intuitive Cognitive Style and Commerce stream students possessed Split Cognitive Style. Murkute (2021) found that South Indian boys were found to be more intuitive with the highest mean score whereas the Marathi girls were found to be systematic with highest mean score. Narayanasamy & Vasudevan (2021) found that there was a significant difference in the patterns of cognitive styles among high school teachers working in tribal schools with respect to their gender. Kumar & Nagaraju (2014) found that there existed difference in cognitive styles of teachers based on variation in their gender. Bar-On (2006) found that systematic and intuitive styles, did not significantly differentiate students in terms of emotional intelligence.

2.6.5 In relation to relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment

Igbo et. al., (2016), Egbule (2018), Ikpe et.al (2021) found positive relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment. Amin et.al (2016) and Kumar (2019) also found that emotional intelligence and academic adjustment have not shown any significant relationship. However, Malek et.al (2011), Shenoy and Thingujam (2012), Kumar and Padhi (2015), Kour and Singh (2017), Gawali and Kaila (2020) and Qutishat and Al Shdefat (2021) found in their studies, significant relationship between the two variables.

2.7 CONCLUSION

A compilation of the studies done by different authors were summed up grouped in the following table.

Table 2.7.1
Details of Reviewed Literature

Sl. No	Name of Studies	Span of Years	Total
1.	Review on Emotional Intelligence	1990-2024	38
2.	Review on Cognitive Styles	1971-2024	49
3.	Review on Academic Adjustment	2009-2024	20
4.	Review on Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Cognitive Styles	2014-2024	7
5.	Review on Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Academic Adjustment	2004-2024	36
	Total		150

The investigator thoroughly conducted a literature review on the variables such as Emotional Intelligence, Cognitive Style and Academic Adjustment. This was done to identify the research gaps, conceptualize the study, build theoretical framework and justifies the significance of the study. As per the table 2.6.1, the time span of the studies even though is a extensive, it can be concluded that the importance of emotional intelligence, cognitive styles and academic adjustment have been stressed by the researchers in the field of education.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURE

To conduct any kind of research, it is important to select the right kind of methodology and tools for reliable findings. It was also important to use the appropriate statistical techniques to draw out the best possible results as to make use of it in the near future. To ensure such findings, the right method should be used to address to the objectives of the study, selection of the population and the sample techniques. This chapter deals with the following points:

- 3.1 Method of the Study
- 3.2 Population and Sample
- 3.3 Tools for Data Collection
- 3.4 Mode of Data Collection
- 3.5 Tabulation of Data
- 3.6 Statistical Techniques Used for Data Analysis

3.1 METHOD OF THE STUDY

The present study is descriptive in nature. To collect facts and information, the study makes use of census method involving survey on various Teacher Education Institutions. A census survey refers to a comprehensive study that collects information from every member of a population or a specific group. Its purpose is to gather accurate and reliable information about the population's characteristics, behaviours, attitudes or opinions. Therefore, the investigator apply census survey that combines elements of both census and sample survey. However, all individuals are not studied as some students are absent on the day of collection of data.

The study is taken up thoroughly with the facts and information collected through standardize tests and self-constructed test. The constructed test viz. academic adjustment is made to compare their cognitive style and emotional intelligence. Not only this, it is expected to find out whether the respondents who have high emotional intelligence were also high in the level of academic adjustment. This was done with a view to give better understanding of the situation and with a view to make

suggestions for further improvements not only for students undergoing B.Ed. and M.Ed. programmes, but also for the teachers as a whole. Thus, the study attempted on collecting data from all the students of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students.

3.2 POPULATION AND SAMPLE OF THE STUDY

For the present study, as census survey method was used, the population and sample of the study consists of all the B.Ed. and M.Ed. students studied in Mizoram. There are four teacher education institutions offering B.Ed. and M.Ed. programme in Mizoram - namely, Institute of Advanced Studies in Education (IASE), Aizawl, Department of Education, MZU, District Institute of Education & Training (DIET), Aizawl and District Institute of Education & Training (DIET), Lunglei. Therefore, the students of these four institutions were taken for the population and sample of the study.

In all the institution, among the B.Ed. students, only 4th semester students were taken for responding to the questionnaire. This is due to the fact that the 1st or 2nd semester B.Ed. students had not undergone any internship programme which is only undertaken in the 3rd semester. In the constructed tool, statements regarding internship programme were inserted i.e. Academic Adjustment Scale. This is because, B.Ed. programme is meant to excel the students in practice teaching and their adjustment towards academic is also determined by the internship programme. Therefore, students who did not yet experience internship programme could not be considered, and hence they were not selected for this study. For M.Ed. students, all the 2nd and 4th semester students were included in the study. As there are only two institutions offering M.Ed. course, i.e., IASE and MZU., all the 2nd and 4th semester students were taken for the sample of the study. The distribution of the population and sample of the study is as follows:

Table No. 3.1

Population and Sample of B.Ed. and M.Ed. Students Covered in the Study				
Sl. No	Institutions	Students Enrolled	No. of students Present	%
1	IASE (B.Ed.)	128	111	86.7
2	IASE (M.Ed.)	67	53	79.10
3	Dept of Education, MZU (B.Ed.)	88	61	69.3
4	Dept of Education, MZU (M.Ed.)	34	27	79.4
5	DIET, Aizawl	42	35	83.3
6	DIET, Lunglei	48	45	93.75
	Total	407	332	81.57

As shown in the table no. 3.1, for the present study, the sample collected consisted of 80 students of M.Ed., and 252 students of B.Ed. who were present on the day of data collection from the 4 (four) teacher education institutions in Mizoram.

3.3 TOOLS FOR DATA COLLECTION

The data for this study were collected with by using the following three tools of which the first two tools were adopted and third one was constructed and standardized by the investigator.

1. Emotional Intelligence Scale developed by Srinivasan & Murugesan, 2013
2. Cognitive Style Inventory Developed by Jha, Praveen Kumar (2001)
3. Academic Adjustment Scale constructed and standardized by the Investigator

A detailed explanation of the aforesaid two standardized tools has been given in the following. However, the tool constructed and standardized by the investigator has a been given clarification in the analysis chapter as it is one of the objectives of the present study.

3.3.1 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE SCALE DEVELOPED BY SRINIVASAN & MURUGESAN, 2013

The authors of the scale developed it with the influence of the Daniel Goleman's model of emotional intelligence. They prepared a test plan in which they identified the objectives, population, content of the test item and the procedure to be followed in test development.

a) Reliability of the Emotional Intelligence Scale: The final format of 40 test items were administered to a sample of 300 adults (123 male and 177 female). The scores of each individual in 40 statements were added to get the total score. The reliability value was calculated by the split half method and cronbach's alpha method. The reliability split half method calculated was found to be 0.62. Cronbach alpha method was found to be 0.71. Both the results were significant at 0.01 level.

b) Validity Analysis

i) Content Validity: Content validity was established by a group which consisted of the constructors, one Professor of Education and two Associate Professors of Education. The items were constructed and finalized based on the concepts and dimensions proposed by Daniel Goleman and Richard Boyatzis and concluded that the items contained content validity.

ii) Concurrent Validity: Concurrent validity was established by the constructors by administering the scale prepared by them and another emotional intelligence scale developed and validated by Anukool Hyde (2007) to the sample of 100 adults which was significant at 0.01 level. The correlation between the two scores was 0.92 level of significance. So, the scale of emotional intelligence constructed by the author possessed level of concurrent validity.

c) Z-score Norms for Emotional Intelligence Scale

Z-score norms had been worked out by the author and on the basis of z-score, the following table no 3.2 provided the z-score for reference.

Table 3.2
Z-score Norms for Emotional Intelligence Scale

Raw Score	z-score	Raw Score	z-score	Raw Score	z-score	Raw Score	z-score
05	-3.55	14	-1.72	23	+0.09	32	+1.92
06	-3.35	15	-1.52	24	+0.30	33	+2.13
07	-3.14	16	-1.31	25	+0.50	34	+2.33
08	-2.98	17	-1.11	26	+0.70	35	+2.53
09	-2.74	18	-0.91	27	+0.91	36	+2.74
10	-2.53	19	-0.71	28	+1.11	37	+2.94
11	-2.33	20	-0.51	29	+1.31	38	+3.14
12	-2.13	21	-0.30	30	+1.52	39	+3.35
13	-1.92	22	-0.10	31	+1.72	40	+3.55

d) Norms for Interpretation of Emotional Intelligence

The author had also worked out the norms for interpretation which is also provided for reference in table no 3.3

Table 3.3
Norms for Interpretation of the Level of Emotional Intelligence

Sl. No	Range of Z-Score	Grade	Level of Emotional Intelligence
1	+2.01 and above	A	Extremely High
2	+1.26 to + 2.00	B	High
3	+0.51 to + 1.25	C	Above Average
4	-0.50 to + 0.50	D	Average
5	-0.51 to 1.25	E	Below Average
6	-1.26 to -2.00	F	Low
7	-2.01 and below	G	Extremely Low

3.3.2 COGNITIVE STYLE INVENTORY DEVELOPED BY JHA, PRAVEEN KUMAR (2001)

The concept of Cognitive Style Inventory (CSI) is a self-report to measure the ways of thinking, judging, remembering, storing information, decision making and believing in interpersonal relationships. The author designed the inventory on the basis of the rationale as conceived by Martin (1983) who identified cognitive styles that imply preferred and consistent patterns of responses that are both habitual and unconscious as well as deliberate. Cognitive styles identified by the author have 5 dimensions as the entire spectrum of people's behavior are in line with thinking, learning, problem solving and decision making: They are:

1. Systematic style
2. Intuitive style
3. Integrated style
4. Undifferentiated style
5. Split style

The author included ninety-two statements of suitable items for Indian sample as suggested by Martin (1983) was prepared to make a prediction of cognitive style of respondents. Items were framed quite in accordance with the concept and characteristics of cognitive style. He had prepared a list of statements which were given to experts in the field of Social Science along with a short description of concept and characteristics of each of the cognitive styles. He had used Likert format response categories; i.e., from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' through 'disagree, undecided and agree. The items which were not clear were dropped. As a result, 84 items were selected.

a) Reliability: The author made use of two methods for reliability test.

i). Split half method: Split half was calculated for the whole scale and for each of the five sub-scales (5 dimensions) of CSI. The Spearman -Brown Phrophecy formula was used to estimate full length reliability. The full-length split half reliability of CSI was found 0.653 ($P < 0.01$). The Pearsonian r ranges from 0.54 to

0.70 and dull length reliabilities from 0.70 to 0.83 and all were highly significant beyond 0.01 level of confidence.

ii). Test-retest method: The test was administered to 50 retired persons and retest was conducted after a lapse of 3 weeks. The test-retest reliability of the whole test was calculated 0.39 ($P < 0.01$) and are highly significant beyond 0.01 level of confidence.

b) Validity: The author examined the validity of a test in three ways, i.e., Face Validity concurrent validity and internal validity.

i) Face validity: The author distributed the items to six judges for evaluation. Only those items which were agreed upon by majority of judges were included in preliminary form of the scale.

ii) Concurrent validity: The author correlated the Hindi version of CSI with Martin's scale by administering the scale on 100 college teachers. Product moment correlation was calculated between the obtained scores of Martin's CSI and Hindi version developed by the author. A correlation coefficient of 0.262 ($P < 0.01$, $df=98$) was obtained which showed significant beyond 0.01 level of confidence.

iii) Internal validity: The internal validity was determined by calculating discriminative power of each item in terms of Phi-coefficient, Correlation and Chi-square.

Upon completion of the split half, test retest, face validity, concurrent validity and internal validity which showed good result, the developed tool was used by the author to measure the cognitive styles.

c) Percentile Norms of Cognitive Style

The percentile norms of cognitive style worked out by the author is presented in the table no 3.4.

Table No 3.4**Percentile Norms for CSI**

Percentiles	Scores		Interpretation
	Boys	Girls	
95 th	89.77	88.06	High
90 th	87.25	85.70	
80 th	84.72	83.33	
75 th	82.19	80.97	
70 th	79.67	78.07	Medium high
60 th	77.15	76.24	
50 th	74.62	73.88	
40 th	72.09	71.51	
30 th	69.57	69.15	Medium Low
25 th	64.78	64.52	
20 th	61.99	62.06	Low
10 th	59.94	59.69	

d) Norms For Interpretation

Depending on the percentile norms, the author established the following as the norms for interpretation of cognitive styles.

- a) Systematic style- who scored above 81 on systematic and below 61 on intuitive style.
- b) Intuitive style- who scored above 81 on intuitive and below 61 on systematic.
- c) Integrated style- who scored above 81 in systematic and intuitive.
- d) Split style- who scored medium on i.e. scoring between 62-80.
- e) Undifferentiated style- who obtained below 61 on systematic and intuitive style.

3.3.3 RECALIBRATION OF STANDARDIZED TOOLS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE SCALE AND COGNITIVE STYLE INVENTORY

Recalibration of tools in research work is an essential process that ensures accuracy, reliability, and validity in data collection and analysis. This practice is crucial across various research areas not only in educational research but in the other subjects and disciplines. The need for recalibration arises from several factors, including environmental changes, diversion of social and political upbringing, economic conditions, religious beliefs and practices, system of education and the curriculum imparted in various sections of the country. Recalibration of tools in research is a critical process that reinforce the integrity, reliability, and overall success of research work. Across various fields of research work or areas, which ranges from specific to complex, correctness or precision in measuring what is intended to measure is vital. As instruments used in research can be affected by internal and external factors, therefore, recalibration becomes essential to ensure accurate and reliable results.

Recalibration involves adjusting and correcting measuring instruments or tools to maintain their accuracy and performance standards. This process can include checking the tool against known standards, adjusting and modifying as necessary, and documenting the changes made. Regular recalibration is not only about ensuring that tools are functioning correctly; it also plays a significant role in the broader context of ensuring integrity. The standardized test is crucial in various fields especially in education and personal development. The standardization of tool is essential for accurate assessment and understanding of individuals' characteristics. However, recalibration of the standardized tool is necessary as to provide quality results, understanding and developing of one's own personality. As the society is influenced by cultural norms, values, and practices, standardized tools developed in one cultural context may not fully capture the nuances of expression and regulation in other cultures. Recalibration of the tool to be more culturally sensitive can enhance their validity and reliability across diverse populations. The population and sample where the tests are conducted is also differed from every aspect of life. Therefore, it is pertinent to the fact that recalibration will help the standardized tool

to leverage different situations which can lead to more accurate assessments and insights into individuals' personality.

For every standardized tool, it is important that the test should measure what it intended to measure. In the case of the present study, even though the standardized tests obtained dependable results when the reliability was tested. As the tests were conducted to a complete diverse population and characteristics, it was essential to re-establish the norms for reliable results. Therefore, the test was conducted to 111 students for reliability testing.

a) Validity of Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) & Cognitive Style Inventory (CSI)

Due to differences in background, cultures and ethnicity, a standardized tool needs to be revalidated to measure what it intended to measure. To revalidate the tools, a copy of Emotional Intelligence Scale and Cognitive Style Inventory was sent to 9 experts in the field of education. From the inputs and comments received from these experts the scales are considered valid for which it was meant.

b) Reliability of the scale:

The test was conducted to 111 students and the investigator used 'Split-Half Method' for identifying reliability of the scale. The scale was divided into two halves on the basis of the odd and even numbers. The co-efficient of reliability was calculated by using the 'Pearson Product Moment Method.' The co-efficient of reliability of the scale for emotional intelligence scale was 0.76 and hence proved reliable for further used.

For cognitive style, split half was calculated for each of the five sub-scales viz., systematic, intuitive, integrated, undifferentiated and split style. The reliability ranges from 0.56 to 0.70. Therefore, the scales of cognitive styles are considered consistent.

c) Mean and Standard Deviation of Prospective Teachers on Emotional Intelligence

From the total population and sample of 332 students, the mean and standard deviation of male and female B.Ed. and M.Ed. students are calculated separately and presented in the table.

Table No. 3.5

Mean and Standard Deviation of Emotional Intelligence of B.Ed. Students

Gender	N	Mean	SD
Male	87	18.26	5.02
Female	165	18.62	4.56
Total	252		

The data provided on table no 3.5 shows that the total number of B.Ed. male students is 87 with mean score of 18.26 and standard deviation of 5.02. This shows that male students have a slightly lower EI score compared to female students who were 165 in numbers with a mean score of 18.62. However, the standard deviation of female which is 4.56 shows a slightly smaller SD compared to male students.

Table No. 3.6

Mean and Standard Deviation of Emotional Intelligence of M.Ed. Students

Gender	N	Mean	SD
Male	26	20.07	4.96
Female	54	19.75	3.43
Total	80		

d) Norms For Interpretation of Emotional Intelligence Scale

The data for M.Ed. students vide table no 3.6 reveals that Emotional Intelligence (EI) scores of male students of 26 in number have a mean score of 20.07 and standard deviation of 4.96 which is higher than that of female numbering 54. The mean score of females is 19.75 with a standard deviation of 3.43.

The standardized tool already has a norm for interpretation. However, the scale is used on a completely different and diverse population, the norm has been re-established to yield a dependable result. For the establishment of the norm, the tool was administered to population and sample of the present study. The raw scores of all the respondents were converted into Z-score.

Table No. 3.7
Re-calibrated Z-score Norms for Emotional Intelligence Scale

Raw Score	Z-Score	Raw Score	Z-Score	Raw Score	Z-Score	Raw Score	Z-Score	Raw Score	Z-Score
1	-3.89	12	-1.49	17	-0.40	22	0.69	27	1.78
8	-2.36	13	-1.27	18	-0.18	23	0.91	28	2.00
9	-2.14	14	-1.05	19	0.04	24	1.13	29	2.22
10	-1.93	15	-0.83	20	0.26	25	1.35	30	2.44
11	-1.71	16	-0.62	21	0.47	26	1.56	32	2.87

Following the author, the norms for interpretation have been recalibrated by the investigator which is presented in table 3.8.

Table No 3.8
Norms for Interpretation of the Levels of Emotional Intelligence based on Z-score

Sl. No	Range of Z-Score	Grade	Level of Emotional Intelligence
1	+2.01 and above	A	Extremely High
2	+1.26 to + 2.00	B	High
3	+0.51 to + 1.25	C	Above Average
4	-0.50 to + 0.50	D	Average
5	-0.51 to 1.25	E	Below Average
6	-1.26 to -2.00	F	Low
7	-2.01 and below	G	Extremely Low

Table No 3.8 reveals the norms for interpretation of the result of emotional intelligence scale. There are seven level to interpret the emotional intelligence as the level had already been established by the author. The investigator also used the norms as per the level identified such as, extremely high, high, above average, average, below average, low and extremely low.

e) Norms For Interpretation of Cognitive Style Inventory

The scores male and female students of B.Ed. and M.Ed. have been calculated using statistics and the mean and standard deviation of the respondents have also been presented separately in the tables.

Table No. 3.9

Mean and Standard Deviation of B.Ed. Students on Cognitive Style Inventory

Gender	N	Mean	SD
Male	87	68.39	7.70
Female	165	68.13	7.09
Total	252		

The data on table 3.9 highlighted the mean and standard deviation of the B.Ed. students. Male students have a mean score of 68.39 with a standard deviation of 7.70. While female exhibited a different mean score of 68.13 with a standard deviation of 7.09.

Table No. 3.10

Mean and Standard Deviation of M.Ed. Students on Cognitive Style Inventory

Gender	N	Mean	SD
Male	26	71.59	7.00
Female	54	69.79	7.42
Total	80		

A glance at the table no 3.10 shows that the M.Ed. students are 80 in numbers with a mean score of 71.59 with a standard deviation of 7.00. The female had a lower mean score which is 69.79 with a slightly higher standard deviation as compared to males which is 7.42.

For establishing norms for reliable results, the test was administered to 332 B.Ed. and M.Ed. students of Mizoram. The raw scores of the respondents have been converted into percentile norms following the author. The converted percentile norm is presented in the table.

Table No 3.11
Re-calibrated Percentile Norms for Cognitive Style Inventory

Percentiles	Scores	Interpretation
95 th	80	High
90 th	77.5	
80 th	74.5	
75 th	73.5	
70 th	72.5	Medium
60 th	71	
50 th	69	
40 th	67	
30 th	66	Low
25 th	65	
20 th	63.8	
10 th	60	

On perusal of the cognitive style inventory, the scores of the samples were recalibrated based on percentiles following the author. The norms derived from the study are given in the table 3.11. As per the norms developed by the investigator, the norms for interpretation would be as follows:

- a) A score ranges from a percentile of 75th to 95th which is 73.5 and above in systematic style and 10th to 30th percentile rank with a score of below 60 in intuitive style would be regarded as persons with systematic style.
- b) Intuitive style individuals would be those who scored 73.5 and above in intuitive style, below 60 in systematic style.
- c) Integrated style individuals would be those who scored above 73.5 in systematic and intuitive style.
- d) Split style individuals would be those who scored medium which is 40th to 70th percentile with a score ranges from 67 to 72.5.
- e) Persons with undifferentiated style would be those who scored below 60 in both systematic and intuitive style.

3.4 MODE OF DATA COLLECTION

As the investigator used three tests for the research work, collection of data was done simultaneously from the selected population. The investigator personally visited all the teacher the institutions after permission from the institutional head is sought. Three tests were conducted such as- Emotional Intelligence Scale, Cognitive Style Inventory and Academic Adjustment Scale. Out of these three tests, one test was constructed by the researcher.

3.5 TABULATION OF DATA

As the data were collected in offline mode and through the questionnaire distributed to each and every students, scoring has to be done manually for all the tools. They were done on the basis of the scoring procedure written in the test manual and interpretation was done with the norms established from the sample of the present study. Keeping in view the objectives of the study, appropriate statistical techniques were applied in the tabulated data and analysis were done according to it.

3.6 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES USED FOR DATA ANALYSIS

The data collected was analysed using statistical techniques to know and identify the nature or the characteristics of the respondents. For analysis of data, the researcher used IBM SPSS version 25. The following are the statistical technique used:

1. **Descriptive Statistic:** Measures of central tendencies like mean, standard deviation, percentages, z- score and percentile to find out and understand the distribution of scores, for describing frequencies and to classify the respondents in different categories.
2. **Inferential Statistics:** To observe and identify the mean difference of the groups in terms of gender (male and female) and level of education (B.Ed. and M.Ed.) the mean scores of the respondents were identified and t-test was applied for comparing the two groups. Furthermore, to compare the dimensions of the cognitive styles with emotional intelligence/academic adjustment, t-test is also used.
3. **Descriptive Bivariate:** Pearson Product Moment Method was applied to find out the relationship of emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of prospective teachers.

In short, the statistical techniques employed were identified based on the characteristics of data, the research objectives and hypothesis framed by the investigator.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE STUDY

Data analysis and interpretation is the process of organizing, transforming, and modelling collected data to bring structure and using various analytical methods to review data and draw relevant conclusions. It involves applying statistical techniques to uncover patterns, relationships, and insights within the data and summarizing information to answer critical questions. The goal of data analysis is to derive meaningful conclusions, support decision-making processes, and test hypotheses by exploring and summarizing and is essential for understanding the implications of the data and making informed decisions based on the findings.

An examination of academic adjustment, emotional intelligence, and cognitive style in B.Ed. and M.Ed. students is important for a number of reasons, including the fact that it supports the objectives of the study and illustrates its applicability in the field of education. The significance of the analysis lies in its ability to meet the research objectives effectively, providing insights that can lead to meaningful improvements in educational practices, policies, and student support systems. By addressing all these, it will not only enhance in understanding their experiences but also contributes to the broader goal of fostering a positive, inclusive, and supportive learning environment in higher education

The current study is to be analysed using statistical techniques such as percentage, mean, standard deviation, and t-test which are essential for analysing data effectively and drawing meaningful conclusions. To provide a clear way to express and understand the proportions of data. To give central tendency of the data and summarize the overall performance or characteristics of a group. To quantify the amount of variation or dispersion to make an understanding on the variability which is crucial for assessing. To measure the degree of variation in order to comprehend the variability, which is essential for evaluation. To assess whether there is a statistically significant difference between two groups by comparing their means. These methods are crucial for making complex information easier to understand,

aiding in decision-making, and contribute credibility of research findings and to provide valuable insights into the present study.

4.1. Objective 1: To identify the level of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers.

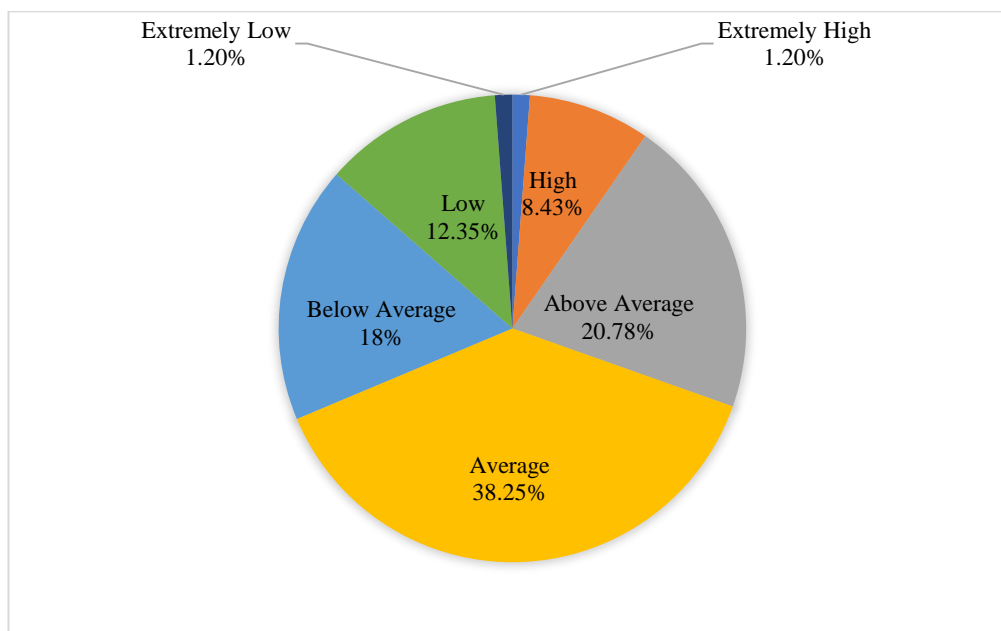
To study the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers, the researcher employed the Emotional Intelligence Scale developed by Srinivasan & Murugesan in the year 2013. The study categorized respondents based on their levels of emotional intelligence, as detailed in Table No 4.1. The data provide the frequency and percentage distribution of respondents within each emotional intelligence level.

Table No. 4.1

Level of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers

Sl. No	Level of Emotional Intelligence	No. of Students	Percentage
1	Extremely High	4	1.20 %
2	High	28	8.43 %
3	Above Average	69	20.8 %
4	Average	127	38.25 %
5	Below Average	59	17.77 %
6	Low	41	12.35 %
7	Extremely Low	4	1.20 %
Total		332	

Figure No. 4.1
Level of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers



The data in Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1 illustrates the emotional intelligence (EI) levels among the prospective teachers. Maximum number of students (38.25%) exhibit an average level of EI, with 127 individuals falling into this category. This is followed by 69 students (20.78%) who possess above-average EI, and 59 students (17.77%) with below-average EI. A small segment of students (12.35%) possesses low EI with 41 individuals while 28 students (8.43%) exhibit high EI. A smaller proportion of students demonstrate extreme levels of EI; both the extremely high and extremely low EI level comprises of 4 students each, accounting for 1.20% per category.

4.1.0 Emotional Intelligence of B.Ed. students

The level of emotional intelligence of B.Ed. students have been calculated using percentage. The following table no 4.2 shows the level of emotional intelligence of male and female B.Ed. students.

Table No. 4.2
Level of Emotional Intelligence of B.Ed. Students

Sl. No	Level of Emotional Intelligence	Male	%	Female	%
1	Extremely High	2	2.29%	2	1.21%
2	High	4	4.59%	13	7.88%
3	Above Average	18	20.7%	32	19.4%
4	Average	30	34.5%	61	36.96%
5	Below Average	20	22.98%	32	19.4%
6	Low	10	11.5%	25	15.15%
7	Extremely Low	3	3.44%	0	0%
Total		87		165	

Figure 4.2 (a)
Level of Emotional Intelligence of Male B.Ed. Students

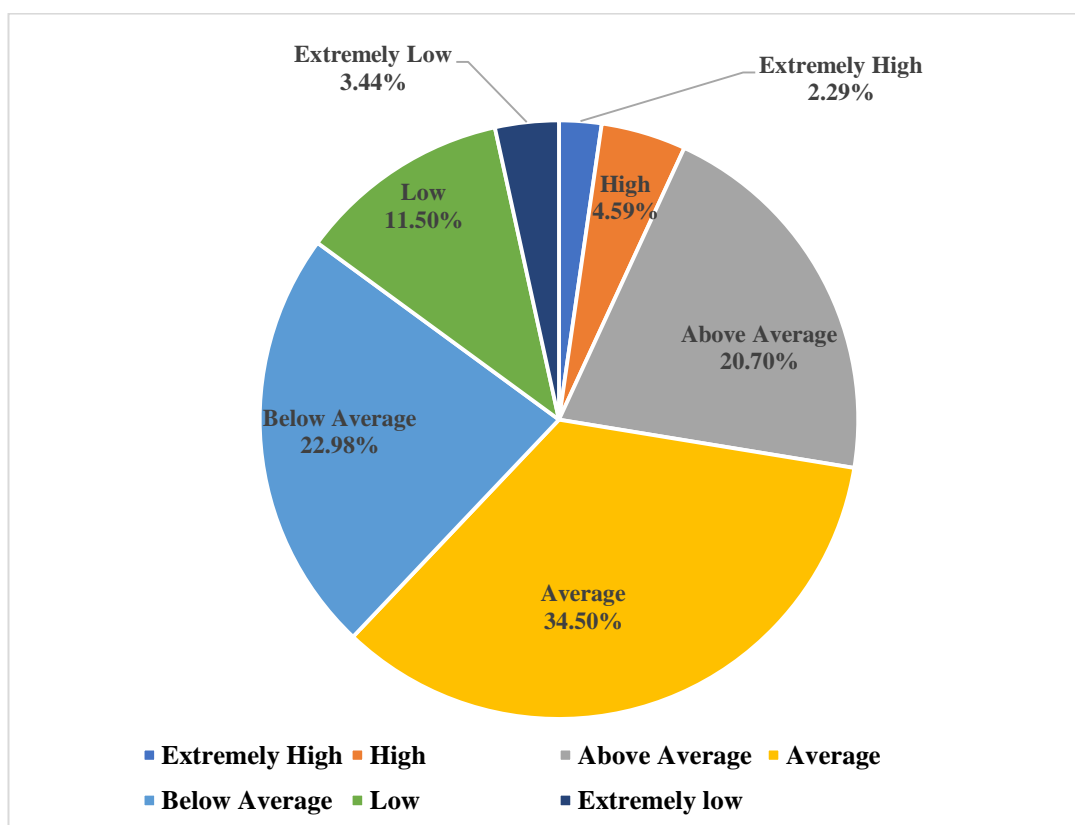
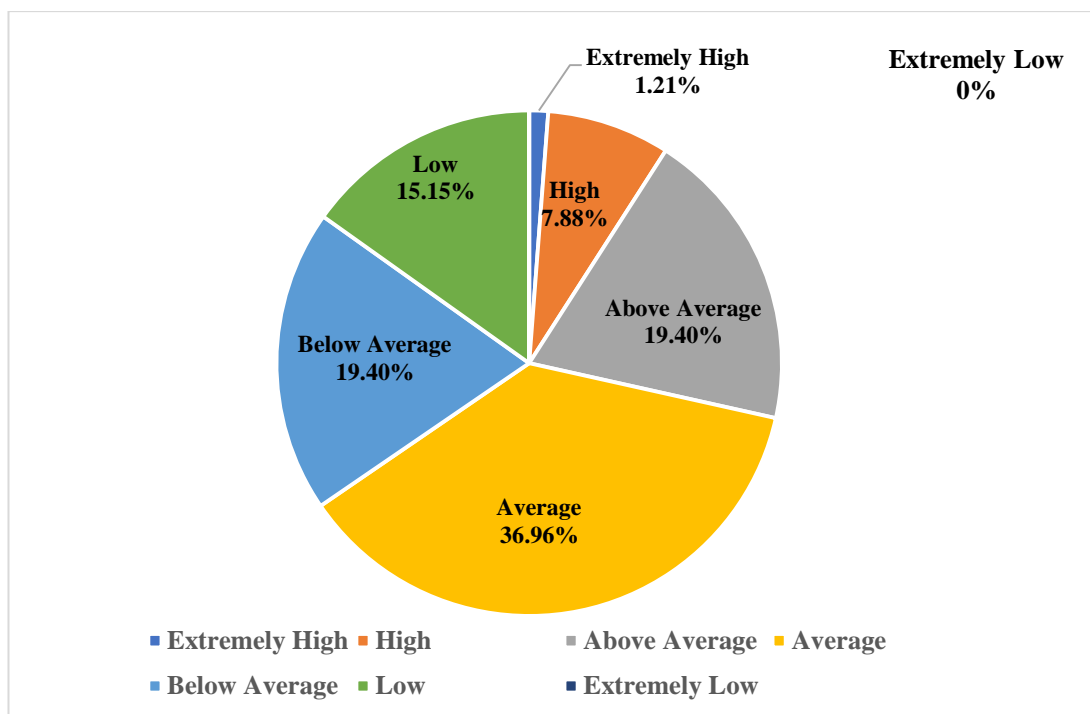


Figure 4.2 (b):
Level of Emotional Intelligence of Female B.Ed. Students



As presented in the table 4.2 and figure 4.2 (a & b), the total number of B.Ed. students were 252 in which 87 were male and 165 were female. Male students with 2.29% and female students 1.21% were in the extremely high level of EI. This category shows that only a small percentage of respondents have really high emotional intelligence. In the high category, it was found that there are male students with 4.59% and female students with 7.88%. The percentage of females in this category is significantly higher than that of males. However, 20.7% of male students and 19.4% of female students exhibited above average level of EI. In this, the representation is balanced, with women slightly outnumbered males. Average level of EI is dominated by 34.5% males 36.96% females. In the below average level of EI, 22.98% males and female 19.4% were found. Low level of EI is shown by 11.5% males and 15.15% females. Male students of 3.44% have extremely low EI while females were not found in this level.

4.1.1 Emotional Intelligence of M.Ed. students

The data provided in the table 4.3 shows the distribution of emotional intelligence (EI) levels among male and female M.Ed. students. The number of students in the different level of EI is calculated using percentage.

Table No. 4.3
Level of Emotional Intelligence of M.Ed. Students

Sl. No	Level of Emotional Intelligence	Male	%	Female	%
1	Extremely High	0	0%	0	0%
2	High	5	19.23%	6	11.11%
3	Above Average	7	26.92%	12	22.22%
4	Average	9	34.62%	27	50%
5	Below Average	0	0%	7	12.97%
6	Low	4	15.38%	2	3.70%
7	Extremely Low	1	3.85%	0	0%
Total		26		54	

Figure No 4.3 (a)

Level of Emotional Intelligence of Male M.Ed. students

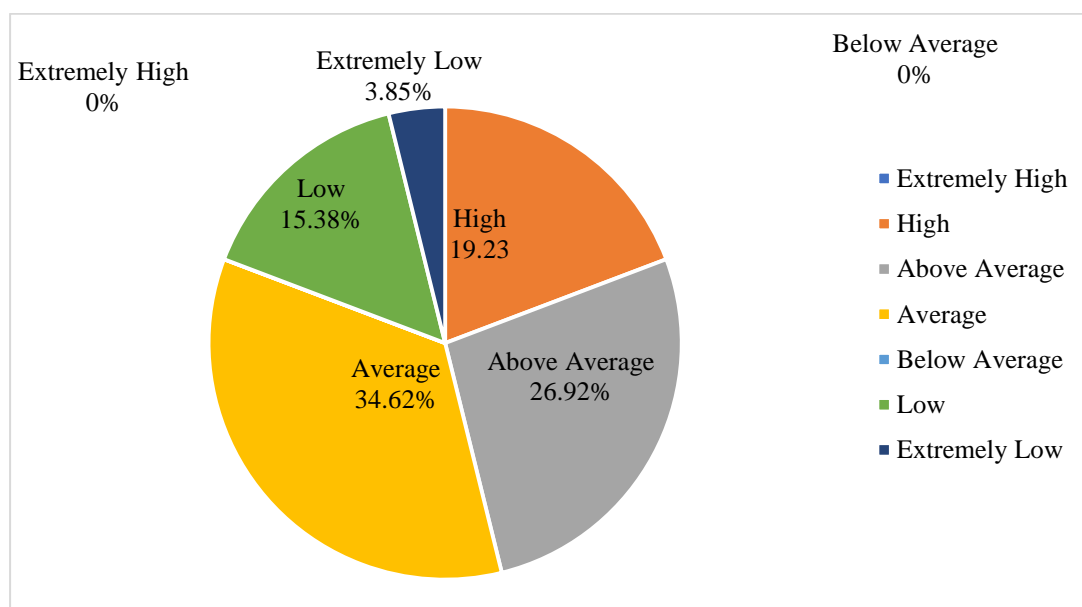
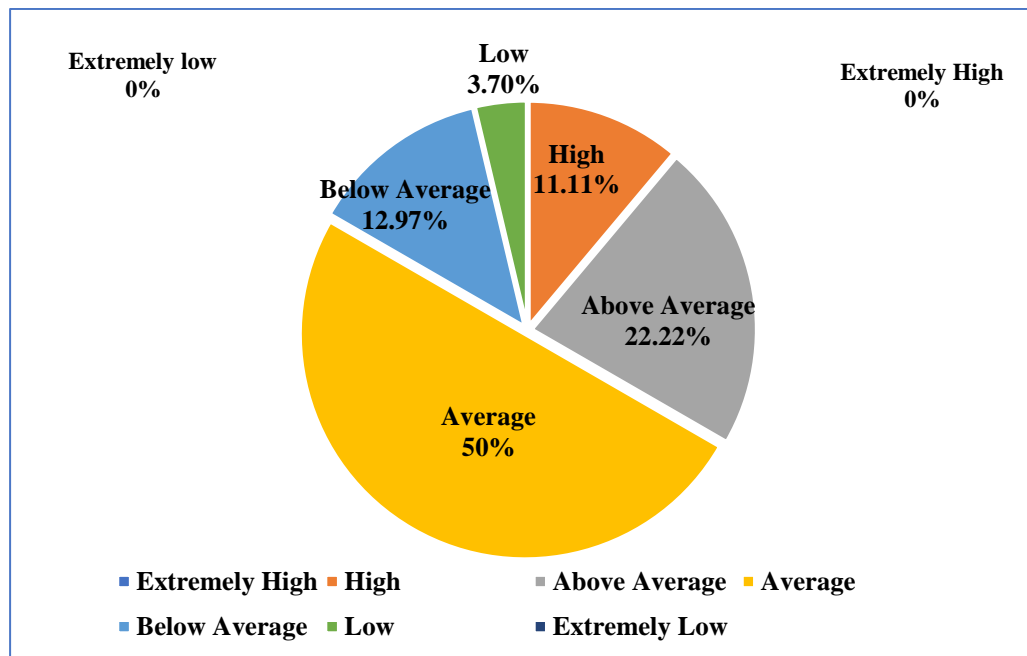


Figure No 4.3 (b)
Level of Emotional Intelligence of Female M.Ed. students



A perusal of the table no 4.3 and figure no 4.3 (a &b) reveals that, no students regardless of gender, exhibited extremely high emotional intelligence. This indicates that while some students possess various emotional competencies, very high levels are not present in this group. A notable percentage of male students of 5 (19.23%) and female students of 6 (11.11%) fall into the high emotional intelligence category, surpassing females in this case. In the category of above average, males again have a slightly higher representation, although the difference is minimal which are males 7 (26.92%) and females 12 (22.22%). Average level shows a difference, with females having a notably higher percentage of 27 (50%) and males 9 (34.62%). Notably, no males were classified as below average, while a small percentage of females 7 (12.97%) fell into this category. A higher percentage of males numbering 4 (15.38%) are classified as having low emotional intelligence compared to females of 2 (3.70%). In extremely low EI, male represented only one (1) which is 3.85% and no female candidates were in this particular category.

4.1.2 Emotional Intelligence of prospective male teachers.

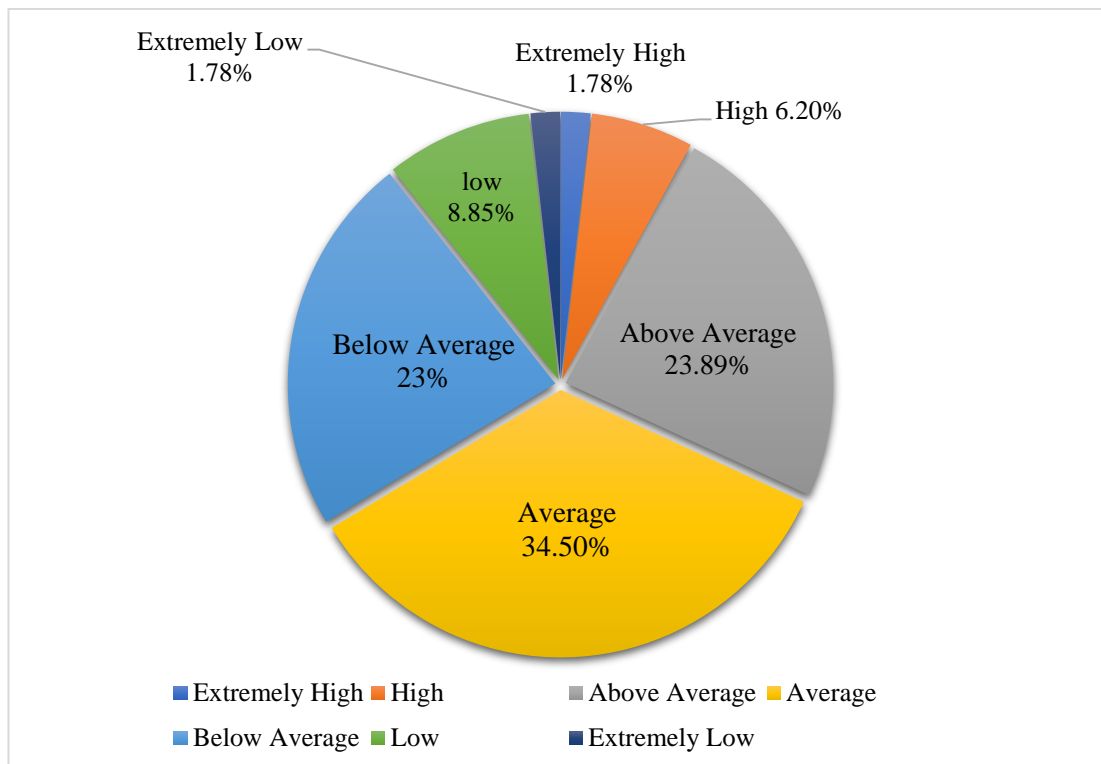
The interpretation on the level of EI based on the author is diverse from the norms recalibrated by the investigator from the total respondents. Depending on the norms recalibrated for male and female the number of respondents in each level are analysed separately.

The level of emotional intelligence of male and female as a whole has to be identified so as to know whether male or female have better level of emotional intelligence. The table provided represent the level of emotional intelligence of male.

Table No. 4.4
Level of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Male Teachers

Sl. No	Level of Emotional Intelligence	Nos.	%
1	Extremely High	2	1.78%
2	High	7	6.20%
3	Above Average	27	23.89%
4	Average	39	34.5%
5	Below Average	26	23%
6	Low	10	8.85%
7	Extremely Low	2	1.78%
Total		113	

Figure No. 4.4
Level of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Male Teachers



An analysis of the data vide table no 4.4 indicates a diverse range of emotional intelligence levels among the male prospective teachers. Only 2 (1.78%) students fall into the category of extremely high, which means a very small proportion of male students exhibit this level. With 7 students classified as having high level of emotional intelligence with a percentage 6.20%. The largest segment comprising of 27 (23.89%) students falls into the above-average category. The average category occupied by the largest number with 39 students (34.5%). In the category of below average 26 students are identified of 23%. Students with a number of 10, representing 8.85%, are categorized as having low emotional intelligence. Finally, similar to the extremely high category, 2 students (1.78%) are classified as having extremely low emotional intelligence.

4.1.3 Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Female Teachers

This analysis explores the emotional intelligence levels of female prospective teachers based on the collected data and hence their representation in different levels is presented in terms of percentage which are as follows:

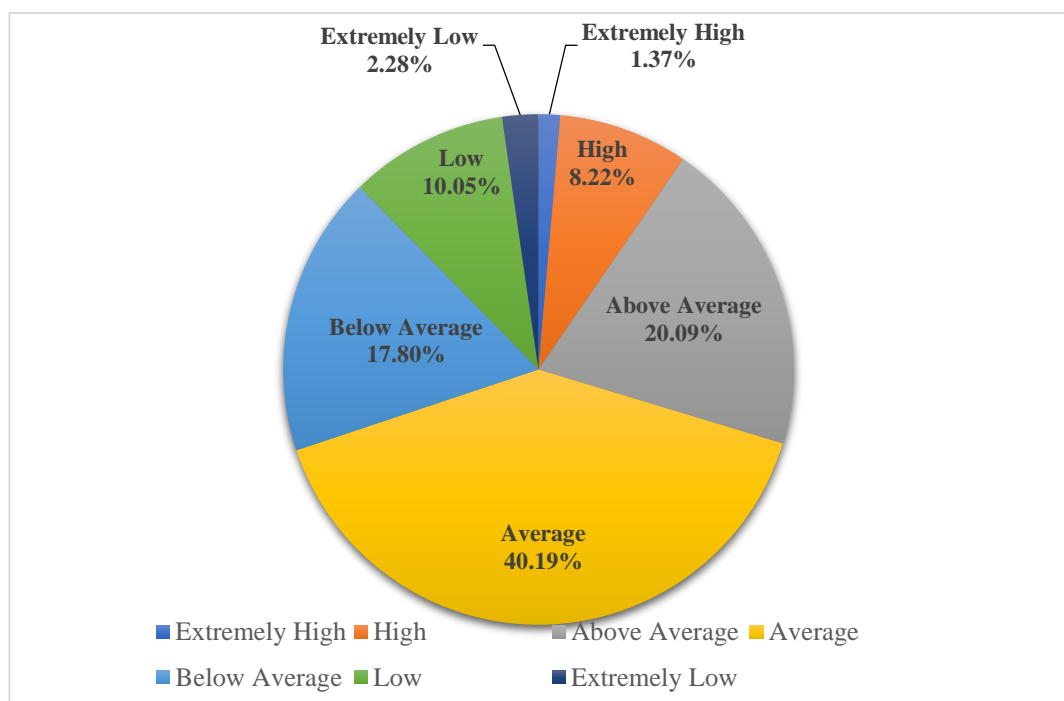
Table No. 4.5

Level of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Female Teachers

Sl. No	Level of Emotional Intelligence	Nos.	%
1	Extremely High	3	1.37%
2	High	18	8.22%
3	Above Average	44	20.09%
4	Average	88	40.19%
5	Below Average	39	17.80%
6	Low	22	10.05%
7	Extremely Low	5	2.28%
Total		219	

Figure No. 4.5

Level of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Female Teachers



The data presented for female highlighted on the table no 4.1.4 shows that only 1.37% female students fall into the level of extremely high emotional intelligence, which signifies that a minimal percentage exhibits excellent emotional intelligence. With 8.22% female categorized as having high emotional intelligence, this group represents those with strong emotional skills. Above average category includes 20.09% prospective teachers, indicating that a significant portion of female possess commendable emotional skills. The largest group consisting of 40.19% falls into the average category. As much female respondents of 17.80% are classified as below average. In the low level, 10.05% of female were found. Finally, 2.28% prospective teachers are categorized as having extremely low emotional intelligence.

4.2 Objective 2: Comparison of the Emotional Intelligence of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students.

The study compares the emotional intelligence of all the students, considering their level of education and gender as a factor. To do this, the investigator calculated the mean, standard deviation and calculated a 't' test to evaluate differences in the means. The results of this analysis are presented in the different tables provided.

4.2.0 To compare the emotional intelligence of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students

To know if there exist any differences between the two groups, the mean and standard deviation of the two groups were calculated separately. The mean difference between B.Ed. and M.Ed. was tested with the help of t-test, and the details are presented as follows:

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference between B.Ed. and M.Ed. students in their emotional intelligence.

Table No 4.6

Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of B.Ed. and M.Ed. Students

Level of Education	N	Mean	SD	df	t-value	Level of Significant
B.Ed.	252	18.5	4.72	330	2.33	0.05
M.Ed.	80	19.86	3.96			

A glance at the table no. 4.6 shows that the average emotional intelligence score for B.Ed. students is 18.5, while M.Ed. students have a higher average of 19.86. This difference indicates that M.Ed. students, on average, possess greater emotional intelligence than their B.Ed. counterparts. The standard deviation for B.Ed. students is 4.72, compared to 3.96 for M.Ed. students. A higher standard deviation indicates greater variability in emotional intelligence scores among B.Ed. students, the lower standard deviation for M.Ed. students implies that their emotional intelligence levels are more consistent. The calculated t-value is 2.33 which is significant at 0.05 level of significance. This indicates that the observed difference in mean scores is not by random chance, M.Ed. students generally exhibit higher emotional intelligence.

Thus, the hypothesis no 1 which stated, ‘there is no significant difference between B.Ed. and M.Ed. students in their emotional intelligence’ is rejected. M.Ed. students showed a high emotional intelligence as compared to B.Ed. students.

4.2.1 Comparison Based on Gender

Male and female students are also compared to find out whether there exist any differences in their emotional intelligence. The mean, standard deviation and t-test were calculated and presented in the provided table:

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on gender.

Table No 4.7

Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of Male and Female Students

Gender	N	Mean	SD	df	t-value	Level of Significant
Male	113	18.68	5.05	330	0.42	NS
Female	219	18.90	4.34			

The data presented for the comparison between male and female students is highlighted in table no. 4.7 in which the mean emotional intelligence score for female

students is 18.90, slightly higher than the male students' mean score of 18.68. Male students have a standard deviation of 5.05, while female students have a standard deviation of 4.34 which indicates their emotional intelligence scores are more spread out. The t-test results reveal a t-value of 0.42 which is less than the critical value and therefore not significant.

Therefore, the hypothesis which stated there is no significant difference between male and female student is accepted. While female students have a slightly higher mean score, the difference is not large enough to be considered statistically significant.

4.2.2 Comparison of Male and Female B.Ed. students.

To compare emotional intelligence of male and female B.Ed. students, the mean difference between the two groups was tested using t- test. The following table shows the comparison of male and female B.Ed. students towards their emotional intelligence.

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of male and female B.Ed. students

Table No 4.8

Comparison of the Emotional Intelligence of Male and Female B.Ed. Students

EIS	N	Mean	SD	t value	Level of Significance
B.Ed. Male	87	18.26	5.02	0.574	N.S
B.Ed. Female	165	18.62	4.56		

As shown in the table no 4.8, the mean emotional intelligence score for male B.Ed. students is 18.26, while female B.Ed. students have a slightly higher average of 18.62. This indicates that female students, on average, possess a higher level of emotional intelligence than their male counterparts, the difference is minimal. The standard deviation for male students is 5.02, compared to 4.56 for female students. The higher standard deviation among male students indicates greater variability in their emotional intelligence scores. The calculated t-value is 0.574 which is less than

the critical value at the required level of significance, suggests that the difference in emotional intelligence scores between male and female B.Ed. students is not statistically significant

Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of male and female B.Ed. students is accepted. It can be concluded that male and female B.Ed. students do not differ significantly in their emotional intelligence. The finding implies that male and female is not a significant differentiating factor regarding emotional intelligence.

4.2.3 Comparison of Male and Female M.Ed. students.

To compare emotional intelligence of male and female M.Ed. students, the mean difference between the two groups was tested using t- test. The following table shows the comparison of male and female M.Ed. students towards their emotional intelligence.

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of male and female M.Ed. students.

Table No 4.9
Comparison of Male and Female M.Ed. Students

EIS	N	Mean	SD	t value	Level of Significance
M.Ed. Male	26	20.07	4.96	0.334	N.S
M.Ed. Female	54	19.75	3.43		

From the table and figure 4.9, it can be seen that, the mean emotional intelligence score for male M.Ed. students is 20.07, while female M.Ed. students have a slightly lower mean of 19.75. This indicates that, on average, male students in the M.Ed. program possess higher emotional intelligence than their female counterparts. The standard deviation for male students is 4.96, compared to 3.43 for female students. The higher standard deviation in male students signifies greater variability in their emotional intelligence scores. This suggests that while some male students exhibit significantly high levels of emotional intelligence, others may struggle more than their female peers. The t-value of 0.334 indicates that the

difference in emotional intelligence scores between male and female M.Ed. students is not statistically significant. This implies that the observed differences in means is not significant.

Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of male and female M.Ed. students is accepted. It can be concluded that male and female M.Ed. students do not differ significantly in their emotional intelligence. However, the mean score of male students is slightly higher than that of their female students. The finding implies that male and female is not a significant differentiating factor regarding emotional intelligence among M.Ed. students.

4.2.4 Comparison of B.Ed. male and M.Ed. male students.

To test the emotional intelligence of B.Ed. male and M.Ed. students in which if there is any differences, the difference between the two groups was compared using t-test. The following table highlighted the difference between the two:

Hypothesis no. 5: There is no significant difference in emotional intelligence of B.Ed. male and M.Ed. male students.

Table No 4.10
Comparison of B.Ed. male and M.Ed. male Students

EIS	N	Mean	SD	t value	Level of Significance
B.Ed. Male	87	18.26	5.03	1.62	N.S
M.Ed. Male	26	20.08	4.96		

A glance at the table and figure no 4.10 shows that the mean emotional intelligence score for male B.Ed. students is 18.26, while male M.Ed. students have a higher average score of 20.08. This difference suggests that, on average, M.Ed. students exhibit higher emotional intelligence than their B.Ed. counterparts. The standard deviation for male B.Ed. students is 5.03, compared to 4.96 for male M.Ed. students. The relatively similar standard deviations indicate that emotional intelligence scores are consistent within both groups, although B.Ed. students exhibit

slightly more variability. The t-value of 1.62 which is less than the critical value indicates that the difference in emotional intelligence scores between male B.Ed. and M.Ed. students is not statistically significant. This means that while the mean scores suggest a trend, the differences could be attributed to chance rather than conclusive difference.

Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant difference in emotional intelligence of B.Ed. male and M.Ed. male students is accepted. The mean scores show a slightly differences with M.Ed. male being higher, however, do not differ in their emotional intelligence although their level of education differ. The finding implies that level of education is not a deciding factor in terms of emotional intelligence.

4.2.5 Comparison of B.Ed. female and M.Ed. female students.

To find out the difference in the emotional intelligence of B.Ed. female and M.Ed. female students, t-test was used to compare the two groups. Table no. 4.2.5 represent the difference between the two groups.

Hypothesis No. 6: There is no significant difference in emotional intelligence of B.Ed. female and M.Ed. female students.

Table No 4.11
Comparison of B.Ed. female and M.Ed. female Students

EIS	N	Mean	SD	t value	Level of Significance
B.Ed. Female	165	18.62	4.57	1.68	N.S
M.Ed. Female	54	19.76	3.44		

An examination of the data in the table no. 4.11 reveals that the mean emotional intelligence score for male B.Ed. students is 18.62, while female M.Ed. students have a higher mean score of 19.76. This suggests that, female M.Ed. students exhibit a greater level of emotional intelligence compared to male B.Ed. students. The standard deviation for male B.Ed. students is 4.57, compared to 3.44

for female M.Ed. students. The higher standard deviation in the B.Ed. group indicates greater variability in emotional intelligence scores. The calculated t-value which examines the difference between emotional intelligence of B.Ed. female and M.Ed. female students turned out to be 1.68. As the calculated t-value is lower than that of the critical value of 0.05 levels, the result is not statistically significant. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence between the two groups.

This resulted in the acceptance of the null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant difference in emotional intelligence of B.Ed. female and M.Ed. female students as the two groups do not statistically shows the differences.

4.3 Objective 3: To Construct Academic Adjustment Scale for B.Ed. and M.Ed. students.

The necessity for a current, reliable measuring instrument that was in line with the features of a particular population under study led to the construction and standardization of a Likert-type academic adjustment scale for B.Ed. and M.Ed. students. Although there were pre-made scales for assessing adjustment, it was crucial to make sure the test's norms accurately represented the population being studied at the time of the inquiry. The scoring pattern was 5-point likert scale of strongly disagree, disagree, undecided, agree, strongly agree.

Procedure for construction and standardization of the scale included the following:

4.3.0 Pooling of Items for Academic Adjustment/ Content validity

An initial pool of 100 items was developed to assess various aspects of academic adjustment. Experts in the field of Education and Psychology comprising of Professors and doctorate degree holders of around ten (10) were consulted and suggestions were sought for content validity. These ten (10) specialists assisted in identifying critical areas of concentration as well as appropriate measurement tools. The languages and sentences were also improved to enable the respondents to understand without any difficulty. After making modifications and changes as per the advised of the experts, the 100-item identified was reduced to 90 items.

4.3.1 Try-Out

The selected scale consisting of 90 items, was administered to a sample of 117 B.Ed. students. They were asked to provide feedback on their understanding and acceptance of each statement. Following the administration of the scale, the responses were analysed. It was found that all the statements were deemed acceptable and retained for subsequent analysis. The try-out phase was an important step in refining the scale. By administering it to a sample population and evaluating their responses, ambiguous or unclear statements were identified and removed to 87 items. This process helped ensure that the final scale is appropriate for use to the target population.

4.3.2 Item-Discrimination

The item-discrimination index represents the difference or discrimination between a low-scoring group (the bottom 27%) and a high-scoring group (the top 27%) based on performance on the question. The remaining 87-statement was administered to a group of B.Ed. students studied in IASE. After scoring the responses, all scores were arranged from lowest to highest. The top 27% and bottom 27% of respondents were then separated for further analysis. For each of the 87 statements, the average score (mean) and variability (standard deviation) were calculated for both the top and bottom scoring groups. A statistical test (t-test) was conducted for each statement to assess the significance of the difference in average scores between the top and bottom groups. This indicates how well the statement distinguishes between those with high and low overall scores. Statements with a t-value greater than the critical t value of 2.66 ($df > 100$ at $\alpha = .01$) were considered statistically significant at the 0.01 level, and were deemed effective at discriminating between high and low scorers. These items were retained. However, statements with a t-value below 2.63 and below were considered weak discriminators and were removed. Thus, the final version of the questionnaire used for data collection consisted of 45 statements. Mean, standard deviation and t-value of high and low groups on the constructed scale are presented in table 4.12.

Table No 4.12
Mean, Standard Deviation and t-value of High and Low Groups on Different
Items of Academic Adjustment Scale

Item No.	High Group		Low Group		t-value	significance
	mean	sd	mean	sd		
1	4.13	0.34	4.03	0.47	0.70	NS
2	3.47	1.27	3.59	0.87	5.36	*
3	3.50	0.76	3.47	0.88	0.14	NS
4	2.94	0.95	2.88	1.01	3.44	*
5	4.22	0.87	3.81	1.28	2.21	NS
6	4.13	0.49	4.06	0.50	1.03	NS
7	2.66	0.83	2.84	0.85	1.93	NS
8	2.34	1.04	2.47	0.84	0.23	NS
9	3.53	0.88	3.41	0.80	2.74	*
10	3.81	0.90	3.78	0.61	1.32	NS
11	3.44	1.22	3.31	1.03	4.15	*
12	3.19	0.82	3.56	0.84	3.72	*
13	3.50	1.02	3.53	0.84	1.58	NS
14	3.28	0.99	2.88	0.94	2.53	NS
15	2.44	0.91	2.69	0.93	2.63	NS
16	3.94	0.76	4.06	0.80	2.18	NS
17	3.38	1.01	3.41	0.84	4.86	*
18	3.31	1.00	3.28	0.99	4.15	*
19	4.03	0.54	3.78	0.71	1.92	NS
20	4.47	0.51	4.22	0.61	2.73	*
21	4.19	0.54	4.16	0.51	2.72	*
22	3.97	0.74	3.91	0.39	0.99	NS
23	4.22	0.71	3.97	0.47	3.54	*
24	3.81	0.64	3.72	0.73	3.57	*
25	4.56	0.50	4.34	0.55	6.21	*
26	3.38	1.01	3.56	1.05	0.59	NS
27	4.44	0.72	4.28	0.63	6.38	*
28	3.59	0.84	3.41	0.80	4.46	*

29	3.56	0.84	3.41	0.80	1.71	NS
30	3.38	1.13	3.25	0.98	4.14	*
31	3.75	1.02	3.84	0.68	2.34	NS
32	2.19	0.86	2.47	0.88	0.14	NS
33	3.53	0.92	3.69	0.59	4.32	*
34	2.78	1.16	3.03	0.93	3.17	*
35	2.97	1.06	3.28	0.81	4.78	*
36	4.19	0.64	4.31	0.47	1.43	NS
37	2.56	1.01	3.22	1.01	4.07	*
38	2.16	0.85	2.63	0.91	1.77	NS
39	3.47	0.88	3.56	0.88	7.27	*
40	3.75	0.95	3.63	0.87	3.87	*
41	3.63	1.26	3.56	0.91	3.05	*
42	3.31	1.15	3.47	0.92	4.98	*
43	3.38	1.21	3.28	0.89	2.97	*
44	4.44	0.56	4.25	0.67	5.66	*
45	3.13	1.31	3.50	1.11	0.97	NS
46	4.41	0.84	4.41	0.67	1.94	NS
47	2.13	1.13	2.56	1.19	1.90	NS
48	1.88	0.71	2.25	1.08	0.23	NS
49	3.72	0.89	4.00	0.67	4.56	*
50	2.88	0.98	3.38	0.87	2.48	NS
51	4.22	0.49	4.16	0.51	4.40	*
52	4.44	0.50	4.47	0.51	6.28	*
53	2.34	0.94	2.38	0.91	0.86	NS
54	4.41	0.56	4.19	0.54	2.61	NS
55	3.31	1.15	3.25	0.92	3.35	*
56	3.81	0.54	3.88	0.55	2.38	NS
57	4.28	0.73	4.09	0.64	6.36	*
58	3.09	1.12	3.53	0.84	3.64	*
59	3.09	1.20	3.13	1.13	5.80	*
60	4.09	3.94	0.69	0.91	1.87	NS
61	4.13	1.01	4.19	0.78	6.28	*

62	3.63	1.04	3.75	0.88	3.60	*
63	4.38	0.94	4.13	0.87	3.16	*
64	2.34	0.87	2.47	0.98	1.25	NS
65	4.19	0.93	4.09	0.64	3.51	*
66	2.84	1.19	2.84	0.95	4.65	*
67	3.94	0.72	3.75	0.72	0.32	NS
68	4.44	0.72	4.13	0.75	2.61	NS
69	4.31	0.78	4.19	0.59	2.44	NS
70	4.03	0.65	4.09	0.82	3.33	*
71	3.75	0.95	3.88	0.71	0.55	NS
72	4.28	0.46	4.00	0.57	3.16	*
73	3.53	0.84	3.78	0.61	2.65	*
74	3.09	0.96	3.09	0.89	2.94	*
75	3.66	0.75	3.72	0.89	0.64	NS
76	2.66	0.94	2.75	0.95	2.67	*
77	2.41	0.95	3.00	1.05	1.43	NS
78	2.66	1.15	2.69	0.82	0.84	NS
79	4.22	0.79	4.16	0.68	0.14	NS
80	2.75	1.30	2.84	1.08	3.33	*
81	3.75	0.84	3.84	0.77	2.04	NS
82	4.09	0.78	4.19	0.47	0.92	NS
83	4.16	0.88	4.06	0.76	2.79	*
84	2.75	1.08	3.19	1.12	1.54	NS
85	3.84	1.14	3.81	0.74	3.45	*
86	4.38	0.71	4.22	0.61	1.75	NS
87	3.81	1.12	3.91	0.93	2.26	NS

*NS- Not Significant * significant at 0.01 level*

4.3.2 Determining the Reliability of the Scale

Test-Retest Method and Split-Half Reliability of the scales were used to determine the temporal stability and internal consistency of the academic adjustment scale respectively.

Test-Retest Method:

The same adjustment scale is administered to a group of participants of 110 students twice, within an interval of one week from the first test. The test scores of the participants from both administrations were then correlated using Pearson's Product Moment method. The correlation coefficient yielded was 0.73 which means the scale measures academic adjustment among the B.Ed. students was relatively stable within the tested timeframe, which in turn suggests that academic adjustment being measured was not influenced by random factors. The test-retest scores of all 110 students are presented in Table 4.13

Table no 4.13

Test-retest Scores for Determining the Reliability of Academic Adjustment Scale

Sl. No	Scores on 1 st test	Scores on 2 nd test	Sl. No	Scores on 1 st test	Scores on 2 nd test	Sl. No	Scores on 1 st test	Scores on 2 nd test
1	186	186	38	160	166	75	168	167
2	203	202	39	182	186	76	148	154
3	145	168	40	154	156	77	176	179
4	164	169	41	178	169	78	184	186
5	175	164	42	206	217	79	168	174
6	166	170	43	167	167	80	184	195
7	193	220	44	172	165	81	181	169
8	179	148	45	193	191	82	169	166
9	196	186	46	193	186	83	153	181
10	174	170	47	199	183	84	170	178
11	178	175	48	181	186	85	192	172
12	185	189	49	163	158	86	171	177
13	200	190	50	181	181	87	170	169
14	173	177	51	200	184	88	184	180
15	165	170	52	194	157	89	228	225

16	184	175	53	157	190	90	179	172
17	178	171	54	165	142	91	168	172
18	181	178	55	188	179	92	178	179
19	179	176	56	178	183	93	198	205
20	159	155	57	166	172	94	173	177
21	188	177	58	180	179	95	216	205
22	158	176	59	168	162	96	189	188
23	195	195	60	172	173	97	184	180
24	176	184	61	186	192	98	167	165
25	160	159	62	175	170	99	191	194
26	180	195	63	161	162	100	174	173
27	186	186	64	186	183	101	163	165
28	167	183	65	172	184	102	177	178
29	182	184	66	191	201	103	201	188
30	200	202	67	178	178	104	192	195
31	176	173	68	173	165	105	152	150
32	163	174	69	183	190	106	182	194
33	181	180	70	180	175	107	191	191
34	165	172	71	195	186	108	176	186
35	170	167	72	153	163	109	153	165
36	188	188	73	168	172	110	172	172
37	166	162	74	174	144			

Split-Half Reliability:

The adjustment scale was divided into two halves by splitting the odd and even numbered items. These halves were then treated as separate mini-tests and administered to the participants once. The correlation coefficient between these two halves were taken and found to be 0.84. Such a high correlation coefficient between the two halves indicates good internal consistency. This means the items within the scale can be assumed to be measuring the academic adjustment in a consistent way.

Table no 4.14
Split Half Scores for Determining the Reliability of the Academic Adjustment
Scale

Sl. No	Scores on one half	Scores on two half	Sl. No	Scores on one half	Scores on two half	Sl. No	Scores on one half	Scores on two half
1	91	95	38	91	75	75	82	85
2	102	100	39	94	92	76	78	76
3	80	88	40	78	78	77	92	87
4	82	87	41	82	87	78	93	93
5	78	86	42	110	107	79	89	85
6	87	83	43	85	82	80	97	98
7	110	110	44	83	82	81	85	84
8	74	74	45	95	96	82	88	78
9	94	92	46	94	92	83	90	91
10	82	88	47	93	90	84	89	89
11	86	89	48	92	94	85	87	85
12	91	98	49	81	77	86	90	87
13	94	96	50	90	91	87	84	85
14	87	90	51	94	90	88	90	90
15	88	82	52	79	78	89	109	116
16	89	86	53	99	91	90	83	89
17	83	88	54	69	73	91	84	88
18	86	92	55	87	92	92	94	85
19	87	89	56	89	94	93	101	104
20	80	75	57	84	88	94	89	88
21	93	84	58	91	88	95	102	103
22	90	86	59	79	83	96	94	94
23	99	96	60	85	88	97	89	91
24	93	91	61	94	98	98	82	83
25	78	81	62	83	87	99	101	93

26	100	95	63	82	80	100	88	85
27	93	93	64	92	91	101	84	81
28	94	89	65	96	88	102	89	89
29	93	91	66	103	98	103	95	93
30	105	97	67	88	90	104	97	98
31	83	90	68	82	83	105	73	77
32	90	84	69	97	93	106	96	98
33	88	92	70	91	84	107	97	94
34	87	85	71	92	94	108	95	91
35	81	86	72	83	80	109	81	84
36	93	95	73	87	85	110	87	85
37	81	81	74	72	72			

4.3.3 Establishment of Validity

The tool constructed by the researcher has been one of its kind in the research field. No other similar has been discovered by the investigator. For this reason, it was felt necessary on the part of the researcher to develop the scale so that students undergoing teacher education programme would make use of it for the best possible manner. Therefore, only content validity could be established to evaluate how well an instrument covers all relevant parts of the construct it aims to measure. The selected 45 items was sent to experts in the field of education. According to their observation and responses, the tool constructed was accepted and hence possessed content validity.

4.3.4 Scoring procedure and serial number of positive and negative items

The scoring procedure used for the academic adjustment scale was with the pattern suggested by the Likert scale using a five-point scale like Strongly Agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree. The positive statements were scored with values of 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1, while negative statements were score using 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5. With a total of 45 statements in the scale, the highest possible score on

the test is $45 \times 5 = 225$, and the lowest score would be $45 \times 1 = 45$. The serial item numbers with positive and negative statements are in the following table:

Table no 4.15
Item numbers for Positive and Negative Statements

Sl. No	Types of Statement	Item No.	Total
1	Negative	1, 2, 4, 6, 7, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 26, 27, 29, 30, 31, 32, 34, 37, 41, 42, 43, 45	28
2	Positive	3, 5, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 25, 28, 33, 35, 36, 38, 39, 40, 44	17
		Total	45

Norms and Interpretation of Academic Adjustment Scale

In order to establish the norms for the academic adjustment scale, the investigator administered the newly constructed scale to 332 B.Ed. and M.Ed. students of teacher education institutions of Mizoram. The scores of the respondents were tabulated and the norms for interpreting the scores are based on Z-score. The raw scores of all 332 students were transformed into z-score as shown in the following table.

Table No 4.16
Z-score Norms for Academic Adjustment Scale

Raw score	Z-score	Raw score	Z-score	Raw score	Z-score	Raw score	Z-score
118	-2.79	148	-0.99	167	0.14	186	1.28
124	-2.43	149	-0.93	168	0.20	187	1.34
126	-2.31	150	-0.87	169	0.26	188	1.40
128	-2.19	151	-0.81	170	0.32	189	1.46
129	-2.13	152	-0.75	171	0.38	190	1.52
131	-2.01	153	-0.69	172	0.44	192	1.64
132	-1.95	154	-0.63	173	0.50	193	1.70
134	-1.83	155	-0.58	174	0.56	195	1.82
135	-1.77	156	-0.52	175	0.62	196	1.88
138	-1.59	157	-0.46	176	0.68	197	1.94
139	-1.53	158	-0.40	177	0.74	199	2.06
140	-1.47	159	-0.34	178	0.80	200	2.12
141	-1.41	160	-0.28	179	0.86	201	2.18
142	-1.35	161	-0.22	180	0.92	202	2.24
143	-1.29	162	-0.16	181	0.98	204	2.36
144	-1.23	163	-0.10	182	1.04	207	2.54
145	-1.17	164	-0.04	183	1.10		
146	-1.11	165	0.02	184	1.16		
147	-1.05	166	0.08	185	1.22		

Based on the Z-score norms, norms for interpretation of the level of academic adjustment have been presented in the provided table.

Table No 4.17
Norms for Interpretation of Academic Adjustment Scale

Sl. No	Raw Score	Range of Z-Scores	Level of Academic Adjustment	Interpretation
1	199 & above	2.01 & above	Extremely High	High
2	186 - 198	1.26 to 2.00	High	
3	174 - 185	0.51 to 1.25	Above Average	Average
4	157 - 173	-0.50 to 0.50	Average	
5	144 - 156	-0.51 to -1.25	Below Average	
6	132 - 143	-1.26 to -2.00	Low	Low
7	131 & below	-2.01 & below	Extremely Low	

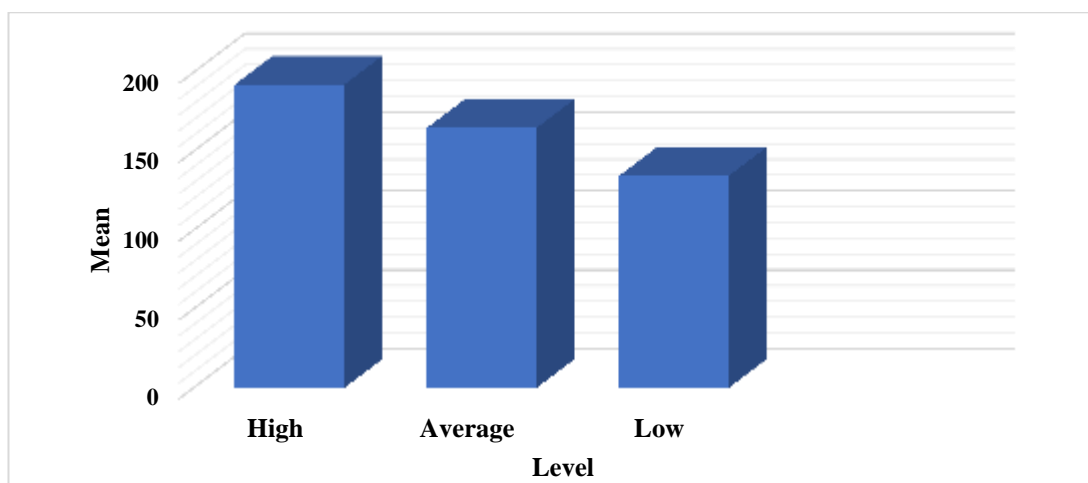
4.4 Objective 4: To identify the level of academic adjustment of prospective teachers.

As the investigator tried to find the level of academic adjustment of prospective teachers, a constructed questionnaire was distributed to the students of B.Ed. and M.Ed. consisting of 332 respondents. The following table represent the level of the academic adjustment of B.Ed. and M.Ed. based on the norms for the academic adjustment of the students.

Table No. 4.18
Level of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers

Sl. No	Level of Academic Adjustment	No. of Students	Percentage	Mean	SD
1	High	34	10.24%	192.29	6.21
2	Average	265	79.82%	164.81	11.23
3	Low	33	9.94%	134.36	6.53
Total		332			

Figure No. 4.6
Level of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers



The data in table 4.18 and figure 4.6 reveals that the mean score of high academic adjustment level is 192.29 with a standard deviation of 6.21. They comprised of the 10.24% of the students. Majority of students 79.82% fall into the average group, the mean score is 164.81 and standard deviation is 11.23. The low category is exhibited by 9.94%, the mean score is 134.36 and standard deviation is 6.53.

4.4.0 Level of Academic Adjustment of B.Ed. Students.

This analysis explores the levels of academic adjustment among B.Ed. students, categorizing them into high, average, and low levels. The level of academic adjustment is presented in the table provided.

Table No. 4.19
Level of Academic Adjustment of B.Ed. Students

Sl. No	Level of Academic Adjustment	No. of Students	Male	%	Female	%
1	High	26	11	12.6%	15	9.09%
2	Average	203	64	73.6%	137	83.03%
3	Low	23	12	13.8%	13	7.88%
Total		252	87		165	

Figure No. 4.7 (a)
Level of Academic Adjustment of Male B.Ed. Students

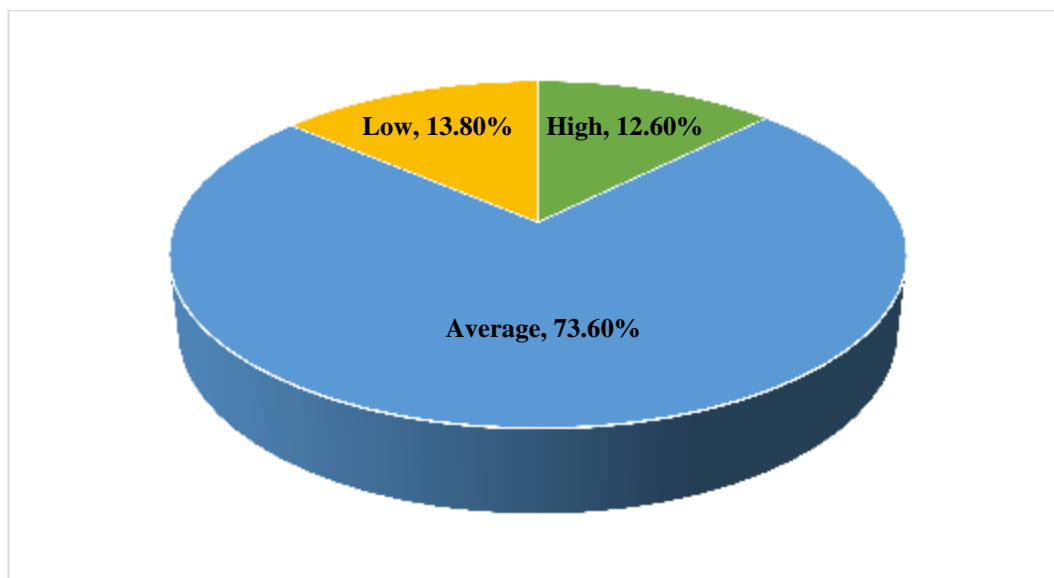
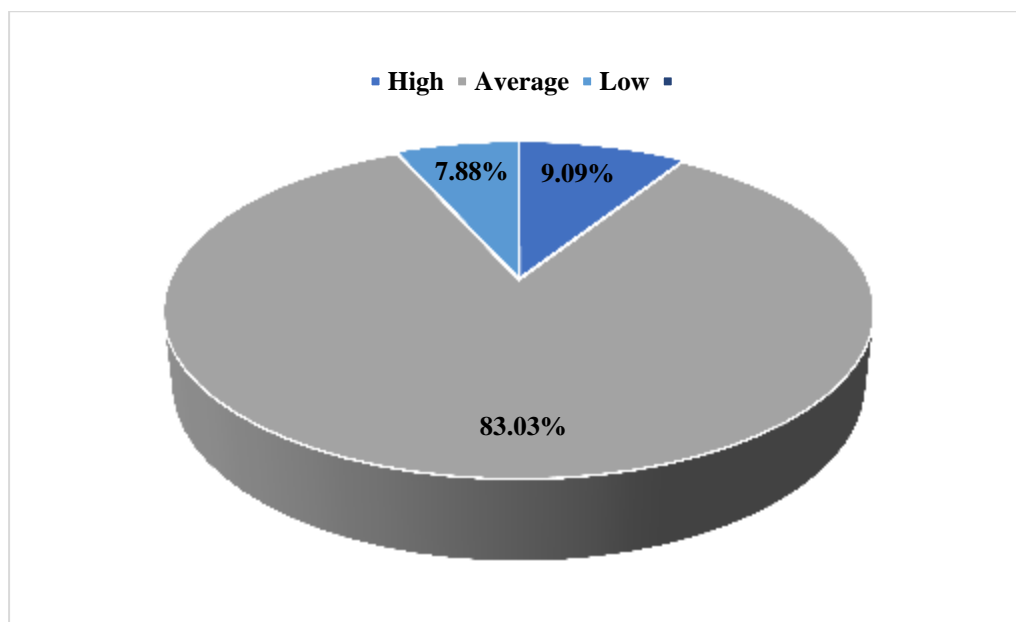


Figure No. 4.7 (b)
Level of Academic Adjustment of Female B.Ed. Students



As depicted in table 4.19 and figure no. 4.7 (a & b) focuses on the levels of academic adjustment among B.Ed. students, to know the level of adjustment exhibited by male and female. The data reveals the distribution of academic

adjustment levels among B.Ed. students as the high adjustment category comprises of 10.32% with males of 12.6% and females of 9.09%. The average level of adjustment is the most populated with 80.56%. A larger proportion of females (83.03%) fall into average category compared to males (73.6%). The low adjustment category includes 29.13%, with 13.8% of males and 7.88% of females.

The analysis shows that female students represent a larger percentage in both high (9.09% & 12.6%) and average adjustment categories (84.24% & 73.6%). However, the difference in the low adjustment category is minimal, with 6.67% of females compared to 13.8% of males.

4.4.1 Level of Academic Adjustment of M.Ed. Students.

The levels of academic adjustment among M.Ed. students are presented and the data were explored by gender based. The data were presented in the provided table.

Table No. 4.20
Level of Academic Adjustment of M.Ed. Students

Sl. No	Level of Academic Adjustment	No. of Students	Male	%	Female	%
1	High	8	2	7.69%	6	11.11%
2	Average	65	21	80.77%	43	79.63%
3	Low	7	3	11.54%	5	9.26%
Total		80	26		54	

Figure No. 4.8 (a)
Level of Academic Adjustment of Male M.Ed. Students

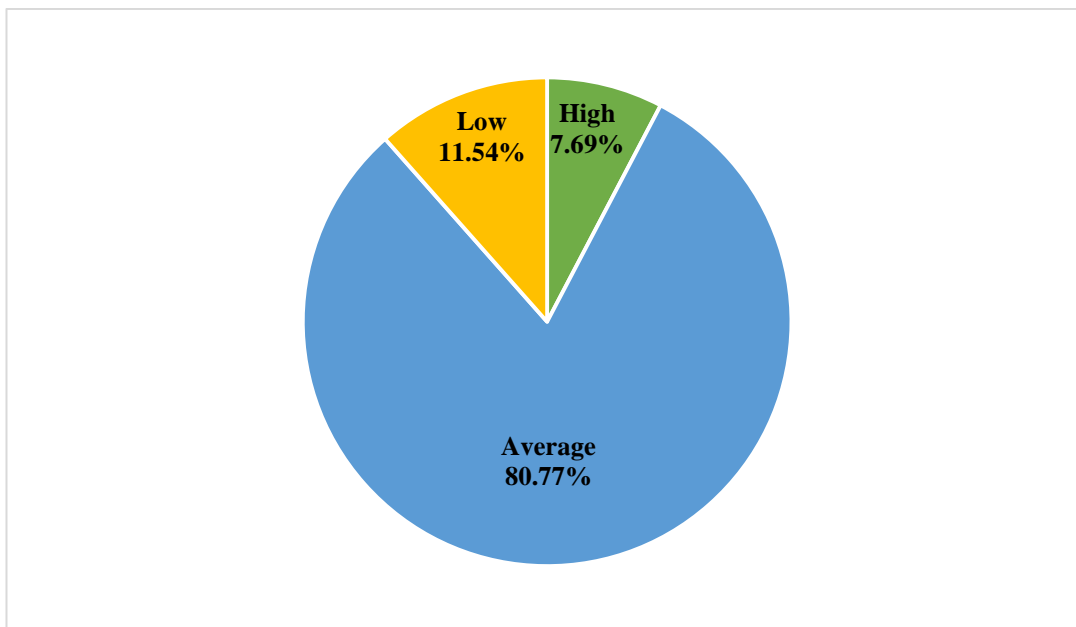
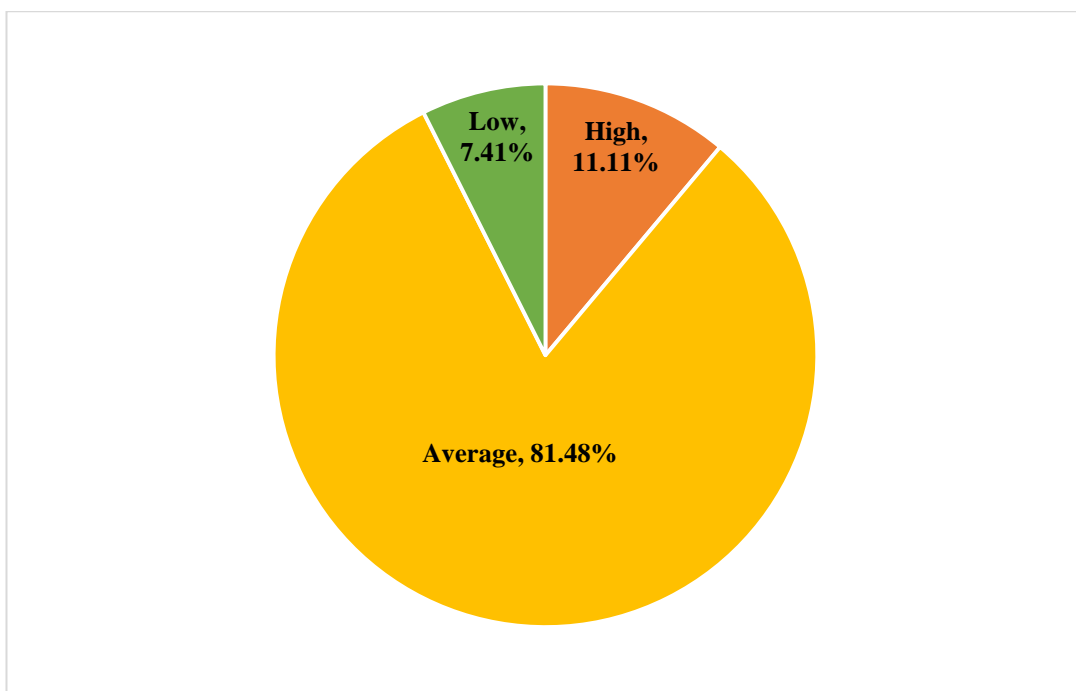


Figure No. 4.8 (b)
Level of Academic Adjustment of Female M.Ed. Students



As shown in table no 4.20 and figure no 4.8 (a & b), data analysis reveals that 10% fall into the high adjustment category, with 7.69% males and 11.11% females.

Average category has majority of the students with 81.25%. In this category, the proportion of male numbering 21 (80.77%) and female numbering 43 (79.63%) is quite comparable. The number of students in the low category is 8.75% consisting of 11.54% males and 9.26% females.

According to the data, a higher percentage of female students attain high academic adjustment than male students (11.11% & 7.69%). The percentages for both genders in the average adjustment group are very close, indicating that academic adjustment levels are similar for male and female. The low adjustment category shows a slightly higher percentage of males (11.54%) compared to females (7.41%).

4.4.2 Academic Adjustment of Prospective Male Teachers.

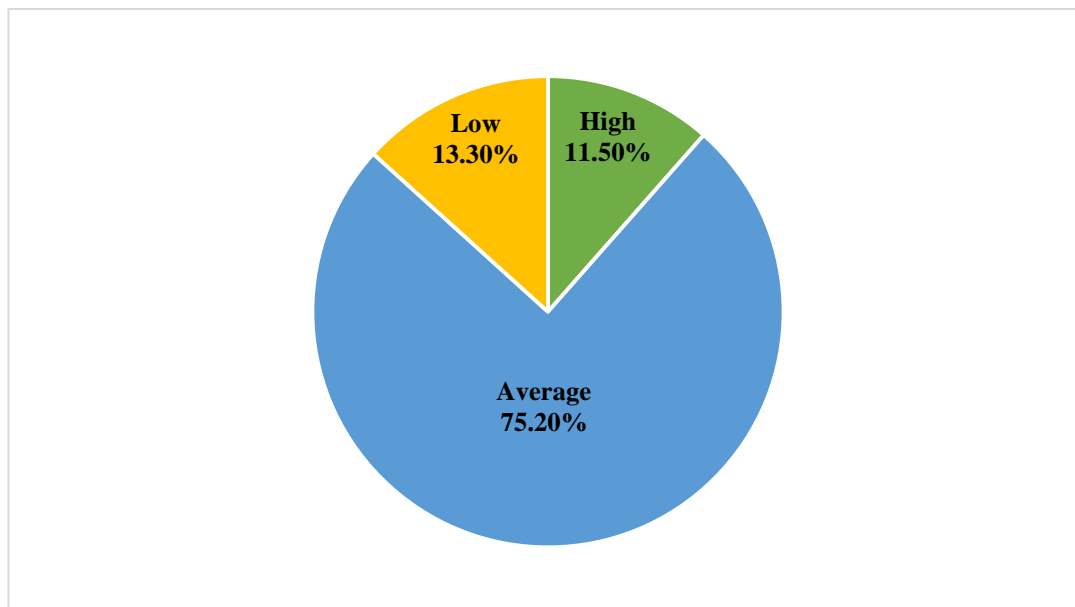
As per the data collected and tabulated, it is important to identify level of academic adjustment of all male students to know how well they were adjusted in the academic environment. The data were presented in the form of table provided.

Table No. 4.21

Level of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Male Teachers

Sl. No	Level of Academic Adjustment	Nos.	%
1	High	13	11.50%
2	Average	85	75.2%
3	Low	15	13.3%
Total		113	

Figure No. 4.9
Level of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Male Teachers



The analysis table no. 4.21 and figure no 4.9 examines the distribution of academic adjustment levels among prospective teachers of males and the distribution of data according to the norms is high, average and low level of academic adjustment. 11.50% of male are categorized as having high academic adjustment. A significant majority of 75.20% fall into the average adjustment category and lastly, the low adjustment category accounting for 13.3% of the total students.

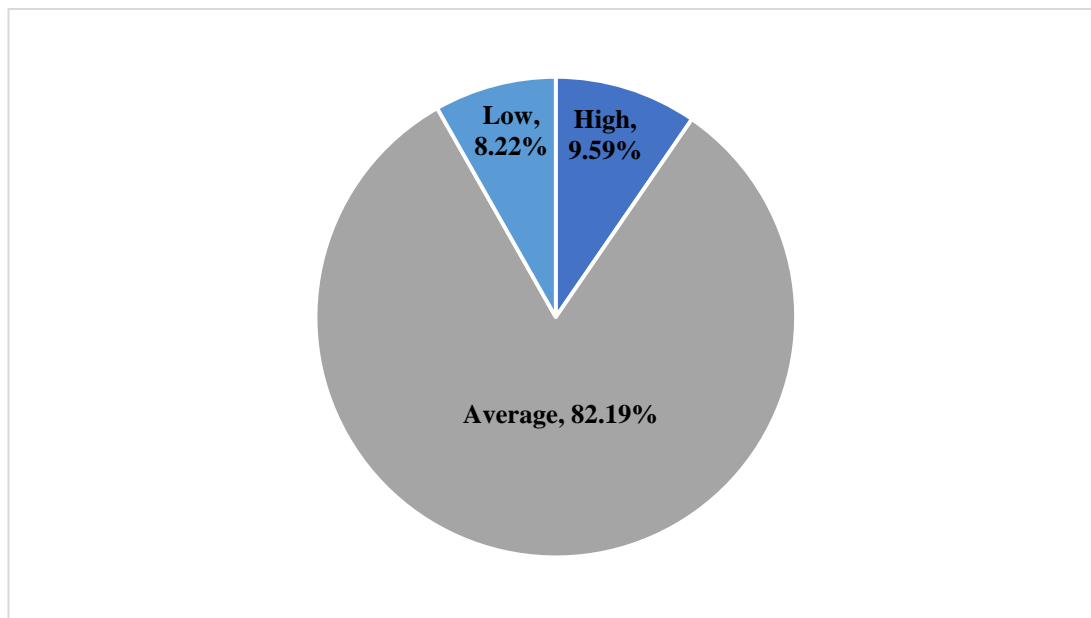
4.4.3 Academic Adjustment of Prospective Female Teachers

The academic adjustment of B.Ed. & M.Ed. female students are identified based on the scores obtained. The table reveals the level of academic adjustment of female students.

Table No. 4.22
Level of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Female Teachers

Sl. No	Level of Academic Adjustment	Nos.	%
1	High	21	9.59%
2	Average	180	82.19%
3	Low	18	8.22%
Total		219	

Figure No. 4.10
Level of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Female Teachers



As depicted in table 4.22 and figure no 4.10, 9.59% of female students are categorized as having high academic adjustment. A significant majority of female students 82.19% fall into the average adjustment category. Finally, a small but notable proportion of female students consists of 8.22% of the total are in the low adjustment category.

4.5 Objective 5: To compare the academic adjustment.

The academic adjustment of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students can be identified by comparing their scores and calculating the mean. The researcher has taken into consideration with help of the self-develop questionnaire for which statistical techniques were used to find out the mean, standard deviation, and 't' test to find any significant differences.

4.5.0 Comparison of the Academic Adjustment Prospective Teachers.

To compare the academic adjustment of prospective teachers, the mean difference between the two groups was tested using t- test. The following table shows the comparison of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students towards their academic adjustment.

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference between B.Ed. and M.Ed. students in their academic adjustment.

Table No 4.23
Comparison of B.Ed. and M.Ed. Students in their Academic Adjustment

Level of Education	N	Mean	SD	df	t-value	Sig. level
B.Ed.	252	164.57	16.70	330	0.04	NS
M.Ed.	80	164.66	16.74			

A perusal of data vide table no 4.23 highlights the mean scores for both B.Ed. and M.Ed. students which are very close, with B.Ed. students scoring an average of 164.57 and M.Ed. students averaging 164.66. This indicates that both groups exhibit similar levels of academic adjustment. The standard deviations are also comparable, suggesting that the variability in academic adjustment scores is similar for both groups. The t-value of 0.04 indicates a very small difference between the two means. Since, the calculated t-value is lower than the critical value, it implies that the difference in academic adjustment between B.Ed. and M.Ed. students is not statistically significant.

Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated ‘there is no significant difference between B.Ed. and M.Ed. students in their academic adjustment’ is accepted. It shows that there is no significant difference between B.Ed. and M.Ed. students in their academic adjustment.

4.5.1 Comparison based on Gender.

The study compared the academic adjustment among prospective teachers based on gender. The difference is examined by calculating mean, standard deviation and t-test to give dependable results. The results of the analysis are presented in the table no 4.24.

Hypothesis 8: There is no significant difference between prospective teachers in their academic adjustment based on gender.

Table No 4.24
Comparison of Male and Female Students in their Academic Adjustment

Gender	N	Mean	SD	df	t-value	Sig. level
Male	113	166.58	18.27	330	1.56	N.S
Female	219	163.57	15.76			

An examination of table no. 4.24 shows that, as the academic adjustment levels between male and female students is calculated, according to the result, the mean academic adjustment score for male students is 166.58 which is higher than the mean for female students of 163.57. This suggests that, generally male students exhibit a little better level of adjustment to their academic setting than female students. Male students have a higher standard deviation (18.27) than female students (15.76). This implies that, in comparison to female students, male students show more variation in their degrees of academic adjustment. The calculated t-value is 1.56 which is less than the critical value. It is therefore, not significant for the calculation of any differences between male and female students. The comparison of academic adjustment levels between male and female students reveals that while male students report slightly higher adjustment scores, the difference is not statistically significant.

Thus, the null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant difference between B.Ed. and M.Ed. students in terms of gender is accepted. It can be concluded that gender is not a differentiating factor in academic adjustment of the students for the present study.

4.5.2 Comparison of Academic Adjustment of Male and Female B.Ed. Students.

To compare the academic adjustment of male and female B.Ed. students, the mean difference between the two groups was tested using t- test. The following table shows the comparison of male and female B.Ed. students towards their academic adjustment.

Hypothesis 9: There is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of male and female B.Ed. students.

Table No 4.25

Comparison of the Academic Adjustment of Male and Female B.Ed. Students

Academic Adjustment	N	Mean	SD	t value	Level of Significance
B.Ed. Male	87	166.47	18.81	1.31	N.S
B.Ed. Female	165	163.57	15.44		

As shown in the table no 4.25, the male B.Ed. students have a higher mean academic adjustment score which is 166.47 compared to female students mean score of 163.57. The standard deviation indicates the variability of scores within each group. The male group has a higher SD score of 18.81 compared to female score of 15.44, which means male students' academic adjustment scores are more spread out, indicating greater variability in how different male students adjust academically. The calculated t-value is 1.31 which is less than the critical value at the required level of significance. The fact that the result is not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$) means that the observed difference in mean scores suggest to conclude that there is a true difference in academic adjustment between male and female B.Ed. students.

Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of male and female B.Ed. students is accepted. It can be concluded that male and female B.Ed. students do not differ significantly in their academic adjustment. However, the mean score of male students is higher than

that of their female counterparts. The finding implies that male and female is not a significant differentiating factor regarding academic adjustment among B.Ed. students.

4.5.3 Comparison of the academic adjustment of male and female M.Ed. students.

To compare the academic adjustment of male and female M.Ed. students, the mean difference between the two groups was tested using t- test. The following table shows the comparison of male and female M.Ed. students towards their academic adjustment.

Hypothesis 10: There is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of male and female M.Ed. students.

Table No 4.26
Comparison of the Academic Adjustment of Male and Female M.Ed.
Students

Academic Adjustment	N	Mean	SD	t value	Level of Significance
M.Ed. Male	26	166.96	16.63	0.85	N.S
M.Ed. Female	54	163.55	16.84		

Looking into the table no. 4.26, it can be seen that the mean academic adjustment score for male M.Ed. students is 166.96, while for female M.Ed. students, it is 163.55. This suggest that male students have a slightly higher level of academic adjustment compared to their female counterparts. The male students have an SD of 16.63, and the female students have an SD of 16.84. The difference in standard deviations suggest that both groups have similar levels of variability in their academic adjustment scores. The calculated t-value of 0.85 is relatively low, indicating that the difference in mean scores is not large to consider the variation within the group as it is less than the critical value at the required level of significance. It indicates that there is no statistically significant difference in academic adjustment between male and female M.Ed. students.

Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of male and female M.Ed. students is accepted. It can be concluded that male and female M.Ed. students do not differ significantly in their academic adjustment. However, the mean score of male students is higher than that of their female students. The finding implies that male and female is not a significant differentiating factor regarding academic adjustment among M.Ed. students.

4.5.4 Comparison of the Academic Adjustment of B.Ed. Male and M.Ed. Male Students.

To find out how well the male students of B.Ed. and M.Ed. are adjusted, statistical technique of t-test is used. The provided table highlighted the comparison between the two groups.

Hypothesis 11: There is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of B.Ed. male and M.Ed. male students.

Table No 4.27
Comparison of the academic adjustment of B.Ed. male and M.Ed. male Students

Academic Adjustment	N	Mean	SD	t value	Level of Significance
B.Ed.. Male	87	166.47	18.82	0.12	N.S
M.Ed. Male	26	166.96	16.63		

An examination of the result vide table no 4.27 reveals the academic adjustment of male students pursuing Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) and Master of Education (M.Ed.) degrees. The comparison focuses on key statistical measures, including sample size (N), mean scores, standard deviation (SD), t-value, and the level of significance. The table shows that the mean academic adjustment scores of B.Ed. male students is 166.47 and M.Ed. male students is 166.96 which are quite close. It means that both groups exhibit similar levels of adjustment. The standard deviations indicate variability in scores, with B.Ed. students showing slightly more

variability ($SD = 18.82$) compared to M.Ed. students ($SD = 16.63$). The t-value of 0.12 indicates a minimal difference between the two means, and since the significance level is less than the critical value, it can be concluded that there is no statistically significant difference in academic adjustment between B.Ed. and M.Ed. male students.

Therefore, the hypothesis which stated there is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of B.Ed. male and M.Ed. male students is accepted. It suggested that both groups are equally well-adjusted to their academic environments. It also implies that level of education is not a differentiating factor in the academic adjustment.

4.5.5 Comparison of the Academic Adjustment of B.Ed. Female and M.Ed. Female Students.

This analysis focuses on the academic adjustment of female students enrolled in B.Ed. and M.Ed. programs, highlighting key statistical measures such as sample size (N), mean scores, standard deviation (SD), t-value, and level of significance.

Hypothesis 12: There is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of B.Ed. female and M.Ed. female students.

Table No 4.28
Comparison of the Academic Adjustment of B.Ed. Female and M.Ed. Female Students

Academic Adjustment	N	Mean	SD	t value	Level of Significance
B.Ed. Female	165	163.58	15.44	0.0082	NS
M.Ed. Female	54	163.56	16.85		

A glance at the result vide table no. 4.28 reveals that the mean academic adjustment scores for B.Ed. female students (163.58) and M.Ed. female students (163.56) are strikingly similar, suggesting that both groups are equally well-adjusted

in their respective academic environment. The standard deviation for B.Ed. students (15.44) indicates slightly less variability in their adjustment scores compared to the M.Ed. students (16.85), suggesting that the B.Ed. group has a more consistent experience regarding academic adjustment. The t-value of 0.0082 indicates a minimal difference between the two groups. Furthermore, since the t-value is lower than the critical value, it implies that there is no statistically significant difference in academic adjustment between B.Ed. and M.Ed. female students.

Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated there is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of B.Ed. female and M.Ed. female students is accepted. It can be concluded that both B.Ed. and M.Ed. female students experience similar levels of academic adjustment.

4.6 Objective 6: To examine the cognitive styles of prospective teachers.

To know the cognitive styles of the students, the norms for interpretation have already been developed by the investigator following the author. The scores on the level of cognitive styles are tabulated and presented in the table.

Table No 4.29
Cognitive Styles of Prospective Teachers

Sl. No	Cognitive Styles	N	%	Male	%	Female	%
1	Systematic Style	23	6.92	9	8.04	14	6.36
2	Intuitive Style	2	0.9	0	0	2	0.90
3	Integrated Style	71	21.39	28	25	43	19.56
4	Undifferentiated Style	71	21.39	25	22.32	46	20.90
5	Split Style	165	49.40	50	44.64	115	52.28
Total		332		112		220	

Figure No 4.18 (a)
Cognitive Styles of Prospective Teachers

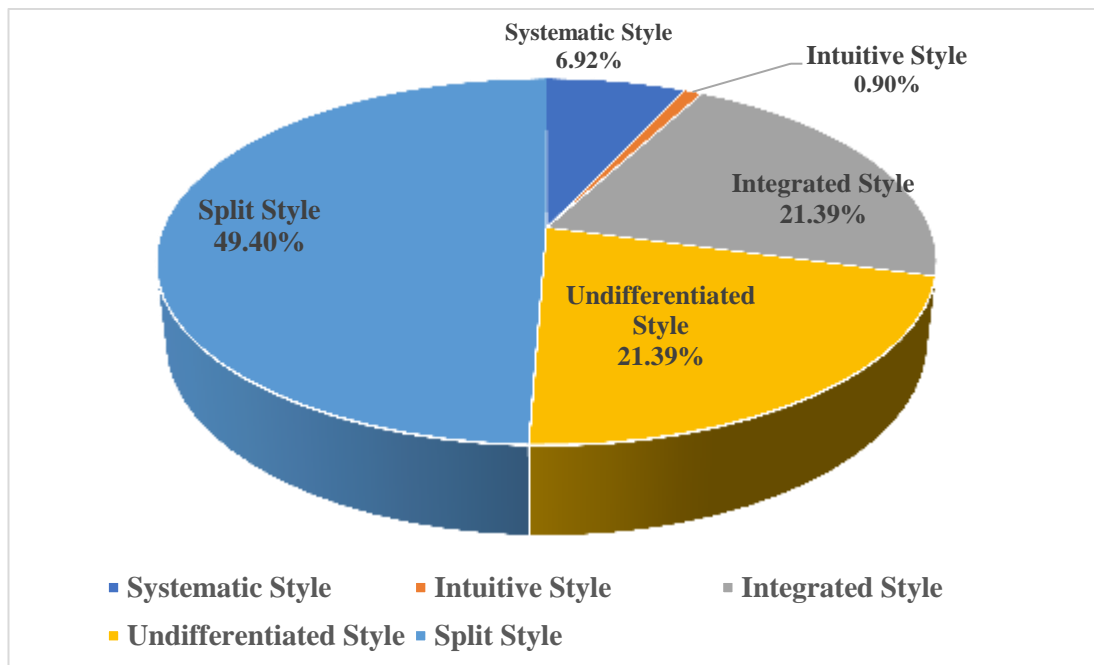


Figure No 4.18 (b)
Cognitive Styles of Male Students

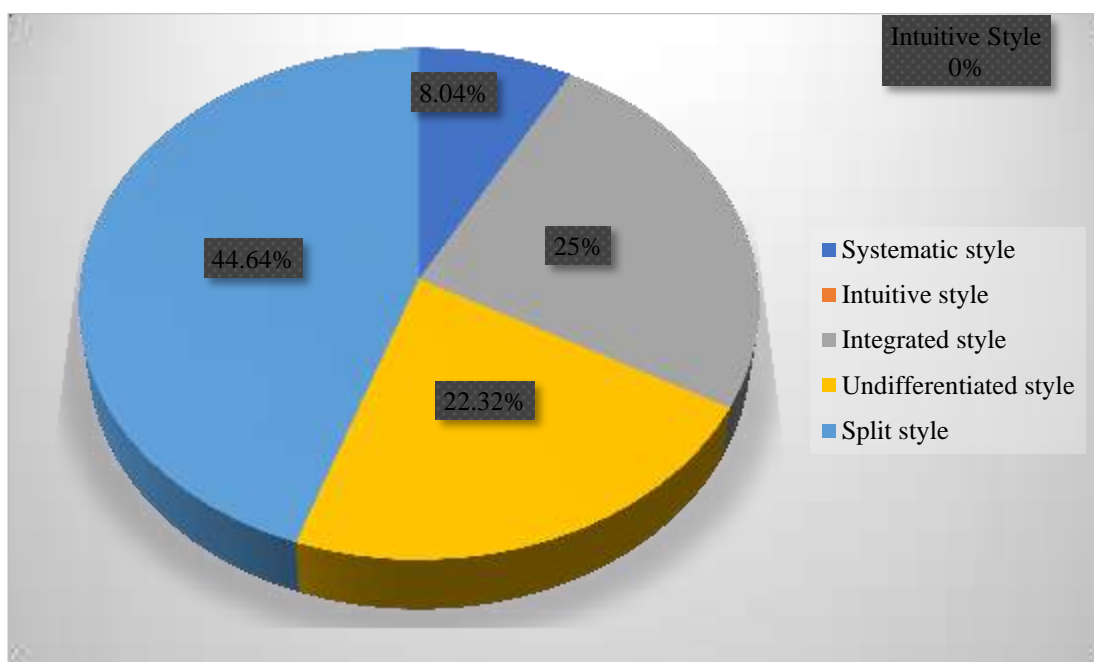
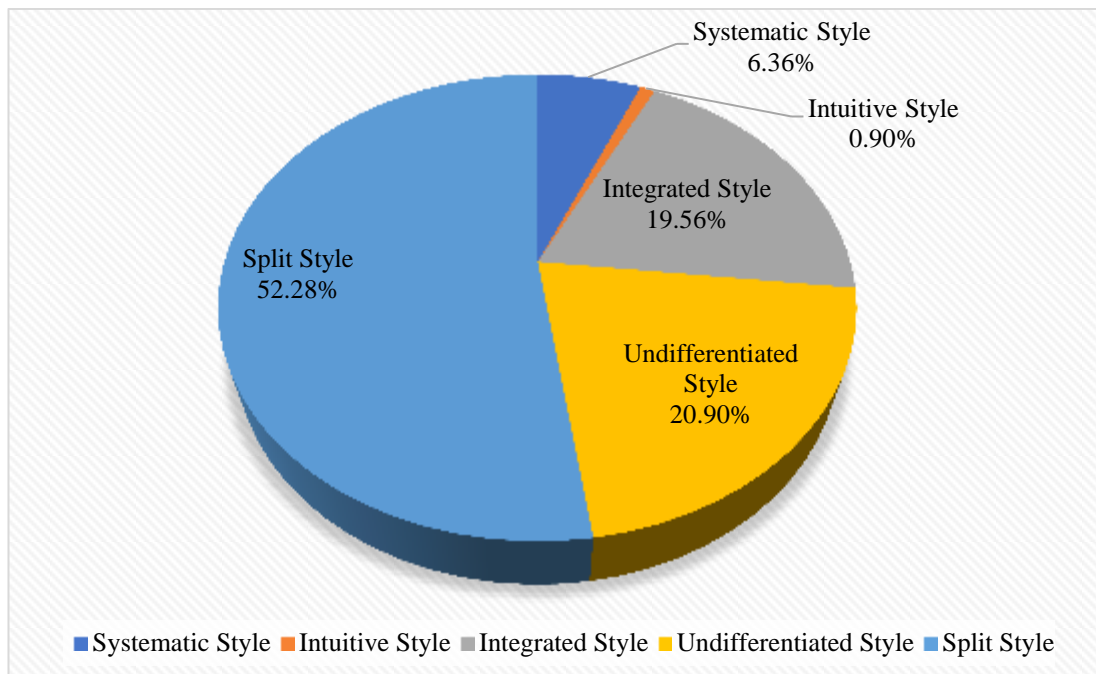


Figure No 4.18 (c)
Cognitive Styles of Female Students



As presented in the table no 4.29 and figures 4.184 (a, b & c), the data was analysed to categorize students according to their cognitive styles. The number of students in each cognitive style category was determined and expressed as a percentage. The most prevalent cognitive style in this study is the Split Style, which accounts for 165 (49.40%) of the total students. Female of 115 and male students of 50 in numbers are in this category. It is noteworthy that a higher percentage of females (52.28%) fall into this category compared to males (44.64%). Both the Integrated and Undifferentiated styles represent 21.39% of the student population each. The Integrated Style is slightly common in males with 28 in numbers (25%) than females with 43 in numbers (19.56%). Conversely, the Undifferentiated Style is more common among females with 46 in numbers (20.90%) than males with 25 in numbers (22.32%). Systematic style is relatively rare, accounting for only 23 (6.92%) of the overall sample. Male students of 9 (8.04%) show a slightly higher tendency for this style compared to females of 14 (6.36%). The Intuitive Style is the least represented, with only 2 (0.9%) of students identifying with it. Notably, all students exhibiting this style are female.

4.6.0 Cognitive Style of B.Ed. Students

The cognitive styles of B.Ed. students were identified according to the scores in the test booklet. Students who have their own style were classified and the percentage of the students exhibiting each style were calculated. They were represented in the table no 4.30.

Table No. 4.30
Cognitive Style of B.Ed. Students

Sl. No	Cognitive Styles	Male	%	Female	%
1	Systematic style	9	8.58%	9	6.12%
2	Intuitive style	0	0%	0	0%
3	Integrated style	18	17.14%	27	18.37%
4	Undifferentiated style	39	37.14%	21	14.29%
5	Split style	39	37.14%	90	61.22%
Total		105		147	

Figure No. 4.19 (a)
Cognitive Style of Male B.Ed. Students

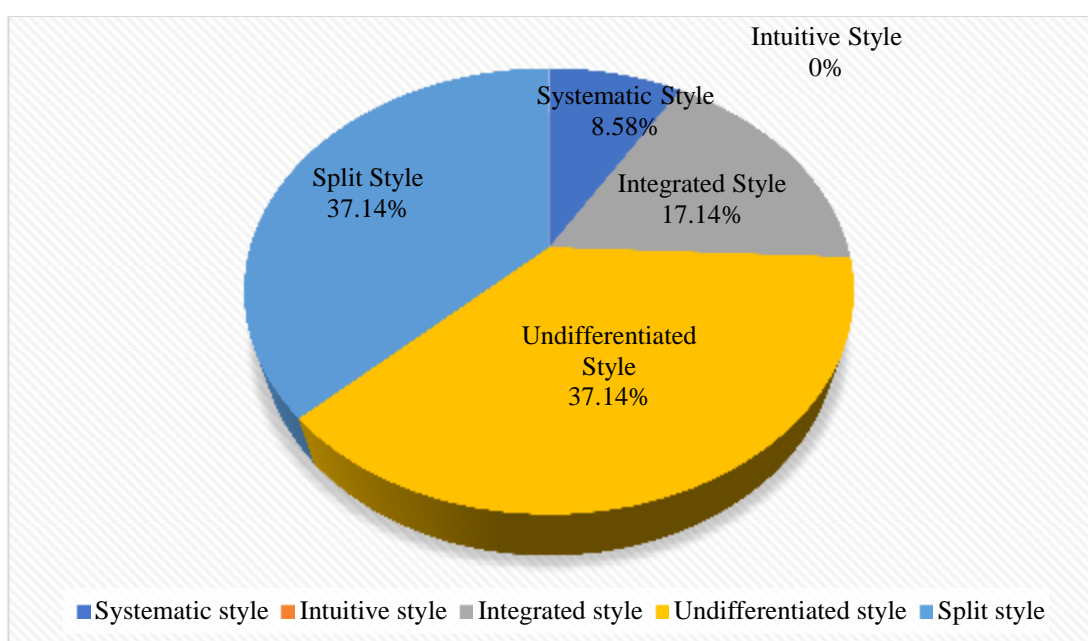
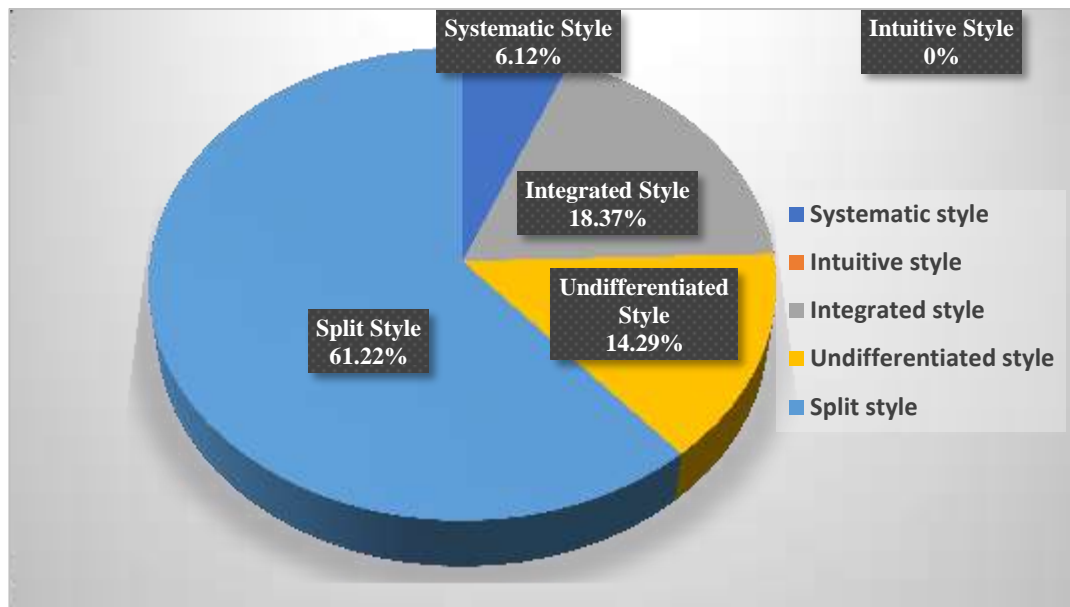


Figure No. 4.19 (b)
Cognitive Style of Female B.Ed. Students



The data on cognitive styles for B.Ed. students as on table no 4.30 and figure no 19 (a &b) shows that 9 male students (8.58%) and 9 female students (6.12%) are identified in the category of systematic style. Notably, there are no students male or female, who are identified with the intuitive cognitive style. Among male students, 18 (17.14%) are identified with integrated style while 27 female students (18.37%) fall in the same style. In undifferentiated style, 39 male students (37.14%) fall into this category, compared to 21 female students (14.29%). Lastly, under split style, 39 male students (37.14%) and a striking 90 female students (61.22%) fall into this category.

4.6.1 Cognitive Style of M.Ed. Students

As students of M.Ed. also have their own styles, the number of students fall in each style were calculated using percentage. The number of the students and the different style exhibited by the students were presented in the table no 4.31.

Table No. 4.31
Cognitive Style of M.Ed. Students

Sl. No	Cognitive Styles	Male	%	Female	%
1	Systematic style	0	0%	5	9.09%
2	Intuitive style	0	0%	2	3.64%
3	Integrated style	10	40%	16	29.09%
4	Undifferentiated style	4	16%	7	12.73%
5	Split style	11	44%	25	45.45%
Total		25		55	

Table No. 4.20 (a)
Cognitive Style of Male M.Ed. Students

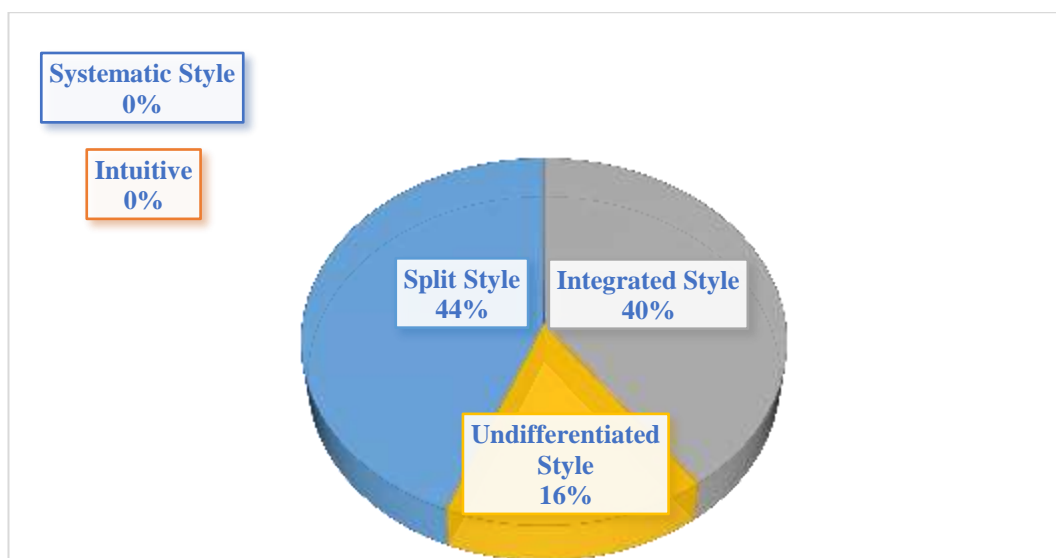
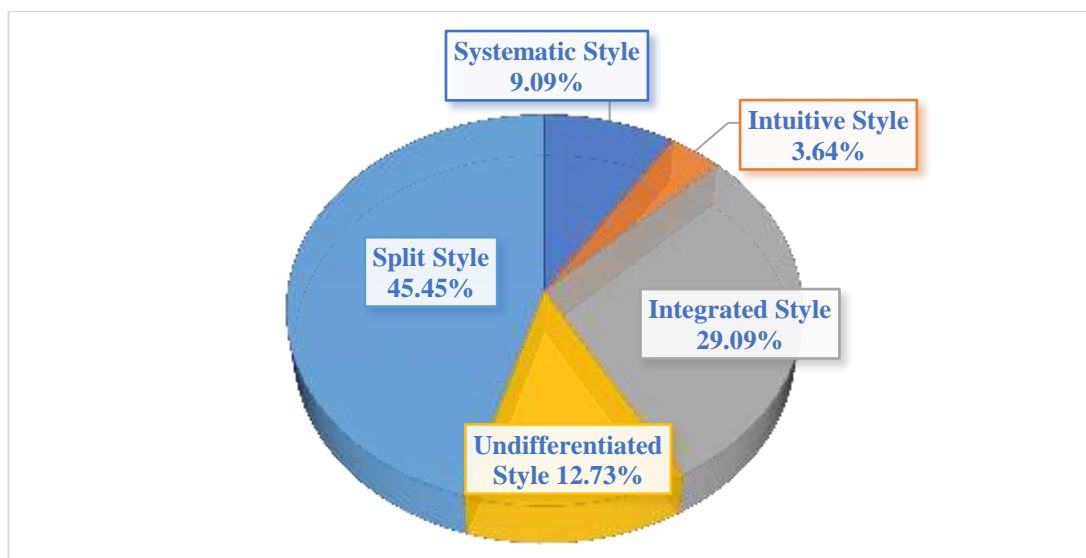


Table No. 4.20 (b)
Cognitive Style of Female M.Ed. Students



The data on table 4.31 and figure no 4.20 (a & b) presents the distribution of cognitive styles among M.Ed. students exhibited by gender. The systematic style is predominantly exhibited by female students in this group with 5 students with 9.09% while male students were not found in this style. Similar to the systematic style, the intuitive is also not represented among male students. However, 2 (3.64%) female students were among this style. The integrated style shows a significant representation by both genders. Male students exhibit a higher percentage (40%) of 10 in numbers compared to females of 16 (29.09%). The undifferentiated is slightly more prevalent among female students with 7 (12.73%). Male students of 4 (16%) have the undifferentiated style. The split style is the most common cognitive style in the group with male students of 11 (44%) and female students 25 (45.45%) exhibited this style.

4.7 Objective 7: To compare the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on their cognitive styles.

According to the author of the cognitive style inventory, there are five dimensions in the cognitive style of an individual, viz., systematic style, intuitive style, integrated style, undifferentiated style and split style. Therefore, comparison of emotional intelligence have also been worked out in dimension wise using t-test. They are presented in tables.

Hypothesis: There is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles.

4.7.0 Comparison of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having systematic style and intuitive style.

To compare the means of two groups such as persons with systematic and intuitive cognitive style and determine if they are significantly different in their emotional intelligence, t-test is calculated and presented in the table.

Table No 4.32

Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers Having Systematic Style and Intuitive Style

CSI	N	Mean	SD	SED	df	t-value	Level of Significance
Systematic Style	23	19.26	4.08	2.64	23	1.05	NS
Intuitive Style	2	16.50	3.54				

Looking into table no. 4.32, it is evident that there are 23 prospective teachers who have systematic style with a mean score of 19.26. There are 2 persons only under intuitive style with a mean score of 16.50. The standard deviation of the two groups is 4.08 and 3.54 respectively. The t-value is 1.05 which is lower than the table value of t at the required level of confidence with degree of freedom 23. Therefore, it can be concluded there is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence between prospective teachers having a systematic and intuitive style.

Thus, the null hypothesis ‘there is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles’ is accepted in this comparison.

4.7.1. Comparison of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having systematic style and integrated style.

To compare the two groups having systematic and integrated style and find out whether they are significantly different in their emotional intelligence, t-test is calculated and provided in the table.

Table No 4.33

Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers Having Systematic Style and Integrated Style

CSI	N	Mean	SD	SED	df	t-value	Level of Significance
Systematic Style	23	19.26	4.08	0.97	92	1.80	NS
Integrated Style	71	21.00	3.87				

The data in the table no. 4.33 compares two styles which are systematic and integrated style. The mean score is 19.26, the standard deviation is 4.08 in the systematic style, whereas the integrated style group has a mean score of 21.00 and a standard deviation of 3.87 and the standard error of the difference (SED) is 0.97 with a t-value of 1.80 which is lower than the critical value of t at the required level of confidence with degrees of freedom 92. It indicates no significant difference (NS) between this group as the t-value is lower than the critical value. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence between persons having systematic and integrated style.

Thus, the null hypothesis ‘there is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles’ is accepted.

4.7.2 Comparison of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having systematic style and undifferentiated style.

The scores of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers who have systematic or undifferentiated style are compared with the help of t-test. The mean, standard deviation and standard error differences are also calculated which are presented in the table.

Table No 4.34

Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers Having Systematic Style and Undifferentiated Style

CSI	N	Mean	SD	SED	df	t-value	Level of Significance
Systematic Style	23	19.26	4.08	1.02	92	1.70	NS
Undifferentiated Style	71	17.52	4.80				

The data in table no. 4.34 provides that the systematic style individuals mean score is 19.26 with a standard deviation of 4.08. The undifferentiated style individuals have a mean score of 17.52 with a standard deviation of 4.80. The standard error of difference is 1.02. The calculated t-value is 1.70 which is less than the critical value of t at the required level of confidence with degrees of freedom 92. Therefore, it can be concluded that the prospective teachers having systematic and undifferentiated cognitive style does not necessarily affect their emotional intelligence.

Hence, the null hypothesis ‘there is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles’ is accepted.

4.7.3 Comparison of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having systematic style and split style.

To know whether the individuals having systematic and split style have any significant difference on the emotional intelligence, statistical technique of t-test was used. The statistical presentation is made in the table.

Table No 4.35

Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers having Systematic Style & Split Style

CSI	N	Mean	SD	SED	df	t-value	Level of Significance
Systematic Style	23	19.26	4.08	0.92	186	0.91	NS
Split Style	165	18.42	4.57				

The data provided in the table no. 4.35 reveals that the mean score on emotional intelligence of the person having systematic style is 19.26 with a standard deviation of 4.08. The individuals with split style have a mean score of 18.42 with a standard deviation of 4.57. The standard error of difference is 0.92. The calculated t-value is 0.91 which is less than the table value of t at the required level of confidence with degrees of freedom 186.

Therefore, it is evident that a person having systematic or split cognitive style does not affect their emotional intelligence and the null hypothesis ‘there is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles’ is accepted.

4.7.4 Comparison of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having intuitive style and integrated style.

The emotional intelligence score for both intuitive and integrated style were calculated with the help of t-test. The statistical technique of calculation is presented in the table.

Table No 4.36

Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers having Intuitive Style & Integrated Style

CSI	N	Mean	SD	SED	df	t-value	Level of Significance
Intuitive Style	2	16.50	3.54	2.54	71	1.77	NS
Integrated Style	71	21.00	3.87				

An examination of the table no. 4.36 shows that the mean score of the persons having intuitive cognitive style on emotional intelligence is 16.50 with a standard deviation of 3.54. Whereas the mean score of the integrated style is 21.00 with a standard deviation of 3.87. The standard error of difference is 2.54 with a t-value of 1.77. The calculated t-value is less than the critical value of t at the required level of confidence with degrees of freedom 71 and hence is not significant.

Therefore, it can be concluded that the null hypothesis ‘there is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles’ is accepted as the prospective teachers having intuitive cognitive style and integrated style are not differ in their emotional intelligence.

4.7.5 Comparison of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having intuitive style and undifferentiated style.

To know whether there exists any significant difference in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having intuitive and undifferentiated style, t-test

is used to yield reliable result. The statistical calculation is provided in the form of a table.

Table No 4.37

Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers having Intuitive Style & Undifferentiated Style

CSI	N	Mean	SD	SED	df	t-value	Level of Significance
Intuitive Style	2	16.50	3.54	2.56	71	0.40	NS
Undifferentiated Style	71	17.52	4.80				

A perusal of table no 4.37 highlighted that the mean score of individuals having intuitive cognitive style is 16.50 and undifferentiated style is 17.52. The standard deviations are 3.54 and 4.80. The standard error of difference is 2.56 and a calculated value is 0.40 which is less than the table value of t at the required level of confidence with degrees of freedom 71 which shows the result is not significant.

Therefore, the null hypothesis ‘there is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles’ is hereby accepted as it was evident that there is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence between prospective teachers who has intuitive and undifferentiated cognitive style.

4.7.6 Comparison of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having intuitive style and split style.

In order to find out the differences in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers exhibiting intuitive and split style, statistical t-test is used to determine a significance difference between the two groups. The analysis is presented in the table.

Table No 4.38
Comparison of Emotional Intelligence having Intuitive Style & Split Style

CSI	N	Mean	SD	SED	df	t-value	Level of Significance
Intuitive Style	2	16.50	3.54	2.53	165	0.76	NS
Split Style	165	18.42	4.57				

Looking into table no 4.38, the data shows that the mean score of the prospective teachers having intuitive cognitive style is 16.50 while the mean score of individuals exhibiting split style is 18.42. The standard deviations are 3.54 and 4.57 respectively. The standard of error is 2.53 with a t-value of 0.76. Since, the t-value is lower than the table value of t at the required level of confidence with degrees of freedom 165, it signifies that there is no difference between the persons with intuitive style and split style in their emotional intelligence.

Therefore, the null hypothesis ‘there is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles’ is also hereby accepted.

4.7.7 Comparison of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having integrated style and undifferentiated style.

To find out the if there is significance difference in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers with respect to their style, t-test is employed to yield a dependable result, which is presented in the form of table.

Table No 4.39
Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers having
Integrated Style & Undifferentiated Style

CSI	N	Mean	SD	SED	t-value	Level of Significance
Integrated Style	71	21.00	3.87	0.73	4.76	0.01
Undifferentiated Style	71	17.52	4.80			

As revealed in the table no 4.39, the individuals with integrated style mean score is 21.00 while the undifferentiated style mean score is 15.72. The standard deviation of persons exhibiting both the styles are 3.87 and 4.80 respectively. The standard error of difference is 0.73 and the calculated t-value is 4.76 which is higher than the table value of t at the required level of confidence with degrees of freedom 140. Therefore, the result is significant at 0.01 level.

Hence, the null hypothesis ‘there is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles’ is hereby rejected as the analysis suggested that there is a significant difference in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having integrated style and undifferentiated style.

4.7.8 Comparison of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having integrated style and split style.

Comparison of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having integrated style and split style is analysed with the help of t- test and is presented in the table.

Table No 4.40
Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers having
Integrated Style & Split Style

CSI	N	Mean	SD	SED	df	t-value	Level of Significance
Integrated Style	71	21.00	3.87	0.58	234	4.44	0.01
Split Style	165	18.42	4.57				

As depicted in the table no 4.40, the mean score of persons with integrated style is 21.00 and split style is 18.42. The standard deviation for integrated style is 3.87 and split style is 4.57. The standard error of difference is 0.58 and a calculated t-value is 4.44 which is significant at the required level of 0.01 with degrees of freedom 234.

Thus, the null hypothesis ‘there is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles’ is hereby rejected as it was found that there is a significant difference between individuals with integrated and split cognitive style in their emotional intelligence.

4.7.9 Comparison of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having undifferentiated style and split style.

As to identify whether there exists a difference between individuals with undifferentiated style and split style, the scores are tabulated and t-test is used to find out the significance.

Table No 4.41
Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers having
Undifferentiated Style & Split Style

CSI	N	Mean	SD	SED	df	t-value	Level of Significance
Undifferentiated Style	71	17.52	4.80	0.67	234	1.34	NS
Split Style	165	18.42	4.57				

The data in the table no 4.41 shows that the mean score of persons with undifferentiated style is 17.52 with a standard deviation of 4.80. The mean score of split style people is 18.42 with a standard deviation of 4.57. The standard error of difference is 0.67 with a calculated value of 1.34. This calculated value is lower than the table value of t which is lower than the required level of confidence with degrees of freedom 234. It signifies no differences in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers exhibiting undifferentiated and split style.

Therefore, the null hypothesis ‘there is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles’ is accepted.

4.8 Objective No 8: To compare the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on their cognitive styles.

The population of the present study consists of 332 prospective teachers who were enrolled in B.Ed. and M.Ed. programmes. As per the cognitive style inventory, they exhibited different style of cognition. Therefore, the researcher test the differences in their academic adjustment based on the dimensions of cognitive style. The analysis is presented in the form of tables.

Hypothesis: There is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles.

4.8.0 Comparison of academic adjustment of prospective teachers having systematic and intuitive style.

To know the differences in the academic adjustment, statistical technique i.e. t-test is used to know if there exist any significant differences. The data is presented in the table 4.42.

Table No 4.42

Comparison of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers having Systematic & Intuitive Style

CSI	N	Mean	SD	SED	df	t-value	Level of Significance
Systematic Style	23	164.52	13.71	3.03	23	0.16	NS
Intuitive Style	2	165.00	1.41				

The data in the table no 4.42 shows that the mean score of individuals having systematic and intuitive style in their academic adjustment is 164.52 and 165.00. The standard deviation for both the individual exhibiting the two styles are 13.71 and 1.41. The standard error of difference is 3.03 with a calculated t-value of 0.16. As the t-value is lower than the critical value of t at the required level of confidence with degrees of freedom 23, it can be concluded that the prospective teachers having systematic and intuitive style are not different in their academic adjustment.

Therefore, the null hypothesis ‘there is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles’ is accepted.

4.8.1 Comparison of academic adjustment of prospective teachers having systematic and integrated style.

To know the differences in the academic adjustment, the scores of the persons were calculated and analysed with the help of t-test. The analysis is presented in the table.

Table No 4.43
Comparison of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers having
Systematic & Integrated Style

CSI	N	Mean	SD	SED	df	t-value	Level of Significance
Systematic Style	23	164.52	13.71	3.58	92	0.58	NS
Integrated Style	71	166.61	18.16				

The statistical presentation of the data in the table no. 4.43 highlighted that the mean score of the persons having systematic style is 164.52 with a standard deviation of 13.71. The mean score of the individuals having integrated style is 166.61 with a standard deviation of 18.16. The standard error of difference is 3.58 and the calculated t value is 0.58 which is lower than the critical value of t at the required level of confidence with degrees of freedom 92. It signifies that the difference of both group in their academic adjustment is not statistically significant.

Therefore, the null hypothesis ‘there is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles’ is accepted.

4.8.2 Comparison of academic adjustment of prospective teachers having systematic and undifferentiated style.

The difference in the academic adjustment of systematic style individuals and undifferentiated style persons are calculated using t -test. The statistical analysis is presented in the table.

Table No 4.44

**Comparison of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers having
Systematic & Undifferentiated Style**

CSI	N	Mean	SD	SED	df	t-value	Level of Significance
Systematic Style	23	164.52	13.71	3.56	92	1.28	NS
Undifferentiated Style	71	159.94	17.94				

As shown in the table no. 4.44, persons with systematic style have a mean score of 164.52 and standard deviation of 13.71 in the academic adjustment. Meanwhile, individuals with undifferentiated style have a mean score of 159.94 with a standard deviation of 17.94. The standard error of difference is 3.56 and a calculated t-value is 1.28 which is lower than the table value of t at the required level of confidence with degrees of freedom 92. Therefore, the result is not significant in this particular testing of hypothesis.

Hence, the null hypothesis ‘there is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles’ is hereby accepted.

4.8.3 Comparison of academic adjustment of prospective teachers having systematic and split style.

The differences in the academic adjustment of prospective teachers with systematic and split style were computed with the help of t-test. The statistical analysis of data is presented in the form of table.

Table No 4.45
Comparison of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers having
Systematic & Split Style

CSI	N	Mean	SD	SED	df	t-value	Level of Significance
Systematic Style	23	164.52	13.71	3.11	186	0.39	NS
Split Style	165	165.74	15.70				

The data in the table no. 4.45 provides that the mean score of the individuals with systematic style is 164.52 and a standard deviation is 13.71. Whereas, the mean score of the person with split style is 165.74 with a standard deviation of 15.70. The standard error of difference is 0.39 which signifies that the test is not statistically significant as the calculated t-value is lower than the critical value of t at the required level of confidence with degrees of freedom 186. Therefore, it can be considered as the academic adjustment of the individuals with systematic and split cognitive style are not differed.

Thus, the hypothesis ‘there is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles’ is accepted.

4.8.4 Comparison of academic adjustment of prospective teachers having intuitive and integrated style.

To find out the difference in the academic adjustment of the prospective teachers having intuitive and integrated style, the scores are analysed and tested with the help of t-test. The analysis is provided in the table.

Table No 4.46
Comparison of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers having Intuitive & Integrated Style

CSI	N	Mean	SD	SED	df	t-value	Level of Significance
Intuitive Style	2	165.00	1.41	2.38	71	0.68	NS
Integrated Style	71	166.61	18.16				

An analysis of the data in the table no 4.46 reveals that the mean score of the persons exhibiting intuitive style is 165.00 and a standard deviation is 1.41. The mean score of the individuals having integrated style is 166.61 with a standard deviation of 18.16. The standard error of difference is 2.38 and t-value is 0.68. The t-value which is lower than the critical value of t at the required level of confidence with degrees of freedom 71 shows the difference is not statistically significant.

Hence the null hypothesis ‘there is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles’ is accepted.

4.8.5 Comparison of academic adjustment of prospective teachers having intuitive and undifferentiated style.

The difference on the academic adjustment of prospective teachers is tested using t-test. The statistical technique used for analysis of the data is presented in the table.

Table No 4.47
Comparison of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers having Intuitive & Undifferentiated Style

CSI	N	Mean	SD	SED	df	t-value	Level of Significance
Intuitive Style	2	165.00	1.41	2.35	71	2.15	0.05
Undifferentiated Style	71	159.94	17.94				

An examination of the data in the table no. 4.47 shows that the persons with intuitive style have a mean score of 165.00 and a standard deviation of 1.41. Meanwhile, the undifferentiated style individuals have a mean score of 159.94 with a standard deviation of 17.94. The standard error of difference is 2.35 and a calculated t-value is 2.15 which is higher than the critical value at the required level of confidence with degrees of freedom 71 shows the difference is significant at 0.05 level.

This signifies that there is a difference in the academic adjustment of prospective teachers having intuitive and undifferentiated style. Thus, the null hypothesis ‘there is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles’ is hereby rejected.

4.8.6 Comparison of academic adjustment of prospective teachers having intuitive and split style.

To find out the difference in the academic adjustment of the prospective teachers having intuitive and split style, the scores are analysed and tested with the help of t-test. The analysis is provided in the table.

Table No 4.48
Comparison of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers having Intuitive & Split Style

CSI	N	Mean	SD	SED	df	t-value	Level of Significance
Intuitive Style	2	165.00	1.41	1.58	165	0.47	NS
Split Style	165	165.74	15.70				

Looking into the table 4.48 and figure no 4.42, the data shows that the mean score of the individuals having intuitive style is 165.00 with a standard deviation of 1.41. The mean score of the prospective teachers with split style is 165.74 and a standard deviation is 15.70. The standard error of difference is 1.58. The calculated t-value is 0.47 which is less than the table value of t at the required level of confidence with degrees of freedom 165. This signifies that the difference is not significant.

Therefore, the null hypothesis ‘there is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles’ is accepted.

4.8.7 Comparison of academic adjustment of prospective teachers having integrated and undifferentiated style.

The differences in the academic adjustment of prospective teachers with integrated and undifferentiated style were computed with the help of t-test. The statistical analysis of data is presented in the form of table.

Table No 4.49
Comparison of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers having Integrated
& Undifferentiated Style

CSI	N	Mean	SD	SED	df	t-value	Level of Significance
Integrated Style	71	166.61	18.16	3.03	140	2.20	0.05
Undifferentiated Style	71	159.94	17.94				

The data in the table no. 4.49 and figure no 4.43 highlighted that 166.61 is the mean score of the individuals with integrated style and a standard deviation is 18.16. The individuals with undifferentiated style mean score is 159.94 with a standard deviation of 17.94. The standard error of difference is 3.03 and a t-value is 2.20. Since the calculated t-value is higher than the critical value of t at the required level of confidence with degrees of freedom 140, the difference is statistically significant in terms of academic adjustment.

Thus, the null hypothesis ‘there is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles’ is also rejected as it was found the result is statistically significant.

4.8.8 Comparison of academic adjustment of prospective teachers having integrated and split style.

To know the differences in the academic adjustment, the scores of the respondents were calculated and analysed with the help of t-test. The analysis is presented in the table.

Table No 4.50

**Comparison of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers having Integrated
& Split Style**

CSI	N	Mean	SD	SED	df	t-value	Level of Significance
Integrated Style	71	166.61	18.16	2.48	234	0.35	NS
Split Style	165	165.74	15.70				

As provided in the table 4.50 and figure no 4.44, the mean score for the integrated style individuals is 166.61 and split style individuals is 165.74. The standard deviation for the two groups is 18.16 and 15.70. The standard error of difference is 2.48 which resulted in the calculated t-value as 0.35. This signifies that the result is not statistically significant as the t-value is lower than the critical value of t at the required level of confidence with degrees of freedom 234.

Thus, the null hypothesis ‘there is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles’ is accepted.

4.8.9 Comparison of academic adjustment of prospective teachers having undifferentiated style and split style.

The difference in the academic adjustment of undifferentiated style individuals and split style persons are calculated using t-test. The statistical analysis is presented in the table.

Table No 4.51
Comparison of Academic Adjustment of Prospective Teachers having
Undifferentiated & Split Style

CSI	N	Mean	SD	SED	df	t-value	Level of Significance
Undifferentiated Style	71	159.94	17.94	2.45	234	2.36	0.05
Split Style	165	165.74	15.70				

A perusal of table no. 4.51 signifies that the mean score of prospective teachers having undifferentiated style is 159.94 whereas the individuals of split style is 165.74. The standard deviation of both the group is 17.94 and 15.70 respectively. The standard error of difference is 2.45 and a calculated t-value is 2.36 which is higher than table value of t the required level of confidence with degrees of freedom 234.

This resulted in the rejection of the null hypothesis ‘there is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles’ as the difference between both the group in terms of academic adjustment is statistically proved significant.

4.9 Objective 9: To investigate the relationship between the emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of prospective teachers.

To investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of prospective teachers, Pearson Product Moment Method is employed to know if there is any significant relationship between the two variables among the respondents. The statistical calculation of data is presented in the table 4.52. The null hypothesis framed for this particular objective is also stated as under.

Hypothesis 16: There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of prospective teachers.

Table No 4.52
Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Academic Adjustment of
B.Ed. and M.Ed. Students

Variables	Emotional Intelligence	Academic Adjustment
Emotional Intelligence	1.00	.148*
Academic Adjustment	.148*	1.00

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Looking into the table no 4.52, there is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students. This correlation is statistically significant at the 0.05 level. The reported correlation coefficient of 0.148 suggests a weak positive relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Academic Adjustment. This implies that students with higher emotional intelligence are somewhat better equipped to adjust academically.

The null hypothesis which stated that there is no relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students is therefore, rejected. This rejection is identified on a positive correlation between the two variables. This shows that as the emotional intelligence of the students increases, they are more likely to be academically adjusted towards their teaching profession and vice versa.

4.9.0 Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Academic Adjustment of B.Ed. Students.

The statistical technique for calculating the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of B.Ed. students have been calculated using Pearson Correlation Coefficient which is presented in the table 4.53.

Hypothesis 17: There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of B.Ed. students.

Table No 4.53
Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Academic Adjustment of
B.Ed. Students

B.Ed.		
	Academic Adjustment	Emotional Intelligence
Academic Adjustment	1.00	0.12
Emotional Intelligence	0.12	1.00

A glance at table no 4.53 suggests that the correlation coefficient (r) between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of B.Ed. students is 0.12. This value represents a weak relationship between the two variables. The weak positive correlation indicates that while there is a relationship, it is not strong enough to be a primary factor influencing academic adjustment. This means that other factors play a more significant role in determining how well students adjust to academic environments.

Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated that there is no relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of B.Ed. students is rejected. However, it does not imply that higher emotional intelligence to exhibit better academic adjustment and increases in emotional intelligence significantly lead to enhancements in academic adjustment.

4.9.1 Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Academic Adjustment of M.Ed. Students.

The statistical technique for calculating the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of M.Ed. students have been presented in the table no. 4.54.

Hypothesis 18: There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of M.Ed. students.

Table No 4.54
Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Academic Adjustment of
M.Ed. Students

M.Ed.		
	Academic Adjustment	Emotional Intelligence
Academic Adjustment	1.000	0.258
Emotional Intelligence	0.258	1.000

A look at the table no 4.54 highlights that the correlation coefficient of 0.258 indicates a moderate positive relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment. This means that as emotional intelligence increases, academic adjustment tends to improve.

The null hypothesis which stated that there is no relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of M.Ed. students is therefore rejected. The value represents a moderate positive correlation between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment among M.Ed. Students. Thus, emotional intelligence plays a meaningful role in enhancing academic adjustment while it is not a sole determinant.

CHAPTER V

MAJOR FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS, EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This chapter mainly deals with the major findings, discussions and educational implications, recommendations and suggestions for any other investigation or research.

5.1 Major Findings:

The following are the major findings of the present study:

5.1.1 Emotional intelligence of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students.

- a) A small percentage of 1.20 students were in the extremely high category. The high category was seen among 8.43% of the respondents. The above average level was exhibited by 20.8%, the average category was shown by 38.25%, below average level comprised of 17.77% and low category included 12.35% and lastly 1.20% were in the extremely low level of emotional intelligence.
- b) Among the B.Ed. male students, 2.29% were in the extremely high level of EI, 4.59% were in the high category, 20.7% were in the above average level, 34.5% demonstrated average level, 22.98% exhibited below average level, low category was shown by 11.5% and in the extremely low there were 3.44% of the respondents.
- c) Among B.Ed. female students, 1.21% were in the extremely high level, 7.88% were in high level, 19.4% in the above average level of EI. In the average level, there were 36.96% of students, 19.4% in the below average level, low level is exhibited by 15.15% and no student was found in the extremely low level of EI.
- d) There were no male M.Ed. students in the extremely high level of EI, 19.23% exhibited high level, 26.92% were in the above average level, average level is demonstrated by 34.62%. No male students were found in the below average

level, 15.38% were found to be in the level of low EI and 3.85% were in the extremely low category.

- e) Among female M.Ed. students, there were no students who exhibited extremely high level, 11.11% were in the high level of EI. 22.22% were in the above average category, average level was demonstrated by 50% of the students. Below average is shown by 12.97% of the students, whereas low level was exhibited by 3.70%. Lastly, no students were found in the extremely low level of EI among the female M.Ed. students.
- f) Among the male students, the least percentage of EI was found in the category of extremely high and extremely low with 1.78% each. The high level of EI was exhibited by 6.20%. Above average level of EI comprised of 23.89% followed by 34.5% average level of EI. There were 23% of students in the category of below average. Low level of EI was demonstrated by 8.85%.
- g) For all the female respondents, 1.37% were in the extremely high category. High level of EI was shown by 8.22% of the respondents, the highest percentage is found to be average category with 40.19% followed by above average with 20.09%. Below average category was exhibited by 17.80% of the respondents with 10.05% of a low level of EI followed by 2.28% of the extremely low category.

5.1.2 Comparison of the emotional intelligence of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students

- a) The research revealed that M.Ed. students exhibited higher emotional intelligence than their B.Ed. counterparts. The mean score of M.Ed. students was higher than that of the B.Ed. students.
- b) The study showed that there was no significant difference in the emotional intelligence in terms of gender even though the mean score of females was slightly higher than that of males.
- c) The research also concluded that male and female B.Ed. students, male and female M.Ed. students, B.Ed. male and M.Ed. male students, B.Ed. female

and M.Ed. female students do not differ significantly in their emotional intelligence.

5.1.3 Construction and Standardization of Academic Adjustment

Academic Adjustment scale was constructed and standardized using a Likert type of scale. Reliability was calculated by test-retest method and split half method. The reliability on test re test method was 0.73 and split half method was found to be 0.84. Norms for the scale was also established.

5.1.4 Academic adjustment of Prospective Teachers.

- a) The average academic adjustment group was the most common (79.82%), with the highest number of students and a moderate mean score. Students in the high adjustment group had the highest mean score and the lowest variability (10.24%), while the low adjustment group showed a lower mean score and similar variability in scores (9.94%).
- b) The study revealed that among the B.Ed. students, majority of both gender was in the average academic adjustment category with a higher proportion of females (83.03%) and males (73.6%). The high academic adjustment group was slightly more represented by males (12.6%) and females constituted (9.09%). The low academic adjustment group showed a higher proportion of males (13.8%) compared to females (7.88%).
- c) The research found that majority of students of both gender in M.Ed. were in the average academic adjustment category of which male comprised of 80.77% and female of 79.63%. There was a higher proportion of females in the high academic adjustment category (11.11%) whereas males constituted 7.69%. Meanwhile males showed a slightly higher proportion in the low academic adjustment group (11.54%) as compared to females (9.26%).
- d) The study observed that among all male students the majority (75.2%) were into the average academic adjustment category. A smaller proportion of students exhibited low academic adjustment (13.3%) with the high category (11.50%) of the respondents.

- e) Findings revealed that the majority of female students (82.19%) dominated average academic adjustment category. A smaller proportion of students exhibited high academic adjustment (9.59%) with a slight difference with the low category of academic adjustment (8.22%).

5.1.5 Comparison of the academic adjustment of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students.

- a) The findings showed that there was no significant difference between B.Ed. and M.Ed. students in their academic adjustment.
- b) The findings also showed that there was no significant difference in the academic adjustment of male and female students.
- c) The study concluded that there was no significant difference in the academic adjustment of male and female B.Ed. students, male and female M.Ed. students, B.Ed. male and M.Ed. male students, B.Ed. female and M.Ed. female students.

5.1.6 Cognitive style of students.

- a) The split style was the most dominant cognitive style with a larger proportion of females of 52.28% and males of 44.64%. The overall percentage of this particular style was found to be 49.40%.
- b) The systematic style was common among males with 8.04% than females with 6.36% and altogether 6.92% exhibited this style.
- c) Intuitive style was rare among the individuals with exclusively found among females with 0.90%.
- d) Integrated and undifferentiated styles showed a relatively balanced gender distribution as 21.3% in each style. Male slightly overrepresented in each style with 25% in the integrated style and 22.32% in undifferentiated style. Female were 19.56% in integrated and 20.90% in undifferentiated style.
- e) The split style was the most prevalent cognitive style among B.Ed. females with 61.22%. Males were more commonly found in the undifferentiated style with 37.14%, whereas females were more represented in the integrated style

with 18.37%. The systematic style showed a balanced distribution between male and female with 8.58% and 6.12% respectively, while the intuitive style is absent among the B.Ed. students.

- f) Among the M.Ed. students, the split style was the most common among both genders with 44% males and 45.45% females. Males were more represented in the integrated style with 40% as females were only 29.09%. Females showed a higher frequency in the systematic and intuitive Styles 9.09% and 3.64% while males were not found in both the style.

5.1.7 Comparison of the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on their cognitive styles.

- a) The study found that there was no significant difference in the emotional intelligence between prospective teachers having a systematic and intuitive style, systematic and integrated style, systematic and undifferentiated style, systematic or split style, intuitive style and integrated style, intuitive and undifferentiated styles, intuitive style and split style, undifferentiated and split style.
- b) The research found that there was a significant difference in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having integrated style and undifferentiated style, integrated and split style. The significant level is 0.01.

5.1.8 Comparison of the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on their cognitive styles.

- a) The research concluded that prospective teachers having systematic and intuitive style, systematic and integrated style, systematic and undifferentiated style, systematic and split style, intuitive and integrated style, intuitive and split style, integrated and split style were not differed in their academic adjustment.
- b) The research found that there was a difference in the academic adjustment of prospective teachers having intuitive and undifferentiated style, integrated

and undifferentiated style, undifferentiated style and split style which were significant at 0.05 level.

5.1.9 Relationship between the emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of prospective teachers.

- a) The research observed that the correlation coefficient between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment was 0.148 which indicated low positive correlation. The relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of both B.Ed. and M.Ed. students was significant at 0.05 level.
- b) As the value 0.12 represented a negligible relationship between the two variables, the weak positive correlation was not strong enough to conclude that there was a relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of B.Ed. students.
- c) The value 0.258 represented a moderate relationship between the two variables. It was concluded that there was a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of M.Ed. students.

5.1 Discussion

Discussion is one of the most crucial parts of a research activity. The research work is made sensible to the fact that it involves different areas in processing, analyses and generalizations made based on the findings. The purpose of the discussion is to explain the significance of the findings based on what was already known or being investigated, and to provide any new understanding or concepts come out of the problems being investigated. The following are the discussion on the present findings:

5.2.1 Discussion on the findings with respect to emotional intelligence of prospective teachers.

The study found that maximum number of prospective teachers have average level of emotional intelligence with a higher proportion exhibiting low level of emotional intelligence compared to those with high emotional intelligence. This

finding is in line with Ehteshamuddin (2022) who found that male and female students were in the category of moderate in the emotional intelligence. Desti and Shanthi (2015) also found that respondents were only average in their emotional intelligence.

Sinha (2016) correspondingly found maximum employees exhibit moderate level of Emotional Intelligence. Whereas Kant (2019) found that all university's students were having high level of emotional intelligence which contrasts with the present study conducted.

Discussion: The findings of the study that maximum number of students have average level of emotional intelligence is a positive sign that indicates students mostly have self-awareness, maintain relationships, communicate effectively, able to recognize and understand others in showing empathy and compassion. It may also lead to better performance, adaptation to changing situations, leading to personal and professional growth and maintain balanced in everyday life.

5.2.2 Discussion on the findings with respect to the comparison of the emotional intelligence of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students.

The present study identified that there was no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students. It means that even though the students were from different levels of education, they were not different in their level of emotional intelligence and hence, does not imply the higher the educational level, the higher the level of emotional intelligence and vice versa.

The finding corresponded with Kant (2019) who found that Under Graduate (UG) and Post Graduate (PG) students were found not significantly differ from each other on Emotional intelligence. AL-Qadri and Zhao (2021) found a similar result that there were no statistically significant differences in the respondents' level of emotional intelligence according to the grade variable. It was also revealed in the study conducted by Rather (2023) that both government and private secondary school students did not differ in emotional intelligence.

Contrary to the result, many researchers such as Arun and Smita (2016) found that in their study non-scheduled caste students have better emotional intelligence than scheduled caste students. Senad (2017) also found that CBSE students have

higher level of emotional intelligence as compared to ICSE students. Similar kind of finding was in the study made by Mehmood and Saleem (2019) in which the result revealed that there was a significant difference of Emotional Intelligence of students enrolled in 2nd and 8th semester as well as between Natural Science and Social science students.

Discussion: The fact that there was no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students implies that emotional intelligence is not solely acquired through formal education, it can be developed through experiences, social interactions, and personal growth. In addition, emotional intelligence is more closely tied to emotional experiences, empathy, and social skills rather than academic background or achievement. Furthermore, upbringing, culture and life experiences, professional growth through training, workshops may also be an important factor in fostering emotional intelligence.

5.2.3 Discussion on the finding of-

- i) *There is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of male and female B.Ed. students. However, the mean score of female students is slightly higher than that of their male counterparts and;*
- ii) *There is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of male and female M.Ed. students. However, the mean score of male students is slightly higher than that of their female students.*

In line with the current research, Sawhney and Kaur (2016), Rao and Komala (2017), El Faisal and Netrawati (2023) and Choudhary (2023) found that there was no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of male and female students and adolescents. However, studies conducted by Mandell and Pherwani (2003), Kouhdasht et.al (2013) found significant difference between boys and girls in emotional intelligence. Contradictory to it, Fida et. al., (2018), Shah (2023) found that female have higher level of emotional intelligence compared to male counterparts. Furthermore, Ali et. al., (2021) found that male students were highly emotionally intelligent than female students.

Discussion: The reason for the finding in the present study as no significant difference between male and female in terms of emotional intelligence

may be due to the fact that emotional intelligence is not linked to gender, both males and females can develop and exhibit similar levels. They may be experiencing and processing emotions similarly and develop strong emotional awareness, skills and empathy. In other sense, differences may be influenced by cultural, environment and social practices than by gender. In addition, the traditional gender roles which portray female as more emotionally expressive and male as emotionally stoic have been gradually diminished as gender stereotyping and biasness is discouraged which weakens gender-based expectation. Furthermore, equal opportunities for growth and development for both genders have been stressed and encouraged to provide a comprehensive understanding of human emotions. This encourages a unique understanding of emotional intelligence moving beyond gender-based assumptions.

5.2.4 Discussion on academic adjustment of prospective teachers.

1. *Among the 332 respondents, majority of prospective teachers occupied average level of academic adjustment i.e. 79.8%, followed by 10.24% which were in the level of high and 9.93% were in the level of low academic adjustment.*

Consistent with the present study, Rajab et.al (2014) Al-Mseidin et.al (2017) and Goyal and Khan (2022) found in their studies the students have average or moderately adjusted in their learning as well as in the social life. Whereas Jain (2017) found that the college students have high adjustment in the learning environment.

Discussion: B.Ed. and M.Ed. students were from different background or course of studies. Being a professional course of study, the learning aspect or demands of the course is completely different from the previous course or degree already completed. The teaching style and methodology may also differ in many ways. It involves practical sessions to be fulfilled on the part of the learners, teaching practice and internship which were compulsory for the fulfilment of the course. It may also be complicated or difficult to adapt to the new learning environment, to equip well with the technologies and teaching styles involved. There may also be difficulty in managing time and balancing of responsibilities with other aspects of life. The objective of B.Ed. and M.Ed. course is to excel in teaching skills and pedagogy which students may find it challenging or difficult to execute in practical

within a limited span of time. Therefore, it may be the reason as to which they were in the level of average towards the academic adjustment and struggle to fully adapt or perform at a higher level academically.

2. *There is no significant difference between B.Ed. and M.Ed. students in their academic adjustment.*

A research conducted by Jdaitawi et. al., (2011) and Ali et. al., (2018) found that among the students, there was no difference in their academic adjustment. Contrary to this findings, Al-Yagon and Mikulincer (2004) found that there were intergroup differences emerged in academic adjustment.

Discussion: As B.Ed. and M.Ed. students are in the programme of teacher education, they share some similarities in different facets of educational programmes and courses offered. The first being the reason as to no significant difference was that they confined themselves to similar educational background which resulted in similar academic adjustment experiences. The course structure and practicum are more or less similar with research components as part of their learning activities and syllabus. This can result in similar academic challenges. More importantly, both programmes aim to develop teaching skills, knowledge, dispositions, learning objectives and outcomes with academic adjustment experiences. Additionally, both programmes offer similar support services, mentorship, academic counseling and other activities which requires same amount of guidance and supervision. Furthermore, even though curriculum and syllabus offered are differed, there is common teaching methods, assessment, execution of assignments, etc. Students are also guided and developed through similar techniques and were prepared by common goals to be effective teacher or advancing their careers.

3. *There is no significant difference between prospective teachers in their academic adjustment based on gender.*

In line with the present study, Ishak et. al., (2011), Jdaitawi et. al., (2011), Malek et. al., (2011) and Bhardwaj and Sharma (2021) had found no significant relationship between male and female in their study. The study conducted by Ahuja (2016), Kumar and Kumar (2022) found that boys were significantly higher in their academic adjustment. However, Sandhu (2017) and Jillani et. al., (2023) found that girls were better in their academic adjustment compared to males.

Discussion: In teacher education programme, the reason being no significant difference between male and female in their academic adjustment may be due to the fact that both have equal access to education which leads to similar experiences and the learning styles of the students may also be similar. In addition, both have shared academic goal which is becoming a successful teacher and this motivated them equally to succeed in their choice of vocation. Furthermore, the education programme especially teacher education aims to be gender-neutral which is reflected in the curriculum as well as the programme itself. Especially in Mizoram, there is social and cultural factors that influence academic adjustment such as family support, societal expectations which aimed to develop the individual as a whole. Finally, the institutions try to promote equity, equality and inclusiveness in all aspects of teaching and learning. This reduce potential gender differences and prepare themselves to enter programmes with passion to develop the educational system.

5.2.4 Discussion on the findings of Cognitive Style of Prospective Teachers.

1. *Maximum number of students have split cognitive style and a least number of students have intuitive cognitive style.*
2. *Both male and female mostly possessed split cognitive style.*

Many researchers have also found the cognitive style of students based on the pattern. Dixit & Ahmed (2021), Anil Jose and Sijin (2021) as well as Stanikzai and Allahyar (2023) found that in their research, maximum students were having systematic cognitive style. However, Tomar and SC (2017) found that Science stream majorly possessed Integrated Cognitive Style; Arts stream students majorly possessed Intuitive Cognitive Style and Commerce steam students possessed Split Cognitive Style.

In contrast to the present study, Murkute (2021) found that South Indian boys were found to be more intuitive with the highest mean score whereas the Marathi girls were found to be systematic with highest mean score.

Discussion: As far as cognitive style is concern, the present study found that maximum number of the students exhibit split cognitive style with a least number of students having intuitive style. This may be due to the fact that students are exposed to different teaching methods which is based on both logical and holistic approaches.

Traditional method of teaching often emphasizes logical reasoning an analysis other than intuition. Secondly, Students are from different background, mathematics and science students often adopt systematic approach while arts background have a holistic approach. They were often encourage to step by step learning which often neglect intuitive thinking. Thirdly, different learning styles leads to split cognitive style that the developmental stage impact their critical thinking skills to explore differently. They do not have the opportunity to explore intuitive thinking due to rigid curriculum requirements in this period. Finally, Assessment method adopted by the teachers and examination system makes it less likely to develop their skills and creative ability. They tend to depend more on the context or influenced by the situation which may sometimes lead to inconsistent decision making.

5.2.5 Discussion on comparison of the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on their cognitive styles.

The study found that there was no significant difference in the emotional intelligence between prospective teachers having a systematic and intuitive style, systematic and integrated style, systematic and undifferentiated style, systematic or split cognitive style, intuitive style and integrated style, intuitive and undifferentiated style, intuitive style and split style, undifferentiated and split style. However, the research found that there was a significant difference in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having integrated style and undifferentiated style, integrated and split cognitive style.

Narayanasamy & Vasudevan (2021) found that there was a significant difference in the patterns of cognitive styles among high school teachers working in tribal schools with respect to their gender. Kumar & Nagaraju (2014) found that there existed difference in cognitive styles of teachers based on variation in their gender.

Conforming to the current research, Bar-On (2006) found that systematic and intuitive styles, did not significantly differentiate students in terms of emotional

intelligence. The study emphasized that EI is more influenced by personal and social factors than by cognitive approaches to learning or problem-solving.

Discussion: Studies conducted on this particular objective were very rare. Most of all, Mizoram is not fully oriented towards the cognitive style of an individual. However, it does not mean that the word is totally new to them. The reason why emotional intelligence does not influence the cognitive style of an individual may be in the first instance, despite their connections to human behaviour and functioning, cognitive styles and emotional intelligence function in different fields. While emotional intelligence concentrates on emotional awareness, empathy, interpersonal skills, and emotional regulation, cognitive styles are mostly concerned with how people receive and organize information.

Secondly, individuals that possess high emotional intelligence are frequently able to identify and comprehend the feelings of others, demonstrate empathy, and control their own reactions in trying circumstances. However, a teacher's systematic or intuitive approach/style to information processing does not always affect these kinds of skills.

Thirdly, the cognitive style or thought patterns of an individual do not determine their emotional intelligence. Instead of being limited by an individual's information processing methods, emotional intelligence is likely to be influenced by more extensive, social, and emotional experiences.

Fourthly, prospective teachers might exhibit similar levels of emotional intelligence having different patterns of cognitive styles, maybe as a result of shared contextual factors like their experiences in teacher education programs, exposure to social-emotional learning, or personal development.

Fifthly, the significant difference in emotional intelligence between integrated and undifferentiated groups indicated that teachers with an integrated style who can blend multiple approaches to thinking and problem-solving are potentially more equipped to regulate and understand emotions. They are flexible and adaptable in cognitive processing, and able to manage emotional responses in various social contexts, including classroom. On the other hand, undifferentiated style individuals who might not have a clear cognitive strategy may struggle with emotional

regulation since their way of thinking may make it difficult for them to successfully handle difficult emotional or interpersonal situations.

Sixthly, the significant difference in emotional intelligence between integrated and split styles suggests that teachers who can integrate multiple cognitive strategies may be able to manage and control their emotions. The ability to blend different cognitive approaches could facilitate emotional regulation and enhance empathy and understanding, which are key aspects of emotional intelligence. On the other hand, teachers with a split cognitive style may struggle with emotional intelligence, their emotional flexibility may be limited by their incapacity to combine many ways of thinking into an organized strategy, which could make solving emotionally complicated situations like those frequently faced in the classroom more difficult.

In conclusion, the significance of cultivating emotional intelligence in aspiring educators, irrespective of their cognitive style, it is an essential instrument for establishing nurturing, productive learning environments. Consequently, regardless of cognitive style, developing emotional intelligence in teacher education programs need to be a top priority since it is essential to successful instruction, student participation, and classroom achievement in general.

5.2.6 Discussion on comparison of the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on their cognitive styles.

The research concluded that there was no significant difference among prospective teachers having systematic and intuitive style, systematic and integrated style, systematic and undifferentiated style in their academic adjustment, systematic and split cognitive style, intuitive and integrated style, intuitive and split style, integrated and split style in their academic adjustment.

It was also found that there was a difference in the academic adjustment of prospective teachers having intuitive and undifferentiated style, integrated and undifferentiated style, undifferentiated style and split style.

Discussion: The research conducted found that in comparing academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on dimensions of cognitive styles, in one

aspect, the result showed no significant difference was found. The reason can be several factors.

Firstly, the individual's particular cognitive style may not have a significant impact on academic adjustment or adaptability. This suggested that determining academic adjustment may be more heavily influenced by other factors.

Secondly, no difference shown in the study implies that any dimension of cognitive styles can be just as successful in responding to academic situations. This might be the case since academic settings usually call for a combination of flexible and analytical thinking, enabling individuals to play to their strengths regardless of their cognitive style.

Thirdly, peer and family support, instructional strategies, program structure, and the general learning environment are some of the external elements that affect academic adjustment. These elements might have a greater influence than cognitive style. The educational environment may provide enough support for students with less flexible cognitive types, allowing them to adapt successfully.

Fourthly, critical thinking, time management, and effective communication are among the qualities that teacher education programs may demand irrespective of cognitive style. All prospective teachers must possess these abilities, regardless of whether they are more inclined to particular dimension of cognitive style. The requirement for these skills may level the academic environment, making it less likely for differences in cognitive style to lead to differences in academic adjustment.

Fifthly, academic adjustment includes a variety of dimensions, such as emotional, social, and organizational aspects, while cognitive style might affect how students approach learning activities. Therefore, it is possible that cognitive style by itself does not account for all the elements required for academic adjustment. It is possible that a potential teacher's academic adjustment is more influenced by their capacity for stress management, peer collaboration, and support-seeking than by their cognitive style.

Sixthly, people with intuitive styles may be able to adapt to academic demands, as seen by the notable difference in academic adjustment between intuitive and undifferentiated styles. The inconsistency in the approach of undifferentiated thinkers, who lack a distinct cognitive style, may make it more difficult for them to select a particular strategy to manage the workload, maintain organization, and deal with academic stress.

Seventhly, the notable distinction in academic adjustment between integrated and undifferentiated styles implies that integrating multiple cognitive processes, like combining intuitive and systematic thinking, can significantly improve academic adjustment. In contrast to undifferentiated thinkers, who could find it more difficult to adapt to academic standards, integrated thinkers are likely to conform to academic expectations better due to their adaptability and holistic approach.

Eighthly, although the compartmentalized method used by the split style may be viewed as a drawback in some situations, it does give people a sense of organization and clarity in the way they process information. Individuals with split style may perform well when dealing with specific task, compartmentalization may lead to difficulties when tasks require the integration of multiple types of thinking. However, lack of a unique method for processing information, undifferentiated thinkers may encounter difficulties. It could be more difficult for them to plan their academic work or create productive study techniques if they lack direction.

In conclusion, the ability to integrate or apply specific cognitive approaches efficiently and consistently seems to provide an advantage in academic settings, allowing prospective teachers to manage their academic responsibilities more effectively.

5.2.7 Relationship between the emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students.

1. *The relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of both B.Ed. and M.Ed. are found to be 0.148 which is significant at 0.05 level of significance.*

In concurrent with the present study, Igbo et. al., (2016), Egbule (2018), Ikpe et.al (2021) found positive relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment.

The relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Academic Adjustment of the students reflects the importance of EI and academic adjustment towards teaching profession. It can be said that students who were high in EI may also be found to be high in their adjustment toward academic activities. These are bounded by several reasons. Students who were high in EI understand their weaknesses and emotions which enables them to navigate academic challenges effectively. In addition, high EI helps them to cope with academic pressure, anxiety, stress leader to better adjustment. Students with high EI adapt themselves to new situations, able to resolve difficulties and complications in the academic sphere as well as in their personal life. Hence, maintain resilience and adaptability in the environment. Moreover, they have strong relationships with others, manage time effectively, prioritize tasks and are able to maintain a healthy work-life balance. Finally, they are able to communicate effectively, collaborate, enhance academic experience and confident in bringing new challenges and tasks for their professional and personal development.

1. *Emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of B.Ed. student have no correlation.*

Emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of M.Ed. student have no correlation.

In line with the present study, Amin et.al (2016) and Kumar (2019) also found that emotional intelligence and academic adjustment have not shown any significant relationship. However, Malek et.al (2011), Shenoy and Thingujam (2012), Kumar and Padhi (2015), Kour and Singh (2017), Gawali and Kaila (2020) and Qutishat and Al Shdefat (2021) found in their studies, significant relationship between the two variables.

A primary reason could be the population is homogeneous. B.Ed. and M.Ed. students may already possess high degree of EI which makes it difficult to detect any significant relationship. Secondly, the students may be highly motivated, they may be masking any potential relationship between EI and academic adjustment. Thirdly,

many students may already develop EI through life experiences, reducing the chance of getting high academic adjustment. Fourthly, there may be societal and family background which may influence the relationship between the two making it harder to detect any significant relationship. Fifthly, the support services rendered in the institutions or in the society like counseling, academic advising and socialization may reduce the impact of EI on the academic adjustment. Finally, the minimum qualification to enroll in the B.Ed. programme is Bachelor's Degree and M.Ed. programme is B.Ed. in which students are already in making their own decisions or selecting their career. That is why, they are to be teachers after having these degrees which it can be made an assumption that they were already develop themselves with any of these variables.

5.3 Educational Implications of the Study

The present study holds significant educational implications for the teacher education institutions as well as the whole of Mizoram for holistic development of the individual undergoing the teacher education programmes.

Firstly, with the evidence provided in the findings, it is important in the institutions that even though all the students who were enrolled in the programme holds bachelor's degree or master's degree, there is a need for personalized learning so that teacher educators can tailor instruction to match students' cognitive styles considering their EI and adjustment levels.

Secondly, the research can inform that there is a need to incorporate various teaching approaches to cater to individuals cognitive styles, adjustment and EI levels. The present technologies and communication attached to different institutions are still needed to upgrade and even the teacher educators are also required to update themselves for enhancing student's progress in teaching and learning.

Thirdly, as per the findings of the research, students are also required to recognize their own cognitive styles to suit the different learning and teaching strategies. Discovering of their own ability, capability and interest in the teaching

profession will enhance professional outlook and leverage the EI to enhance learning.

Fourthly, in the classroom or institutions there is a need to promote inclusivity to foster a safe, empathetic and supportive environment so that all students will feel emotionally secure and thereby enhance holistic development.

Fifthly, there are some students who were unable to work collaboratively with their friends, classmates and in groups. Group work and collaborative strategy in the classroom will foster the EI and adjustment of students and this in fact will paved the way for more appreciative of what comes next, create discipline and conflict resolutions as and when necessary.

Sixthly, the teacher educator will design instructional strategy to match students' cognitive style. In the present study, most students have split cognitive style which means they were able to cope with problems, have potential cognitive conflicts, improved adaptability and manage to increase creativity. They were able to process information quickly with both analytical and intuitive thinking. It is therefore, important to recognize this style to make use in the classroom teaching as well as in assigning different tasks to the individuals.

Seventhly, the research findings can be of used in the process of recruiting teachers who were excellent in teaching, guiding and supervising their own students. Therefore, stakeholders with the knowledge of the findings can make use of it in curriculum designing, implementation of additional courses in the programme as well as norms and standards to be enacted in the design of the programme.

Eighthly, the findings of the research can be of used in the institutions that there will be training programmes and workshops to foster students emotional well being, adjustment and identification of their own cognitive style. This will be of help in their personal lives, family and society. It would also provide them with the necessary skills to develop in their profession at times when they have opportunity to work in different schools and institutions.

Finally, the construction and standardization of Academic Adjustment Scale for B.Ed. and M.Ed. students will provide insights into the teaching profession that they were trying to fit in. Based on the constructed scale, student- teachers will be able to address the needed skills and practices, identify at risk students for support where they needed the most. They will be able to evaluate the teacher education programmes, for providing more practical outcomes. The needs and importance of internship programme offered in the syllabus to which they will be able to refine and update the course more practical. The implications of the present study encompass the educational system not only the teacher education programme, curriculum construction and designing, teaching approaches and methodologies, the pedagogical knowledge. It ultimately affects the various stages of education for which they were prepared to work as a teacher for the holistic development of the students as well as the society.

5.4 Recommendations of the Study

The following are the recommendations of Emotional Intelligence (EI), Cognitive Styles and Academic Adjustment.

5.4.1 Recommendations for Improvement in Emotional Intelligence (EI)

Emotional Intelligence is important in all spheres, not only in the educational field. Emotionally intelligent people able to work effectively and contribute to positive working environment. In educational set up, these types of people are needed the most to strengthen the learning achievement, outcome and behavioural changes. It is therefore pertinent for a teacher to be emotionally responsible, mature and intelligent. The following are the recommendations for improving EI:

1. Curriculum Integration: There can be introduction of emotional intelligence foundation course into the teacher education programme or incorporate the course into the existing foundation courses. This will help the students to be more precise in their learning, more skillful and empathetic in their outlook. Students will also be able to manage classroom more effectively. The teacher educators will also bring out the best quality of ideas and information with the knowledge of the course.

2. **Organizing Training or Workshops:** Organizing EI based workshops and training will provide fruitful experiences to the faculty and the students. Training methods and strategies will be work out for reflection of self and awareness practices. These sessions will be beneficial for students who were undergoing changes in their lives with the change of subject studied to have a degree in B.Ed. or M.Ed.
3. **Collaboration Strategy:** A particular institution may collaborate with other teacher education institution and share their experiences on the objectives of teacher education programme. This can also be conducted through institutional visits, exchange programmes and working as a team for common objectives. This will create a room for the development of personality, behavioural changes and fostering of ability and capability to establish cooperation in the individuals.
4. **Providing Counseling and Mentoring Services:** Students come from different background with an intention to become a professional in teaching. Counseling and mentoring should focus on the area where they need assistance in their personal and academic lives. It can be conducted individually, based on groups and with their peers. The focus on the services would be academic, professional and activities that are supposed to be carried out in the programme. This will help in strengthening of their retention, conflict resolution, stress management, socialization and their general well-being which are the pre-requisites in enhancing EI.
5. **Encourage self – reflection and self- awareness practices:** The learning activities carried out in the teacher education programme as per the syllabus promote room for self-reflection and awareness. However, more activities like journaling such as regular reflective writing on teaching experiences, thoughts and feelings, giving positive and constructive feedback on their performances, reflecting on personal teaching beliefs and values, documenting teaching experiences, successes and challenges would be more fruitful and effective for personal development.
6. **Collaborate with other Teacher Education Institutions:** A particular institution may collaborate with other institutions to share their best practices, learning

experiences and achievements in the academic concern. Investigated on teacher burnout and its impact as to cultivate emotionally intelligent teachers who support students' social-emotional growth and academic success.

7. **Faculty Development and Support:** Programme for faculty development may be organized at the institution level to guide their students at all spheres. This will improve in their teaching methods, techniques, to keep pace with the changing educational advancements, to develop leadership skills, respond to diverse students need, abilities and learning styles.
8. **Develop EI-based Leadership Programmes:** To cultivate self-awareness, empathy, social skills and enhanced communication, leadership programme may be organized at different settings. This will apparently create an opportunity to develop future leaders who have potentiality to navigate change and innovation, enhance critical thinking skills and ensure continuity and minimize the gaps in the working environment.

By implementing these recommendations, B.Ed. and M.Ed. programmes can cultivate emotionally intelligent, competent teachers who support students emotional well-being which will in turn improve their academic performance, maintain standards and quality teachers. Improvement in the emotional intelligence of the student will not only bring about success in the academic, will ensure the innovative practices to be brought out in the education.

5.4.2 Recommendations for Improvement in Cognitive Styles

B.Ed. and M.Ed. students have different cognitive styles. These styles influence the individual's learning, problem solving efficiency, decision making quality, communication style, interpersonal relationships and academic performance. The recommendations for improvement in their cognitive style can be as follows:

1. **Effective Teaching Methodologies:** One way of teaching the students may not successfully brought about improvement. In the classroom activities, teachers may incorporate cognitive training programmes, giving clear instructions, giving time for self-evaluation. Adaptive learning environment

may be an important strategy that a teacher can create to promote inclusivity accommodating individual differences.

2. **Learning Style Assessment:** Assessment may be made to improve learning outcomes, increase students' satisfaction, enhance teachers' effectiveness, better academic performance, reduce learning difficulties, increase students' motivation, improve student- teachers' relationship. By conducting these assessments, educators can create personalized learning environments which will be beneficial for the schools at different levels.
3. **Development of Cognitive Training Programmes for the Teacher-Educators:** Organizing of cognitive training programmes will improve teaching quality, better classroom management, reduce teacher burnout, improve teaching culture, increase students' engagement, adapting to changing curriculum and develop critical thinking. These will in turn benefit the students to adapt to their environment and continuous improvements in learning.
4. **Technology integration:** Access to technologies like learning management systems (LMS), online courses and platforms, educational software and apps, artificial intelligence and machine learning. By integrating technology in imparting curriculum, teachers can enhance learning, teaching and students' outcomes.
5. **Feedback and Reflection Opportunities:** Feedback can be given in a specific, timely and actionable strategy as well as peer review and self-assessment. This will increase students' learning outcomes, improve academic performance, better teacher-student relationship, increase students' engagement and motivation.

Investing in cognitive style development fosters resilient, adaptable and high performing individuals. These qualities are essential attributes in the teaching and learning environment so as to promote successful outcome in the academic as well as in modification of behaviour which is the main goal of education.

5.4.3 Recommendations for Improvement in Academic Adjustment:

As B.Ed. and M.Ed. is a different programme in the academic environment. The objectives of the course are also more or less completely diverse from the course they have already completed. The structure and outline of the course tend to prepare students to be teachers who excel in teaching, are innovative and deliver quality education. Therefore, for improvement in their teaching profession or to adjust to the environment, the following are suggested:

1. Exchange Programme: This may be possible with the intervention in the curricular and co-curricular areas. There can be students' exchange programme with other institutions for a certain period of time. The faculty of the institution may also take part in supervision and guidance with set objectives.
2. Research-based teaching practices: Other than normal classroom teaching, research-based teaching practices may be used which is focussed on evidence driven methods to enhance student learning outcomes. The practices include, flipped classroom, problem-based learning, differentiated instruction, inquiry-based learning, feedback-centric approach.
3. Ensure program flexibility and adaptability: Adaptability and flexibility may be incorporated while designing curriculum, in assessment and evaluation, classroom delivery, programme structure and conducting of co-curricular activities so that by implementing these strategies, programs can respond effectively to changing student needs and affect their adjustment in the system.
4. Regular program evaluations: It will involve gathering feedback of alumni, competent authorities, academic advisors, parents/guardians, community, support staff and students. The functioning may improve academic support services, enhance curriculum relevance, increase student engagement, better academic advising, enhance overall learning experience.
5. Student support services: To provide academic advising, academic support, for their emotional and mental well-being, career and professional development, to aware the social and community integration, student conduct

and conflict resolution, academic integrity, support for students with family or work commitment. By providing these support services, institutions can facilitate academic adjustment, enhance student success, and foster a supportive campus community.

By implementing these recommendations, B.Ed. and M.Ed. programmes can enhance academic quality, relevance, and effectiveness, preparing educators for 21st-century teaching and learning.

5.5 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The following are the suggestions for further research which can be conducted in different areas:

1. Explore the impact of academic adjustment on students' mental health and well-being on B.Ed./M.Ed. students or D. El. Ed students.
2. Investigate the role of social support networks in facilitating academic adjustment on teacher education to address the diverse student population who were enrolled in the teacher education programme.
3. Examine the relationship between academic adjustment and academic achievement of prospective teachers in teacher education institutions.
4. Longitudinal studies tracking students' EI, cognitive style, and academic adjustment on prospective teachers.
5. Explore the age groups differences on students of teacher education institutions to identify the differences or similarities on EI, cognitive style and academic adjustment.
6. Compare the academic adjustment of prospective teachers in Mizoram with other parts of India and correlate with their academic achievement.
7. Examine on the factors such as parents education, locality, socio- economic status of students as an influencing factor of their cognitive style and academic adjustment.
8. Explore the impact of EI on students' adaptability and flexibility in academic settings as to know whether it has brought about competency and excellence in the teacher education programme.

5.6 CONCLUSION

Emotional intelligence (EI) plays a significant and multifaceted role in shaping the cognitive style and academic adjustment all individuals. B.Ed. and M.Ed. students, as future educators, are required not only to grasp academic content but also to develop personal and professional skills that will help them manage the emotional and social challenges of their careers. For B.Ed. and M.Ed. students, cultivating EI can profoundly influence their cognitive processing and overall academic adjustment.

By promoting emotional intelligence development, educational institutions can significantly impact the overall academic performance and well-being of students. EI helps students manage stress, stay motivated, and navigate interpersonal relationships, which are all crucial for success in the demanding academic environment. Furthermore, emotional intelligence fosters resilience, allowing students to cope with setbacks and adapt to various learning challenges.

Understanding the impact of cognitive styles on learning is equally important. Cognitive style influences how students approach and process information, as well as how they react to various teaching methods. B.Ed. and M.Ed. students are expected to possess diverse cognitive styles, with some being more independent learners (field-independent) and others relying more on external cues and structured guidance (field-dependent). Educational institutions that acknowledge and adapt to these differences can foster an environment where all students can thrive. Tailoring teaching methods and learning activities to cater to the cognitive preferences of students can improve engagement and reduce academic stress.

Moreover, the intersection of emotional intelligence and cognitive style plays a crucial role in academic adjustment. EI enables students to regulate their emotions, which helps them adapt to the challenges posed by their cognitive style and the academic environment. Educational institutions, play a pivotal role in creating a supportive academic environment that addresses both cognitive and emotional needs. Educators can implement programs to promote EI development, such as workshops on emotional regulation, communication skills, and stress management. These programs would help students develop the emotional resilience needed to face the

stresses of academia and prepare them to manage the emotional demands of teaching. Additionally, by providing opportunities for reflection and self-awareness, students can better understand their cognitive styles, recognize their strengths, and identify areas for improvement.

Furthermore, academic advisors and mentors can work closely with students to help them navigate the complexities of academic adjustment. This involves recognizing the emotional and social challenges students may face, offering personalized guidance, and encouraging students to seek support when needed. Creating an environment of open communication, where students feel comfortable discussing their emotional and academic difficulties, can significantly enhance their academic experience.

Ultimately, fostering both emotional intelligence and cognitive flexibility will equip students with the necessary tools to navigate the challenges of higher education successfully. These students will be better prepared to handle the demands of their future roles as educators, where emotional intelligence and cognitive adaptability are essential for effective teaching and learning. Teachers with high EI are more likely to create supportive and engaging learning environments for their students, demonstrating empathy, managing classroom dynamics, and responding to the diverse emotional needs of their students. Thus, investing in the development of emotional intelligence not only benefits the students themselves but also enhances the broader educational community.

In conclusion, by recognizing the importance of emotional intelligence in shaping cognitive style and academic adjustment, and by integrating EI development into the academic experience, educational institutions can help students not only succeed academically but also grow into emotionally intelligent, reflective, and adaptable educators. This comprehensive approach ensures that students are well-prepared for the challenges they will face both in their academic journey and in their professional careers. Ultimately, this research can inform educational practices to enhance students' academic performance and prepare them for their future roles as educators.



Dr. P. Srinivasan (Thanjavur)
Mr. K. Murgesan (Thanjavur)

Consumable Booklet
of
EIS-S-SPMK
(English Version)

Fill in these entries :

Date

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Name _____ Father's Name _____

Date of Birth _____ Gender : Male ☐ Female ☐

Qualification _____ Area : Urban ☐ Rural ☐

Married : Unmarried ☐ Divorce ☐ Widow / Widower ☐

Instructions

On the following pages 40 statements belonging to different situations have been given. For each statement four options have been given and you have to select one which reflects your thinking and put a ☒ mark in the relevant box.

This is not an examination.

Your answer will be kept confidential.

Scoring Table

	Raw Score							z-Score	Grade	Level of Emotional Intelligence
Page	2	3	4	5	6	7	8			
Score										
Total Score										

MANASVI

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NATIONAL PSYCHOLOGICAL CORPORATION

4/230, Kacheri Ghat, AGRA-282 004 ☎ : (0562) 2464926

Sr.No.	STATEMENTS	Score
1.	<p>A person often interrupts you when you are working. You are unable to continue your work. You feel</p> <p>(a) Angry <input type="checkbox"/> (b) Panic <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(c) Nervous <input type="checkbox"/> (d) Annoyance. <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<input type="text"/>
2.	<p>A doll, which was given as gift to you, was broken by your brother, you feel</p> <p>(a) Painful <input type="checkbox"/> (b) Angry <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(c) Dejected <input type="checkbox"/> (d) Calm <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<input type="text"/>
3.	<p>You have been wrongly fired from your job. You feel to</p> <p>(a) Put the matter in the association <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(b) Quarrel with the authority <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(c) Explain to the authorities and get back the job <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(d) Search another job <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<input type="text"/>
4.	<p>You are upset now. Now you have to give presentation. You feel to</p> <p>(a) Somehow manage <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(b) Avoid the presentation <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(c) Scold the colleagues <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(d) Normally handle the group <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<input type="text"/>
5.	<p>One day you are suddenly asked to give instant presentation on a topic. The topic is known to you. You are not prepared, since it was told suddenly. You</p> <p>(a) Become nervous <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(b) Ask to cancel the presentation <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(c) Ask for preparation time <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(d) Take on presentation. <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<input type="text"/>
6.	<p>You have attended very well for a competitive examination. After the results, you find that you came in second position, you will</p> <p>(a) Become upset <input type="checkbox"/> (b) Ask for revaluation <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(c) Be as usual <input type="checkbox"/> (d) Keep trying <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<input type="text"/>
7.	<p>You are watching India vs. Australia twenty twenty final cricket match. Your younger brother is often asking you to clear doubts in his subject. You</p> <p>(a) Clear his doubts <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(b) Scold him because he could have asked before <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(c) Switch off the TV <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(d) Feel irritated <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<input type="text"/>
Total Score Page 2		<input type="text"/>

Sr.No.	STATEMENTS	Score
8.	<p>You want to marry a person. That person's father said to you that he will rather die than to have you marry with his child. This is because that you are of different caste. You</p> <p>(a) Run away with that person <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(b) Spend some time with the person's father, so that the father makes a decision of your character. <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(c) Argue with the father and speak out that all men are equal regardless of caste <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(d) Give gifts often to the father, so that the father could change his mind. <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<input type="text"/>
9.	<p>You just bought a new car. While driving, suddenly a boy comes running across the road. In order to avoid hitting him you ran over into an electric post. You will</p> <p>(a) Scold the boy <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(b) Check the boy for any wound <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(c) Make a call to police to report <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(d) Call the boy's parents to repair the car. <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<input type="text"/>
10.	<p>You have worked in an office for 10 years. You did not get a raise in the salary so far. Suddenly you got a chance to take 5 lakh rupees from the office. You</p> <p>(a) Take away the money so that it is compensated for salary rise not given <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(b) Don't take the money <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(c) Work hard, so that one day you may get salary rise. <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(d) Resign the job, with that money <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<input type="text"/>
11.	<p>Your friends are making jokes about your haircut. You will</p> <p>(a) Get irritated <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(b) Scold them back <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(c) Ask them to see their hair cut in mirror <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(d) Join them with the joke. <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<input type="text"/>
12.	<p>Your hotel is going on loss. You will</p> <p>(a) Blame workers for the loss <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(b) Switch over to some other business <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(c) Analyse the reason <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(d) Bear the responsibility on yourself and set right <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<input type="text"/>
13.	<p>You are in dejected mood now. When you see a happy person, you</p> <p>(a) Will get angry <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(b) Will feel lightened by his/ her happiness <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(c) Will get jealous <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(d) Will feel why that person does not understand me <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<input type="text"/>
	Total Score Page 3	<input type="text"/>

Sr.No.	STATEMENTS	Score
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14. You are entering into marriage hall filled with strangers. You will

- (a) Start conversation with someone ☐
- (b) Wait till your friends come ☐
- (c) Sit and see the happenings ☐
- (d) Go to take food. ☐

15. You are teaching a particular lesson many times to a student. Still that student does not understand. You will

- (a) Try as many times as possible till he/she understands ☐
- (b) Try another time to teach ☐
- (c) Get dejected ☐
- (d) Scold the student ☐

16. Your name has figured in an international award list. But somehow, it was withdrawn in the final list. You will

- (a) Meet the selection committee members and pacify them ☐
- (b) Do not worry about it, because such thing happens ☐
- (c) Analyse the strength within you and try again ☐
- (d) Say that if award is given, it is honour for the award. ☐

17. While going for an interview, on the way the railway gate has been closed. At that time you

- (a) Return to home ☐
- (b) Attend the interview ☐
- (c) Become upset ☐
- (d) Choose another way to go to interview ☐

18. You are head of an office. Now you are pre-occupied with many administrative problems. Staffs are requesting you to inaugurate the programme. You will

- (a) Not accepted the invitation because you are busy ☐
- (b) Ask them to postpone to some other day ☐
- (c) Scold them that they do not know your problems ☐
- (d) Accept to inaugurate ☐

Total Score Page 4

Sr.No.	STATEMENTS	Score
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19. You are seriously preparing for an exam. That time your mother asks you to buy an item which is essential. You will

- (a) Stare at her ☐
- (b) Ask her to go to shop ☐
- (c) Explains her that examination is important ☐
- (d) Go to shop and get the item. ☐

20. You see a child facing a problem to memorize an essay. You will tell the child to :

- (a) Read for some more times ☐
- (b) Write 10 times ☐
- (c) Leave it ☐
- (d) Read it in pieces ☐

21. You are in a bank for some work. An old man seeks your help. You will

- (a) Scold others for not helping the old man ☐
- (b) Make a complaint to the manager that you are being disturbed ☐
- (c) Help that old man in his job ☐
- (d) Say the old man how the work could be done ☐

22. After graduating, you got a job with low pay. You will

- (a) Be in this job and try for some other ☐
- (b) Work sensibly ☐
- (c) Work only for the money you received ☐
- (d) Start an association to fight with the management ☐

23. You are in a party. Some one looks at you very interestingly. You will

- (a) Have no idea about that person ☐
- (b) Try to talk with that person ☐
- (c) Hide away from that person ☐
- (d) Complaint this to your friend ☐

Total Score Page 5

Sr.No.	STATEMENTS	Score
24.	<p>You are in a procession which is being held to improve your job conditions. On the way you meet a sick person. You will</p> <p>(a) Call assistance from 108 <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(b) Attend to the sick person <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(c) Continue in the procession because your colleagues won't allow <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(d) Write in the newspaper column about the negligence of health authorities <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<input type="text"/>
25.	<p>You are owner of a leading fan manufacturing company. You are approached by another fan manufacturer whose product is selling next to yours for doubt. You feel</p> <p>(a) Not to clarify the doubt <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(b) To Clarify the doubt <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(c) To ask him to come some other day <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(d) To provide wrong guidance <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<input type="text"/>
26.	<p>You are appointed as a manager to a sick institution. All your valiant efforts to improve the conditions results in nothing. Therefore you will.</p> <p>(a) Try to get transfer from the place <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(b) Conduct a meeting with the staff and threaten them that you will resign <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(c) Motivate the Staff <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(d) Leave as it is <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<input type="text"/>
27.	<p>You are the executive head of an industry and your subordinates feel about you that your presence</p> <p>(a) Is needed <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(b) Is not required <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(c) Makes them too afraid <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(d) Will enhance them in their job <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<input type="text"/>
28.	<p>Somebody is angry with you. You will</p> <p>(a) Pacify them <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(b) Take them to hotel <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(c) Analyse what went wrong and correct it <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>(d) Ignore him <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<input type="text"/>

Total Score Page 6

Sr.No.	STATEMENTS	Score
29.	Others say that they do not understand what you speak. You will	
	(a) Ask them to try to understand you	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(b) Assess your communication skill	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(c) Think that they have less knowledge to understand you	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(d) Not take it seriously	<input type="checkbox"/>
30.	You are a Deputy Commissioner of Police. Many people are blocking the national highway for insufficient water. You will	
	(a) Ask the water board to solve the problem	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(b) Send a junior officer to the spot to solve the problem	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(c) Order for a lathicharge to clear them	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(d) Converse with them to clear the road	<input type="checkbox"/>
31.	There was a misunderstanding between you and your superior. You will	
	(a) Avoid, since he is superior to you	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(b) Compete with him	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(c) Adopt to the situation	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(d) Cooperate with him	<input type="checkbox"/>
32.	You are a police officer of the area in which clash between two groups of students is taking place. You will	
	(a) Arrange for a meeting between the groups	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(b) Ask the college authorities to close the college	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(c) Order to put tear gas to move away the students	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(d) Arrange for a meeting of students and advise them	<input type="checkbox"/>
33.	You are a top most officer in a multinational company and you are absent for a day. The employees will	
	(a) Feel happy	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(b) Quarrel with one another	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(c) Work as usual	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(d) Work much more	<input type="checkbox"/>
34.	Two persons are quarrelling with each other. You will	
	(a) Run away from it	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(b) Joint in any one side	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(c) Pacify the quarrel	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(d) Call the police.	<input type="checkbox"/>

Total Score Page 7

Sr.No.	STATEMENTS	Score
35.	As a teacher you feel some students are not in a mood to study. You will (a) Ask the students to leave the class, so that others can follow you (b) Say some jokes (c) Provide them some playful activities and continue the class (d) Say stories	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="text"/>
36.	There is a dull person in your company. You will (a) Make him as a friend (b) Advise him not to be like this (c) Joke this with others (d) Try to improve his position	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="text"/>
37.	Today is your birthday. You will (a) Call many friends for party (b) Be alone and pray to god (c) Arrange for a party with close friends (d) Buy new dress and sweets.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="text"/>
38.	You and your friend have not been speaking for long time due to some problem. There comes a chance to speak to him. You will (a) Avoid (b) Wait till he/she starts speaking (c) Go and speak to him/her (d) Put a condition and then talk to him/her	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="text"/>
39.	You prefer (a) To work alone (b) To work with a team (c) Not to work (d) To be head of a team	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="text"/>
40.	An institution will grow well with (a) Clever adviser (b) Team work (c) Lots of money (d) Better infrastructure	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="text"/>
Total Score Page 8		<input type="text"/>

Scale for Academic Adjustment of B.Ed and M.Ed Students

(Topic: Emotional Intelligence of B.Ed and M.Ed Students in Relation to their Cognitive Style and Academic Adjustment)

Please fill up the following information: Date _____

Name _____

Address _____

Sex: Male/Female _____

Institute _____

Programme: B.Ed/M.Ed. _____

INSTRUCTIONS

On the following pages, 45 statements have been given out of which there are different categories, such as **Programme Oriented, Course Oriented, Personality Oriented, Practicum Oriented and Classroom oriented.**

You are requested to give your reply on any of the five options given for each statement by putting a ☒ in the appropriate box. The options are **Fully Agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree and Fully Disagree.**

Kindly reply to all the 45 statements.

Your responses will be kept confidential.

Sl.No	Items	Fully Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Fully Disagree
1	It is difficult to get admission into the programme from a different background other than Education Subject					
2	The programme does not offer room for co-curricular activities.					
3	I enjoy taking part in seminars, symposiums and discussions on relevant themes.					
4	B.Ed./M.Ed. programme is specifically meant for students who do not know how to teach.					
5	I have keen interest in all activities organised in the programme.					
6	The courses are burdensome as there is no relationship with my previous discipline.					
7	Theory papers are difficult to comprehend.					
8	The courses improve my level of self-confidence.					
9	The courses offer moral and ethical values for a prospective teacher.					
10	The programme is relevant to develop critical thinking skills.					
11	The courses provide space for solving problems and difficulties.					
12	I acquire new knowledge and experiences through the course.					
13	The B.Ed/M.Ed Programmes shape one's mind for adjusting into the teaching world.					
14	I consider the courses and syllabus to be distressing, stressful and burdensome.					
15	My inability to choose pedagogy paper based on my main subject is very frustrating.					
16	I feel mentally depressed when others discuss academic activities.					
17	I always get less marks in the internal tests or assignments.					
18	It is difficult to adjust to a learning environment where self-learning takes priority.					
19	It is hard to project myself as a teacher while being a student.					
20	The teaching faculty are too conservative and narrow minded.					
21	Teaching faculty do not pay attention to the students' problems.					
22	I express my anger and disappointment openly.					
23	I get worked up and aggressive when there are complaints about me.					

Sl.No	Items	Fully Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Fully Disagree
24	I resent the jokes and humours in the classroom.					
25	I feel at ease when I fulfil my duties and responsibilities.					
26	I feel arrogant when my fellow mates get recognition for some achievement.					
27	I hate my teachers when they scold me for my mistakes.					
28	I should work upon my mistakes for self-improvement.					
29	It is difficult to undergo internship programme and practice teaching.					
30	Interacting with students during internship period is not necessary at all.					
31	I find it difficult to pay attention in classroom teaching.					
32	I am afraid of doing practice teaching in the school under the supervision of an examiner.					
33	I wish to excel in the field of teaching.					
34	I do not think engagement to different schools/institutions is necessary during internship.					
35	I think the practical activities make me more confident than theory classes.					
36	Personality of students can be developed through practical activities.					
37	I have difficulty in using English at the time of practice teaching.					
38	The teacher educators have a good understanding of the professional environment.					
39	The teacher educators should update and adapt to teaching and learning innovations.					
40	The administration provides for a free and democratic environment.					
41	There is too much imposition on discipline and responsibilities.					
42	I am hesitant to share my problems with the teacher educators.					
43	I get nervous in the tests and examinations when there are questions to test my understanding.					
44	I do not like to be absent for classes for a long time even if I catch up with the class lectures.					
45	I am afraid to meet my teachers outside the classroom.					



Dr. Praveen Kumar Jha (Madhipura)

Consumable Booklet
of
CSI-J
(English Version)

Please fill in the following informations :

Date

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Name _____

Age

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Sex : Male ☐ Female ☐

Cast _____ Religion _____

Education _____ Type of Family _____

Father's Occupation _____ Family Income _____

Area : Urban ☐ Rural ☐

INSTRUCTIONS

Some statements are given in the pages 2, 3 & 4 where situation are such in which an individual has to solve his problems. Each statement contains five response alternatives : **Totally disagree, Disagree, Undecided, Agree** and **Strongly agree** and these are separately shown vide 'S' category on left side of statement and 'I' category on right side of statement. You have to go through these statements in the middle and tick mark ☒. Your choices in any of the five cells ☐ of response alternatives as given. For example, if your choice for a particular statement is Agree you have to tick mark the cell ☒ below agree response.

Scoring Table

Pages	2	3	4	Total	Interpretation
S Category					
I Category					

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[illegible]Total Score Page 2

Category	S								I						
Item No.	1	2	6	7	8	9	10	12	3	4	5	11	13	14	15
Raw Score															
Total															

Sr. No.	STATEMENTS	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Totally Agree	Score
16.	I collect all informations in my mental frame like a computer and then derive a lot of statistics by dissecting them into several parts.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>
17.	I determine the most appropriate information which may solve the problem with accuracy, by using the images already present in my memory in the form of information.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>
18.	Before solving a problem I try to plan and search the ways for finding out a solution.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>
19.	Normally I depend on perceptions, determination and non-verbal indications as auxilliary factors in the process of solving a problem.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>
20.	While solving a problem I normally believe in facts and figures.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>
21.	While solving a problem, I think on the probable alternatives quickly and at the same time scrutinize them as early as possible.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>
22.	I search for the additional information systematically and select the sources of information carefully.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>
23.	I contemplate various ways of solving a problem and alternative measures simultaneously.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>
24.	In the process of solving a problem, first of all I identify the different factors which may create hurdles.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>
25.	While analysing a problem it appears to me that I move forward from the first step to the second and then start thinking backward or say, turn back to the first one again.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>
26.	While making a deep analyse of the problem, I realise that I am moving systematically from one step to another.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>
27.	Normally I inquire many sources of statistics and during the process of searching ways of solution, my eyes spread on to many other informations.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>

Total Score Page 3

Category	S							I				
Item No.	16	17	18	20	22	24	26	19	21	23	25	27
Raw Score												
Total												

Sr. No.	STATEMENTS	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Totally Agree	Score
28.	When I am working at a complex problem, I divide it into small units in order to make them accessible for solution.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>
29.	In course of solving a problem, I apprehend that I turn back to the same logistics frequently and each time I get a different insight.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>
30.	I collect the given facts and sources of informations legally, logically and serially to a certain limit.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>
31.	Generally I take into account the dimension of the problem and its jurisdiction so that a complete picture of the solution could be drawn.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>
32.	When I seek a solution of a problem modus operandi is well-organised and quite extensive.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>
33.	I solve a problem quickly and effectively without wasting much time on modalities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>
34.	I have a very good memory and have due interest in mathematics.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>
35.	I am not bothered by uncertainties and incredibilities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>
36.	I consider myself and others credible and predictable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>
37.	I possess a number of ideas and I am inquisitive by nature.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>
38.	It is my nature to keep away from momentary ideas with changes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>
39.	I look at myself as well as others as one who is ready to take risk.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>
40.	I am never vexed by the 'status quo' because I feel novelty always proves to be better.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>

Total Score Page 4

Category	S					I							
Item No.	28	30	32	34	36	29	31	33	35	37	38	39	40
Raw Score													
Total													

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A Study On The Emotional Intelligence Of B.Ed. And M.Ed. Students In Mizoram

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Abstract: The study investigates the levels of emotional intelligence among Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) and Master of Education (M.Ed.) students in Mizoram, exploring how these levels may influence their academic and professional development. Emotional intelligence (EI), encompassing skills such as self-awareness, empathy, emotional regulation, and interpersonal communication, is increasingly recognized as crucial in educational settings. This research aims to determine whether differences exist in EI between B.Ed. and M.Ed. students, considering factors such as gender, and academic background. The research employs a census method with a total population of 332 students from different teacher education institutions in Mizoram. The findings highlight the EI levels between the two groups, with M.Ed. students exhibiting higher mean value of emotional intelligence, potentially due to their advanced studies and greater exposure to educational experiences.

Key words – Emotional Intelligence, B. Ed., M. Ed., Academic background

I. INTRODUCTION

The term "emotional intelligence" (EI) describes the capacity to recognize, comprehend, control, and make good use of our own and other people's emotions. The mental processes involved in identifying, utilizing, comprehending, and controlling one's own and others' emotional states which are necessary for problem-solving and behavior regulation are referred to as emotional intelligence (Ciccarelli & Meyer, 2006).

The concept of emotional intelligence (EI) has gained significant traction in recent years, particularly within the field of education, where the role of emotions in teaching and learning processes is increasingly recognized. As future educators, B.Ed. (Bachelor of Education) and M.Ed. (Master of Education) students are being prepared to enter a profession that demands not only academic expertise but also a deep understanding of the emotional and psychological dynamics of the classroom. Emotional intelligence influences how student teachers interact with students, manage classroom behavior, handle stress, and create an environment conducive to learning. Given the profound impact that teachers have on the cognitive and emotional development of their students, the study of emotional intelligence among B.Ed. and M.Ed. students is not only relevant but necessary.

The education landscape is becoming increasingly complex, with teachers facing challenges that require more than just subject matter knowledge. Issues such as diverse student populations, varying learning needs, behavioral management, and the pressures of standardized testing demand that teachers possess a high level of emotional intelligence. This is because teachers with strong EI are better equipped to understand and respond to the emotional needs of their students, which can lead to more effective teaching and better student outcomes. For instance, emotionally intelligent teachers can create a classroom

atmosphere that encourages emotional safety, where students feel valued and supported, enabling them to take risks in their learning and express themselves openly.

Moreover, the stress associated with the teaching profession is well-documented. Teachers frequently encounter emotionally charged situations that require them to manage their own emotions while guiding students through their emotional experiences. B.Ed. and M.Ed. students who develop strong emotional intelligence skills during their training are likely to be more resilient in the face of these challenges. They can maintain a calm and focused demeanor, which not only benefits their own well-being but also serves as a model for students. Furthermore, emotional intelligence plays a vital role in the professional growth of teachers. It influences their ability to collaborate with colleagues, engage with parents, and contribute to a positive school culture. Teachers with high EI are often seen as leaders in their schools, as they can navigate complex social interactions and drive positive change.

Emotional intelligence stands as a multifaceted and indispensable skill set that contributes significantly to personal and professional success. Emotional intelligence identified four branches: perceiving emotions, using emotions to facilitate thought, understanding emotions, and managing emotions and these branches contribute to effective emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). As the understanding of the intricacies of human emotions continues to evolve, so too does the recognition of the profound role emotional intelligence play in shaping the fabric of human lives. By fostering self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills, individuals can unlock the full potential of emotional intelligence, creating a path towards fulfilling relationships and thriving careers.

II. RATIONALE

Studying emotional intelligence (EI) among B.Ed. and M.Ed. students is of profound importance, given the unique demands and responsibilities of the teaching profession. Teachers are not just conveyors of academic knowledge; they are also pivotal in shaping the emotional and social development of their students. As future educators, B.Ed. and M.Ed. students must be equipped with a high level of emotional intelligence to navigate the complexities of the classroom environment effectively.

Emotional intelligence, defined as the ability to recognize, understand, manage, and influence one's own emotions and the emotions of others, plays a crucial role in the teaching-learning process. For B.Ed. and M.Ed. students, developing EI is essential because it directly affects their ability to build positive relationships with students, colleagues, and parents. Teachers with high EI are better equipped to create an emotionally supportive and safe learning environment where students feel valued, respected, and motivated to learn.

One of the key reasons for studying EI among these students is the impact it has on classroom management. Effective classroom management is not just about enforcing rules; it's about understanding the emotional and psychological needs of students. Teachers with high emotional intelligence can read the emotional climate of the classroom and respond appropriately, whether it involves de-escalating a conflict, providing comfort, or encouraging a shy student to participate. This ability to manage emotions effectively helps in maintaining a positive learning atmosphere that is conducive to student engagement and success.

Moreover, emotional intelligence is critical in fostering effective communication, which is at the heart of the teaching profession. Teachers must communicate not only knowledge but also empathy, understanding, and support. B.Ed. and M.Ed. students with high EI can communicate more effectively with their students, adapting their communication style to meet the diverse emotional and cognitive needs of their learners. This adaptability is crucial in a classroom setting where students come from various backgrounds and have different learning styles.

Furthermore, emotional intelligence is integral to promoting inclusivity and diversity in the classroom. Educators with high EI are more likely to be sensitive to the needs of students from different cultural, socio-economic, and emotional backgrounds. They can create an inclusive classroom environment where all students feel respected and valued, regardless of their differences. This inclusivity is essential for fostering a sense of belonging and promoting equity in education.

III. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Shamira Malekar and R.P. Mohanty (2009) in their study, "Factors Affecting Emotional Intelligence: An Empirical Study for Some School Students in India." They discovered that key elements influencing emotional intelligence (EI) include flexibility, interpersonal and intrapersonal capacity.

Dhawan (2016) in her research, 'A Study of Emotional Intelligence, Cognitive Styles and Personality Types of Academically Talented and Average Students', investigated on different variables and found that academically talented and academically average students do not differ on the various components of emotional intelligence. However, academically talented students are field independent and average students are field dependent. Further average students have more extraversion tendencies than the talented students.

Kant (2019) conducted a study on "Emotional intelligence: A study on university students". The study's findings demonstrated a statistically significant disparity between male and female students' emotional intelligence. Based on their high mean value, women are more emotionally intelligent than men. The research's conclusions are consistent with the study on men.

IV. METHODOLOGY

For the present study, census methods involving survey on various Teacher Education Institutions was used to find the emotional intelligence of B.Ed and M.Ed students.

Population

All the students from Teacher Education Institutions is selected. As there are only four institutions running the Bachelor of Education (B. Ed) Programme and two institutions for opening the Master of Education (M. Ed) students programme, all the students is selected for population and hence, selection of sample is not necessary for investigation. For B. Ed, students of Institute of Advanced Studies in Education (IASE), Mizoram, Department of Education, Mizoram University, two District Institute of Education & Training (DIET) of Aizawl and Lunglei was selected. For M. Ed, students from Institute of Advanced Studies in Education (IASE) and Education Department, Mizoram University were selected.

Tools

For the present study, Emotional Intelligence Scale (Situational) (English Version) developed by Dr. P. Srinivasan and K. Murugesan, National Psychological Corporation, Agra was used.

Statistical technique used

Data collected were analysed with the help of statistical techniques namely: Mean, standard deviation, and t-test.

V. OBJECTIVES

1. To study the emotional intelligence of B. Ed and M. Ed students.
2. To compare the emotional intelligence of B. Ed and M. Ed students.
3. To compare the emotional intelligence of male and female B. Ed students.
4. To compare the emotional intelligence of male and female M. Ed students.

VI. DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Objective 1: To study the emotional intelligence of B. Ed and M. Ed students.

Using the selected standardized tool, the level of emotional intelligence of B. Ed and M. Ed was studied. The following table shows the scores obtained by the respondents in the emotional intelligence level.

Table No. 1

Level of Emotional Intelligence of B. Ed and M. Ed Students

Sl.No	Level of Emotional Intelligence	No. of Students	Percentage
1	Extremely High	4	1.20 %
2	High	28	8.43 %
3	Above Average	69	20.78 %
4	Average	127	38.25 %
5	Below Average	59	17.77 %
6	Low	41	12.35 %
7	Extremely Low	4	1.20 %
	Total	332	

Table 1.1 shows the level of emotional intelligence of B. Ed and M. Ed students. As per the norms newly constructed by the investigator based on the standardize test, there are 4 students who fall under the category of extremely high and extremely low which is 1.20%. 28 students of 8.43% are in the level of high emotional intelligence, above average students with a percentage of 20.78% with 69 in numbers, average level is the highest percentage of 38.25% with 127 students. There are 59 students of 17.77% under below average and 41 students with a percentage of 12.35% which is the level of low emotional intelligence.

Table No. 2

Level of Emotional Intelligence of B. Ed and M. Ed Students

Sl. No	Level of Emotional Intelligence	B. Ed	Percentage	M. Ed	Percentage
1	Extremely High	4	1.44 %	0	0%
2	High	20	7.22 %	8	14.55%
3	Above Average	57	20.58 %	12	21.81%
4	Average	104	37.55 %	23	41.82%
5	Below Average	54	19.49 %	5	9.09%
6	Low	36	13 %	5	9.09%
7	Extremely Low	2	0.72 %	2	3.64%
	Total	277		55	

A glance at the table 1.2 reveals that there were no M. Ed students who has extremely high emotional intelligence yet 4 (1.44%) B. Ed students were in the category. There were 20 (7.22%) B. Ed students and 8 (14.55%) M. Ed students in the high category. B. Ed students of 57 (20.58%) and M. Ed students of 12 (21.81%) falls in the above average category. Majority of B. Ed students 104 (37.55%) and M. Ed students of 23 (41.82%) were found to have average level of emotional intelligence. Below average category of students was 54 (19.49%) in B. Ed and 5 (9.09%) in M. Ed. Low level of emotional intelligence of B. Ed with 36 (13%) and M. Ed with 5 (9.09%) respectively. There were 2 students each in extremely low category in both B. Ed and M. Ed with 0.72% and 3.64%.

Objective 2: To compare the emotional intelligence of B. Ed and M. Ed students.

To compare the emotional intelligence of B. Ed and M. Ed students, the mean and standard deviation of the two groups were calculated separately. The mean difference between B. Ed and M. Ed was tested with the help of t-test, and the details are presented as follows:

Table No. 3**Comparison of Emotional Intelligence of B. Ed and M. Ed Students**

Educational	N	Mean	SD	df	t-value	Level of Significant
B. Ed.	277	18.70	4.53	330	1.71	NS
M. Ed.	55	19.44	4.94			

Table no. 2 shows that the calculated t-value is 1.71 which is not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis 'there is no significant difference between B. Ed and M. Ed students in their emotional intelligence' is accepted. The mean value shows a slight difference between B. Ed and M. Ed students. Hence, the emotional intelligence of B. Ed and M. Ed are not different.

Objective 3: To compare the emotional intelligence of male and female B. Ed students.

To compare emotional intelligence of male and female B. Ed students, the mean difference between the two groups was tested using t- test. The following table shows the comparison of male and female B. Ed students towards their emotional intelligence.

Table No. 4**Comparison of the emotional intelligence of male and female B. Ed Students**

EIS	N	Mean	SD	t value	Level of Significance
B.Ed. Male	87	18.26	5.02	0.574	Not significant
B.Ed. Female	165	18.62	4.56		

As shown in table no. 3, the mean score of B.Ed., male is 18.26 and standard deviation is 15.02 while the mean and standard deviation of B.Ed., female students is 18.62 and 4.46 respectively. The calculated t-value is 0.574 which is less than the critical value at the required level of significance.

It can be concluded that male and female B.Ed. students do not differ significantly in their emotional intelligence. However, the mean score of female students is slightly higher than that of their male counterparts.

The finding implies that male and female is not a significant differentiating factor regarding emotional intelligence.

Objective 4: To compare the emotional intelligence of male and female M. Ed students.

To compare emotional intelligence of male and female M. Ed students, the mean difference between the two groups was tested using t- test. The following table shows the comparison of male and female M. Ed students towards their emotional intelligence.

Table No. 5**Comparison of the emotional intelligence of male and female M. Ed Students**

EIS	N	Mean	SD	t value	Level of Significance
M.Ed. Male	26	20.07	4.96	0.334	Not significant
M.Ed. Female	54	19.75	3.43		

From table no 4, the mean score of M.Ed. male from a total of 26 students is 20.07 and standard deviation is 4.96 while the mean and standard deviation of M.Ed. female from a total of 54 students is

19.75 and 3.43 respectively. The calculated t-value is 0.334 which is less than the critical value at the required level of significance.

It can be concluded that male and female M.Ed. students do not differ significantly in their emotional intelligence. However, the mean score of male students is slightly higher than that of their female students.

The finding implies that male and female is not a significant differentiating factor regarding emotional intelligence among M.Ed. students.

VII. DISCUSSION

The findings reveal differences in EI levels between the two groups, with M.Ed. students generally exhibiting higher emotional intelligence as compared to B.Ed. students. This can be attributed to their advanced training, which likely enhances their emotional awareness, empathy, and interpersonal skills traits that are essential for effective teaching. The higher EI among M.Ed. students suggests that experience and education play significant roles in developing these competencies, reinforcing the idea that emotional intelligence can be cultivated through targeted educational programs.

The emotional intelligence of the students in Mizoram may be affected by cultural factors specific to Mizoram, which may shape the development of emotional intelligence in these students. The unique social dynamics and values of the region could influence how students perceive and manage emotions, both in themselves and others. This cultural context is crucial for understanding the variations in EI among students and for developing tailored interventions that resonate with the local educational environment.

Overall, the study suggests that while M.Ed. students demonstrate stronger emotional intelligence, but there is no significant difference between male and female B.Ed. students as well as male and female M.Ed. students. By fostering EI from the outset of teacher training, institutions can better prepare future educators to navigate the emotional complexities of the teaching profession, ultimately leading to more effective and empathetic educators in Mizoram.

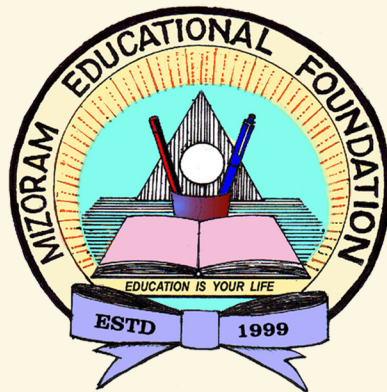
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Vol. X, Issue 3, September, 2024

CONTENTS

From the Desk of the Chief Editor	v
Mathematics Anxiety among Secondary School Students in Aizawl City in Relation to Their Gender and Types of Schools <i>C. Lalsangpuii & Lynda Zohmingliani</i>	1
Analysis of Social Science Board Examination Question Papers in Mizoram Based on Revised Bloom's Taxonomy <i>H. Lalrinawma, Sian Lalchhandami & Lalremsangi</i>	12
A Study on Cognitive Style among B.Ed and M.Ed Students in Mizoram <i>Lalrinfeli Khiangte & Lallianzuali Fanai</i>	21
Technological, Pedagogical and Content Knowledge (TPACK): Technological Integration and Teaching Effectiveness <i>H. Lalbiakzuali, Lokanath Mishra</i>	28
Artificial Intelligence and its Global Intercept: Issues and Challenges <i>Sandhya Sharma & Prateek Chaurasia</i>	36
Gaps in Implementation of Mental Health and Wellness Programs in Schools <i>Saurabh Kumar & Yashoda Sharma</i>	44
Construction of an Achievement Test for Students at Collegiate Level <i>Lalhruaitluangi & Nitu Kaur</i>	54

A Study on Cognitive Style among B.Ed and M.Ed Students in Mizoram

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Abstract:

This study explored and compared the cognitive styles of Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) and Master of Education (M.Ed) students in Mizoram, India. Cognitive style, which refers to an individual's preferred way of processing information, plays a significant role in learning and teaching. The research employed a census method with a total population of 332 students from different teacher education institutions in Mizoram. The results indicated majority of the students have split cognitive style. Maximum number of the students had medium level of cognitive style followed by high level of cognitive style and minimum of the students possessed low level of cognitive style. It was also found that there was a significant difference between the cognitive styles of B.Ed and M. Ed students. No difference was found in the cognitive styles of male and female B.Ed and M.Ed students. These findings revealed the diversity in cognitive styles among student teachers and understanding these differences can enhance teacher education programs and contribute to more effective and personalized educational strategies in Mizoram.

Key words: *Cognitive Styles, B. Ed, M. Ed, Teacher Education Programmes*

Introduction

Cognitive style refers to the preferred way an individual processes information, influencing their perception, thinking, problem-solving, learning, and memory. Messick (1984) defines cognitive styles as fixed attitudes, inclinations, or ingrained behaviours that identify an individual's regular way of seeing, recalling, reasoning, and solving problems.

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Cognitive style is conceived as one of the aspects of psychological differentiation. Psychological differentiation refers to different mode of perceiving, judging and appraising things to which people are exposed to under different conditions. The notion of cognitive style has been defined as self-evident modes of functioning which the individual shows in his perceptual and intellectual activities. It is conceptualized as stable attitude or habitual strategy which determines a person's typical modes of perceiving, remembering and problem-solving. There are several types of cognitive functioning among which field dependence and field independence are well known. A field dependent individual is found to be passive and less competent in analytical functioning having greater social orientation. He has poor impulsive control and undifferentiated self-concept. He is more socially sensitive. On the other hand, a field independent individual is found to be more active and competent in analytical functioning having less social orientation. He is less impulsive and socially sensitive. Mahlios (1981) found that teacher and student's relationship is based on the cognitive style adopted by both the teachers and students. The classroom interaction between the teachers and students is influence by the cognitive style of the students. This indicated that the cognitive style adopted by the students is greatly influence by the teaching-learning process.

Recognizing cognitive styles helps future educators in B.Ed and M.Ed programs to become reflective practitioners who can adapt their teaching strategies to diverse learners. This understanding promotes a more inclusive and effective educational environment, although it is important to avoid overgeneralization and consider the fluid and context-dependent nature of cognitive styles, as well as cultural influences.

Rationale

The study on the cognitive styles of B.Ed and M.Ed students is crucial in order to understand and address the diverse learning needs of future educators. By exploring how these students process information and learn best, educators can tailor teaching methods and develop curricula that cater to individual preferences, enhancing educational effectiveness. This understanding leads to improved teaching competence, as future teachers become equipped with strategies to manage diverse classroom behaviours and implement varied instructional methods. Additionally, insights from cognitive style research inform the design of inclusive and adaptive educational programs, fostering reflective practice and continuous professional development among M.Ed students. This study also contributes in finding out the level of cognitive style among students-teachers as well as student- teacher educators. Ultimately, by recognizing and accommodating cognitive diversity, educational institutions can better prepare teachers to create supportive and effective learning environments for all students.

Review of Related Literature

Krishna (2015) conducted a study on cognitive styles of student teachers in relation to their social and emotional intelligence. The study revealed that out of the total of 600 student teachers, 163 student teachers were having low systematic style, 297 student teachers were having moderate systematic style, 140 high systematic style. Thus it can be inferred that nearly half (49.5%) of the sample belongs to the moderate systematic style, while 27.2% were low systematic style, where as 23.3% belonged to high owing distribution of student teachers.

Nirmala (1996) conducted a study on cognitive styles and learning styles a comparative study of delinquents and non-delinquents. The study found that the delinquent girls and non - delinquent girls did not differ significantly in their cognitive styles of functioning. Delinquents show field dependent style of cognitive functioning.

Methodology

For the present study, census methods involving survey on various Teacher Education Institutions in Mizoram was used to find the cognitive style of B.Ed and M.Ed students.

Population

All the students from teacher education Institutions from Mizoram constituted the population for this study. As there are four institutions viz. Institute of Advanced Studies in Education (IASE), Department of Education, MZU, DIET Aizawl and DIET Lunglei, running the Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) Programme and two institutions viz. Institute of Advanced Studies in Education (IASE), Department of Education, MZU for the Master of Education (M.Ed) programme, all the students in these institutions were selected for population and hence, selection of sample is not necessary for investigation.

Tool

For the present study, Cognitive Style Inventory developed by Dr. Praveen Kumar Jha (English Version), National Psychological Corporation, Agra was used.

Statistical technique used

Data collected were analysed with the help of statistical techniques namely Mean, standard deviation, and t-test.

Objectives:

1. To examine the cognitive style of B. Ed and M. Ed students.

2. To compare the cognitive style of B. Ed and M. Ed students.
3. To compare the cognitive style of male and female B. Ed students.
4. To compare the cognitive style of male and female M. Ed students.

Data analysis and interpretation

Objective No. 1: To examine the cognitive style of B. Ed and M. Ed students.

Results of analysis of the cognitive styles of B. Ed and M. Ed students are presented in the following table:

Table No 1

Cognitive Styles of B.Ed and M.Ed Students

Sl. No	Cognitive Styles	N	Percentage
1	Systematic Style	23	6.92%
2	Intuitive Style	3	0.90%
3	Integrated Style	71	21.39%
4	Undifferentiated Style	71	21.39%
5	Split Style	164	49.40%
	Total	332	100

Table No 1 shows that the students have different styles of cognition. The maximum score is made by students with split cognitive style of 164 with a percentage of 49.40. The integrated style and undifferentiated style are exhibited by 71 students each with a percentage of 21.39. The number of students with systematic style is of 23 in number with a percentage of 6.92 and finally students with intuitive style is only 3 with a percentage of 0.9.

The cognitive style can also be classified on the basis of the score obtained. Based on the norms calculated, students who scored 73.5 and above are considered as having high level of cognitive style. The scores obtained by students from 65 to 73 are treated as having medium level of cognitive style and finally, students who scored 64.5 and below are considered as having low level of cognitive style. The number and percentage of the level of cognitive styles are presented in the following tables.

Table No 2

Level of Cognitive Styles of Students

Sl. No	Level of Cognitive Styles	N	%	MEAN	SD
1	High	86	25.9	77.21	3.32
2	Average	170	51.2	68.82	2.47
3	Low	76	22.9	59.05	5.83
	Total	332	100		

A glance at the table 2 highlighted the cognitive style of B. Ed and M. Ed students. Out of the total population of 332 students, 86 (25.90%) have a high level of cognitive style. 170 (51.20%) have medium level of cognitive style. Lastly, 76 (22.9%) of students have low level of cognitive style. The mean score of high cognitive style is 77.21 with a standard deviation of 3.32. Medium level mean score is 68.82 with a standard deviation of 2.47 and low level mean score is 59.05 with a standard deviation of 5.83.

Table No 3
Level of Cognitive Style of B. Ed and M. Ed Students

Edn	Level of Cognitive Styles	N	%	MEAN	SD
B. Ed	High	56	22.22	68.24	7.29
	Average	132	52.38		
	Low	64	25.4		
M. Ed	High	30	37.5	70.38	7.29
	Average	38	47.5		
	Low	12	15		

Table No. 3 reveals the level of cognitive styles of B.Ed and M.Ed students. There are 56 (22.22%) students in B.Ed with high level cognitive style, 132 (52.38%) have medium level of cognitive style and 64 (25.40%) have low level of cognitive style. Among the M.Ed students, 30 (37.5%) had high level cognitive style, 38 (47.5%) had medium level and 12 (15%) had low level. The mean scores of students are 68.24 in B. Ed and 70.38 in M. Ed with a similar standard deviation of 7.29.

Objective 2: To compare the level of cognitive style of B. Ed and M. Ed students.

Results of the comparison of the level of cognitive style of B. Ed and M. Ed students are shown in the following tables:

Table No. 4
Comparison of the Cognitive Style of B. Ed and M. Ed Students

Edn	N	Mean	SD	df	t-value	Level of significance
B. Ed	252	68.22	7.29	330	2.3	0.05
M. Ed	80	70.38	7.29			

Table No 4 reveals that the mean scores of B. Ed and M. Ed are 68.22 and 70.38 with a similar standard deviation of 7.29. The degrees of freedom being 330 with a t-value of 2.30 which is significant at 0.05 level. Therefore, the hypothesis being 'there is no significant difference between B. Ed and M. Ed students in their level of cognitive style' is rejected. Hence, it can be said that there is significant difference in their cognitive style.

Objective 3: To compare the cognitive style of male and female B. Ed students.

To compare cognitive style of male and female B. Ed students, the mean difference between the two groups was tested using t- test. The following table shows the comparison of male and female B. Ed students towards their cognitive style.

Table No.5**Comparison of the cognitive style of male and female B. Ed Students**

CSI	N	Mean	SD	t value	Level of Significance
B.Ed. Male	87	68.39	7.7	0.263	N.S
B.Ed. Female	165	68.13	7.09		

Table 5 indicates that B.Ed male students have a mean score of 68.39 and a standard deviation of 7.70, whereas B.Ed female students have a mean score of 68.13 and a standard deviation of 7.09. The computed t-value is 0.263, which is below the critical value needed for significance.

This suggests that male and female B.Ed students do not differ significantly in their cognitive styles. However, it is noted that the mean score of male students is slightly higher than that of female students.

This finding implies that gender is not a significant factor in differentiating cognitive style.

Objective No. 4: To compare the cognitive style of male and female M. Ed students.

To compare cognitive style of male and female M. Ed students, the mean difference between the two groups was tested using t- test. The following table shows the comparison of male and female M. Ed students towards their cognitive style.

Table No. 6**Comparison of the cognitive style of male and female M. Ed Students**

CSI	N	Mean	SD	t value	Level of Significance
M.Ed. Male	26	71.59	7	1.034	N.S
M.Ed. Female	54	69.79	7.42		

The table shows that for M.Ed male students (totalling 26), the mean score is 71.59 with a standard deviation of 7.00. For M.Ed female students (totalling 54), the mean score is 69.79 with a standard deviation of 7.42. The calculated t-value is 1.034, which is below the critical value required for significance.

This indicates that male and female M.Ed students do not significantly differ in their cognitive styles. Although the mean score of male students is slightly higher than that of

female students, the finding suggests that gender is not a significant factor in differentiating cognitive style among M.Ed students.

Findings

Out of the total population of 332 students, it was found that maximum number of students have split cognitive style followed by similar number of students having integrated and undifferentiated cognitive style. The least number of students have intuitive style followed by students with systematic cognitive style. Based on the scores obtained by students, maximum number of the students have medium level of cognitive style followed by high level of cognitive style and minimum of the students possess low level of cognitive style. It was also found that there was a difference between cognitive styles of B.Ed and M.Ed students. Male and female B.Ed students and male and female M.Ed students do not differ in their cognitive style which concluded that there is no significant difference between them.

Conclusion

It can be concluded that cognitive styles are distinct from individual intelligence, but they may affect personality development and how individuals learn and apply information. So, it is very important to know and study about cognitive styles of students for quality education especially in teacher education institutes.

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ABSTRACT

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE OF B.Ed. AND M.Ed. STUDENTS IN RELATION TO THEIR COGNITIVE STYLES AND ACADEMIC ADJUSTMENT

**AN ABSTRACT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF
THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF
PHILOSOPHY**

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**DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
INSTITUTE OF ADVANCED STUDIES IN EDUCATION
(An affiliated Institute of Mizoram University)**

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**Emotional Intelligence of B.Ed. and M.Ed. Students in relation to
Their Cognitive Styles and Academic Adjustment**

By

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Submitted

**In partial fulfillment of the requirement of the Degree of Doctor of
Philosophy in Education of Mizoram University, Aizawl**

INTRODUCTION

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (EI)

Emotional intelligence is the capacity to recognize, comprehend, and control one's own feelings and interpersonal connections. It entails recognizing one's own and other people's emotions and using this knowledge to inform one's thoughts and actions. According to some experts, emotional intelligence is innate, while others contend that it may be developed and enhanced. The ability to express and manage emotions is essential, but so is the ability to understand, diagnose, and react to the emotions of others (Frothingham, 2024). Emotionally intelligent individuals can motivate themselves, read social cues, and build strong relationships. People respond to issues or circumstances that they personally think relevant based on their emotions. Goleman argues that emotional intelligence is a significant predictor of success in personal and professional life, often more important than traditional cognitive intelligence (Goleman, 1995). Researchers have also highlighted that EI contributes to better mental health, conflict resolution, and leadership abilities (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004). Therefore, EI is not only crucial for personal well-being but also plays a vital role in social interactions and professional achievements.

Emotional intelligence (EI) is about the ability to reason and solve problems based on the emotions one's experience. In other words, an emotionally intelligent person is aware of emotions in him/ her and others and uses reason to identify, understand, and deal with the emotions effectively. People with strong emotional intelligence see emotional restraint as a positive quality that enables them to do more. People who are not emotionally aware of themselves and others are marginalized and removed from social groups (Cobb & Mayer, 2000). Salovey & Mayer (1990) explained EI as "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and use this information to guide one's thinking and actions". Emotional intelligence (EI) is a pivotal aspect of personal and interpersonal effectiveness, encompassing a spectrum of skills essential for navigating the complexities of human emotions. At its core, EI involves self-

awareness, enabling individuals to recognize and understand their own emotions, fostering a foundation for self-regulation. This self-regulation, in turn, equips individuals with the ability to manage their emotional responses in diverse situations, contributing to resilience and adaptability. Beyond individual introspection, EI extends to interpersonal realms, where empathy becomes a cornerstone.

Peter Salovey and John Mayer's work on emotional intelligence (EI) has become foundational in understanding how emotional and cognitive abilities intersect and affect human behaviour. They originally defined EI in 1990 as the capacity to identify, comprehend, control, and influence one's own emotions and those of others (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Emotional intelligence has evolved as a key concept not only in personal growth but also in professional settings, as it significantly influences interpersonal relationships, decision-making, and well-being (Goleman, 1995). EI is not a fixed trait but a dynamic skill set that can be nurtured through reflection and practice, affecting areas such as personal well-being, professional performance, and social interactions (Mayer et. al., 2008).

Emotional intelligence is essential not only for personal development but also for success in academic and professional environments. By fostering EI in students, educators can enhance academic achievement, improve interpersonal relationships, and promote overall well-being. As emotional intelligence plays a key role in navigating social dynamics, managing stress, and making thoughtful decisions, its integration into educational settings is crucial for developing well-rounded individuals capable of thriving in diverse environments.

COGNITIVE STYLE

Cognitive style refers to an individual's preferred way of processing information, solving problems, and perceiving the world. It is a relatively stable and consistent way of thinking, and it can influence how people learn, make decisions, and interact with their environment. Messick (1984) defines cognitive styles as fixed attitudes, inclinations, or ingrained behaviours that identify an individual's regular way of seeing, recalling, reasoning, and solving problems.

The idea of cognitive style is essential to comprehending the wide range of individual variations in how people think, learn, process information, and solve

issues. Although the study of cognitive styles has its origins in early psychological ideas, it is currently receiving more and more attention in cognitive, psychological, and educational research. The term "cognitive style" describes the regular, habitual ways that people think, see, remember, and solve problems in response to tasks, circumstances, or obstacles. A framework for comprehending and promoting the diversity of people in learning contexts can be provided by a knowledge of these styles, which can offer insightful information about human behaviour that can guide actions in counselling, education, and other professional fields.

Cognitive style is closely associated with learning style, which describe individual preferences in the most effective ways people learn. Learning style theory highlights the variability in how individuals prefer to acquire and process information. Frameworks such as Howard Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences and David Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory offer valuable insights into how cognitive style shape and influence learning processes.

Gardner's Multiple Intelligences theory suggests that individuals have different types of intelligences, including linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetics, musical, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and naturalistic intelligences (Gardner, 1983). This theory supports the idea that people process information differently depending on their dominant intelligence. For instance, someone with strong linguistic intelligence may excel in reading and writing tasks, while someone with high spatial intelligence may be better at visualizing and manipulating objects in space.

Similarly, David Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory posits that individuals have different preferences for how they engage with new information. Kolb's model includes four learning styles: converging, diverging, assimilating, and accommodating (Kolb, 1984). Each of these styles reflects a preference for one of Kolb's learning dimensions—concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. People with different cognitive styles may favour different learning activities based on these preferences. For example, individuals with a preference for abstract conceptualization may excel in tasks that involve theoretical analysis, while those who prefer concrete experience may learn best through hands-on activities.

Understanding these cognitive styles and learning preferences can help educators design more effective and individualized learning experiences that cater to the diverse needs of students.

Cognitive style provides a valuable framework for understanding individual differences in perception, thought processes, learning, and problem-solving. Its significance extends across multiple fields, including clinical psychology, professional development, counselling, and education. As research in cognitive psychology progresses, our understanding of cognitive style will expand, opening new opportunities to support individuals in realizing their full potential. Recognizing and addressing this diverse cognitive style, professionals can create more effective, inclusive, and supportive environments, thereby fostering growth and success in both personal and professional contexts.

There are different types of cognitive styles for which the present study is based on namely- systematic style, intuitive style, split style, undifferentiated style and integrated style.

Systematic style- A person who prefers structure, order, and methodical procedures is said to have a systematic style. They place a high importance on efficiency and predictability, frequently depending on well-defined plans, timetables, and rational procedures to accomplish their objectives. This strategy guarantees that they reduce errors and increase output (Smith, 2020). They like working in settings where duties are structured and results are quantifiable, and they have a tendency to be detail-oriented (Jones, 2018).

Intuitive style- People with an intuitive style are renowned for their capacity for original thought and for seeing the wider picture. They like flexibility and spontaneity in problem-solving and frequently rely on intuition and abstract thought rather than strict frameworks. These people are focused on the future and perform well in circumstances that call for creativity or strategic vision (Williams, 2019). Their strategy welcomes ambiguity and promotes exploration.

Split Style- A person with a split style strikes a balance between methodical and intuitive approaches, changing their strategies according to the circumstance. When

needed, they can be structured and ordered, but they also welcome adaptability and originality in problem-solving. Their adaptability enables individuals to successfully handle both simple and difficult activities (Adams, 2020). People with a split personality are frequently adept at modifying their tactics to achieve the best results in various contexts (Brown, 2018).

Undifferentiated style- An undifferentiated style person exhibits a more universal approach to problem-solving rather than constantly favouring one specific method, whether systematic or intuitive. Without having a strong preference for spontaneity or structure, they may adjust to various jobs and frequently use a combination of strategies depending on the circumstance. In a variety of settings, this adaptability may be useful (Clark, 2017).

Integrated style- An integrated style person skilfully blends both methodical and intuitive methods, applying each as necessary to achieve the best outcomes. They are adaptable and capable of using both innovative and organized approaches to increase productivity. This flexibility enables people to combine reason and creativity to address issues successfully in a variety of contexts (Miller, 2021). Their well-rounded strategy frequently results in more comprehensive and well-rounded decisions.

ACADEMIC ADJUSTMENT

The concept of adjustment is not a novel one, but rather a term in psychology that has been the subject of considerable ambiguity due to its multiple meanings. Adjustment refers to the dynamic relationship established between the individual and their environment. Every individual occupies a specific position within their social context, and adjustment also pertains to the extent to which an individual's personality functions effectively within the social world. It signifies a harmonious relationship between the person and their environment. It represents the interaction among the organism, the environment, and the personality. A well-adjusted individual is adequately prepared to fulfil the roles expected of them according to the status assigned within a particular environment, with their needs being met in alignment with societal expectations.

Academic Adjustment can be considered as the adjustment of the student to the academic environment consisting of the conditions such as physical, curriculum, text books, methods of teaching, authority, discipline etc. (Nagalakshmi, 2013). It refers to the process of adapting to the academic environment, requirements and expectations of an educational institution. It involves developing the necessary skills, strategies, and mindset to successfully navigate academic challenges and achieve academic goals.

Adjustment can also be conceptualized as the process through which students adapt to the academic, social, and personal challenges associated with college life. The transition from high school or other educational settings to college represents a significant shift, and students often need to make a variety of adjustments to navigate this change. Successful adjustment in the college environment is a gradual process, during which students may encounter various challenges. Establishing a support network, seeking guidance from academic advisors, and maintaining open communication with peers and faculty members can significantly contribute to a positive and successful college experience.

RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

In the current competitive environment where learners are expected to perform multiple roles with efficiency and effectiveness, it is highly necessary to develop their right attitude and emotional intelligence towards the unseen complexities of life and quality education (Goleman, 1995). As emotional intelligence is a subset of social intelligence, with the ability to understand and monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, it can help individuals excel through life transitions starting from school to college, and later into the working world (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). It is seen as a valuable tool that helps students manage and cope with the demanding nature of academics and achievements (Zeidner et.al., 2012). Studies have shown that students who are emotionally intelligent have better interpersonal and intrapersonal skills, are more adaptable, and are better at managing stress (Mayer et.al., 2004).

Given the crucial role that emotional intelligence (EI) plays in teaching proficiency, it is essential that teacher education programs prioritize the development

of EI skills. Future educators must be equipped with the emotional intelligence necessary to navigate the challenges of the classroom and support the emotional and academic growth of their students (Goleman, 1995). Teacher education programs should include coursework and training that focus on developing self-awareness, self-regulation, empathy, and social skills (Zeidner et. al., 2012). These programs can incorporate activities such as role-playing, conflict resolution exercises, and mindfulness training to help prospective teachers strengthen their emotional intelligence (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). By integrating emotional intelligence into teacher preparation, these programs can ensure that educators are better prepared to face the challenges of teaching and create positive learning environments for their students (Brackett et. al., 2011).

It is important to note that there have been studies conducted on the relationship between intelligence and each of the three cognitive styles. There is consistent data indicating no direct relationship exists between cognitive styles and emotional intelligence (Zeidner et. al., 2012). Nevertheless, an individual's ability to acquire knowledge on an equal plane with peers, or to demonstrate his or her knowledge in specific social or academic settings, may be affected by cognitive styles (Messick, 1984). Through early childhood development, continued success or frequent difficulties in these abilities could affect personality and social interactions (Kagan, 1966).

Day by day, life is becoming increasingly fast and complex, making it difficult to adjust. Emotional intelligence plays a very important role in adjustment. In all senses, emotional intelligence essentially reflects our ability to deal successfully with other people and with our feelings (Goleman, 1995). A person is rightly conditioned until he is a happy, healthy, and prosperous being. Happiness, health, and prosperity are the result of harmonious adjustment between the inner self and the outer environment (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Studying emotional intelligence in relation to adjustment is essential because a well-adjusted and emotionally intelligent person is considered a symbol of progress (Zeidner et. al., 2012). Therefore, emotional intelligence and adjustment play a paramount role in education and the lives of individuals.

The adjustment of individuals depends on emotional intelligence and several associated factors. Several studies have provided substantial evidence favouring emotional intelligence as a predictor of better adjustment and success in education (Mayer et. al., 2004). The complexity and multi-dimensional nature of adjustment allow for a comprehensive study of the factors related to it (Goleman, 1995). A person's emotional intelligence, as measured through his/her emotional quotient (EQ), may be a better predictor of success than IQ (Schutte et al., 2001). One's emotional intelligence is helpful in knowing, feeling, and judging emotions, in close cooperation with one's thinking process, to behave in a proper way for the ultimate realization of happiness and welfare, both for oneself and in tune with others (Goleman, 1995).

While previous research has examined emotional intelligence, cognitive style, and academic adjustment as separate constructs, there exists a notable gap in understanding how these variables interact and collectively influence student success (Zeidner et.al., 2012; Mayer et.al., 2004). This study seeks to bridge that gap by investigating the combined influence of emotional intelligence, cognitive styles, and academic adjustment on students' academic performance and well-being.

By understanding the relationship between these factors, educators and researchers can gain valuable insights into how emotional and cognitive processes shape students' ability to adjust to academic challenges (Parker et al., 2004). Additionally, this research may highlight the importance of fostering both emotional intelligence and adaptive cognitive styles in educational settings (Schutte et al., 2001). This could lead to the development of more targeted interventions aimed at helping students improve their academic adjustment, manage stress, and perform better in their studies (Friedman & Scholtz, 2013).

This research study seeks to explore the interrelationship among emotional intelligence, cognitive style, and academic adjustment. While prior research has predominantly examined these variables individually, particularly in the domain of teacher education, this study aims to integrate these dimensions and investigate whether emotional intelligence significantly influences cognitive style and adjustment-related factors. The study moves beyond the conventional focus on life success by examining the combined impact of these variables, thereby providing a

comprehensive understanding of their interconnectedness. Emotional intelligence is an integral component of human personality, serving as the context within which it operates. It can be conceptualized as a mental ability encompassing the capacity to process emotional information accurately and apply emotions to enhance cognitive functioning and decision-making. Recognizing the significance of these interdependencies, the researcher deemed it essential to examine how emotional intelligence impacts cognitive style and academic adjustment. This research endeavours to address a critical gap in the literature by offering new insights into these complex relationships and their implications for educational practices and student outcomes.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The present study is entitled, “Emotional Intelligence of B.Ed. and M.Ed. Students in relation to their Cognitive Styles and Academic Adjustment.”

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS USED

The term used in the title of the study have some specific meanings. They are operationally defined as-

1. Emotional Intelligence: Emotional intelligence in the present study means the ability to understand, use, and manage one’s own emotions in positive ways to relieve stress, communicate effectively, empathize with others, overcome challenges and defuse conflict.
 2. Cognitive style: Cognitive style in the present study may be defined as the B.Ed. and M.Ed. student’s style of perceiving, thinking orientation, and the like towards information in the environment and the patterns of thought that they developed.
- It is not about how much a student knows rather how they approach learning and tasks.

3. B.Ed. and M.Ed. Students: In the present study, B.Ed. and M.Ed. students are those who are enrolled in the Teacher Education Institutions. The term prospective teachers has also been used to these students.
4. Academic Adjustment: In the present study, academic adjustment may be referred to as the change or modification or adaptability of students' behaviour to commit into the course of study of B.Ed. and M.Ed.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions are asked.

1. What is the emotional intelligence level of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students?
2. Is there any significant difference between B.Ed. and M.Ed. students in their emotional intelligence?
3. Is there any significant difference between male and female B.Ed. students in their emotional intelligence?
4. Is there any significant difference between male and female M.Ed. students in their emotional intelligence?
5. Is there any significant difference on the emotional intelligence of B.Ed. and M.Ed. male students?
6. Is there any significant difference in the emotional intelligence between B.Ed. and M.Ed. female students?
7. What is the academic adjustment level of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students?
8. Is there any significant difference between B.Ed. and M.Ed. students in their academic adjustment?
9. Is there any significant difference in the academic adjustment between male and female B.Ed. students?
10. Is there any significant difference in the academic adjustment between male and female M.Ed. students?
11. Is there any significant difference in the academic adjustment between B.Ed. and M.Ed. male students?

12. Is there any significant difference in the academic adjustment between B.Ed. and M.Ed. female students?
13. Is there any significant difference in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on their cognitive styles?
14. Is there any difference in the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on their cognitive styles?
15. Is there any significant relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of prospective teachers?

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The present study has been undertaken with the following objectives:

1. To identify the level of emotional intelligence of prospective teachers.
2. To compare the emotional intelligence of
 - a) B.Ed. and M.Ed. students.
 - b) Male and female of all students.
 - c) Male and female B.Ed. students.
 - d) Male and female M.Ed. students.
 - e) B.Ed. male and M.Ed. male students.
 - f) B.Ed. female and M.Ed. female students.
3. To construct an academic adjustment scale for B.Ed. and M.Ed. students.
4. To identify the level of academic adjustment of prospective teachers.
5. To compare the academic adjustment of
 - a) B.Ed. and M.Ed. students.
 - b) Male and female students.
 - c) male and female B.Ed. students.
 - d) male and female M.Ed. students.

- e) B.Ed. male and M.Ed. male students.
 - f) B.Ed. female and M.Ed. female students.
6. To examine the cognitive styles of prospective teachers.
 7. To compare the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on their cognitive styles.
 8. To compare the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on their cognitive styles.
 9. To investigate the relationship between the emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of prospective teachers.

HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

The following hypotheses are framed to know the emotional intelligence, cognitive styles and academic adjustment of the subjects under study.

1. There is no significant difference between B.Ed. and M.Ed. students in their emotional intelligence.
2. There is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on gender.
3. There is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of male and female B.Ed. students.
4. There is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of male and female M.Ed. students.
5. There is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of B.Ed. male and M.Ed. male students.
6. There is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of B.Ed. female and M.Ed. female students.
7. There is no significant difference between B.Ed. and M.Ed. students in their academic adjustment.
8. There is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on gender.

9. There is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of male and female B.Ed. students.
10. There is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of male and female M.Ed. students.
11. There is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of B.Ed. male and M.Ed. male students.
12. There is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of B.Ed. female and M.Ed. female students.
13. There is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles.
14. There is no significant difference in the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on cognitive styles.
15. There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of prospective teachers.
16. There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of B.Ed. students.
17. There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of M.Ed. students.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The review is categorised into five main sections such as studies on Emotional intelligence, studies on cognitive styles, studies on academic adjustment, studies on the relationship between emotional intelligence and cognitive styles, studies on the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment. A total of 150 studies, out of which 38 are related to emotional intelligence, 49 studies are related to cognitive styles, 20 studies on academic adjustment, 7 studies on relationship between emotional intelligence and cognitive styles, 36 on relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment. The period ranges from 1971-2024 which is a span of 53 years.

METHODOLOGY

The study is descriptive in nature. To collect facts and information, the investigator used census method involving survey on various teacher education institutions.

POPULATION AND SAMPLE OF THE STUDY

For the present study, as census survey method was used, the population and sample of the study consists of all the B.Ed. and M.Ed. students studied in Mizoram. There are four teacher education institutions offering B.Ed. and M.Ed. programme in Mizoram - namely, Institute of Advanced Studies in Education (IASE), Aizawl, Department of Education, MZU, District Institute of Education & Training (DIET), Aizawl and District Institute of Education & Training (DIET), Lunglei. Therefore, the students of these four institutions were taken for the population and sample of the study.

In all the institution, among the B.Ed. students, only 4th semester students were taken for responding to the questionnaire. This is due to the fact that the 1st or 2nd semester B.Ed. students had not undergone any internship programme which is only undertaken in the 3rd semester. In the constructed tool, statements regarding internship programme were inserted i.e. Academic Adjustment Scale. This is because, B.Ed. programme is meant to excel the students in practice teaching and their adjustment towards academic is also determined by the internship programme. Therefore, students who did not yet experience internship programme could not be considered, and hence they were not selected for this study. For M.Ed. students, all the 2nd and 4th semester students were included in the study. As there are only two institutions offering M.Ed. course, i.e., IASE and MZU., all the 2nd and 4th semester students were taken for the sample of the study. The distribution of the population and sample of the study is as follows:

Table No. 1**Population and Sample of B.Ed. and M.Ed. Students Covered in the Study**

Sl. No	Institutions		Students Enrolled	No. of students Present	%
1	Institute of Advanced Studies in Education (IASE)	B.Ed.	128	111	86.7
		M.Ed.	67	53	79.10
2	Dept. of Education, MZU	B.Ed.	88	61	69.3
4	Dept. of Education, MZU	M.Ed.	34	27	79.4
5	DIET, Aizawl		42	35	83.3
6	DIET, Lunglei		48	45	93.75
	Total		407	332	81.57

As shown in the table no. 3.1, for the present study, the sample collected consisted of 80 students of M.Ed., and 252 students of B.Ed. who were present on the day of data collection from the 4 (four) teacher education institutions in Mizoram.

TOOLS USED FOR THE STUDY

For the present study, the investigator used Emotional Intelligence Scale developed by Srinivasan & Murugesan (2013), Cognitive Style Inventory developed by Jha, Praveen Kumar (2001) Academic Adjustment Scale constructed and standardized by the Investigator for collection of data. The standardised tests used in the present study have a standard norm for reference. However, the investigator recalibrated the norms for interpretation of the tests since the sample to which the tests are administered is different from the original sample for standardisation. The recalibrated norms and norms for interpretation of the tests used in the present study are given below-

1. Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS-S-SPMK) developed by Dr. P. Srinivasan and Mr. K. Murugesan.

Norms for Emotional Intelligence had been calculated by the author based on Z-score. The reliability and validity of the test were as under.

- a. **Reliability of the Emotional Intelligence Scale:** The reliability value was calculated by the split half method and Cronbach's Alpha method. The reliability split half method calculated was found to be 0.62. Cronbach alpha method was found to be 0.71.
- b. **Content Validity:** Content validity was established by a group which consisted of the constructors, one Professor of Education and two Associate Professors of Education and concluded that the items contained content validity.
- c. **Concurrent Validity:** Concurrent validity was established by the constructors by administering the scale prepared by them and another emotional intelligence scale developed and validated by Anukool Hyde (2007) to the sample of 100 adults which is significant at 0.01 level. The correlation between the two scores was 0.92 level of significance. So, the scale of emotional intelligence constructed by the author possessed level of concurrent validity.

The Z-score and norms for interpretations of the emotional intelligence were in table no 2.

Table No. 2
Z-score Norms for Emotional Intelligence Scale

Raw Score	z-score	Raw Score	z-score	Raw Score	z-score	Raw Score	z-score
05	-3.55	14	-1.72	23	+0.09	32	+1.92
06	-3.35	15	-1.52	24	+0.30	33	+2.13
07	-3.14	16	-1.31	25	+0.50	34	+2.33
08	-2.98	17	-1.11	26	+0.70	35	+2.53
09	-2.74	18	-0.91	27	+0.91	36	+2.74
10	-2.53	19	-0.71	28	+1.11	37	+2.94
11	-2.33	20	-0.51	29	+1.31	38	+3.14
12	-2.13	21	-0.30	30	+1.52	39	+3.35
13	-1.92	22	-0.10	31	+1.72	40	+3.55

Table No. 3
Norms for Interpretation of the Level of Emotional Intelligence

Sl. No	Range of Z-Score	Grade	Level of Emotional Intelligence
1	+2.01 and above	A	Extremely High
2	+1.26 to + 2.00	B	High
3	+0.51 to + 1.25	C	Above Average
4	-0.50 to + 0.50	D	Average
5	-0.51 to 1.25	E	Below Average
6	-1.26 to -2.00	F	Low
7	-2.01 and below	G	Extremely Low

Following the author, Z- score and norms for interpretation are recalibrated by the researcher which are shown in table no.4 and 5.

Table No. 4
Recalibrated Z-Score Norms for Emotional Intelligence Scale

Raw Score	Z-Score	Raw Score	Z-Score	Raw Score	Z-Score	Raw Score	Z-Score
1	-3.50	13	-1.12	19	0.06	25	1.25
8	-2.12	14	-0.93	20	0.26	26	1.45
9	-1.92	15	-0.73	21	0.46	27	1.65
10	-1.72	16	-0.53	22	0.66	29	2.04
11	-1.52	17	-0.33	23	0.86	32	2.64
12	-1.32	18	-0.13	24	1.05		

Table No. 5
Norms for Interpretation of the Levels of Emotional Intelligence based on
Z-score

Sl. No	Range of Z-Score	Grade	Level of Emotional Intelligence
1	+2.01 and above	A	Extremely High
2	+1.26 to + 2.00	B	High
3	+0.51 to + 1.25	C	Above Average
4	-0.50 to + 0.50	D	Average
5	-0.51 to 1.25	E	Below Average
6	-1.26 to -2.00	F	Low
7	-2.01 and below	G	Extremely Low

2. Cognitive Style Inventory (CSI-J) developed by Dr. Praveen Kumar Jha.

Reliability: The author make use of two methods for reliability test.

- i. *Split half method:* Split half was calculated for the whole scale and for each of the five sub-scales (5 dimensions) of CSI. The Spearman -Brown Phrophecy formula was used to estimate full length reliability. The full-length split half reliability of CSI was found 0.653 ($P < 0.01$). The Pearsonian r-ranges from 0.54 to 0.70 and dull length reliabilities from 0.70 to 0.83 and all were highly significant beyond 0.01 level of confidence.
- ii. *Test-retest method:* The test was administered to 50 retired persons and retest was conducted after a lapse of 3 weeks. The test-retest reliability of the whole test was calculated 0.39 ($P < 0.01$) and are highly significant beyond 0.01 level of confidence.

Validity: The author examined the validity of a test in three ways, i.e., Face Validity concurrent validity and internal validity.

- i. *Face validity:* The author distributed the items to six judges for evaluation. Only those items which were agreed upon by majority of judges were included in preliminary form of the scale.
- ii. *Concurrent validity:* The author correlated the Hindi version of CSI with Martin's scale by administering the scale on 100 college teachers. Product moment

correlation was calculated between the obtained scores of Martin's CSI and Hindi version developed by the author. A correlation coefficient of 0.262 ($P < 0.01$, $df=98$) was obtained which showed significant beyond 0.01 level of confidence.

- iii. *Internal validity*: The internal validity was determined by calculating discriminative power of each item in terms of Phi-coefficient, Correlation and Chi-square.

Table No. 6
Percentile Norms for Interpretation of Cognitive Style

Percentiles	Scores		Interpretation
	Boys	Girls	
95 th	89.77	88.06	High
90 th	87.25	85.70	
80 th	84.72	83.33	
75 th	82.19	80.97	
70 th	79.67	78.07	Medium High
60 th	77.15	76.24	
50 th	74.62	73.88	
40 th	72.09	71.51	
30 th	69.57	69.15	Medium low
25 th	64.78	64.52	
20 th	61.99	62.06	Low
10 th	59.94	59.69	

Following the author, the norms have been worked out by the researcher. However, the medium score is adjusted by the investigator in the recalibration of norms.

Table No. 7
Recalibrated Percentile Norms for Interpretation of Cognitive Style Inventory

Percentiles	Scores	Interpretation
95 th	80	High
90 th	77.5	
80 th	74.5	
75 th	73.5	
70 th	72.5	Medium
60 th	71	
50 th	69	
40 th	67	
30 th	66	Low
25 th	65	
20 th	63.8	
10 th	60	

MODE OF DATA COLLECTION

As the investigator used three tests for the research work, collection of data was done simultaneously from the selected population. The investigator personally visited all the teacher the institutions after permission from the institutional head is sought. Three tests were conducted such as- Emotional Intelligence Scale, Cognitive Style Inventory and Academic Adjustment Scale. Out of these three tests, one test was constructed by the researcher.

STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES USED FOR DATA ANALYSIS

The data collected was analysed using statistical techniques to know and identify the nature or the characteristics of the respondents. The following are the statistical technique used:

1. **Descriptive Statistic:** Measures of central tendencies like mean, standard deviation, percentages, z- score and percentile to find out and understand the distribution of scores, for describing frequencies and to classify the respondents in different categories.

2. **Inferential Statistics:** To observe and identify the mean difference of the groups in terms of gender and education, the mean scores of the respondents were identified and t-test was applied for comparing the scores of the two groups.
3. **Descriptive Bivariate:** Pearson Product Moment Method was applied to find out the relationship of emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of prospective teachers.

In short, the statistical techniques employed were identified based on the characteristics of data, the research objectives and hypothesis framed by the investigator.

MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The following are the major findings of the present study:

1. Emotional intelligence of prospective teachers.

a) A small percentage of 1.20 students were in the extremely high category. The high category was seen among 8.43% of the respondents. The above average level was exhibited by 20.8%, the average category was shown by 38.25%, below average level comprised of 17.77% and low category included 12.35% and lastly 1.20% were in the extremely low level of emotional intelligence.

b) The study found that the B.Ed. male students of 2.29% were in the extremely high level of EI, 4.59% were in the high category, 20.7% were in the above average level, 34.5% demonstrated average level, 22.98% exhibited below average level, low category was shown by 11.5% and in the extremely low there were 3.44% of the respondents.

c) It was resulted in the study that for female B.Ed. students, 1.21% were in the extremely high level, 7.88% were in high level, 19.4% in the above average level of EI. In the average level, there were 36.96% of students, 19.4% in the below average level, low level is exhibited by 15.15% and no student was found in the extremely low level of EI.

d) The research concluded that there were no male M.Ed. students in the extremely high level of EI, 19.23% exhibited high level, 26.92% were in the above average level, average level is demonstrated by 34.62%. No male students were

found in the below average level, 15.38% were found to be in the level of low EI and 3.85% were in the extremely low category.

e) It was also revealed that among female M.Ed. students, there were no students who exhibited extremely high level, 11.11% were in the high level of EI. 22.22% were in the above average category, average level was demonstrated by 50% of the students. Below average is shown by 12.97% of the students, whereas low level was exhibited by 3.70%. Lastly, no students were found in the extremely low level of EI among the female M.Ed. students.

f) The study also concluded that the male students of least percentage of EI was found in the category of extremely high and extremely low with 1.78% each. The high level of EI was exhibited by 6.20%. Above average level of EI comprised of 23.89% followed by 34.5% average level of EI. There were 23% of students in the category of below average. Low level of EI was demonstrated by 8.85%.

g) The research found that for all the female respondents, 1.37% were in the extremely high category. High level of EI was shown by 8.22% of the respondents, the highest percentage is found to be average category with 40.19% followed by above average with 20.09%. Below average category was exhibited by 17.80% of the respondents with 10.05% of a low level of EI followed by 2.28% of the extremely low category.

2. Comparison of the emotional intelligence of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students

a) The research revealed that M.Ed. students exhibited higher emotional intelligence than their B.Ed. counterparts. The mean score of M.Ed. students was higher than that of the B.Ed. students.

b) The study showed that there was no significant difference in the emotional intelligence in terms of gender even though the mean score of females was slightly higher than that of males.

c) The research also concluded that male and female B.Ed. students, male and female M.Ed. students, B.Ed. male and M.Ed. male students, B.Ed. female and M.Ed. female students do not differ significantly in their emotional intelligence.

3. Construction and Standardization of Academic Adjustment Scale

Academic Adjustment Scale has been constructed and standardized using a Likert type of scale. The following are the process of standardization of the scale.

a) Pooling of Items

An initial pool of 100 items was developed to assess various aspects of academic adjustment. Experts in the field of Education and Psychology comprising of Professors and doctorate degree holders of around ten (10) were consulted and suggestions were sought for content validity. These ten (10) specialists assisted in identifying critical areas of concentration as well as appropriate measurement tools. The languages and sentences were also improved to enable the respondents to understand without any difficulty. After making modifications and changes as per the advised of the experts, the 100-item identified was reduced to 90 items.

b) Try-Out

The selected scale consisting of 90 items, was administered to a sample of 117 B.Ed. students. They were asked to provide feedback on their understanding and acceptance of each statement. Following the administration of the scale, the responses were analysed. It was found that all the statements were deemed acceptable and retained for subsequent analysis. The try-out phase was an important step in refining the scale. By administering it to a sample population and evaluating their responses, ambiguous or unclear statements were identified and removed to 87 items. This process helped ensure that the final scale is appropriate for use to the target population.

c) Item-Discrimination

The item-discrimination index represents the difference or discrimination between a low-scoring group (the bottom 27%) and a high-scoring group (the top 27%) based on performance on the question. The remaining 87-statement was administered to a group of B.Ed. students studied in IASE. After scoring the responses, all scores were arranged from lowest to highest. The top 27% and bottom 27% of respondents were then separated for further analysis. For each of the statements, the average score (mean) and variability (standard deviation) were calculated for both the top and bottom scoring groups. A statistical test (t-test) was

conducted for each statement to assess the significance of the difference in average scores between the top and bottom groups. This indicates how well the statement distinguishes between those with high and low overall scores. Statements with a t-value greater than the critical t value of 2.66 ($df > 100$ at $\alpha = .01$) were considered statistically significant at the 0.01 level, and were deemed effective at discriminating between high and low scorers. These items were retained. However, statements with a t-value below 2.63 and below were not significant at 0.01 level and hence considered weak discriminators and removed. Thus, the final version of the questionnaire used for data collection consisted of 45 statements. Table No. 8 shows the mean, standard deviation and t-value of high and low groups on different items on academic adjustment scale.

Table No. 8
Mean, Standard Deviation and t-value of High and Low Groups on Different Items of Academic Adjustment Scale

Item No.	High Group		Low Group		t-value	significance
	mean	sd	mean	sd		
1	4.13	0.34	4.03	0.47	0.70	NS
2	3.47	1.27	3.59	0.87	5.36	*
3	3.50	0.76	3.47	0.88	0.14	NS
4	2.94	0.95	2.88	1.01	3.44	*
5	4.22	0.87	3.81	1.28	2.21	NS
6	4.13	0.49	4.06	0.50	1.03	NS
7	2.66	0.83	2.84	0.85	1.93	NS
8	2.34	1.04	2.47	0.84	0.23	NS
9	3.53	0.88	3.41	0.80	2.74	*
10	3.81	0.90	3.78	0.61	1.32	NS
11	3.44	1.22	3.31	1.03	4.15	*
12	3.19	0.82	3.56	0.84	3.72	*
13	3.50	1.02	3.53	0.84	1.58	NS
14	3.28	0.99	2.88	0.94	2.53	NS
15	2.44	0.91	2.69	0.93	2.63	NS
16	3.94	0.76	4.06	0.80	2.18	NS
17	3.38	1.01	3.41	0.84	4.86	*
18	3.31	1.00	3.28	0.99	4.15	*
19	4.03	0.54	3.78	0.71	1.92	NS
20	4.47	0.51	4.22	0.61	2.73	*
21	4.19	0.54	4.16	0.51	2.72	*
22	3.97	0.74	3.91	0.39	0.99	NS
23	4.22	0.71	3.97	0.47	3.54	*

24	3.81	0.64	3.72	0.73	3.57	*
25	4.56	0.50	4.34	0.55	6.21	*
26	3.38	1.01	3.56	1.05	0.59	NS
27	4.44	0.72	4.28	0.63	6.38	*
28	3.59	0.84	3.41	0.80	4.46	*
29	3.56	0.84	3.41	0.80	1.71	NS
30	3.38	1.13	3.25	0.98	4.14	*
31	3.75	1.02	3.84	0.68	2.34	NS
32	2.19	0.86	2.47	0.88	0.14	NS
33	3.53	0.92	3.69	0.59	4.32	*
34	2.78	1.16	3.03	0.93	3.17	*
35	2.97	1.06	3.28	0.81	4.78	*
36	4.19	0.64	4.31	0.47	1.43	NS
37	2.56	1.01	3.22	1.01	4.07	*
38	2.16	0.85	2.63	0.91	1.77	NS
39	3.47	0.88	3.56	0.88	7.27	*
40	3.75	0.95	3.63	0.87	3.87	*
41	3.63	1.26	3.56	0.91	3.05	*
42	3.31	1.15	3.47	0.92	4.98	*
43	3.38	1.21	3.28	0.89	2.97	*
44	4.44	0.56	4.25	0.67	5.66	*
45	3.13	1.31	3.50	1.11	0.97	NS
46	4.41	0.84	4.41	0.67	1.94	NS
47	2.13	1.13	2.56	1.19	1.90	NS
48	1.88	0.71	2.25	1.08	0.23	NS
49	3.72	0.89	4.00	0.67	4.56	*
50	2.88	0.98	3.38	0.87	2.48	NS
51	4.22	0.49	4.16	0.51	4.40	*
52	4.44	0.50	4.47	0.51	6.28	*
53	2.34	0.94	2.38	0.91	0.86	NS
54	4.41	0.56	4.19	0.54	2.61	NS
55	3.31	1.15	3.25	0.92	3.35	*
56	3.81	0.54	3.88	0.55	2.38	NS
57	4.28	0.73	4.09	0.64	6.36	*
58	3.09	1.12	3.53	0.84	3.64	*
59	3.09	1.20	3.13	1.13	5.80	*
60	4.09	3.94	0.69	0.91	1.87	NS
61	4.13	1.01	4.19	0.78	6.28	*
62	3.63	1.04	3.75	0.88	3.60	*
63	4.38	0.94	4.13	0.87	3.16	*
64	2.34	0.87	2.47	0.98	1.25	NS
65	4.19	0.93	4.09	0.64	3.51	*
66	2.84	1.19	2.84	0.95	4.65	*

67	3.94	0.72	3.75	0.72	0.32	NS
68	4.44	0.72	4.13	0.75	2.61	NS
69	4.31	0.78	4.19	0.59	2.44	NS
70	4.03	0.65	4.09	0.82	3.33	*
71	3.75	0.95	3.88	0.71	0.55	NS
72	4.28	0.46	4.00	0.57	3.16	*
73	3.53	0.84	3.78	0.61	2.65	*
74	3.09	0.96	3.09	0.89	2.94	*
75	3.66	0.75	3.72	0.89	0.64	NS
76	2.66	0.94	2.75	0.95	2.67	*
77	2.41	0.95	3.00	1.05	1.43	NS
78	2.66	1.15	2.69	0.82	0.84	NS
79	4.22	0.79	4.16	0.68	0.14	NS
80	2.75	1.30	2.84	1.08	3.33	*
81	3.75	0.84	3.84	0.77	2.04	NS
82	4.09	0.78	4.19	0.47	0.92	NS
83	4.16	0.88	4.06	0.76	2.79	*
84	2.75	1.08	3.19	1.12	1.54	NS
85	3.84	1.14	3.81	0.74	3.45	*
86	4.38	0.71	4.22	0.61	1.75	NS
87	3.81	1.12	3.91	0.93	2.26	NS

NS- Not Significant * significant at 0.01 level

d) Establishment of Reliability

Test-Retest Method and Split-Half Reliability of the scales were used to determine the temporal stability and internal consistency of the academic adjustment scale respectively.

e) Test-Retest Method:

The same adjustment scale is administered to a group of participants of 110 students twice, within an interval of one week from the first test. The test scores of the participants from both administrations were then correlated using Pearson's Product Moment method. The correlation coefficient yielded was 0.73 which means the scale measures academic adjustment among the B.Ed. students was relatively stable within the tested timeframe, which in turn suggests that academic adjustment being measured was not influenced by random factors. Table No. 9 shows the test retest scores of academic adjustment scale.

Table No. 9
Test-retest Scores for Determining the Reliability of Academic Adjustment
Scale

Sl. No	Scores on 1st test	Scores on 2nd test	Sl. No	Scores on 1st test	Scores on 2nd test	Sl. No	Scores on 1st test	Scores on 2nd test
1	186	186	38	160	166	75	168	167
2	203	202	39	182	186	76	148	154
3	145	168	40	154	156	77	176	179
4	164	169	41	178	169	78	184	186
5	175	164	42	206	217	79	168	174
6	166	170	43	167	167	80	184	195
7	193	220	44	172	165	81	181	169
8	179	148	45	193	191	82	169	166
9	196	186	46	193	186	83	153	181
10	174	170	47	199	183	84	170	178
11	178	175	48	181	186	85	192	172
12	185	189	49	163	158	86	171	177
13	200	190	50	181	181	87	170	169
14	173	177	51	200	184	88	184	180
15	165	170	52	194	157	89	228	225
16	184	175	53	157	190	90	179	172
17	178	171	54	165	142	91	168	172
18	181	178	55	188	179	92	178	179
19	179	176	56	178	183	93	198	205
20	159	155	57	166	172	94	173	177
21	188	177	58	180	179	95	216	205
22	158	176	59	168	162	96	189	188
23	195	195	60	172	173	97	184	180
24	176	184	61	186	192	98	167	165
25	160	159	62	175	170	99	191	194
26	180	195	63	161	162	100	174	173
27	186	186	64	186	183	101	163	165
28	167	183	65	172	184	102	177	178

29	182	184	66	191	201	103	201	188
30	200	202	67	178	178	104	192	195
31	176	173	68	173	165	105	152	150
32	163	174	69	183	190	106	182	194
33	181	180	70	180	175	107	191	191
34	165	172	71	195	186	108	176	186
35	170	167	72	153	163	109	153	165
36	188	188	73	168	172	110	172	172
37	166	162	74	174	144			

f) Split-Half Reliability:

The adjustment scale was divided into two halves by splitting the odd and even numbered items. These halves were then treated as separate mini-tests and administered to the participants once. The correlation coefficient between these two halves were taken and found to be 0.84. Such a high correlation coefficient between the two halves indicates good internal consistency. This means the items within the scale can be assumed to be measuring the academic adjustment in a consistent way. The split half scores is presented in the table No. 10.

Table No. 10
Split Half Scores for Determining the Reliability of the Academic Adjustment Scale

Sl. No	Scores on one half	Scores on two half	Sl. No	Scores on one half	Scores on two half	Sl. No	Scores on one half	Scores on two half
1	91	95	38	91	75	75	82	85
2	102	100	39	94	92	76	78	76
3	80	88	40	78	78	77	92	87
4	82	87	41	82	87	78	93	93
5	78	86	42	110	107	79	89	85
6	87	83	43	85	82	80	97	98
7	110	110	44	83	82	81	85	84
8	74	74	45	95	96	82	88	78
9	94	92	46	94	92	83	90	91
10	82	88	47	93	90	84	89	89
11	86	89	48	92	94	85	87	85
12	91	98	49	81	77	86	90	87
13	94	96	50	90	91	87	84	85
14	87	90	51	94	90	88	90	90
15	88	82	52	79	78	89	109	116
16	89	86	53	99	91	90	83	89
17	83	88	54	69	73	91	84	88
18	86	92	55	87	92	92	94	85
19	87	89	56	89	94	93	101	104
20	80	75	57	84	88	94	89	88
21	93	84	58	91	88	95	102	103
22	90	86	59	79	83	96	94	94
23	99	96	60	85	88	97	89	91
24	93	91	61	94	98	98	82	83
25	78	81	62	83	87	99	101	93
26	100	95	63	82	80	100	88	85
27	93	93	64	92	91	101	84	81
28	94	89	65	96	88	102	89	89
29	93	91	66	103	98	103	95	93
30	105	97	67	88	90	104	97	98
31	83	90	68	82	83	105	73	77
32	90	84	69	97	93	106	96	98
33	88	92	70	91	84	107	97	94
34	87	85	71	92	94	108	95	91
35	81	86	72	83	80	109	81	84
36	93	95	73	87	85	110	87	85
37	81	81	74	72	72			

g) Establishment of Validity

The tool constructed by the researcher has been one of its kind in the research field. No other similar has been discovered by the investigator. For this reason, it was felt necessary on the part of the researcher to develop the scale so that students undergoing teacher education programme would make use of it for the best possible manner. Therefore, only content validity could be established to evaluate how well an instrument covers all relevant parts of the construct it aims to measure. The selected 45 items were sent to experts in the field of education. According to their observation and responses, the tool constructed was accepted and hence possessed content validity.

h) Scoring procedure and serial number of positive and negative items

The scoring procedure used for the academic adjustment scale was with the pattern suggested by the Likert scale using a five-point scale like Strongly Agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree. The positive statements were scored with values of 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1, while negative statements were score using 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5. With a total of 45 statements in the scale, the highest possible score on the test is $45 \times 5 = 225$, and the lowest score would be $45 \times 1 = 45$. The number of negative and positive items were presented in the table No. 11.

Table No. 11
Item numbers for positive and negative statements

Sl. No	Types of Statement	Item No.	Total
1	Negative	1, 2, 4, 6, 7, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 26, 27, 29, 30, 31, 32, 34, 37, 41, 42, 43, 45	28
2	Positive	3, 5, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 25, 28, 33, 35, 36, 38, 39, 40, 44	17
		Total	45

i) Norms and Interpretation of Academic Adjustment Scale

In order to establish the norms for the academic adjustment scale, the investigator administered the newly constructed scale to 332 B.Ed. and M.Ed. students of teacher education institutions of Mizoram. The scores of the respondents were tabulated and the norms for interpreting the scores are based on Z-score. The table No. 12 presented the z-score norms for academic adjustment scale.

Table No. 12
Z-score Norms for Academic Adjustment Scale

Raw score	Z-score	Raw score	Z-score	Raw score	Z-score	Raw score	Z-score
118	-2.79	148	-0.99	167	0.14	186	1.28
124	-2.43	149	-0.93	168	0.20	187	1.34
126	-2.31	150	-0.87	169	0.26	188	1.40
128	-2.19	151	-0.81	170	0.32	189	1.46
129	-2.13	152	-0.75	171	0.38	190	1.52
131	-2.01	153	-0.69	172	0.44	192	1.64
132	-1.95	154	-0.63	173	0.50	193	1.70
134	-1.83	155	-0.58	174	0.56	195	1.82
135	-1.77	156	-0.52	175	0.62	196	1.88
138	-1.59	157	-0.46	176	0.68	197	1.94
139	-1.53	158	-0.40	177	0.74	199	2.06
140	-1.47	159	-0.34	178	0.80	200	2.12
141	-1.41	160	-0.28	179	0.86	201	2.18
142	-1.35	161	-0.22	180	0.92	202	2.24
143	-1.29	162	-0.16	181	0.98	204	2.36
144	-1.23	163	-0.10	182	1.04	207	2.54
145	-1.17	164	-0.04	183	1.10		
146	-1.11	165	0.02	184	1.16		
147	-1.05	166	0.08	185	1.22		

Based on the Z-score norms, norms for interpretation of the level of academic adjustment have also been worked out which is presented in the table No.13.

Table No. 13
Norms for Interpretation of Academic Adjustment Scale

Sl. No	Raw Score	Range of Z-Scores	Level of Academic Adjustment	Interpretation
1	199 & above	2.01 & above	Extremely High	High
2	186 - 198	1.26 to 2.00	High	
3	174 - 185	0.51 to 1.25	Above Average	Average
4	157 - 173	-0.50 to 0.50	Average	
5	144 - 156	-0.51 to -1.25	Below Average	
6	132 - 143	-1.26 to -2.00	Low	Low
7	131 & below	-2.01 & below	Extremely Low	

4. Academic adjustment of Prospective Teachers.

a) The average academic adjustment group was the most common (79.82%), with the highest number of students and a moderate mean score. Students in the high adjustment group had the highest mean score and the lowest variability (10.24%), while the low adjustment group showed a lower mean score and similar variability in scores (9.94%).

b) The study revealed that among the B.Ed. students, majority of both gender was in the average academic adjustment category with a higher proportion of females (83.03%) and males (73.6%). The high academic adjustment group was slightly more represented by males (12.6%) and females constituted (9.09%). The low academic adjustment group showed a higher proportion of males (13.8%) compared to females (7.88%).

c) The research found that majority of students of both gender in M.Ed. were in the average academic adjustment category of which male comprised of 80.77% and female of 79.63%. There was a higher proportion of females in the high academic adjustment category (11.11%) whereas males constituted 7.69%. Meanwhile males showed a slightly higher proportion in the low academic adjustment group (11.54%) as compared to females (9.26%).

d) The study observed that among all male students the majority (75.2%) were into the average academic adjustment category. A smaller proportion of students exhibited low academic adjustment (13.3%) with the high category (11.50%) of the respondents.

e) Findings revealed that the majority of female students (82.19%) dominated average academic adjustment category. A smaller proportion of students exhibited high academic adjustment (9.59%) with a slight difference with the low category of academic adjustment (8.22%).

5. Comparison of the academic adjustment of B.Ed. and M.Ed. students.

a) The findings showed that there was no significant difference between B.Ed. and M.Ed. students in their academic adjustment.

b) The findings also showed that there was no significant difference in the academic adjustment of male and female students.

c) The study concluded that there was no significant difference in the academic adjustment of male and female B.Ed. students, male and female M.Ed. students, B.Ed. male and M.Ed. male students, B.Ed. female and M.Ed. female students.

6. Cognitive styles of prospective teachers.

a) The split style was the most dominant cognitive style with a larger proportion of females of 52.28% and males of 44.64%. The overall percentage of this particular style was found to be 49.40%

b) The systematic style was common among males with 8.04% than females with 6.36% and altogether 6.92% exhibited this style.

c) Intuitive style was rare among the individuals with exclusively found among females with 0.90%.

d) Integrated and undifferentiated styles showed a relatively balanced gender distribution as 21.3% in each style. Male slightly overrepresented in each style with 25% in the integrated style and 22.32% in undifferentiated style. Female were 19.56% in integrated and 20.90% in undifferentiated style.

e) The split style was the most prevalent cognitive style among B.Ed. females with 61.22%. Males were more commonly found in the undifferentiated style with 37.14%, whereas females were more represented in the integrated style with 18.37%.

The systematic style showed a balanced distribution between male and female with 8.58% and 6.12% respectively, while the intuitive style is absent among the B.Ed. students.

f) Among the M.Ed. students, the split style was the most common among both genders with 44% males and 45.45% females. Males were more represented in the integrated style with 40% as females were only 29.09%. Females showed a higher frequency in the systematic and intuitive Styles 9.09% and 3.64% while males were not found in both the style.

7. Comparison of the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers based on their cognitive styles.

a) The study found that there was no significant difference in the emotional intelligence between prospective teachers having a systematic and intuitive style, systematic and integrated style, systematic and undifferentiated style, systematic or split style, intuitive style and integrated style, intuitive and undifferentiated styles, intuitive style and split style, undifferentiated and split style.

b) The research found that there was a significant difference in the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers having integrated style and undifferentiated style, integrated and split style. The significant level is 0.01.

8. Comparison of the academic adjustment of prospective teachers based on their cognitive styles.

a) The research concluded that prospective teachers having systematic and intuitive style, systematic and integrated style, systematic and undifferentiated style, systematic and split style, intuitive and integrated style, intuitive and split style, integrated and split style were not differed in their academic adjustment.

b) The research found that there was a difference in the academic adjustment of prospective teachers having intuitive and undifferentiated style, integrated and undifferentiated style, undifferentiated style and split style which were significant at 0.05 level.

9. Relationship between the emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of prospective teachers.

a) The research observed that the correlation coefficient between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment was 0.148 which indicated low positive

correlation. The relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of both B.Ed. and M.Ed. students was significant at 0.05 level.

b) As the value 0.12 represented a negligible relationship between the two variables, the weak positive correlation was not strong enough to conclude that there was a relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of B.Ed. students.

c) The value 0.258 represented a moderate relationship between the two variables. It was concluded that there was a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and academic adjustment of M.Ed. students.

Educational Implications of the Study

The present study holds significant educational implications for the teacher education institutions as well as the whole of Mizoram for holistic development of the individual undergoing the teacher education programmes.

Firstly, with the evidence provided in the findings, it is important in the institutions that even though all the students who were enrolled in the programme holds bachelor's degree or master's degree, there is a need for personalized learning so that teacher educators can tailor instruction to match students' cognitive styles considering their EI levels.

Secondly, the research can inform that there is a need to incorporate various teaching approaches to cater to individuals' cognitive styles and EI levels. The present technologies and communication attached to different institutions are still need to upgrade and even the teacher educators are also required to update themselves for enhancing student's progress in teaching and learning.

Thirdly, as per the findings of the research, students are also required to recognize their own cognitive styles to suit the different learning and teaching strategies. Discovering of their own ability, capability and interest in the teaching profession will enhance professional outlook and leverage the EI to enhance learning.

Fourthly, in the classroom or institutions there is a need to promote inclusivity to foster a safe, empathetic and supportive environment so that all students will feel emotionally secure and thereby enhance holistic development.

Fifthly, there are some students who were unable to work collaboratively with their friends, classmates and in groups. Group work and collaborative strategy in the classroom will foster the EI of students and this in fact will paved the way for more appreciative of what comes next, create discipline and conflict resolutions as and when necessary.

Sixthly, the teacher educator will design instructional strategy to match students' cognitive style. In the present study, most students have split cognitive style which means they were able to cope with problems, have potential cognitive conflicts, improved adaptability and manage to increase creativity. They were able to process information quickly with both analytical and intuitive thinking. It is therefore, important to recognize this style to make use in the classroom teaching as well as in assigning different to the individuals.

Seventhly, the research findings can be of used in the process of recruiting teachers who were excellent in teaching, guiding and supervising their own students. Therefore, stakeholders with the knowledge of the findings can make use of it in curriculum designing, implementation of additional courses in the programme as well as norms and standards to be enacted in the design of the programme.

Eighthly, the findings of the research can be of used in the institutions that there will be training programmes and workshops to foster students emotional well being, adjustment and identification of their own cognitive style. This will be of help in their personal lives, family and society. It would also provide them with the necessary skills to develop in their profession at times when they have opportunity to work in different schools and institutions.

Finally, the construction and standardization of Academic Adjustment Scale for B.Ed. and M.Ed. students will provide insights into the teaching profession that they were trying to fit in. Based on the constructed scale, student- teachers will be able to address the needed skills and practices, identify at risk students for support where they needed the most. They will be able to evaluate the teacher education programmes, for providing more practical outcomes. The needs and importance of internship programme offered in the syllabus to which they will be able to refine and update the course more practical.

The implications of the present study encompass the educational system not only the teacher education programme, curriculum construction and designing, teaching approaches and methodologies, the pedagogical knowledge. It ultimately affects the various stages of education for which they were prepared to work as a teacher for the holistic development of the students as well as the society.

Recommendations for Improvement in Emotional Intelligence (EI)

Emotional Intelligence is important in all spheres, not only in the educational field. Emotionally intelligent people are able to work effectively and contribute to a positive working environment. In an educational set up, these types of people are needed the most to strengthen the learning achievement, outcome and behavioural changes. It is therefore pertinent for a teacher to be emotionally responsible, mature and intelligent. The following are the recommendations for improving EI:

1. **Curriculum Integration:** There can be introduction of emotional intelligence foundation course into the teacher education programme or incorporate the course into the existing foundation courses. This will help the students to be more precise in their learning, more skillful and empathetic in their outlook. Students will also be able to manage classroom more effectively. The teacher educators will also bring out the best quality of ideas and information with the knowledge of the course.
2. **Organizing Training or Workshops:** Organizing EI based workshops and training will provide fruitful experiences to the faculty and the students. Training methods and strategies will be worked out for reflection of self and awareness practices. These sessions will be beneficial for students who were undergoing changes in their lives with the change of subject studied to have a degree in B.Ed. or M.Ed.
3. **Collaboration Strategy:** A particular institution may collaborate with other teacher education institutions and share their experiences on the objectives of teacher education programme. This can also be conducted through institutional visits, exchange programmes and working as a team for common objectives. This will

create a room for the development of personality, behavioural changes and fostering of ability and capability to establish cooperation in the individuals.

4. **Providing Counseling and Mentoring Services:** Students come from different background with an intention to become a professional in teaching. Counseling and mentoring should focus on the area where they need assistance in their personal and academic lives. It can be conducted individually, based on groups and with their peers. The focus on the services would be academic, professional and activities that are supposed to be carried out in the programme. This will help in strengthening of their retention, conflict resolution, stress management, socialization and their general well-being which are the pre-requisites in enhancing EI.

5. **Encourage self – reflection and self- awareness practices:** The learning activities carried out in the teacher education programme as per the syllabus promote room for self-reflection and awareness. However, more activities like journaling such as regular reflective writing on teaching experiences, thoughts and feelings, giving positive and constructive feedback on their performances, reflecting on personal teaching beliefs and values, documenting teaching experiences, successes and challenges.

6. **Collaborate with other Teacher Education Institutions:** A particular institution may collaborate with other institutions to share their best practices, learning experiences and achievements in the academic concern. Investigated on teacher burnout and its impact as to cultivate emotionally intelligent teachers who support students' social-emotional growth and academic success.

7. **Faculty Development and Support:** Programme for faculty development may be organized at the institution level to guide their students at all spheres. This will improve in their teaching methods, techniques, to keep pace with the changing educational advancements, to develop leadership skills, respond to diverse students need, abilities and learning styles.

8. **Develop EI-based Leadership Programmes:** To cultivate self-awareness, empathy, social skills and enhanced communication, leadership

programme may be organized at different settings. This will apparently create an opportunity to develop future leaders who have potentiality to navigate change and innovation, enhance critical thinking skills and ensure continuity and minimize the gaps in the working environment.

By implementing these recommendations, B.Ed. and M.Ed. programmes can cultivate emotionally intelligent, competent teachers who support students emotional well-being which will in turn improve their academic performance, maintain standards and quality teachers. Improvement in the emotional intelligence of the student will not only bring about success in the academic, will ensure the innovative practices to be brought out in the education.

Recommendations for Improvement in Academic Adjustment:

As B.Ed. and M.Ed. is a different programme in the academic environment. The objectives of the course are also more or less completely diverse from the course they have already completed. The structure and outline of the course tends to prepare the students to be a teacher who are excel in teaching, innovative and quality. Therefore, for improvement in their teaching profession or to adjust to the environment, the followings are suggested:

1. **Exchange Programme:** This may be possible with the intervention in the curricular and co-curricular areas. There can be students exchange programme with other institution for a certain period. The faculty of the institution may also involve for supervision and guidance with set objectives.
2. **Research-based teaching practices:** Other than normal classroom teaching, research-based teaching practices may be used which is focus on evidence driven methods to enhance student learning outcomes. The practices include, flipped classroom, problem-based learning, differentiated instruction, inquiry-based learning, feedback-centric approach.
3. **Ensure programme flexibility and adaptability:** Adaptability and flexibility may be incorporated while designing curriculum, in assessment and evaluation, classroom delivery, programme structure and conducting of co-curricular

activities so that by implementing these strategies, programs can respond effectively to changing student needs and affect their adjustment in the system.

4. **Regular programme evaluations:** It will involve gathering feedback of alumni, competent authorities, academic advisors, parents/guardians, community, support staff and students. The functioning may improve academic support services, enhance curriculum relevance, increase student engagement, better academic advising, enhance overall learning experience.

5. **Student support services:** To provide academic advising, academic support, for their emotional and mental well-being, career, and professional development, to aware the social and community integration, student conduct and conflict resolution, academic integrity, support for students with family or work commitment. By providing these support services, institutions can facilitate academic adjustment, enhance student success, and foster a supportive campus community.

By implementing these recommendations, B.Ed. and M.Ed. programs can enhance academic quality, relevance, and effectiveness, preparing educators for 21st-century teaching and learning.

Recommendations for Improvement in Cognitive Styles

B.Ed. and M.Ed. students have different cognitive styles. These styles influence the individual's learning, problem solving efficiency, decision making quality, communication style, interpersonal relationships and academic performance. The recommendations for improvement in their cognitive style can be as follows:

1. **Effective Teaching Methodologies:** One way of teaching the students may not successfully brought about improvement. In the classroom activities, teachers may incorporate cognitive training programmes, giving clear instructions, giving time for self-evaluation. Adaptive learning environment may be an important strategy that a teacher can create to promote inclusivity accommodating individual differences.
2. **Learning Style Assessment:** Assessment may be made to improve learning outcomes, increase students' satisfaction, enhance teachers' effectiveness,

better academic performance, reduce learning difficulties, increase students' motivation, improve student- teachers' relationship. By conducting these assessments, educators can create personalized learning environments which will be beneficial for the schools at different levels.

3. **Development of Cognitive Training Programmes for the Teacher-Educators:** Organizing of cognitive training programmes will improve teaching quality, better classroom management, reduce teacher burnout, improve teaching culture, increase students' engagement, adapting to changing curriculum and develop critical thinking. These will in turn benefit the students to adapt to their environment and continuous improvements in learning.
4. **Technology integration:** Access to technologies like learning management systems (LMS), online courses and platforms, educational software and apps, artificial intelligence and machine learning. By integrating technology in imparting curriculum, teachers can enhance learning, teaching and students' outcomes.
5. **Feedback and Reflection Opportunities:** Feedback can be given in a specific, timely and actionable strategy as well as peer review and self-assessment. This will increase students' learning outcomes, improve academic performance, better teacher-student relationship, increase students' engagement and motivation.

Investing in cognitive style development fosters resilient, adaptable and high performing individuals. These qualities are essential attributes in the teaching and learning environment so as to promote successful outcome in the academic as well as in modification of behaviour which is the main goal of education.

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