CREATIVE EXPERIENCE AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT AS DETERMINANTS OF SELF-ESTEEM AND EMOTIONAL STABILITY OF VISUALLY HANDICAPPED STUDENTS

ABSTRACT
OF THE
THESIS
SUBMITTED FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF
Doctor of Philosophy
IN
PSYCHOLOGY

BY
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Under the Supervision of
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ALIGARH MUSLIM UNIVERSITY
ALIGARH (INDIA)
2008
ABSTRACT

The objective of the present endeavour was aimed to study the "Creative Experience and Academic Achievement as determinants of Self-esteem and Emotional Stability of Visually Handicapped Students". Keeping in view the objective of the study, an empirical investigation was undertaken and thereafter data were tabulated and analysed with the help of Product-moment coefficient of correlation, t-test and Regression analysis for obtaining results.

The thesis comprises of six chapters. Chapter-I emphasises on the present scenario of the visually handicapped students vis-a-vis independent variable i.e. creative experience and academic achievement and dependent variable self-esteem and emotional stability as a part of the introduction of Ph.D. thesis.

In the past, handicapped children were excluded from the purview of nominal experience. They have been treated as defective beings and believed that these children will not profit from regular schools and their facilities. In the early nineteenth century as the idea of democracy, individual freedom and egalitarianism swept in west, and advancement in learning theory and technology contributed to the emergence of optimistic attitude towards handicapped pupils. A handicap is a disadvantage for a given individual, resulting from impairment or disability, that limits or prevents the fulfilment of a role that is considered normal depending on age, sex, social and cultural factors for that individual. Individual whose normal learning and development is impaired by visual conditions and who therefore, need specific conditions and related services in order to develop their abilities can be identified as
visually handicapped. Creativity is a highly complex cognitive ability that involves the generation of new concept or ideas, or new associations between existing concepts or ideas. Scientifically, the products of creative thought are usually considered to have both originality and appropriateness. Academic achievement is the knowledge attained or skills developed in the school subjects, are usually designed by test scores or by marks assigned by teachers or by both. Self-esteem refers to an individual's sense of his or her value or worth, or the extent to which a person values, approves of, appreciates, prizes, or likes him or herself. Emotional stability is considered as one of the important aspect of human life. An emotionally stable individual has the capacity to withstand delay in satisfaction of needs, capability to tolerate a reasonable amount of frustration, belief in long term planning and is able of delaying or revising his expectations in terms of demands of the situations.

Chapter II has been devoted to review of literature. A perusal of readily available literature on creativity the researcher reviewed that in certain studies visually handicapped were more creative than the sighted students. In a large number of studies the sighted students were more creative in comparison to visually handicapped students. Whereas, a few studies concluded that there is no significant difference between the handicapped and sighted students on creativity. The reviewed literature shows that creativity influences self-esteem. The studies concluded creativity develops self-esteem. A number of studies assessed the effect of sex on creativity. Amongst them some studies found that gender did not significantly influence creative thinking. While other studies show that boys are much more creative than girls. A few studies found opposite result. Existing literature compare the academic achievement of visually handicapped and sighted students. Several
studies found that visually handicapped students were academically better than sighted students. Visual status has no main effect on academic achievement. Some studies revealed the result that sighted students do academically better than visually handicapped students. A number of studies indicated significant relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement. A few studies depicted that there is no significant correlation between self-esteem and academic achievement.

Many researchers found similar self-concept profile for sighted adolescents and adolescents with visual impairment. Whereas a few studies concluded that visually handicapped students scored high on self-concept than sighted students. Various scholars examined gender differences in global self-esteem and concluded that male scored high on self-esteem than female. Reviewed studies showed that visually handicapped were less emotionally stable than sighted students. Many scholars concluded in their studies that male students are more emotionally stable than female students.

Chapter III incorporated the method and procedure opted for investigation. The study was conducted on 200 students. Of these, 100 were visually handicapped and 100 were sighted students. For measuring academic achievement, the researcher had used the annual examination marks of the students obtained from the office records of the institution. The creative experience of students is measured by ratings of their concerned teachers on a five-point scale. Self-esteem of students is measured through Self-Esteem Inventory, developed by M.S Prasad and G.P. Thakur (1977). Emotional stability of children is measured through Emotional Stability Test for Children, developed by A. Sengupta and A. K. Singh (1985). In the present
study, researcher had used SPSS 15.0 package for undertaking Regression analysis, t-test and Correlation of coefficient.

Chapter IV and V is devoted to result and discussion. The results conclude that creative experience has no influence on self-esteem. Some earlier studies support this finding. They found no significant relationship between creativity and self-esteem. On the other hand several studies found positive relationship between self-esteem and creativity.

Results also showed that academic achievement did not emerge as significant predictor of self-esteem of visually handicapped students. Sighted students’ academic achievement predicts their self-esteem. A number of studies supported the findings that academic achievement is a significant predictor of self-esteem. These studies also concluded that there is continuous interaction between self-esteem and academic achievement. Results also conclude that creative experience is not a significant predictor of emotional stability. There have been many researcher found in their study that creative individual are less emotionally stable, more intellectually self-sufficient and more radical. But on the other side some researcher found creativity to be much more associated with emotional stability.

A result also shows that academic achievement has no significant contribution in explaining emotional stability. Some scholars concluded in their studies. Some scholars concluded in their studies that general intelligence, big five personality traits and construct work drive in relation to two measures of collegiate academic performance a single course grade, and self-reported grade point average. Emotional stability was significantly related to course grade but not with grade point average.
Table shows that there is no significant difference between the mean scores of visually handicapped and sighted students on creative experience. Some studies support this finding. Studies conducted on divergent thinking found that blind and sighted did not differ on divergent thinking. Significant difference found between the mean scores of visually handicapped and sighted students on different other studies. These studies conclude that sighted students scored significantly high mean score on academic achievement than visually handicapped students. A few studies compared academic achievement of sighted and visually handicapped students. They found no main effect of visual status on academic achievement.

Result also shows there is no significant difference between the mean scores of visually handicapped and sighted students on self-esteem. Some researcher investigated the self-concept of students with and without visual impairment. They found no significant difference between the self-concept of visually impaired and sighted students. Other studies suggested that young people with visual impairment, including with low vision has a lower self-concept in several dimensions than their peers without impairment. Result also shows no significant differences between the mean scores of visually handicapped and sighted students on emotional stability. Studies found that blind children possess the same personality characteristics as that of the sighted one.

In the light of the research experience it is suggested that further research is required for assessing other factors which influence academic achievement of visually challenged students. Personality of blind and normal children can be studied in more detail by taking a large sample to draw more fruitful generalization.
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DEDICATED
TO
MY PARENTS
CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the thesis entitled "Creative Experience and Academic Achievement as Determinants of Self-esteem and Emotional Stability of Visually Handicapped Students", by Majda Tarannum is an original piece of work and has been carried out under my supervision. The Ph.D. thesis is suitable for submission to the examiners for evaluation. She has completed the required attendance as per the university rules.

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CHAPTER- I
INTRODUCTION
In the past, handicapped children were generally excluded from the purview of nominal experience. They have been treated as defective beings and believed that these children will not profit from regular schools and their facilities. The handicapped were viewed as the dregs in society or as awful persons who were prevented their participation in the activities necessary for survival. The handicapped students’ way of thinking is greatly influenced by the mind-set and opinion of others, especially the family, the few school personnel and the peers with whom they interact. The attitude handicapped students hold to themselves can affect their social, psychological, emotional and academic growth and ultimately their functioning in society.

In the early nineteenth century, as the idea of democracy, individual freedom and egalitarianism swept in west, and advancement in learning theory and technology contributed to the emergence of optimistic attitude towards handicapped pupils. UNESCO envisaged the most positive response to this section of population in the year 1946. The Warnock committee (1978) reviewed a report on the educational provisions for the handicapped children and youth in England under the Act of Education for all handicapped children (U.S. Public Law, 94-142). These are the milestones in the care, welfare and education of the handicapped children.

In India educational provisions for handicapped children has become a priority as a result of the National Policy on Education 1986. This Policy came into existence just before the International Year for disabled persons 1987 and during the period of 1983-92, which is declared as the World Decade of Disabled Persons by UN General Assembly. The National Policy with its commencement possessed almost all the favourable ethos. All these
attempts brought the galore of publicity on the needs of the blind in the world and in India as well.

Estimates of the number of disabled vary greatly, depending on the definitions, the source, the methodology and the extent of use of scientific instruments in identifying and measuring the degree of visual disability. In 2002 there were 161 million visually impaired people in the world, of whom 124 million had low vision and 37 million were blind (10th revision of International Statistical Classification of Diseases, 2004). In India the need for the study of blind children arises from the fact that almost one-third of the world’s blind reside over here. A blind person in India lives under a curse. He or she is a burden on the family and is either abandoned or allowed to waste away. The disabled population in India is approximately over 90 million, of these 40.5 million are visually handicap in which 12 million are blind and 28.5 million are with low vision. Hence, blindness is a severe handicap. Blindness has a definite and distinctive effect upon the development of the individual’s personality because at least 75 to 80 percent of all impression that the sighted ones get are registered through the sense of sight. Visually handicapped children suffer in a number of ways in which affectionate deprivation is the most acute and all pervasive. Affectionate deprivation comprises of unsympathetic behaviour, less attention, insecurity and maladjustment, aggression and several other problems.

Handicap is generally the repercussions of impairment and disability. An individual does not easily recognize impairments until they obstruct in the performance of ones daily activities. Impairment refers to any loss or abnormality of psychological, physiological or anatomical structure or
function, for example the loss of a little finger is impairment. On the other hand disability means any restriction or lack (resulting from impairment) of ability to perform an activity in the manner, a normal person does. Disability is a functional inability of an individual as a result of impairment. But it does not always be a consequence of impairment. For example, a person who has lost his/her little finger (impairment) may not be experiencing any disability when compared to another individual who has lost his/her upper limbs. Handicap is the result or the consequence of impairment as well as disability. It is the manifest limitation that prevents fulfillment of the social role expected for the age, sex, or cultural background of an individual (WHO, 1980). A person may lose a limb and still not face any impediments at one's job. Thus, he/she is physically impaired but not handicapped. The concept of handicap is subjective, situational and a matter of social perception. Hence, we can say that a person with disability may or may not be handicapped, and a person who is handicapped may or may not have a disability.

A handicapped person is the one who is challenged by emotional, physical, mental, and social or age hurdles. Handicap is an inability that leaves one at a comparative disadvantage. So conceived, a handicap is a special case of inability. In other words, we can say it is a barrier imposed by society, the environment, or the attitudes that prevent a person with a disability from performing a role, which is normal for that particular person.

Different psychologists and organizations have given various definitions of handicap.

English and English (1958) defined handicap in term of reduced “aptitude” in performing the ordinary tasks of life or a particular vocation,
thus distinguishing a handicap from crippling condition which they associate with inability to perform a certain kind of task. Their distinction (which they correctly state is not always observed) is in the same direction as ours but somewhat less comprehensive.

Whitten (1974) described handicapped person as “one who has severe physical or mental disability which seriously limits his functional capacities (mobility, communication, self-care, self-direction, work tolerance or work skills) in term of employability”.

Thompson (1974) defined handicapped children as “one who, because of his physical, mental or emotional problems or a combination of such problems; needs educational, social, psychological and medical services beyond those which have been offered traditional programmes, to minimize his full potential for useful and meaningful participation in society and for self-fulfilment”.

According to the United Nations Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities (1994), the term handicap means, “The loss or limitations of opportunities to take part in the life of the community on an equal level with others. It describes the encounter between the person with a disability and the environment. The purpose of this term is to emphasize the focus on the shortcomings in the environment and in many organized activities in society, for example, information communication and education, which prevent persons with disabilities from participating on equal terms”. Handicap is therefore, a function of the relationship between handicap person and his/her environment. It occurs when they encounter cultural, physical, or social barriers that prevent them to take part in the life of community on an equal level with others.
According to WHO (1976), “A handicap is a disadvantage for a given individual, resulting from impairment or disability, that limits or prevents the fulfilment of a role that is considered normal depending on age, sex, social and cultural factors for that individual”. The roles so defined must be universal and include the capacities to position oneself within one’s environment and respond to environmental stimuli. It is for an independent existence in a normal fashion according to sex, age and culture to maintain social relationships, and preserve self-sufficiency. Thus, handicap is a result of health condition and is related to factors such as individual resources and the collective environment. It is made up of situations that put individuals at a disadvantage from the perspective of societal norms.

Various types of handicap occur in human beings that impede them in their societal activities. They are the following-

1. Physical / Loco motor handicaps
2. Visual handicaps
3. Hearing handicap
4. Mental handicaps
5. Learning handicaps
6. Multiple handicaps.

**Visual Handicap**

Individual whose normal learning and development is impaired by visual conditions and who therefore, need specific conditions and related services in order to develop their abilities can be identified as visually handicapped (Whitmore, 1981). American Foundation for the Blind (1961) has given two sets of definition of visually handicapped. The first one is based
on the concept of measurably diminished vision and the second one is based on educational needs, which draw distinction between children with visual handicap into categories of a blind and partially sighted. Apparently these two definitions are interconnected. For educators the second definition which focusing on educational needs is preferred because it explains the characteristics that are useful in determining suitable programming (Whitmer & Maker, 1985).

The Census of India (2001) defines visually disable as “a person who cannot see at all or has blurred vision even with the help of spectacles. A person with proper vision in one eye will also be treated as visually disabled. A person may have blurred vision and had no occasion to test whether his or her eye sight would improve by using spectacles would be treated as visually disabled”.

On the other hand, National Sample Survey Organization (2002) defines visually disabled person as the “loss or lack of ability to execute tasks requiring adequate visual acuity. Visual disabled include (a) those who did not have any light perception-both eyes taken together and (b) those who had light perception but could not correctly count the fingers of hand (with spectacles/contact lenses if he/she used spectacles/contact lenses) from a distance of 3 meters in good day light with both eyes open. Night blindness was not considered as visual disability”.

Visual handicap includes-

- Partially sighted
- Low vision
• Legally blind
• Totally blind

**Partially Sighted**

One, who after the best possible adjustments and ocular corrections uses remaining vision for learning is called partially sighted. Partially sighted person has visual acuity of 20/70 or less after best possible correction. It means that a person with normal 20/20 vision will correctly identify an object from 200 feet, while partially sighted person will need to be as close as 70 feet to identify the same object. In educational context, the term partially sightedness is generally used to explain a visual impairment that requires special educational services. The partially sighted students face the challenge of disability in much the similar as a totally blind student. Accommodations for partially sighted students include the use of readers, audio tapes, and raised line drawings. They may be able to use large print books and a closed circuit TV or other magnifying device.

**Low Vision**

WHO consultation has suggested “a person with low vision is one who has impairment of visual functioning even after treatment and/or refractive correction, and has a visual acuity of less than 6/18 to light perception, or a visual field of less than 10 from the point of view of fixation, but who uses, or is potentially able to use, vision for the planning and/or execution of task”. The term low vision used to describe several levels of very limited sight, which interfere with a person’s daily routine activities. Low vision applies to all individuals with sight who are unable to read the newspaper at a normal viewing distance, even with the aid of eyeglasses, or contact lenses. However,
a person with low vision may benefit from any of a variety of available optical devices, such as electronic magnifying glasses or eyeglass mounted telescope, special software developed for computer users with low vision, which can display type in large size or read text aloud.

**Legal Blindness**

In order to decide, which people may require special education and assistance because of their visual disabilities, various governmental jurisdictions developed more complex definitions referred to as legal blindness. According to Rehabilitation Services Administration U.S., “legal blindness refers to central visual acuity 20/200 or less in the better eye with best correction or widest diameter of visual field subtending on angle of no greater than 20 degree”. By this definition, we can conclude that a legally blind person would have to stand 20 feet from an object to see it with the same degree of clarity as a normally sighted person could from 200 feet.

**Total Blindness**

Total blindness refers to the complete lack of form and light perception and is clinically recorded as “NLP”, an abbreviation for No Light Perception. Total blindness is the inability to distinguish light from dark. A person suffering from total blindness needs Braille, raised-line drawings, audio recordings, and/or other non-visual media as an accommodation for accessing the content of visually presented materials (National Dissemination Centre for Children with Disability).

**Causes of Visual Impairment**

Blindness can be resulted due to many causes. It may be an outcome of environmental factors that acted before, during or after birth, or it may be a
genetic cause manifested as either a congenital or adventitious. The classification of the causes of visual impairment is given below:

I. Genetic causes of visual impairment
   (i) Multifactorial inheritance
       (a) Buphthalmos
       (b) Colobama & Myopia
   (ii) Autosomal Recessive Inheritance
       (a) Retinal aplasia
       (b) Retinal degeneration with primary muscular involvement
       (c) Albinism
       (d) Others
   (iii) Autosomal Dominant Inheritance
       (a) Retinoblastoma
       (b) Congenital and infantile cataract
       (c) Aniridia
       (d) Others
   (iv) Chromosomes-linked Inheritance
       (a) Pseadoglioma and congenital of infantile cataract
       (b) Others, including choroideraemia

II. Acquired causes of visual impairment
   (i) Parental e.g., cataract due to rubella
   (ii) Postnatal e.g., opticatrophy due to meningitis
   (iii) Perinatal e.g., retrolenal fibrophalasia
Psychological and Behavioural Characteristics of Blind Children

The blind are in minority in the world. They differ in their characteristics, requirements, achievements and behaviours from those of the sighted. All these characteristics assign the sighted a leading position in social situation. The blind deal of speculation exists regarding the characteristics of the blind. Mental potentialities were supposed to be normal in this medical anomaly. Several people believe that blindness is a handicap not only because it decreases mobility, but also it is accompanied by the lack of initiative and spontaneity. Mickell (1953) observed that the blind pre-school child has its own unique pattern of growth. It takes longer for him to progress in walking, talking and also in motor coordination, as the typical eye-hand coordination in his case has been substitute by ear-hand coordination.

The blind children show various problems in case of behaviour, learning, placement and social adjustment. Some children suffer from other sensory difficulties. The objects of learning are also sometimes too large or not easily accessible for them in order to enable them to touch, taste, smell, or listen to them. Like any other physically challenged children, the visually handicapped children also vary with respect to creativity. This may be attributed to several factors.

Since the beginning of civilization, man has experienced the greatest pleasure and bliss by adopting creative values in his life. Creative imagination of man has played an immensely important role in the development of society. It is essential for leading a happy life. In addition, the future of our civilization depends upon the quality of the creative imagination of the next generation. In teaching, all students should be provided with opportunities for
creative expression so that they turned into contended, balanced and happy citizens (Torrance, 1962).

Torrance (1965) further outlines, “Creative thinking is indeed a powerful force. It has given us the alphabet, printing, radio, television, computers, spacecraft, great art, architecture, music and literature. It has given us our great advances in scientific discovery and medicine. It has also given us war plunder, crime and smashed atom”.

Creativity is essentially a human phenomenon. It is a process in man, which helps him to achieve dignity and meaning in life. Bruner (1962) argues that the creative act may bring man to a new dignity. Toynbee (1964) considers creativity as man greatest asset. Creativity is an innate and the most valued human quality that can never be overlooked. It is an intuitive genius present in human as a distinct potential, unique gift, which is spontaneous, but not common amongst all the individuals. Creativity, with its many definitions has been known for a long time to have its influence on human activity in almost all spheres-scientific, technical, literature, and artistic.

Taylor (1964) realized that “creative acts affect enormously not only scientific progress, but society in general. Those nations who learn best in their people may find themselves in very advantageous positions”. It can also be said that it is the creativity that has made life so easy and luxurious .The progress and potential of a country is measured in terms of its great thinkers, artists and scientists etc. So the importance of creativity is something that cannot be ignored.

The concept of creativity has a wide range. The way in which different societies have understood the concept of creativity has changed throughout

The ancient Greeks believed that the muses were the source of all inspiration; in reality has no similar term “to create” or “creator”. The expression “poiein” (to make) sufficed. The sole exception was poetry to the Greek view. The poet was seen as making new things – bringing to life new world-while the artist only imitate. In Rome these Greek views was modified, and Horace wrote that not only poets but also painters were entitled to the freedom of daring whatever they wished. Unlike Greek, Latin had a term for “creating” (“creatio”) and for “creator”, and had two expressions for “to make” – “facere” and “creare”.

An essential change comes in the Christian period: “creatio” came to designate God’s act of “creation from nothing”. “Creatio” thus took on a different meaning than “facere” (“to make”), and ceased to apply to human functions. The ancient view that art is not a domain of creativity persisted in this period. Another shift occurred in more modern times. Renaissance men had a sense of their own independence, freedom and creativity, and sought to give voice to this sense of independence and creativity. Baltasar Gracian (1601-1958) wrote, “Art is the completion of nature, as it were a second creator...” By the 18th Century and the Age of Enlightenment, the concept of creativity was appearing more often in art theory, and was linked with the concept of imagination.

In the 19th century only art was regarded as creativity. At the turn of the 20th century, there began to be discussion of creativity in the science and in nature. The formal starting point of the scientific study of creativity is
sometimes considered to be Guilford’s address to the American psychological association in 1950, which helped to popularize the topic. Since then the researchers from a variety of fields have studied the nature of creativity from a scientific point of view.

Creativity is a highly complex cognitive ability that involves the generation of new concept or ideas, or new associations between existing concepts or ideas. Scientifically, the products of creative thought are usually considered to have both originality and appropriateness. In other words, the ability to make something original, to imagine things that do not exist, and to come up with new ideas is called creativity. Creativity can make common things special and special things common! Creativity is essentially a form of problem solving that involves problems for which there are no easy answers: that is problem for which popular or conventional responses do not work.

Apart from above discussed concepts the true nature of creativity has not been fully understood as yet. Its nature is so complex that it still remains shrouded in mystery. On the whole, it has been noted that creativity as a concept is not easy to be defined. Various popular as well as highly technical definitions have been put forward in support of the nature of creativity.

Fromm (1959) stated two broad meanings of creativity. First, it refers to the production of something novel and further it may refer to the attitude which may persist even when nothing new created. Oldham and Cummings (1996) defined creativity as useful novelty—not novelty for its own sake, but novelty that can be applied and add value to organization’s products and services. Weisberg (1986) proposed that creativity is the novel use of tools to solve problems or novel problem solving.
Brunnelle (1970) has viewed creativity as a process through which some novel ideas or an object is produced in a new fashion or arrangement. In the absence of this process there cannot be any product and ultimately no creativity. Kunt (1982) has also regarded creativity as consisting of various processes like framing, probing, exploring, affirming and realizing. Wallas (1926) has also considered creativity as a process leading to some new idea or object.

Goldner (1962) has explained that creativity is an organized comprehensive activity of brain toward an original outcome. So, it is an innovative and not a reproductive activity. Mendick (1964) considered creative thinking in the light of framing new combination of associative elements, which either meet specified requirement or is found to be useful in some way. The more mutual remote elements of the new combination, the more creative is the process. But according to Barron (1961) creativity does not simply mean exploration, invention, or discovery of some new things or relations rather it refers to making new combinations out of existing objects and elements.

Celye (1962) recognized one more dimension of creativity and states that it leads to generation of new interpretations. These interpretations emphasize that creativity involves the combination of old ideas or products into new forms, but the old extends the base for new ideas. Guilford (1968) considered creativity as a scientific kind of thinking and labelled it as divergent thinking. Divergent thinking makes deviation from the common and obvious thought and action. It helps an individual in examining various possible solutions to a problem and not centring around single correct
solution. Divergent thinking enables the individual to be more flexible and fluent, involving richer flow of ideas and resulting in some novel and creative solution. In convergent thinking the person follows the prevailing mode of thought, information and action to arrive at one right answer that could be attain by other individual also.

Getzels and Jackson (1962) have also considered creativity as a specific type of cognitive ability, which has its reflection in the performance of the subjects on verbal test of creativity. Creativity, he claims, depends upon novel and varied responses on the test. Torrance (1965) examined creativity as a process through which a creative individual manifests sensitivity to the problem, deficiencies, missing elements and irregularities. He is very much anxious for the correct solution by way of formulating hypothesis about deficiencies, testing and retesting in the light of various modifications and ultimately achieves solution of the problem.

Sternberg (1999) explained creativity as the ability to produce work that is both novel (i.e. original, unexpected) and appropriate (i.e., useful, adaptive concerning task constraints). In his view creativity is the topic of wide scope that is important at both individual and societal levels for a wide range of task domains. At an individual level creativity is relevant, for example, when one is solving problems on the job and in daily life. At a societal level, creativity can lead to new scientific findings, new movements in art, new inventions, and new social programs. Smith (2005) in his article has mentioned Simon’s view of creativity. Simon says “we judge thought to be creative when it produces something that is both novel and interesting and valuable”.
Cassado and Simonton (2003) explained the nature of creativity and said that the creativity entails three essential and product-focused criteria: novelty, adaptiveness or appropriateness to the problem at hand, and completeness. Pesut (1990) presented a model that conceptualizes creative thinking as a self-regulatory process in which creative technologies are reframed as meta cognitive strategies. The model has heuristic value for those interested in the dynamics of self-regulated creative thought, which is viewed as a function of attention/awareness deployment. Plucker, Beghetto and Dow (2004) said that the construct of creativity has a great deal to offer educational psychology. Creativity appears to be an important component of problem solving and other cognitive abilities, healthy social and emotional wellbeing and scholastic and adult success.

Vygotsky (1990) distinguished between two forms of the inner world or construction of the mind, one is reproductive, which is closely connected with memory, and the second is the combinatory or creative which is related to the ability to deal with change and the creation of new forms or activity. At an early age children’s creative processes are expressed in their play. Psychological analysis reveals that creative combining (a) slowly develops in to more complex forms at each age level of childhood and (b) does not appear but itself in the behaviour of the child but emerges through other forms of activity and through accumulation of experience.

Mumford, Olsen and James (1989) studied the influence of age on creativity and argue that the creation of new understandings is most likely to occur in the earlier phases of people’s careers. Daccy (1989) examined the evidence in support of the theory that there are certain critical periods in life
during which creative ability can be cultivated most effectively. These six periods are 0-5 yrs, 10-14 yrs, 18-20 yrs, 28-30 yrs, 40-45 yrs and 60-65 yrs. El-Murad and West (2004) mentioned that creativity is arguably the most important element in advertising success.

Plucker (2004) focussed on a question that whether creativity is content general or content specific is one of the most controversial issues in contemporary creativity research. Recent studies provide support for both positions, but the results of these investigations may be influenced by several factors, including the presence of a method affect. This study investigates the method effect by analyzing quantity of creative achievement simultaneously using structural equation modelling.

Kurtzberg (2005) explored objectivity measured creative fluency and subjectively perceived creativity in cognitive diverse team. Findings present that creativity as a complex multidimensional construct and cognitive diversity as an important predictor of both team emotions and outcomes. Creativity, achievement and intelligence are sometimes used interchangeably but achievement particularly academic achievement is actually the result of intelligence and creativity.

During the past several decades, continual efforts have been made to develop a feasible system of education. Education is the most important instrument for human resource development. It is the key to national prosperity and welfare. No investment is likely to yield greater returns than the investment in human resources of which the education is the most important part. Modern societies cannot attain their aim of economic growth and higher cultural standards without making the effective use of the talents
of their citizens. This necessitates that education should be provided according to capabilities and potentialities of the learners. Students with a very wide variety of capabilities and potentialities seek admissions to the schools. Our school should, therefore, offer diversity of educational programmes suited to the varying aptitudes, interests and talents of the students'. Through this we can improve academic achievement of students in the class.

Academic achievement has great importance in the present socio-economic and cultural context. Obviously in schools great emphasis is placed on formal education. The effectiveness of any educational system is gauged to the extent of the student achievement whether be it in cognitive, affective or psychomotor domain. Academic means the field of English, Foreign Languages, History, Economics, Mathematics and Science. And the achievement means accomplishing whatever goals one set for him/her self.

The concept of academic achievement refers to the achievement by the individual, of objectives related to various types of knowledge and skills. These objectives are socially established, based on the age, prior learning and capacity of individuals with regard to education, socialization and qualification. Studies conducted on academic achievement notably focus on student progress and individual, institutional and organizational factors of achievement, along with social relationship interactions that determine, facilitate or hinder academic achievement. Academic achievement is related to the acquisition of principles, generalization, capacity to perform efficiently and certain manipulations of objects, symbols and ideas. Two types of measurements are often used as indicators of academic achievement; these are grades and standardized test scores.
According to Good (1973) academic achievement is the “knowledge attained or skills developed in the school subjects, are usually designed by test scores or by marks assigned by teachers or by both”. Academic achievement is the successful accomplishment or performance in particular subjects, areas, or courses, usually by reasons of skills, hard work and interest typically summarized in various types of grades, marks, scores or descriptive commentary (Gene 1983).

Academic achievement can also be called as academic attainment, academic performance, scholastic performance and academic aspiration. Academic achievement can be defined as the combination of knowledge and skills that a child acquires after a course of instructions and it can be measured in term of marks obtained in a given area of knowledge.

According to Remmers and Gage (1955) scholastic achievement is the degree to which the pupil has moved towards the objectives of the school. From this definition it is clear that the academic performance measures the extent to which individuals have acquired certain knowledge, skills, concepts and abilities as a result of instructions and training received at the school or college. Verma and Upadhayay (1981) described academic achievement as the attainment or the accomplishment of a student in some area or particular branch of knowledge, after certain period of training.

Academic achievement means earning a grade point average of 3.0 or more, based on a 4.0 grade point system, or the equivalent, based upon the most recent cumulative grade point average. An assessment of Academic achievement can also be done on the basis of the ability to perform well in academic education. Superior academic achievement normally indicates a
grade point average of 3.5 or higher on the four-point scale or standing in the upper 10% of the class.

Academic performance is defined as the percent of eligible (non-exempt) public school students in grade 3 and 8 scoring at the satisfactory or excellent level on curriculum-based assessments in six content areas: reading, writing, language usage, mathematics, science and social studies. In other words academic performance really means three things: the ability to study and remember facts, being able to study effectively, and see how facts fits together and form larger pattern of knowledge and being able to think for oneself in relation to facts and thirdly being able to communicate knowledge verbally or down on paper.

Students academic achievement can be influenced by his intelligence, interest, aptitude, hard labour, method of learning, socio-economic status, family inference, home environment, parental aspiration and reward, personality characteristics, sex differences, quality of teaching, school environment and peer influence (Peterson, 1984). Since self-esteem of an individual is a sense of his or her worth and value, it may be determined by one’s creativity and achievement.

Over the past few decades, self-esteem has been the theme of numerous conferences and the subject of many books. The topic has huge exposure. Parents and teachers have been endlessly instructed about how important it is to build a child’s self-esteem. Self-esteem is a widely used concept both in popular language and in psychology. It refers to an individual's sense of his or her value or worth, or the extent to which a person values, approves of, appreciates, prizes, or likes him or herself (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991).
The most broad and commonly cited definition of self-esteem in psychology is Rosenberg's (1965) who explained it as a favourable or unfavourable attitude toward the self. Self-esteem is usually dealt with the evaluative component of the self-concept, a broader representation of the self that includes cognitive and behavioural aspects as well as evaluative or affective ones (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991). While the construct is most often used to refer to a global sense of self-worth, narrower concepts such as self-confidence or body-esteem are used to imply a sense of self-esteem in more specific areas. It is also extensively assumed those self-esteem functions as a trait; that is, it is stable across time within individuals. Self-esteem is an extremely popular construct within psychology, and has been related to virtually every other psychological concept or field, including personality (e.g., shyness), behavioural (e.g., task performance), cognitive (e.g., attribution bias), and clinical concepts (e.g., anxiety and depression). While some researchers have been particularly concerned with understanding the nuances of the self-esteem construct, others have focussed on the adaptive and self-protective functions of self-esteem (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991).

Self-esteem is considered as one of the oldest concepts in Psychology. American psychologist and philosopher William James first coined it in 1980. The term self-esteem comes from a Greek word meaning “reverence for self”. Murk (1995) has described six major contributors of the development of the concept of self-esteem.

William James (1890) was an American psychologist and the first contributor of the development of self-esteem. He described self-esteem as an affective phenomenon which lived as a feeling or an emotion. It is a dynamic
process affected by success and failures and thus opens to enhancement. James observed a connection between self-esteem, values, success and competence.

Another contributor to the development of the self-esteem was Robert White (1963). He has given the psychodynamic approach to self-esteem. He perceives self-esteem as a developmental phenomenon. Self-esteem develops gradually being affected by and in turn effecting experience and behaviour. Self-esteem has two sources: an internal source i.e., our own accomplishments and external source i.e., affirmations from others. The concept of competence is central to this approach.

Morris Rosenberg (1965) was another contributor to the development of the concept of self-esteem. Rosenberg has given socio cultural approach to self-esteem. He defined self-esteem as an attitude (either positive or negative) that people have about themselves. He said that self-esteem is a product of the influences of culture, society, family and interpersonal relationships. The amount of self-esteem, an individual has in proportional to the degree to which they positively measure up to a core set of self-values. Rosenberg relates self-esteem to anxiety and depression. Feelings/beliefs of worthiness about oneself are central to this approach.

Stanley Coopersmith (1967) was also a famous contributor to the development of the concept of self-esteem. Coopersmith gives importance to the behavioural perspective of self-esteem. He explains that self-esteem is an attitude and expression of worthiness. Coopersmith includes success as well as self worth as a sign of self-esteem. He sees self-esteem as a construct or acquired trait, that is, an individual learns how worthy they are initially from
parents. This is reinforced others. The children model the respect and worthiness of self that they see in their parents.

Nathaniel Branden (1969) gave a humanistic view of self-esteem. He defined self-esteem as “the experience of being competent to cope with the basic challenges of life and being worthy of happiness”. According to him self-esteem is dynamic in nature. It is related to our ability to live in such a way as to honour our view of ourselves. He gives importance to competence, sense of personal worth, self-confidence and self-respect. He says self-esteem is a basic human need and lack of it has serious negative consequences like suicide, anxiety, substance abuse and depression.

Seymour Epstein (1985) has given a cognitive experiential view to self-esteem. He considered self-esteem as basic need of a person that motivates him consciously and unconsciously. It is a consequence of an individual’s understanding of the world and others and how others related to them.

Self-esteem has recently been defined by Silverstone (1992) as, “the sense of contentment and self acceptance that stems from persons appraisal of their own worth, significance, attractiveness, competence and ability to satisfy their aspirations”.

Bailey (2003) explained that self-esteem is a simplistic term for varied and complex mental stages pertaining to how one views oneself. Pyszczynski and Cox (2004) proposed that self-esteem derived from self-determined standard of value may reduce defensiveness, closed-mindedness, and indifference to others as well as promote personal growth, but they acknowledge the daunting barriers to the attainment of such self-determination is based on self-worth.
Brace, Gary and Emma (2004) defined self-esteem is a function of multiple indexes of how a person stands in relation to those around him or her. Self-esteem can also be defined as the collection of beliefs or feelings that we have about ourselves, or our “self perceptions”. How do we judge ourselves influences our behaviours, motivations, and attitudes and affect our emotional adjustment.

Self-esteem reflects the intrinsic beliefs in the self, i.e. the overall opinion and value of a person-how a person honestly feels about and values himself/herself. Possessing a healthy aptitude for good self-esteem involves self-respect, self-acceptance and an appreciation of self-worth that embraces both strengths and limitations. People with good self-esteem feel good about themselves and see their selves as worthwhile. People with chronic self-esteem give little value on their opinions and ideas and constantly think that they are not good enough.

Robins and Trzesniewiski (2005) explain the way self-esteem develops across the life span. On an average, self-esteem is relatively high in childhood, drops during adolescence (particularly for girls), and then declines sharply in old age.

Self-esteem begins to develop in childhood, but it solidifies and gains momentum during the trying years of adolescence. The teenage years tend to be a crucial “make it or break it” period when it comes to self-esteem because at this very moment the youngsters are searching for an identity. If this process goes awry, the teen is likely to have negative feelings about the self, leading to low self-esteem. Self-esteem fluctuates with child growth. It is frequently changed and fine-tuned, because it is affected by child’s
experiences and new perceptions. As child grows, he confronted with many situations that affect his level of self-esteem. By these situations either he develop high self-esteem or low self-esteem.

High self-esteem means that individuals appreciate their inherent worth and themselves. It means persons with a positive attitude, evaluate themselves highly, they are convinced of their abilities and they see themselves powerful and competent-in control of their own lives and able to do what they want (Smelser & Vasconcellos, 1989). Children with high self-esteem enjoy interacting with others. They are comfortable in social setting and get pleasure from group activities. They are able to work towards finding solutions when challenges arise. Children with high self-esteem know their weaknesses, and accept them. High self-esteem raises a sense of optimism that is very important aspect of life. When someone has high level of self-esteem he/she must be confident, happy and sure of oneself. He/she will be highly motivated and has the attitude to succeed. Self-esteem is therefore very crucial to one and is a cornerstone of a positive attitude towards living.

Positive self-esteem is important because when people experience it, they feel good and look good, they are effective and productive, and they respond to other people and themselves in healthy, positive and growing ways. People who have positive self-esteem know that they are lovable and capable, and they care about themselves and other people. They do not have to build themselves up by tearing other people down or by patronising less competent people. The people with solid self-esteem are better equipped to cope with troubles that arise in their careers or in their personal life. The quicker they pick themselves up after a fall; the more energy they have to
begin anew. The higher the self-esteem, the more ambitious the people tend to be, not necessarily in a career or financial sense, but in terms of what they hope to experience in life—emotionally, romantically, intellectually, creatively, and spiritually. The lower their self-esteem, the less they aspire to, and the less they are likely to achieve.

Since the beginning of civilization, the low self-esteem syndrome has been unintentionally passed from parent to child, teacher to child, and generation to generation. In recent times low self-esteem has been one of the most popular and frequently invoked psychological explanations for behavioural and social problems. The vast majority of society suffers from the emotionally crippling disease known as low self-esteem. Low self-esteem is a lack of self-regard and admiration. Many persons who have low self-esteem avoid seeking new jobs, initiating relationships, or learning new skills for fear of negative response or failure. Several other persons avoid social settings and refrain from sharing their views for the same reasons. Some isolate, become people pleasers, and remain passive. Others get aggressive and cause chaos in their relationships. The people with low self-esteem disrupt their lives to some degree.

A child who has low self-esteem may not want to try new things. He/she may frequently speak negative about his or her self. They may exhibit a low tolerance for frustration, giving up easily or waiting for somebody else to take over. Children with low self-esteem tend to be overly critical of and easily disappointed. Kids with low self-esteem see temporary setbacks as permanent intolerable conditions. This propels a sense of pessimism which predominates among those people who have low self-esteem. Common
elements of low self-esteem include: negative thoughts and beliefs about self, devaluing of self-worth, poor opinion of self, self doubt and condemnation, self criticism, propensity for depressive thinking and hopelessness and distorted world view. Low self-esteem usually develops from early life messages about being unacceptable in some way. This unacceptable attitude of the surroundings becomes strengthen over time which develops a sense of low self-worth.

There are some negative consequences of low self-esteem to ones lifestyle like,

- Insecurity about who they are and lack of belief in themselves.
- Inability to open oneself to others and inability to trust others.
- Inability to make decisions because of confusion and fear of making mistakes or to disappoint others and
- Inability toward oneself for one's own goodness and accomplishment.

Everyone's self-esteem is influenced by many factors (Osborn, 1997). Factors that constantly shape and influence our self-esteem include our own thoughts and perception, other people, school experiences, sports experiences, work experiences, illness, disability or injury, culture, religion and role and status in society. Self-esteem is the product of two internal assessments or judgements, the global judgement and one's self worth. The key to self-esteem is that the amount of discrepancy between what a person desires and what that person believes, he/she has achieved and the overall sense of support that person feels from people around him/her (Rosenberg, 1965).
Hence self-esteem is very important for the individual’s growth and development. Importance of self-esteem can be considered from several perspectives. First, it is important to normal psychological development. To adequately cope with the challenges of growth and development, persons need to believe that they have the capacity to achieve what they need and want and they deserve of happiness and joy in life. Lacking a belief in either of the above, they may be productive in an external sense, but are probably less effective and creative. On the other hand if they possess high self-esteem they may be more creative and effective. The effects of self-esteem may also be seen in career planning and decision-making.

Registering for advanced placement classes or applying to a highly competitive college may also challenge the self-esteem of an individual. Many people can attest the experienced times when they were on top, when they were at their “peak performance”. These “peaks” in their performance curve show that when people believe in them and believe that they can achieve almost anything, they are expressing a self-esteem, which motivates, excites and empowers them. Like self-esteem the emotional stability and the personality pattern of an individual may be affected by his level of creativity and academic achievement.

Emotions are as important in the life of an individual as life itself. Life would be colourless without emotions. The term emotions refer to feelings, distinctive thoughts, psychological and biological states and range of propensities to act (Goleman, 1995). Emotion is one of the dimensions of personal experience. There are eight innate, primary emotions. They are joy, anticipation, anger, disgust, sadness, surprise, fear and acceptance. A person
can be called emotionally stable if he/she is able to display his/her emotions in appropriate degree with reasonable control.

Emotional stability is one of the effective determinants of the personality patterns. It is helpful to control the growth of adolescent development. Stable emotional behaviour at any level reflects the fruits of the normal emotional development. An individual who is able to maintain his/her emotions stable and under control even in extreme circumstances, might still be emotionally stunned or be childish in his/her behaviour sometimes.

An emotionally stable individual has the capacity to withstand delay in satisfaction of needs, capability to tolerate a reasonable amount of frustration, belief in long term planning and is able of delaying or revising his/her expectations in terms of demands of the situations. A child who is emotionally stable has a capacity to make effective adjustments with himself/herself, members of the family, relatives and his peers in the school, society and culture. However, stability does not mean merely the capacity for such attitudes and functions, but also the ability to enjoy them fully. A number of characteristics like the capability of responding in gradation, ability to delay responses, especially negative emotions, freedom from unreasonable fears and the ability to commit mistakes without feeling disgraced etc. are found in an emotionally stable individual.

Emotional stability is considered as one of the important aspect of human life. Pupil must be able to control his or her emotions adequately and also express them appropriately. It is the ability to be stable emotionally. Emotional stability is the calm and peace in mind. In the state where a person facing a difficult situation and conflict, but remain rational or able to control
ones anger or emotion it means that person is emotionally stable. Emotional stability means one handle ones emotions well. If a person is doing a paper on a topic he/she should focus on how to handle stress, anger, happiness, or any other feelings that human have.

Pupil must be able to control his or her emotions adequately and also express them appropriately. According to Smitson (1974) emotional stability is the process in which the personality is continuously striving for greater sense of emotional health, both intra-physically and intra-personally. Scott (1968) opined that emotional stability is one of the seven important indicators of superior mental health. It also affects the learning of the pupils. Emotional control may impair performances in situations which require flexibility and adaptability on the part of the person or pupil. If the pupils have no or very little emotional control, it may lead to anxiety, feelings of inferiority and guilt (Frandsen, 1961). It has also been found that if the pupils want to be mentally healthy; these unhealthy feelings must be replaced by the feelings of self-respect, security and confidence which can be achieved only after a good sense of emotional stability emerges.

Emotional stability is a broad dimension of normal personality characterized by confidence and poise, at the high end and by a tendency to experience chronic negative emotions, at the low end. The construct is one of the most widely used and important magnitudes of adult personality and plays a central role in approximately every scheme of personality and in most explanations of both normal and abnormal behaviour. Factor-pure adjective for the negative pole of emotional stability are pinky, emotional, oversensitive, jumpy, and sentimental. The factor-pure adjectives for the
corresponding positive pole of emotional stability are sober, imperturbable, unshakeable, cool and resilient.

Emotional stability involves a person's ability to remain stable and balanced. A person who has high emotional stability is even tempered, calm secure and somewhat resistant to stress. A person who has low emotional stability tends to be moody, anxious, depressed, insecure and very susceptible to stress. In most professions, a person who has high emotional stability is referred. Employees with low emotional stability are more likely to be distracted from work by stress, deadlines, or situations in their personal lives, whereas those with high levels of this trait are more able to control their emotions and feelings at work.

The big five personality traits classify person's personality in to the categories of neuroticism, extroversion, agreeableness, consciousness and openness to experience. In these big five personality traits neuroticism is one of the most important traits. Neuroticism is the tendency to easily experience negative feelings and unpleasant emotions such as anger anxiety depression or vulnerability. There is an inverse relationship between neuroticism and emotional stability. Individuals who are high on neuroticism are more likely to experience negative feelings such as anxiety, anger, or depression and they are also emotionally reactive. People who are emotionally stable are less likely to experience negative feelings. They face difficult situations very easily. They do not react poorly to environmental stress and they are more likely to interpret threatening situations normally.

Research Objectives:

1. To find out whether creative experience and academic achievement predict self-esteem of visually handicapped students.
2. To find out whether creative experience and academic achievement predict emotional stability of visually handicapped students.

3. To find out whether creative experience and academic achievement predict self-esteem of sighted students.

4. To find out whether creative experience and academic achievement predict emotional stability of sighted students.

5. To find out whether visually handicapped students differ from sighted students with respect to creative experience, academic achievement, self-esteem and emotional stability.

6. To find out visually handicapped boys differ from visually handicapped girls with respect to creative experience, academic achievement, self-esteem and emotional stability.

7. To find out whether sighted boys and sighted girls differ with respect to creative experience, academic achievement, self-esteem and emotional stability.

8. To find out the relationship of creative experience, academic achievement, self-esteem and emotional stability of visually handicapped students.

9. To find out the relationship of creative experience, academic achievement, self-esteem and emotional stability of sighted students.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW

OF

LITERATURE
Since the review of the related literature is a very important requirement for the actual planning and execution of any research work, thus every well planned research is preceded by a review of related literature. It not only allows the researcher to acquaint with current knowledge in the field or area in which she is going to conduct her study but explains the procedure for organizing the related literature in a very systematic manner. It determines the limits of one's field, and helps in suggesting the areas and scope for further researches. This way the investigator is easily enabled to select the variables relevant for her research work. In order to avoid international duplication of well established findings, review of related literature familiarizes the researcher with what is already known, what others have attempted to find out and the knowledge about the recommendations of study, and previous researches finally equips the researcher for the selection of the variables related to the study. Thus, in this way it provides proper guidelines for carrying out the investigation successfully by making the steps familiar to the researcher. Keeping in view the great importance of the previous researches the investigator has attempted to review the related research works conducted to study one of the most neglected segment of society i.e. visually handicapped students.

CREATIVE EXPERIENCE

A perusal of readily available literature on creativity the researcher reviewed that in certain studies visually handicapped were more creative than the sighted students. In a large number of studies the sighted students were more creative in comparison to visually handicapped students. Whereas, a few studies concluded that there is no significant difference between the
handicapped and sighted students on creativity. The reviewed literature shows that creativity influences self-esteem. The studies concluded creativity develops self-esteem. A number of studies assessed the effect of sex on creativity. Amongst them some studies found that gender did not significantly influence creative thinking. While other studies show that boys are much more creative than girls. A few studies found opposite result.

Halpin, Halpin, and Torrance (1973) Compared scores of verbal fluency, verbal flexibility, and verbal originality on the Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking for 81 blind and 81 sighted 6-12 yr olds. Blind subjects were more verbally fluent, flexible, and original. Scores did not vary significantly by age, sex, or race. Brambring (2007) compared the average ages at which four children with congenital blindness acquired 29 verbal skills with given age norms for sighted children. The results indicated only small developmental delays in the acquisition of verbal skills in the four children, but a high degree of variability in developmental delays within and across nine categories of verbal skills. Brambring (2007) compared the average ages at which four children with congenital blindness acquired 32 fine motor skills with age norms for sighted children. The results indicated that the children experienced extreme developmental delays in the acquisition of manual skills and a high degree of variability in developmental delays within and across six categories of fine-motor skills.

Kamila (1986) compared the creative thinking of blind and normal children. The finding of the study revealed that the normal children tend to score significantly higher than the blind children on all the three creative abilities viz. fluency, flexibility and originality and creativity has positive
correlation with scholastic achievement. Siddique (1989) conducted a study on creative potential of blind children in relation to their socio-economic status. He found that: (i) Higher socio-economic status group was higher in creative potential; (ii) Children coming from urban area have more creative potential in comparison to children coming from rural area; (iii) Blind boys were found much more creative than the blind girls; (iv) Highly creative blind children belong to educated families while low creative children come from uneducated families. Arora (2000) made a study of creative potential of congenitally impaired children. For this purpose a sample of 50 congenitally blind were selected. Findings revealed that congenitally blind children were poor on creative potential. Boys of congenitally blind group are more superior on creative potential and its component like fluency, flexibility and originality.

Wyver and Markham (1999) compared the scores of 19 children with severe congenital visual impairment (aged 4-12 yrs) and 82 children of same age and gender with full vision on the alternate uses test for measurement of divergent thinking. Results showed that there were no significant differences in comparison of the mean scores of children with severe visual impairment and students with full vision. Madsen, Clifford and Darrow (1989) compared scores of 32 sight-impaired students on the musical aptitude profile with their performance on a test devised by Walker (1981) to pair visual imagery with musical stimuli. Results indicated that subjects mean scores on the musical aptitude profile was almost identical to the composite mean for similar age matched sighted students. Walker test yield a lower mean. Lister, Leach, and Walsh (1989) examined the extent to which the development of conversation concepts in 24 visually handicapped children is similar to that in 50 sighted
children. Results showed strong support for similarity in order of acquisition of conversation concepts by visually handicapped subjects and sighted children. Visually handicapped subjects were similar to sighted children in their range of explanations for their conversation judgments.

Asha (1997) compared the level of creativity of hearing impaired and normal children. Results showed that normal children were more creative than the hearing impaired children. Though the groups did not differ in ideation fluency, significant differences were observed in the flexibility and originality aspects of creativity. Niaz, Saud and Ruiz (2000) explored how creativity and cognitive variables like mental capacity, cognitive style and mobility-fixity dimension can explain academic performance among 141 11th grade Venezuelan high school students. Results showed that the mobility-fixity dimension was the most consistent predictor of academic achievement. The mobility-fixity dimension and creativity, although related, perhaps represent different aspects of academic performance. Khare and Grewal (1997) investigated the relationship between three cognitive abilities: creativity (CR), academic achievement (AA) and Speed of Information Processing Ability (SIPA). Results indicated that the relationship between SIPA and CR among urban and rural primary school boys was negative but significant. Coefficient of correlation between SIPA and AA score of rural primary school children were found to be significant but those between CR and AA scores of urban and rural primary school children were found to be largely insignificant.

Reynolds (1992) examined the impact of art education on creative thinking, academic achievement, self-esteem, locus of control, and appreciation for the arts. A sample of 615 participants divided into three
groups, experimental, modified control, and the control group. A pre-posttest design was used to measure outcomes. Results indicated that participants involved in the arts education program scored significantly better than their control group peers in the areas of creativity, social and parental self-esteem and appreciation for the arts. Auh (1997) conducted a study and found that the best predictor of compositional creativity were informal musical experiences, musical achievement, and academic grades. The findings also suggested that compositional creativity was significantly related to informal musical experiences, musical aptitude, musical achievement, and academic grades.

Silvia and Phillips (2004) examined when self-evaluation influences creativity. They predicted that feeling able to improve would buffer against the detrimental effects of self-evaluation on creativity. Two experiments manipulated self-evaluation and perceived ability to improve potential failure on the creativity task. Self-evaluation reduced creativity in both experiments, but only when people did not affect creativity. Connections between self-motives, creativity and defensiveness are discussed.

Kalliopuska (1989) studied the impact of ballet on the personality of 62 Finnish ballet students ranging in age from nine to seventeen. He concluded that ballet can help develop self-expression, improves self-esteem and self respect, creates self-confidence and develops sensitivity and empathy. Cole, Sugioka and Yamagata (1999) investigated a supportive classroom environment for developing student creativity. Observations and interview data collected focused on assessment, classroom activities and the teacher's effort in creating this supportive environment. Teacher student relationships and encouraging multiple perspectives was significant to this creative milieu. Fasco (2001) examined the relationship of US public school
education and student creativity. He included some important areas such as the relation of cognitive and learning styles of creativity, the transferral of creative thinking skills across domains, the use of authentic tasks, the role of motivation in creative thinking, teacher attitudes, and the relation of meta cognition and creativity. Findings suggested the need to increase the teaching of creativity.

Jurcova and Stubuova (1999) compared the relationship between social skills and personality characteristics in 227 Slovak high school students of high or low originality. They found that personality independence, approachability, dominance, and self-confidence as well as higher creative cognitive abilities all take part in social skills in highly original students. In subjects with low originality, self-control, vigilance, and rule-consciousness play a greater role. Gluck, Ernst and Unger (2002) investigated whether artists who face strong external constraints in their creative work differ in their conceptions of creativity from the artists who are free in their choice of topics and materials, time schedule and so on. They take 64 artists from different domain and 47 psychology students as a control group. They found differences for example regarding the importance of function for a creative product or regarding the importance of the ability to solve problems for a creative person. Also psychology students tended to emphasize positive feelings evoked by creative activities whereas both groups of artists often referred creativity as hard work.

Oka (2003) aimed to clarify through an analysis of Campbell’s music education program what factors were necessary for the development of education programs for persons with visual disabilities in the United States,
especially in relation to the development of vocational education in the 19\textsuperscript{th} century. He suggested that an excellent teacher, good quality teaching materials and tools, appropriate educational content, help with finding employment for pupils and systemization and succession of teaching methods were indispensable for the improvement of education, especially vocational education.

Kelgeri, Khadi, and Phadnis (1989) assessed the effect of sex and locality on the creativity of 59 boys and 41 girls from an urban area and 58 boys and 42 girls from a rural area. They found that creative performance of urban subjects was significantly better than that of rural subjects. There was no association between sex and creativity in subjects. Campos, Lopez, Gonzalez and Parez-Fabello (2000) investigated relationship between imagining capacity and various aspects of creativity in a sample of 728 students of both sexes. Findings suggested that imagining capacity and sex both influence aspects of creativity.

Lee (2002) examined the effect of gender and the psychosocial environment on the development of creative thinking in real-life situations and the effects of formal education. Results showed that gender did not significantly influence creative thinking abilities in real-life situations. Education exerted no significant effects on creative thinking. It is concluded that males and females perform differently in the core issues around which they build creativity in real-life. Saeki, Fan and Van (2001) assessed cross-cultural differences in creative thinking of 51 American and 54 Japanese college students. They found that American college students showed statistically significantly higher scores on the Torrance Test of Creative
Thinking than the Japanese college students. No gender differences were found in either culture. Performance on the TTCT did not correlate with the performance on broad academic aptitude/achievement measure for either culture.

Pufal (1998) investigated the relationship among self-acceptance, locus of behavior control, and level of adolescents' creative thinking abilities. From a sample of 250 pupils, 30 creative and 30 control non-creative pupils were selected. The young people with high level of creative thinking abilities were found to have significant higher levels of internal control and self-acceptance when compared with the less creative control group. Girls showed a higher level of internal locus of control than boys. Bansan and Agarwal (1997) examined the differences in creative thinking ability among young children. Mehdi's Non-Verbal Test for Creative Thinking was administered to 24 rural and urban students of classes' IV and V prior to and subsequent to exposure to computers for a period of 2 months. The treatment group was trained and was given coaching; the control group received no training. Findings revealed marked improvement in creative ability of the treatment group as compared to the control group. No significant difference was noted between rural and urban children.

Yong (1994) examined the relationship between creativity and intelligence for 397 Malaysian secondary school pupils. It was found that students who are intelligent have higher verbal fluency or capacities than do students who are less intelligent and this superiority in verbal skills could explain their verbal creativeness. Preckel, Holling and Wiese (2006) investigated threshold theory, which predicts that there is a weaker
relationship between creativity and intelligence for an IQ above 120 than for an IQ below 120. The results indicated that for ages 12-16 years correlations between creativity and intelligence are of comparable size throughout the ability range. Baldwin (2001) discussed the relationship between creativity and intelligence and the basic construct and recognition of creativity in African American students. He stated the culture of an individual can influence approaches to stimuli; for African American students, expression of creativity can be similar to those shown by children of other ethnic groups, but the interpretation of these behaviors will vary according to the ingrained opinion of what behaviors can be considered creative positives instead of deficits.

Saweyer (2006) focused on three defining characteristics of group creativity (1) improvisation (2) collaboration (3) emergence. To demonstrate these three characteristics, the author presents several examples of group creativity in both music and theater. Then author explores how both structure and improvisation are always present in-group creativity. The author concluded by suggesting some implications for musical education and for education in general. Claxton, Pannells and Rhoads (2005) explored the developmental trends in creativity from the proposed 4th-grade slump through beginning adolescence in the 9th grade. A measure of divergent thinking and divergent feeling was used to assess both the cognitive and affective process related to creative production. The study found indications of significant differences in creativity related to divergent feeling and grade.

college students performed a role-playing task in laboratory setting and completed personality questionnaire. Results showed that individuals exhibited the highest creative performance when they expected a self-administered assessment and had creative personality. Kaufman and Baer (2004) asked 241 students to give self-ratings of their creativity in domains. They also examined how such self-assessments in diverse domains relate to other measure of cognitive ability and to creativity as measured with a personality scale. In general, if students viewed themselves as generally creative, they also viewed themselves as creative in different areas. The only area that was not correlated with general creativity rating was mathematics.

Wolfradt and Pretz (2001) investigated the relationship between creativity and personality among 204 subjects. The results of this investigation show a close association between creativity and specific personality traits.

Hussain and Sajid (1990) investigated the relationship between creativity, socio-economic status, family structure, parents' interest in creative activities and traditional nontraditional living conditions among 8th and 10th grade 400 males. They concluded that socio-economic status was positively related to creativity. Parents' interest in creative activities and traditional living conditions were significantly associated with verbal creativity. The joint family structure was positively associated with verbal and non-verbal creativity. Kumar and Sharma (1993) studied the differential relationship between creativity and familial background factors among normal, physically handicapped and problem children. They concluded that reward and presence of father and biological mother were powerful determinants of creativity for all normal, physically handicapped and problem children. A healthy familial
environment was a significant factor for normal and handicapped subjects, but not for problem children.

Shaw and Conway (1990) examined differences in how 12 high and 12 low-creative subjects used conscious and unconscious clues to solve anagrams. Results indicated that high creative subject had significantly faster threshold times and used more unconscious clues and unconsciously primed solutions. Individual differences related to creativity may influence the processing of consciously presented information. Loska, Loksova and Korcova (2000) examined the effects of evaluation expectation and working conditions on creative work characteristics of 80 university students who created collages in the presence of others or alone while expecting or not expecting evaluation. Results showed that expectation of an evaluation influenced all 5 creativity variables. No significant differences were found concerning those working alone vs. those working in the presence of others. The expectation of no evaluation exerted more influence when subjects were not in the presence of others.

Read (2005) explored creativity and motivation in the second half of life. While many quantitative studies on creativity show decline with advancing age, there is some evidence that creativity may change qualitatively over time. The purpose of the study is to explain self perceived changes in creativity over the life span. Findings indicated that participants do not perceive a decline in creativity with age. In-depth analysis of the interviews concluded qualitative coding to establish a number of themes that permeated the self-perceptions regarding changes in creativity over time.
Matuga (2004) addressed some primary questions in this study concern the role of self-regulation while children were engaged in drawing picture of real and make-believe objects. The study questions were addressed by examining the private speech and drawings of real and make-believe objects made by 108 children. Findings indicate differences in the use of private speech for self-regulation purposes by participants based on the type of drawing task real or make-believe, grade, and creative ability level of participants. This study also found a moderate positive correlation between the drawing and creative ability of participants.

Kaufman and Baer (2004) asked 241 students to give self-ratings of their creativity in domains. They also examined how such self-assessments in diverse domains relate to other measure of cognitive ability and to creativity as measured with a personality scale. In general, if students viewed themselves as generally creative, they also viewed themselves as creative in different areas. The only area that was not correlated with general creativity rating was mathematics.

Baer, Oldham, Hollings-Head and Jacobsohn (2005) examined the possibility that sibling demographic difference and sib size moderate the relation between an individual’s birth order and his or her creativity. Results showed that first born with large sibling group were more creative when they had relatively more siblings close in age or of the opposite sex.

ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Existing literature compare the academic achievement of visually handicapped and sighted students. Several studies found that visually handicapped students were academically better than sighted students. Visual status has no main effect on academic achievement. Some studies revealed the
result that sighted students do academically better than visually handicapped students. A number of studies indicated significant relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement. A few studies depicted that there is no significant correlation between self esteem and academic achievement.

Pereira (1990) addressed the main problems of blind and visually impaired (BVI) children’s education in relation to their motor development problems and the ways that they can be solved. Subjects included 67 blind and visually impaired children and 150 sighted children. The difference between the blind and visually impaired and sighted children was basically founded in balance performance. Gompel, Van Ban and Schreuder (2003) investigated whether the difficulties with reading of children with low vision are a matter of reduced visual input or also a consequence of a lack of orthographic knowledge because of less reading experience. The results indicated that reduced visual input is the only causes of these children’s lower reading performance.

Wyver, Markham and Hlavacek (2000) examined differences in the performance of 15 children with congenital visual impairments and 15 sighted children on 2 tasks involving inference and 1 task involving free association. Results indicated some differences between the 2 groups when the information was visual, but not when it was non-visual. The results of a word association task found that visual impairment affected some aspects of responses to both visual and non-visual items, but had little effect on other aspects. Differences in semantic and lexical functioning seem to be related to the way the 2 groups acquire information. Fellenius (1999) compared the reading performance of 82 visually impaired readers in Sweden to 6,305
Swedish sighted students. Results revealed that the 2 groups of students were in a more equivalent environment in school than at home. The greatest differences between the 2 groups were found in their statements about their interactions with family member at home, particularly for readers with specific reading media, such as Braille and closed circuit television.

Grenier and Giroux (1997) compared the spelling of 7 students with functional blindness who read Braille with that of 180 sighted students reading conventional print. Students were in grades 9-11 and attending regular high schools in Quebec. The students with blindness were significantly ahead of their sighted peers in usage and grammatical spelling. Klinkosz, Sekowsk and Brambring (2006) compared academic achievement of sighted and visually handicapped students. They found no main effect of visual status on academic achievement. But there were some significant differences between the personality traits of the visually impaired and sighted groups.

Evans and Douglas (2008) compared the experiences of 10 participants who were blind and 10 participants who were sighted in working through an online learning task and explores the application of cognitive load theory. It considered the quality of the learning experience and the implications for practitioners.

Odetokun (1999) compared the academic achievement of the blind and low vision pupils. He tried to find out which of the group of subjects performed better in English language and arithmetic. The factors responsible for the difference in their academic achievement were identified. Findings revealed that the low vision subjects had higher academic achievement than
the blind subjects. Okoro (1993) compared the academic achievement of sighted and visually impaired pupils, when exposed to two different teaching methods in science. A sample of 60 pupils was drawn from two co-educational schools; one school was for visually impaired children while the other was for sighted pupils. The 20 subjects were used as the first experimental group, another 20 as the second experimental group and the remaining 20 as the control group. A pre-test post-test control group design was used. A pre-test was administered to all of the subjects. The experimental groups received the treatment, one being exposed to practical method and the other to alternative to practical method of teaching science. The control group received no treatment at all then a posttest was administered to all of the subjects. It was found out that treated groups performed better than the control group; pupils exposed to practical method of teaching performed better than those exposed to alternative to practical approach; visually impaired pupil performed better than the sighted pupils using the two methods.

Oakland et al (2000) conducted study on preferences in learning styles for 21 students with visual impairments (aged 10-17) and their sighted peers. He found that students with or without visual impairment did not differ in their frequency for preferences for either extraverted or introverted styles. However, students with visual impairment more frequently preferred practical, thinking or organized style in contrast with their sighted peers. Also in contrast with their sighted peers, boys with visual impairments tended to prefer extraverted styles and girls with visual impairments tended to prefer introverted styles. 10-15 year old students with visual impairment generally displayed a preference for thinking styles, while those older than 15 preferred
feeling styles, whereas those older than 15 generally preferred more flexible style.

Beaty (1994) conducted a study on assessment of psychological and academic adjustment of 30 undergraduates with visual impairments and 43 nondisabled undergraduates. Result revealed no intergroup differences on psychosocial adjustment. The mean grade point average of subjects with visual impairments was higher than that of nondisabled subjects. Blind/low vision students scored higher than sighted students on self-esteem. Mioduser, Lahav, and Nachmias (2000) investigated the use of diagnostic and remedial adaptive computer tool to help students with low vision decrease their spelling mistakes. The results indicated a clear change in the performance of an 8th grade student, from phonetic writing to process writing; or gradual evaluation to automation in spelling and model word retrieved and the central role of the computer tools in improving the students performance.

Freeman and Alkin (2000) to shed light on the efficacy of integration, 30 studies were reviewed on the academic and social attainments of school-age children with mental retardation. When comparing children with mental retardation in general education and special education classroom, integrated students perform better than their comparable segregated students on measures of academic achievement and social competence.

Lan (2005) has three purposes in his dissertation: (1) to examine a model of causal relationship among socio-economic status, parenting, adolescents academic achievement and adolescents self-esteem (2) to examine whether or not the proposed model is structurally invariant across gender and grade (3) to determine whether family income, parental and maternal
education and occupational prestige contribute to nurturant and punitive parenting, adolescents' academic achievement and self-esteem. Structural equation results showed that socioeconomic status has a significant and positive effect on nurturant parenting and adolescents' academic achievement, which, in turn affect adolescents' self-esteem. MANOVA results showed a gender effect for academic achievement and a grade effect for parenting. Multiple regression results found a significant effect of parental education on adolescents' academic achievement.

Feather (1998) studied attitudes toward high achievers, self-esteem, and value priorities among Australian, American and Canadian students. Results showed that American students gave more emphasis to achievement, competence, and conformity values and were more in favor of rewarding high achievers; Australian students gave less emphasis to conformity values, rated prosocial values as higher in importance, and reported equalitarianism; Canadian students gave less emphasis to affiliative contentment values. Trautwein, Ludtke, Koller and Baumet (2006) examined the directionality of effects between global self-esteem, domain specific academic self-concepts, and academic achievement. Special emphasis is placed on learning environments as potential moderators of the direction of these effects. Reciprocal effects were found between self-esteem, academic self-concept and academic achievement.

Aremu (2004) investigated the psychological and sociological determinants of academic achievement of school-going adolescents. Results showed that the six psychological and sociological factors like-motivation, anxiety, and locus of control, self-esteem, parent's education, parental
discipline, culture, and governance would jointly determine academic achievement of adolescents, specifically; motivation, anxiety, parental discipline and governance were found to be significant in determining academic achievement among adolescents. Perry, Gwendolyn and Takyi (2002) investigated the effects of team sport participation self-confidence, self-efficacy and educational attainment of adolescent females. Result showed that good performance in sports enable subjects to have some control over their behavior and their future. They also displayed more self-confidence, improved grades and an increased desire to attain college.

Jonson-Reid et al (2005) examined that the promotion of self-esteem remains a major focus of school-based intervention programs designed to improve children's academic performance. Findings suggested that strategies that build a student's belief in the importance of education might do more to increase academic self-efficacy among African American youths than would a focus on self-esteem. Legum and Hoare (2004) assessed the effects of a 9-week career intervention program on at risk middle school students career maturity levels, self-esteem and academic achievement. Results revealed that the sample's career maturity attitude and competency levels and academic achievement improved but such increases were not statistically significant.

El-Anzi (2005) examined the relationship of academic achievement with anxiety, self-esteem, optimism and pessimism. The important findings of the investigation were the significant positive correlation between academic achievement and both optimism and self-esteem- where as the correlation were negative between academic achievement and both anxiety and pessimism. Maikhuri (1997) examined the relationship between self-concept
and academic achievement in a sample of 200 college students of both sexes between 16-18 years of age. Results revealed no significant correlation between academic achievement and self-concept. However significant differences were observed in the academic achievement of the high and low self-concept groups.

Kobal and Musek (2001) tested hypothesis that academic achievement affects different components of self-concept in 230, 16-17 yr olds. They also investigated the possible influence of nationality in modifying the relationship between academic achievement and self-concept. The results of two factors (academic x nationality) analysis of variance and discriminant analysis showed significant correlation between academic achievement and various indices of self-concept, which varied in a nationality dependent fashion. Skaalvik and Hagtvet (1990) examined causal relationship among academic achievement and self-concept of ability and general self-esteem for two cohorts of Norwegian school children. The result supported different causal relationship in the two cohorts, suggesting a recursive model at grade 3 and 4 and a reciprocal model at grade 6 and 7.

Strassburger et al (1990) explored differences in academic achievement between 67 Hispanic and 304 Anglo 7th-9th grade students along the dimensions of academic self-esteem, locus of control, and socio-economic status. Academic locus of control differentially affected Hispanic and Anglo subjects, but this interaction accounted for minimal variance in grade point average. Socio-economic status also contributed to Grade Point Average differences, but the size of effect was small. In addition, self-esteem accounted for the largest amount of Grade Point Average variance, regardless
of subjects' ethnicity. Justice, Lindsey and Marrow (1999) examined the relations of self concept, self-esteem and social preference to the academic achievement of African American preschool children enrolled in a Head Start program. Findings suggested that the development of academic is important for the school achievement of minority children.

Ginter and Dwinell (1994) investigated the relationship between duration of loneliness, self-esteem and performance in academic assistance courses. Findings showed that the frequency and intensity of the effects of loneliness correlated inversely with self-esteem. Self-esteem did not correlate with achievement in courses. The frequency of the effects of loneliness positively correlated with achievement. Astin (1992) found that individuals with high academic self-concept of ability (ASC) perceived their effort as validation of positive academic achievement, and low effort as an indicator of low achievement. Furthermore, individuals perceive those with high self-concept of ability as successful even when they are not.

Einar and Knut (1990) examined causal relationships among academic achievement, self-concept of ability, and general self-esteem for two cohorts of Norwegian school children. Measures of the three variables were collected when the students in the two cohorts were attending third and sixth grade and 18 months later. The results supported different causal relationships in the two cohorts, suggesting a recursive model at Grades 3 and 4 and a reciprocal model at Grades 6 and 7. Accordion, Accordion, and Slaney (2000) examined the relationship of perfectionism with measures of achievement and achievement motivation and mental health aspects of depression and self-esteem in high school students. Results indicated that
subject’s personal standards were significant predictor of academic achievement and achievement motivation. The relationship between perfectionism and depression and self-esteem found as subject’s personal standards increased, their level of self-esteem increased. Furthermore, when subject’s experienced discrepancy between their personal standards and actual performance their depression level increased and self-esteem decreased.

Aunola, Stattin and Nurmi (2000) investigated the relationship between the achievement strategies adolescents deploy in a school context and their self-esteem, school adjustment, and internalizing and externalizing problem behaviors. The results suggested that the achievement strategies adolescents deploy are reflected not only in their school adjustment but also in their overall problem behavior. Moller and Koller (2000) described 2 studies, which deal with attributions following academic achievement. Study 1 investigated the influence of different types of instructions, self-concepts of ability and outcomes on causal attributions in a school setting. In study 2, 160 university students worked on an unfamiliar task. The results supported the assumption that students spontaneously generate attributions to raise or at least preserve their self-esteem.

Skellenger and Hill (1994) studied the effects of a shared teacher-child play intervention to increase the amount and type of targeted play behavior of 3 young children aged 5-7 yrs with visual impairment. Results evidenced the effectiveness of shared teacher-child play as a method of increasing the play skills of young children with visual impairments. Moneta and Sin (2002) examined the effects of trait intrinsic and extrinsic motivations on creativity and academic performance in Hong Kong college students.
Findings suggested that intrinsic motivation correlated negatively with yr 1 grade point average whereas extrinsic motivation correlated positively. They also suggested that our college environment discourages intrinsic motivation and creativity.

Thompson and Kelly-Vance (2001) examined the impact of mentoring on the academic achievement of at risk youth involved in Big Brother/Big Sister. Results indicated that boys in the treatment group made significantly higher academic gains than control group, even after controlling for ability. Ponsford and Lapadat (2001) examined the perception and performance in terms of achievement motivation theory within a Canadian educational context in 3 12th grade students at risk of failing. Results indicated that academic, social family and peer factors influenced their decision-making.

Trusty et al (2000) studied the effects of gender, socioeconomic status and 4 types of 8th-grade academic performance on post secondary educational choices at late adolescence. Results showed that gender had strongest independent influences on educational choice. Gender also interacts with socio-economic status and academic performance. Relationship between socio-economic status and educational choice were stronger for women then for men. Pajares and Valiante (2001) determined whether gender differences in writing motivation and achievement of middle school students are a function of gender stereotypic beliefs rather than of gender. Findings suggested that a feminine orientation is adaptive in the area of writing, whereas masculine orientation is beneficial when escorted by a feminine orientation.
Robinson-Awana et al (2001) examined adolescent self-esteem, gender-role perception, gender-role orientation, and attributional style as a function of academic achievement by having 3 groups of 10th, 11th and 12th grade males and females. Author took a self-esteem inventory under 2 sets of instructions, a standard set and an opposite-gender instruction and for attributional style and gender-role inventory he took standard sets of instructions. The results of the self-esteem inventory under standard instructions revealed a significant difference in favor of males. Under opposite-gender instructions, academically below average and average females ascribed significantly higher levels of self-esteem to males. However, females in the above average academic group attributed significantly lower self-esteem to males.

Stipek and Byler (2001) assessed effects of the age at which children entered kindergarten on children’s academic achievement, social skills, academic engagement, relationship with teachers and self ratings of academic skills. Results indicated the only advantage found in kindergarten and third grade for children who were relatively old when they entered school was in more positive feeling about their teachers.

Daftuar, Sinha and Daftuar (2000) examined the relationship of risk taking with academic achievement in students coming from different habitational backgrounds. It was found that non-tribal urban high achievers had greater risk taking tendency than their counterpart low achievers. Also rural students showed greater risk taking than urban students. Mohanty (2000) examined the role of school type in determining psychological differentiation and academic achievement of tribal and non-tribal students in the context of primary education. The results showed that psychological differentiation and
academic achievement were positively related. Academic achievement of non-tribal students was higher than the tribal and both groups were comparable on psychological differentiation.

Peng and Wright (1994) hypothesized that Asian American students have higher academic achievement than other minority students because they are more likely to experience certain home environments and educational activities that are conducive to learning. Findings indicated that Asian American students were more likely to live in an intact 2-parent family, to spend more time doing homework, and to attend more lessons outside of school. Asian American parents also had higher educational expectations for their children, although they did not directly help their children in schoolwork more than other parents.

Marjoribanks (2005) examined relations between family background, adolescents’ academic achievement, aspirations, and young adults’ educational attainment. Results indicated that, while family background and academic achievement measures had medium associations with attainment, adolescents' educational aspirations made a large independent contribution to explaining differences in adults’ educational attainment. Koutsoulis and Campbell (2001) examined the influence of home environment on motivation and achievement of male and female high school students. Results indicated that the best predictor for high school students’ achievement is their prior ability. Math and science self-concept were found to be positive predictors for students science and math achievement. Parental pressure found to be a negative predictor of motivation and math and science achievement especially for girls.
Bacete and Ramirez (2001) examined whether parental involvement in school activities and family socio-economic status are associated with children's academic achievement. Results suggested that academic achievement is directly influenced by the cultural level of the family and the child's intelligence but is indirectly influenced by parental involvement in school activities and socio-economic status of child's family. Patel (1979) studied the relationship of family, personal and social adjustment to achievement in high school students. A sample of 350 students classify into 200 low and 150 high achievers. Results indicate that high achievers score much more than low achievers in all the three areas of adjustment. Girls score better than boys on family adjustment, but boys score much higher than girls on personal adjustment.

Poulson and Fouts (2001) examined the effect of teacher-student attunement on the academic performance of students with and without learning disabilities. Results indicated that the attuned teaching resulted in significantly more teacher-student attunement than did the non-attunement condition. The attuned teaching condition significantly improved academic performance over non-attuned teaching. Valas (2001) examined the relations between academic achievement, helplessness and psychological adjustment, controlled for gender and age. Results showed that academic achievement is directly and indirectly related to the pattern of attribution, expectation, helplessness and psychological adjustment. The result also indicated that boys showed more helpless behavior than did girls, while on the other hand girls reported more psychological adjustment.
Durbrow, Schaefer and Jimerson (2000) suggested that learning related behaviors, anxiety and attention might influence academic performance of children who live in industrial countries. Result indicated that academic performance might be improved in these children by reducing children’s anxiety level and promoting appropriate learning behavior. White (1982) used meta-analysis techniques to examine almost 200 studies that considered the relationship between socioeconomic status (SES) and academic achievement. Results indicated that as SES is typically defined and used, it is only weakly correlated with academic achievement.

Mishra (1997) examined the contribution of certain child rearing practices towards the cognitive development of children. Study 1 assessed the perceptual ability, concept formation, child rearing-practices and academic achievement in 54 boys and 54 girls and their graduate mothers. Results revealed that parental responsiveness was found to be positive correlated with children’s academic achievement. Study 2 assessed the relationship between child-rearing practices and the development of self-esteem. It was seen that low self-esteem was due to the mother’s use of symbols of rejection, control indigence, permissiveness and less encouragement. Interesting gender differences were observed.

SELF-ESTEEM

Many researchers found similar self-concept profile for sighted adolescents and adolescents with visual impairment. Whereas a few studies concluded that visually handicapped students scored high on self-concept than sighted students. Various scholars examined gender differences in global self-esteem and concluded that male scored high on self-esteem than female.
Hen, Weisse, and Lifshitz (2007) examined self-concept and quality of friendship of 40 adolescents with visual impairments (20 in public schools and 20 in a residential school) were compared to those of 41 sighted adolescents. The findings indicate a similar self-concept profile for sighted adolescents and adolescents with visual impairments, although the scores of the participants with visual impairments were higher in all domains except their fathers' concept of them. Griffin-Shirley and Nes (2005) studied self-esteem and empathy among 71 students with visual impairments and 88 sighted students. They found no significant differences between the two groups of students in their level of self-esteem, empathy towards others and bonding with pets.

Obiakar and Stile (1990) compared the self-concept of visually impaired and normally sighted students. The self-concept was measure with the Student Self-Assessment Inventory (SSAI), which assesses children self-knowledge, self-ideal and self-esteem as related to physical maturity, peer-relation, academic success and school adaptiveness. They found that visually impaired subjects scored high than normally sighted subjects on 5 of the 12 SSAI subscales. This result refutes the notion that visually impaired children have poorer self-concepts than normally sighted.

Huurre, Komulainen and Aro (1999) studied social support from friends and family in relation to the self-esteem of adolescents with visual impairments. The subjects were 13-16 yrs old who were blind or had low vision. A control group of sighted and visually impaired adolescents were assessed using self-reported questionnaire. They found that the self-esteem of the sighted and visually impaired adolescents did not differ significantly,
although the self-esteem of visually impaired girls tended to be lower than that of fully sighted girls. Relationships with friends and family significantly contributed to the enhancement of self-esteem for all the visually impaired Subjects.

Shapiro, Moffett, Lieberman, and Dummer (2008) examined perceived competence; ratings of importance of physical appearance, athletic competence, and social acceptance; discrepancy scores; and global self-worth of 43 children with visual impairments. The findings revealed that the children discounted the importance of physical appearance, athletic competence, and social acceptance and had moderately high ratings of global, or overall, self-worth. The results are discussed in relation to understanding the effects of discounting strategies on domain-specific and overall self-esteem

Satapathy, Sujata and Singhal, Sushila (2000) investigated the stress, self-esteem, adjustment level, and academic performance differences between visually and hearing impaired of students of class VIII and X. Results showed that the visually impaired students were less stressed, had higher self-esteem, higher level of adjustment, and better academic performance than the hearing impaired students. It was found that hearing impaired adolescents also exhibited more behavior problems than did visually impaired students. Class VIII and class X subjects differed significantly; the class VIII subjects were more somatized, obsessive, sensitive, anxious and depressed than the class X subjects. Male and female subjects did not differ significantly on total stress scores, although males showed significantly more obsessive and compulsive behavior.
Christy, Shanimole and Nuthetie (2002) analyzed the self-perceptions of children with visual impairments. Results indicated that the subjects had no significant problems in expressing moods and feelings, preferences and decisions. Some subjects showed variation and problems in expressing sympathy (46%), the choice of clothes (34%), and preferences for environments and items (50% and 54% respectively). There are relatively few problems with respect to the expression of needs and wants. It was concluded that self-perceptions are stronger and take place more often in childhood than at any other time of life.

Lopez-Justicia et al (2005) examined differences in self-concept between children with congenital low vision and their sighted peers. The findings revealed that the children with low vision scored lower than those with normal vision in aspects of their relationships with classmates but higher in their relationship with parents. No differences were found on other general or specific facets of the self-concept, such as physical ability, physical appearance, verbal ability, mathematics, or general subjects.

Dummer et al (2008) examined perceived competence; ratings of importance of physical appearance, athletic competence, and social acceptance; discrepancy scores; and global self-worth of 43 children with visual impairments. The findings revealed that the children discounted the importance of physical appearance, athletic competence, and social acceptance and had moderately high ratings of global, or overall, self-worth. The results are discussed in relation to understanding the effects of discounting strategies on domain-specific and overall self-esteem.
Lea-Wood (1995) examined the self-esteem of gifted and non-gifted adolescent girls. Results revealed that non-gifted girls were higher in both total and social self-esteem than the gifted girls and that the differences in total self-esteem were related to year level. Norman, Ramsay, Martray and Roberts (1999) compared two groups of gifted students, one group was highly gifted and other group was moderately gifted, on self-concept, emotional autonomy, and anxiety. Although a measure of academic ability was used to create distinctive ability groups, the results did not support the hypothesis that highly gifted students would be more likely to display lower self-concept and more adjustment problems than moderately gifted group.

Theresa (2006) studied the relationship between children's self-concept, academic achievement, and teacher's rating of children's self-concept. The differences between grade levels, sex, and ethnic group membership were tested by analysis of variance. He found significant correlation between child's self-concept and teacher's rating of child's self-concept, and between teacher's rating of child's self-concept and child's academic achievement. He also found significant ethnic group differences in self-concept, academic achievement, and teacher's rating of self-concept in this study, with interethnic groups showing the higher scores.

Maqsud and Rouhani (1991) explored the relationship between socioeconomic status, locus of control, self concept, and academic achievement of secondary school pupils. Results revealed that socioeconomic status was significantly and positively associated with internality, self-concept, and academic achievement in English. Externality was significantly but negatively related to self-concept and achievement in English. Self-
concept was significantly and positively correlated to measures of achievement in English and mathematics. Mathematics achievement of male students was significantly higher than female ones.

Song and Hattie (1984) investigated the relation between home environment, self-concept, and academic achievement in 2,297 14-15 yr old Koreans. Data on subjects was collected in 4 different samples to test 4 structural equation models. Group 1 consisted of 537 males, Group 2 consisted of 537 males, Group 3 consisted of 611 females, and Group 4 consisted of 612 females. Results show that over the 4 samples, self-concept was a mediating variable between home environment and academic achievement.

Gerken (1983) determined the relationship between self-concept and locus of control, and the relationship of each variable to ability, achievement, and degree of over- or underachievement in a group of seventh graders in an urban junior high school. Support was found for the association between students' attitudes concerning self-concept and locus of control and their academic achievement, between attitudes and ability, and between attitudes and over- or underachievement. These relationships were stronger for the female group than the male group. Teasly and Lee (2006) investigated the impact of community-outreach after school academic enhancement program on self reported levels of self-esteem in African American male youth. Findings revealed that higher GPAs are related to higher levels of school self-esteem in participants and that school self-esteem is related to member program satisfaction scores.

Midgatt et al (2002) examined the relationship between self-esteem and achievement with students' characteristics and parental variables in a
sample of 164 fourth grade and 152 seventh grade children and their parents. They found a modest but significant positive correlation between self-esteem and achievement. The result also showed that the relationships between family processes and achievement were mediated by the children’s academic effectiveness but not by self-esteem. When the child and family variables were examined in combination, the significant association between self-esteem and achievement disappeared.

Zaleka (2004) reviewed recent studies that investigated the academic, social and general self-concept of students with learning disability and their normal achieving peers and compare the results with those of a previous meta-analysis of relatively older studies, by Chapman. Result indicated that the academic self-concept of learning disabled students is more negative than that of their normally achieving peers. Unlike Chapman’s conclusion, however, the evidence is less clear for general self-concept. This is also true for self-concept. Because the evidence that shows no group differences outweighs that indicating better social and general self concept scores for normally achieving children, the conclusion that children with learning disability hold more negative social and general self concept than do normally achieving children is not warranted.

Guay, Larose, and Boivin (2004) tested children academic self-concept, family socio-economic status, family structure and academic achievement in elementary school as predictors of children’s educational attainment level in young adulthood. Result indicated that academic self-concept predicted educational attainment. Result also indicated that the academic self-concept/educational attainment level relation was still
significant while controlling for family socio-economic status, family structure and academic achievement.


Stalikas and Gavaki (1995) examined the relationship between ethnic identity self-esteem and academic achievement in secondary school children. Result found a strong and positive relationship existed between the three variables. A positive ethnic identity was related to better self-esteem and higher academic achievement. Sapp (1990) assessed academic performance, academic self-concept and self-esteem of 250 junior high at risk students. Results revealed that there is a significant relationship between grades and academic self-concept and grade and wide range achievement test-Revised, suggesting that academic self-concept could be used to predict academic achievement.

Trusty, Peck, and Mathews (1994) investigated the relationship among achievement, socio-economic status and self-concept. Results indicated that achievement /socio-economic status clusters accounted for roughly 24% of the variability in self-concept scores. Low achieving / low socio-economic status students generally have more negative social and
emotional self-perception, whereas low achieving/higher socio economic status students had more negative school related self-perceptions.

Mc Cabe, Randi, Blankstein and Mills (1999) examined the relation between interpersonal sensitivity and social problem-solving as predictors of self-esteem, depressive symptoms and academic performance of college students. Results showed that interpersonal sensitivity was related to problem solving- in particular, negative problem orientation. Both interpersonal sensitivity and social problem solving were significant predictors of self-esteem and depressive symptoms. Interpersonal sensitivity was a significant predictor of academic performance for both males and females. Though, in females' social problem solving was not related to academic performance. In males negative problem orientation and dysfunctional problem solving styles were important aspects of problem-solving related to academic performance.

Roberts and Cotton (1994) assessed effect of participation by black 11th grades in a mentoring program on self-esteem and academic performance. Results found that there were no differences at pretest between control and experimental groups on the dependent measures. After three months of mentoring, the pretest- posttest group showed a higher mean school self-esteem score than subject in the posttest- only condition, but not higher than the control group which was pre tested and post tested. There were no significant effects in terms of measure of global self-esteem or grade point average.

Osbourne (1995) tested three assumptions on a representative sample of 8th graders, first African American student’s score lower on measures of academic achievement than white students, second, African American
students tend not to report lower self-esteem than white students and third correlation between measure of academic achievement and global self-esteem should be moderate. Results revealed a pattern of weakening correlation between self-esteem and academic outcomes from the 8th to 10th grade for African American students, particularly black male students. Whereas the correlations for white students remained stable or increased.

Badura, Millard, Peluso and Ortman (2000) investigated the effects of participating in peer education training on 30 undergraduate peer educators. He found that subject reported significantly more leadership, health knowledge and active involvement in changing personal health behaviors after completing peer education training than at the onset of the course. Self-esteem did not significantly increase.

Erkut, Szalacha, Coll and Alarcon (2000) examined self-esteem as a multidimensional construct in one Latino subgroup, Puerto Rican girls and boys during early adolescence. Results strongly suggested that Latino subgroups needed to be studied separately. The mean level of self-esteem found among Puerto Rican girls and boys were generally similar to those found among Harter’s sample of predominantly Anglo middle school students from the suburbs of Denver except that Puerto Rican youth did not show gender differences in overall self-esteem. Gender differences in mean levels of self-esteem indifferent domain were similar to those Anglo youth, regardless of the Puerto Rican youth’s individual level of psychological or behavioral acculturation come in to view. Psychological acculturation appeared to play a more protective role for girls and behavioral acculturation operates a risk factor for boys.
Alves-Martin et al (2002) analyzed what strategies are pursued in order to protect self-esteem when it is threatened by a negative self-evaluation of school competence. Participants were school students from the seventh to ninth grades. Results showed that there are significant differences between the self-esteem enjoyed by successful and unsuccessful students in the seventh grade, such differences disappear in the eighth and ninth grades. They also found that students with low levels of academic achievements attribute less importance to school-related areas and revealed less favorable attitude towards school.

Zhang and Postiglione (2001) examined the nature of thinking styles. 694 participants responded of the thinking styles inventory and the self-esteem inventory and provided a range of socio-economic status indicators. Findings reveal that when age was control, thinking styles and self-esteem overlapped. Those students who reported using thinking styles that are creativity generating and more complex and those who reported higher self-esteem tend to be students from higher SES families. Zhang (2001) examined the relationship between thinking styles and self-esteem and ones extracurricular experiences to both thinking style and self-esteem. Results showed that thinking styles and self-esteem are statistically related. At the same time, both thinking styles and self-esteem are statistically related to the participants’ extracurricular experiences.

Costa-Giomi (2004) examined the effects of three years piano instruction on sample of 117 fourth-grade children attending public schools in Montreal. The children had never participated in formal music instruction, and did not have a piano at home. Experimental group received individual
piano lessons weekly for three years and were given an acoustic piano at no cost to their families. Children in the control group did not participate in formal music instruction. Results indicated that piano instruction had a positive effect on children’s self-esteem and music marks but did not affect the academic achievement in math and language measured by standardized test and school report card. Chandha (1989) used a path analytic recursive model to determine relationship between personality and background variables and academic achievement of 307 12 graders. Results indicated that creativity, sex and quality of family relationship accounted for 12.8% and 19.2% of variance for self-concept and locus of control accounted for 57.8% of the variance for academic achievements.

Fickova (1999) analyzed the relationship between personality dimensions and self-esteem indicators in high school students. Results indicate that personality dimensions like neuroticism, extraversion, conscientiousness, state and trait anxiety are reliable predictors of self-esteem.

Blanty et al (2004) analyzed the relationship of self-esteem and life satisfaction to factors of the Five Factors model of personality. They found that both self-esteem and life satisfaction are connected with emotional stability, extraversion and consciousness. Agreeableness is related to life satisfaction, but not to self-esteem. The divergence between self-esteem and life satisfaction is also based on the difference between the closeness of their relations towards neuroticism, the correlation between self-esteem and neuroticism is significantly higher than that between life satisfaction and neuroticism.
Robins et al (2001) examined the relation between self-esteem and Big Five Personality dimensions. Data were collected from 326,641 individual who ranged in age from 9 to 90. Collectively, the Big Five accounted for 34% of the variance self-esteem. High self-esteem individuals were emotionally stable, extrovert, conscientious and were somewhat agreeable and open to experience. Despite this extensive research, the relations between self-esteem and Big Five largely cut across age, sex, social class, ethnicity and nationality. High self-esteem individuals tended to ascribe socially desirable traits to them and this tendency partially medicated relations between the Big Five and self-esteem.

Kling et al (1999) conducted a study to examine gender differences in global self-esteem. Result indicated that male score higher on standard measure of global self-esteem than females but the difference is small. Mullis and Chapman (2000) studied the relationship between coping gender, age and self-esteem in adolescents. Results found that adolescents with higher self-esteem used more problem-focused coping strategies and adolescents with lower self-esteem used more emotion focused coping strategies. No age differences were found.

Cheng and Puge (1989) investigated the problems and characteristics of 137 female and 119 male students. Results showed that subject’s anxiety levels was generally negatively related to their level of self-esteem. Subjects with high anxiety tended to have low self-esteem and subjects with low anxiety tended to have high self-esteem. Although sex of the subjects did not seem to have an influence on anxiety levels, Subject’s self-esteem was related to sex. Male tended to have higher self-esteem than the female.
Vasuki and Reddy (1997) explored the self-esteem of single children using an ex post facto design. The incidental sampling technique was used to select 20 boys and 20 girls in the age group of 9-15 years from urban families. Data were collected from friends, families, classmates, and teachers and also from the respondents themselves. Results revealed that most of the children had high self-esteem. No gender differences in the self-esteem of 12-15 years olds were found. Overall all boys showed high self-esteem. Results also indicated significant differences in the self-esteem of boys of the two age groups whereas the same was not observed in the case of girls.

Smith et al (1999) examined the relationship of ethnic identity to self-esteem, perceived self efficacy and prosocial attitudes of 100 male and female adolescents from different social ethnic backgrounds. The findings suggested that ethnic identity and self-esteem are distinct but related contributors to young people's perceptions of their ability to achieve academically to find meaningful careers and to value prosocial means of goals achievement.

Vinutha, Rajini and Nagalakshmi (1989) administered the culture free self-esteem inventories for children and adults to 184 boys and 184 girls. In general, results indicate high self-esteem for boys and girls. Data also indicated that boys had significantly higher self-esteem on general, social and academic self-esteem than girls. Girls were more defensive than boys.

Mc Gee and Williams (2000) examined the predictive association between both global and academic self-esteem from ages 9 to 13 years and a variety of health compromising behaviors at age 15, in a large sample of youngsters. Result showed that levels of global self-esteem significantly
predicted adolescent's report of problem eating, suicidal ideation, and multiple health compromising behaviors. Earlier levels of self-esteem were unrelated to later substance use and early sexual activity.

Karnis et al (2000) examined the extent to which self-esteem stability relates to self-regulatory styles, self-concept clarity, and goal-related affect. Results supported the notion that individuals with unstable self-esteem are not likely to possess a strong sense of self. Specifically, unstable as compared to stable self-esteem was associated with self-regulatory styles rejecting lower levels of self-determination, lower self-concept clarity and goal-related affect characterized by greater tenseness and less interest.

Khalid (1988) explored the consequences of minority status for the self-esteem of 80 Pakistani children living in the Scotland by comparing their level of self-esteem with that of 80 age-matched Scottish children. Results showed that the minority status of the Pakistani community in Scotland did not have negative consequences for Pakistani subjects self-esteem. Pakistani minority and Scottish children had similar levels of self-esteem.

Matthews and Odom (1989) investigated the relationship between anxiety and self-esteem. Result showed that there were moderately significant relationship between state anxiety and measure on the general self and academic sub tests and on the total test. There was also a significant, but moderate and pronounced relationship between trait anxiety and the home – parents and school-academic subsets. All relationship were negative indicating, as predicted, that low levels of both state and trait anxiety associated moderately with high levels of self-esteem.
Cornell, Delcourt, Goldberg and Bland (1995) presented the standardized achievement scores and self-concept levels of 299 black, 52 Hispanic and 595 white elementary school students placed in gifted and regular school programs. Results indicated that minority students identified for gifted programs, although white gifted program students scored significantly higher than both black and Hispanic gifted program students. There were no minority-group differences in academic or social self-concept. Results also suggest that the distinction between academic and social self-concept used with white students may not be applicable to minority students.

Aberson, Healy and Romero (2000) examined the relationship between self-esteem and in-group bias. He focused on effects of in-group bias strategy and measurement of self-esteem. Results indicated that both high and low self-esteem individuals exhibited in-group bias; however, expression of in-group bias by individuals with low self-esteem is constrained by situational factors. Additionally, individual-level factors such as personal self-esteem may be useful in predicting collective enhancement.

Kavussanu and Harnisch (2000) examined the relationship of global orientations and perceptions of athletic ability to global self-esteem. Results showed that high task orientated children reported significantly higher self-esteem than low task oriented children. Among high task oriented boys, those with high-perceived ability had higher self-esteem. In addition high ego oriented boys had higher self-esteem when they perceived themselves as having high ability in relation to their peers. Finally, among low oriented girls, those with high-perceived ability reported higher self-esteem.
Willoughby, Polatajko, Currado, Harris et al (2000) examined the self-esteem of adolescents with mental health problems referred to a prevocational program in an effort to compare clinical practice with empirical findings. The self-perception profile for adolescents and the importance rating scale for adolescents were used to compare the self-esteem of the adolescents with normative sample. Results indicated no differences between the two groups' self-esteem and no change in self-esteem scores following participation in the prevocational program.

Twenge and Campbell (2002) analyzed that socio-economic status has a small but significant relationship with self-esteem. Higher socio-economic status individuals report higher self-esteem. The effect size is very small in young children, increases during young adulthood, continues higher in middle age, and is then smaller for adults over the age of 60. The effect size increased over time for women but decrease for men. Asian and American show higher effect size and occupation and education produce higher correlation with self-esteem than income does.

EMOTIONAL STABILITY

Reviewed studies on emotional stability showed that visually handicapped were less emotionally stable than sighted students. Many scholars concluded in their studies that male students are more emotionally stable than female students. Several investigations revealed that children with high emotional stability have better study habits than their counterparts with low emotional stability.

Bhargava and Lavania (1981) compared the personality factors of sensory disabled and normal children having same age and sex. The result
showed that the sensory disabled were more reserved emotionally unstable, shy, dependent, sentimental, secure and relaxed than their counterparts i.e. the normal children. Kapoor and Sen (1984) made a comparative study of the congenitally and adventitiously blind and their sighted peers on some personality variables. The results indicated that the congenitally and adventitiously blind group does not differ significantly from each other or from their sighted peers on the personality variables, emotional stability, perceptual rigidity and social responsibility.

Rath (1988) compared the personality dynamics of blind and sighted students. The result showed that the blind subjects were less adjusted on the dimensions of family relationship, emotional stability, adjustment to reality, mood and conformity in comparison to sighted students. Goel and Sen (1985) reported a few studies which were carried out recently in the context of personality dimension of the visually handicapped. The results showed a large number of the subjects have poor self-concept and emotional stability, below average intelligence and physical dependence.

Sharma (2006) purports to find out the efficacy of emotional stability on the study habits of visually disabled students. The results reveal that children with high emotional stability have better study habits than their counterparts with low emotional stability.

Ophir-Cohen et al (2005) examined the developmental attachments of both children with visual impairments, with and without emotional deficits, behavior deficits or both. He found that an emotional and behavioral deficit was significantly related to gross motor and visual motor integration, expressive and receptive language, and social and personal development, and
that there was an interaction between the effect of the mother’s education and the child’s age on the child’s perception of language.

Dyck et al (2004) assessed whether children with a sensory disability have consistent delay in acquiring emotion recognition and emotion understanding abilities. Younger and older hearing-impaired children, vision impaired children, and children with no sensory impairment were assessed. Results indicated that when compared with age-peers, hearing impaired children and adolescents have significant delays or deficits on emotional recognition tasks. When compared children group-matched for verbal ability, the achievement of hearing impaired on ERS equals or exceeds that of controls; visually impaired children underachieve on an emotion recognition task and over achieve on an emotion vocabulary task compared to verbal ability match peers.

Borrela et al (1999) assessed the relationship between a stable personality trait, a mood state and immune response to examination stress. A self-reported measure of emotional stability was obtained in a sample of 39 subjects. Emotional stability was investigated by completing a neuroticism scale and a state-trait anxiety scale. Natural killer cell activity was measured at base line, long before the examination time, and on the examination day. Subjects were divided in to 3 groups based on emotional stability and state-anxiety scores, high emotional stability/low anxiety, medium and low emotional stability/high anxiety. Examination stress induced significant increase in natural killer cell activity in the high emotional stability/low anxiety group, no effect in the medium group, and significant decrease in the low emotional stability/high anxiety group. Findings suggest that the state-
anxiety acts in concert with a stable personality trait to modulate natural killer response in healthy subjects exposed to psychological naturalistic stress.

Gumora and Arseni (2002) investigated the connections of middle school students' emotional dispositions and academic related affect with their school performance. Results indicated that although students' emotion regulation, general effective dispositions and academic effect were related to each other, each of these variables also made a unique significant contributor. Overall, these results provide support for the socio-emotional factors in students' school performance.

Chowdhury (2006) investigated the impact of personality traits on students' academic achievement in an undergraduate marketing course taught by the same professor. All personality traits except extraversion positively and significantly predicted students' overall grade. Extraversion was positively related ($r = .140$) but not statistically significant. Openness ($r = .279$) and Neuroticism ($r = .341$) were positively related to students' academic achievement and were more important predictors of overall grade of the students than agreeableness ($r = .245$) and conscientiousness ($r = .237$).

Susan and Lounsbury (2004) studied general intelligence, Big Five personality traits, and the construct Work Drive in relation to two measures of collegiate academic performance: a single course grade received by undergraduate students in an introductory psychology course, and self-reported GPA. Result showed that general intelligence and Work Drive were significantly positively related to both course grade and GPA, while one Big Five trait (Emotional Stability) was related to course grade only.
Lowenstein, Meza and Thorne (1983) investigated the relationship between ability, attainment and emotional stability, as measured by neuroticism, in underachieving, emotionally disturbed children. Forty children participated in four groups. Three experimental groups received different treatments in a therapeutic community, the fourth (control group) comprised children attending remedial units in mainstream education. For group 1 emphasis was on individualized education; for group 2 on psychological treatment and for group 3 on individualized education and psychological treatment combined. Pre- and post-experiment assessments were made on emotional stability, intelligence, reading, spelling and math’s quotients, vocational aspirations and contentment with life. All the experimental groups showed significant improvements on all the criteria assessed. Group 3 improved most, P less than 0.001 on all criteria except contentment and vocational aspirations. The control group showed deterioration over the experimental year on all criteria but mostly not at a significant level.

Barthelemy (2006) determined whether aggression adds incremental validity above and beyond the big five personality factors in predicting academic success. Results indicated that aggression does in fact add incremental validity above and beyond the big five personality factors in a sample of middle school students. Results also indicated that the big five personality factors are significantly correlated with academic performance. More specifically, conscientiousness, openness, agreeableness, and emotional stability are significantly correlated with grades in the current sample. When aggression is added in to the statistical model, conscientiousness, openness and aggression are significantly correlated with grades.
Lorenzo, Frost and Reinherz (2000) described the academic and psychosocial functioning of 102, 16-20 yr old Asian American adolescents and compared their academic, behavioral and emotional functioning and social support with that of cohort of predominately Caucasian American adolescents. They found that Asian American students performed better academically and reported fewer delinquent behaviors. However these Asian American youth reported higher levels of depressive symptomatology, withdrawn behavior, and social problems. They also perceive themselves more poorly and were more dissatisfied with their social support. These differences highlight the unique mental health needs of older Asian American youth.

Blanty, Jalinck, Blizkovska and Klimusova (2004) analyzed the relationship of self-esteem and life satisfaction to factors of the Five Factors model of personality. They found that both self-esteem and life satisfaction are connected with emotional stability, extra version and consciousness. Agreeableness is related to life satisfaction, but not to self-esteem. The divergence between self-esteem and life satisfaction is also based on the difference between the closeness of their relations towards neuroticism, the correlation between self-esteem and neuroticism is significantly higher than that between life satisfaction and neuroticism.

Ignatus and Kokkonen (2005) aimed to classify, how the Big Five personality traits are linked to generalized trust and general self-esteem, taking into consideration the mediating role of sex. Two samples are used, 121 secondary school students formed one sample and 130 university students formed other. Results showed that the averages of the university students in
the all traits studied significantly higher than those of the secondary school students. Both the boys and the men were more stable emotionally stable than the girls and the women. The boys in secondary school also have higher self-esteem than the girls. Results also revealed that the big five traits explained substantial part of the variation of both generalized trust as well as general self-esteem in both samples.

Judge et al (2004) presented a review of research on core self-evaluations, a broad personality trait indicated by 4 more narrow traits: self-esteem, generalization self efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability. They found that the 4 core traits are highly related, load on a single unitary factor, and have dubious incremental validity controlling for their common core.

Tolphin et al (2004) examined the role of border line personality feature in the day-to-day stability of college students’ negative affect and self-esteem and their reactivity to interpersonal stressors. For two week at the end of each day student completed a checklist of daily stressors and measure of state affect and self-esteem. They predict that the person who scores high on a measure of borderline feature would be related to more interpersonal stressors, great negative affective and self-esteem reactivity to these stressors, and less day-to-day carryover of negative mood and self-esteem. The findings demonstrate the utility of a daily process methodology and multilevel modeling to study the day-today, functioning of individual with borderline feature.

Cosbay (2001) examined clothing interest as a mediating factor in self-perception of sociability, emotional stability, and dominance when either
satisfaction or dissatisfaction with clothing was specified. Results revealed that specific dimensions of clothing interest suggesting a risk-avoiding orientation toward dress were most likely to mediate self-perceptions of sociability, emotional stability and dominance when one was either satisfied or dissatisfied with one’s clothing.

Stemelova and Cmaricova (2004) investigated mutual relations between personality factors, existential characteristics and subjectively perceived self-esteem. Results revealed that the level of self-esteem negatively correlates with that of personality factor neuroticism and positively with the level of extraversion, consciousness, the existential characteristics personality, existentiality and the overall ESK scores. Personality and existentiality showed statistically significant positive correlation with the factors extraversion, agreeableness and consciousness, similarly as also did the over all. ESK scores which, in addition, showed a significant negative correlation with neuroticism. The result obtained brought support to the presumed relations among existential characteristics, personality factor and self-esteem.

Makikangas, Kinnunen, and Feldt (2004) investigated the relationship between self-esteem and optimism and examined the prospective relationships between these two personality constructs, mental distress and physical symptoms. Results showed that latent variables of optimism and self-esteem were highly interrelated, forming the core construct of personal construct of personal resilience, which turned out to be stable over the one-year period. Results also indicated that high personal resilience measured at time1 reduced mental distress at time 2. Furthermore, a high level of physical
symptoms at time 1 showed to predict a high level of mental distress at time 2.

Aleem (2005) sets the following objectives: 1. To find out the prevalence of emotional stability among male and female students. 2. To examine difference between the mean scores of male and female students on emotional stability. Emotional stability questionnaire was administered on 50 male and 50 female students of different colleges of New Delhi. Results showed that male students are found to be more emotionally stable than female students. Hay and Ashman (2003) investigated gender differences associated with the development of adolescents' sense of general self-concept and emotional stability were investigated with 655 adolescents. Relationships with parents were important for males' emotional stability, but not females'. Peer relations were more influential in the formation of adolescents' emotional stability than parental relationships.

Budaev (1999) examined the sex differences of students in the big five-personality structure, as assessed by combined Jackson personality inventory and personality research form scales. This study tested the hypotheses that the personality factors which lies between classical agreeableness vs. hostility and neuroticism vs. emotional stability is the basic dimension of dominance related aggressiveness maintained by frequency dependent selection. The hypothesis predicts that this personality factor should explain more variance in males than females. Results showed that females characterized by higher scores on the personality factor of agreeableness and low emotional stability vs. the personality factor of hospitality and high emotional stability. As predicted, the personality factor of
agreeableness and low emotional stability explained significantly more variance in males than females, both absolutely and in relation to other personality factor.

Hills and Argyle (2001) studied the relationship between happiness and extraversion and emotional stability. Result showed that emotional stability more strongly associated with happiness than extraversion, and account for more of the total variability in multiple regression. Emotional stability was also the greater correlate for a majority of the 29 items of the Oxford happiness inventory, and the sole significant predictor of the happiness of younger people.

Vitters (2001) tested the relationship between emotional stability, extraversion, and subjective well being of students. It was hypothesized that the effect from emotional stability on subjective well-being indicators (life satisfaction, presence of affect and absence of negative effect) is stronger than the corresponding for, the effect from extraversion. Moreover, it was anticipated that if emotional stability were controlled for the effect from extraversion on subjective well-being would decrease substantially. In several multiple variances accounted for by emotional stability was 34%, while similar figure for extraversion were 1%.

Satapathy and Singhall (2001) examined the significant variables (e.g. age of onset, severity of impairment, parents’ education and occupation, family income, parental impairment status and preschool education) as correlates and predictors of social emotional adjustments of 75 visually and 80 hearing impaired adolescents. Results revealed behavior problems, stress and academic performance to be the common predictors of and contributors to
social emotional adjustment. No background variables contributed to adjustment in the case of visually impaired students but family income and parents deafness contributed positively in the hearing impaired students.

Colbert et al. (2004) focused on the joint relationship of personality and perceptions of the work situation with deviant behavior. He found that positive perceptions of the work situation are negatively related to workplace deviance. He also found that the personality traits of conscientiousness, emotional stability, and agreeableness moderated this relationship specifically the relationship between perceptions of the developmental environment and organizational deviance was stronger for employees low in conscientiousness or emotional stability, and relationship between perceived organizational support and interpersonal deviance was stronger for employees low in agreeableness.
CHAPTER- III

METHOD

AND

PROCEDURE
Any scientific research programme has to be systematic, controlled, empirical and critical investigation of hypothetical proposition, about the presumed relationship among different variables. It involves systematic and sound procedures in order to achieve objectivity in finding the results. In order to enhance the objectivity as well as predictive value of the findings, it becomes imperative to choose an appropriate research design. Selection and/or development of the relevant standardized tools and tests, identification of adequate sampling for collecting data, the careful tabulation and analysis of data by administering the appropriate statistical techniques and finally the interpretation of the results in accordance with the problem, are the major steps being taken throughout the research process. The present endeavour aims to study creative experience and academic achievement as determinants of self esteem and emotional stability of visually handicapped students.

To meet these objectives the following methodology was adopted.

**Participants**

A sample of 200 students was chosen through non probability convenient sampling. Of these, 100 students were visually handicapped and the remaining 100 students were sighted one. The sample of visually handicapped students were selected from Ahmadi School for Blinds, Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh and the sample of sighted students were drawn from Union School of Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh. The sample of visually handicapped students consisted 63 boys and 37 girls and in the sample of sighted students there were 50 boys and 50 girls. The upper age limit of the sample is 19 years. The general information or the family background of the visually handicapped sample is that 70% of them belong to nuclear family system while 30% students have joint family system. In case of
sighted students as high as 80% students live in the nuclear family system and only 20% belong to the joint family system. It means a large number of students belong to the nuclear family system. In case of area of living 29% visually handicapped students belong to rural area and 71% belong to urban area whereas 5% sighted students belong to rural area and 95% belong to urban area.

The socio economic status of the parents is one of the major indicators of the psychological and behavioural characteristics of the sampled population. The socio economic status of the parents has been assessed with the help of education levels, employment structure and income levels.

The educational profile of visually handicapped students' parents shows that 12% parents have primary education while a higher percentage of secondary level education can be seen that is 39%. The college/university educated parents' percentage is 26%. A total of 22.5% parents are uneducated. On the other hand the 16.5% parents of the sighted students have primary education. The secondary and college/university levels education is 31.5% and 25.5% respectively. A formidable 26.5% parents are uneducated in the sighted students' sample. A comparative assessment of education levels of both the sample students reveal that visually handicapped students’ parents have higher education levels than the sighted student's parents. The employment structure of the sampled visually handicapped students’ parents showed that out of total employed parents 30.9% are employed in the public sector/government services and 69.1% have the private sector employment. Whereas the sighted students’ parents have 24.5% public sector employment and as high as 75.5% private sector employment. It means the visually handicapped students parents are more employed in government services than the normal students’ parents. The most important indicator of socio economic status is income. The average monthly income of the
visually handicapped students' parents is 5,351 Rs per month. In case of the sighted students' parents the average monthly income is only 4,260 Rs per month. The data indicates that the parents of visually handicapped students have higher income than the sighted students' parents.

The holistic assessment of all the socio economic indicators shows that visually handicapped students' parents have higher education levels coupled with government employment leading to higher income generations. Whereas sighted students' parents have low levels of education. They are mostly engaged in private sector which leads to low income. Finally, it can be concluded that visually handicapped students parents have high socio-economic status in comparison to sighted students' parents. This further proves by the fact that almost all the visually handicapped students live in the hostels. A high expenditure has been done on their education which can be afforded only by those parents who have high income as well as high socio-economic status.

The break-up of the sample is as given below:

\[
N = 200
\]

- Visually handicapped students: 100
  - Girls: 63
  - Boys: 37

- Sighted students: 100
  - Girls: 50
  - Boys: 50
Tools

In the present study the researcher used the following tools to measure the academic achievement, creative experience, self-esteem and emotional stability of visually handicapped and sighted students.

Demographic Information Sheet

Demographic information about gender, age, class, family system and area of living were obtained on a separate sheet.

The Measure of Academic Achievement

For measuring academic achievement, the researcher had used the annual examination marks of the students obtained from the office records of the institution.

The Measure of Creative Experience

The creative experience of the students is measured by ratings of their concerned teachers on a five-point scale.

Self-Esteem Inventory

Self-esteem of the students is measured through self-esteem inventory, developed by Prasad and Thakur (1977). It consisted of 30 items which were selected from a list of 65 items representing self of the individual. Of the thirty items, seventeen were socially desirable and thirteen were socially undesirable. The scale was developed with a view to assess personally perceived self and socially perceived self. Although two identical sets of statements were used, they differed with regard to the instructions. Personally perceived self was to be assessed on the basis of following instructions:

"There are some statements in this inventory. You please read these statements one by one carefully. Each statement has a seven-point answer scale, from completely true to completely false. You are requested to encircle
the point of the scale related to the particular statement which in your personal opinion is most suitable in your case. Kindly go through all the statements one by one and see that none is left over”.

Socially-perceived self was to be determined on the basis of the following instructions:

“Again you are given the same set of statements. On the last occasion you rated yourself on the basis of your personal opinion, related to the statements, but this time you have to rate yourself on the basis of your idea about what others think of you on those statements. Other things remaining the same you have to reply to the items of the inventory”.

**Scoring**

Scoring of the scale was done as follows:

The item which are socially desirable would get 7 score if answered completely true and 1 if answered completely false. Other intermediate answers would get scores accordingly. The socially undesirable items would be scored in the opposite manner, i.e. the completely false would get 7 score and completely true would get 1 score. An individual who has taken both the sets of the inventory will have two-cross-one for the personally perceived self and the other for the socially perceived self. For each inventory the maximum score an individual can get is 210 and the minimum score 30.

**Reliability**

The two sets of the inventory were administered by the authors (Prasad & Thakur 1997) to a sample of 400 students for finding the reliability of the scale. Split-half reliability coefficient were calculated for both sets of the inventory which came out to be .82 and .78 for personally perceived self and socially perceived self respectively. Of the 400 students, 150 students were
administered the two sets of the inventory again after a gap of six weeks for evaluating after retest reliability coefficient. Retest reliability coefficient found for both the tests were .69 and .66 respectively for personally perceived self and socially perceived self.

**Emotional Stability Test for Children**

Emotional stability of children is measured through Emotional Stability Test for Children, developed by Sengupta and Singh (1985). This scale contains 15 items for testing emotional stability of children. The maximum possible score of this test is 15.

**Scoring**

In emotional stability test for children, each item of the test is scored as either +1 or 0. There are two types of items in this test, that is, positive and negative. All positive items which are endorsed by the subjects as ‘Yes’ and the negative items, item no. 9 and 10 which are endorsed by the subject as ‘No’ are given a score of +1. A score of zero is given to all other answers. Thus high scores on the test indicate low emotional stability or control whereas low scores on the test indicate high emotional stability or control.

**Reliability**

The reliability of the emotional stability was computed through two methods. In test-retest reliability, the test was administered twice on a sample of 150 pupils with 14 days gap. Subsequently, Pearson r was computed between the two sets of scores. The obtained value of Pearson r was .70 which was significant beyond .01 level. For the split-half reliability of the test, it was administered on a fresh sample of 150 pupils of both rural and urban population. For the split half reliability of the test, it was again administered
on a fresh sample of 150 pupils. Subsequently the test was split by the odd-even method. The resulting odd-even correlation coefficient was .55.

**DESIGN:**

In this study the researcher has to probe into some of the factors, viz creative experience and academic achievement that determines the self esteem and emotional stability of visually handicapped students. In the present research creative experience and academic achievement are the independent variables whereas self-esteem and emotional stability are the dependent variables.

Academic achievement is being measured through the annual examination marks of the students.

Creative experience of students is being estimated through ratings of their concerned teachers on five point scale. In this scale, students who attained 1 rating by their teachers, it means those students have very poor creative experience. The students who got 2 rating have poor creative experience. 3 rating has been given to those students who have average creative experience. However, 4 rating showed the students who got good creative experience. And finally students who acquired 5 rating have very good creative experience. The questions asked to the teachers are based on following dimensions:

1. Games.
2. Paintings.
4. Solving puzzles.
5. Make unique things by simple object.
7. Quiz and other competitions.

**Creative Experience Rating Scale**

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<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very poor</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Very good</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PROCEDURE:**

Surveys are conducted to assess the nature of existing conditions. For this the required information is obtained through the process of data collection. Data may be collected through different techniques like, classroom achievement tests, interviews, schedules and standardized tests etc. Collection of data becomes a tedious task if the sample is scattered, simultaneously it is interesting too, as it enables the researcher to come in contact with the people of different areas with lots of diversity. In the present investigation the data have been collected from the students of two University schools. The researcher during her data collection had gained the opportunity to interact the students of different schools and also spent a good time with them by sharing their experiences. In order to collect the required data, firstly the researcher sought permission of the head of her department, and then she approached the principal of schools for blind and sighted students and asked them to grant permission to collect data from students for the investigation. After that the subjects were approached and were explained the purpose of the present study. In this way a good rapport was established with the subjects. Before collecting data the investigator assured the subjects that their responses will be kept confidential and will be used only for research purpose, then the tools
were administered on them and the investigator explained the items to the participants.

**Statistical analysis**

Scientific explanation of any finding is not possible unless some statistical treatments have been given to the data obtained. Statistics provide very clear picture of the results only in the form of its numerical results. Therefore, statistical treatment to the data obtained is inevitably necessary to become sure about the reliability pattern of the result as well. Analysis means categorizing, reducing and summarizing data to obtain results of research problems.

Appropriate statistics were used to fulfil the research objectives. In the present investigation, researcher had used SPSS 15.0 package for undertaking Product-moment coefficient of correlation, t-test and Regression analysis. Pearson product-moment coefficient of correlation is the most widely used method of measuring the degree of relationship between two variables. In this study Pearson product moment correlation method was applied for determining the relationship between creative experience, academic achievement, self-esteem and emotional stability. Inter group comparisons were conducted by applying t-test.

Regression analysis is considered to be the most useful technique because it ascertains the influence of several independent variables on the dependent one. In the present study there are two independent variables i.e. creative experience and academic achievement and two dependent variables i.e. self-esteem and emotional stability through this technique the researcher intends to determine the significant predictors of criterion or dependent variables. Thus regression analysis was used by the investigator.
CHAPTER IV

RESULTS
In the previous chapter, all aspects of methodology related to this research work were described. The purpose of this chapter is to present the tables and interpretation of the results. The statistical techniques employed for the analysis were product-moment coefficient of correlation, t-test, and regression analysis.

**Table 1**

**Inter Correlation Between Demographic Variables and Psychological Variables of Visually Handicapped and Sighted Students**

<table>
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<th>Age</th>
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</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05; ** p < .01


The table 1 shows that creative experience is significantly and positively correlated with academic achievement (r=.411) at .01 level. While, creative experience is not significantly correlated with personally perceived self (r=-.017), socially perceived self (r=.037), difference (r=-.078), emotional
stability ($r=-.090$), gender ($r=.004$), age ($r=.105$), family system ($r=.000$) and area of living ($r=-.003$) of visually handicapped and sighted students.

The result presented in proceeding table also illustrate that academic achievement has positive significant correlation with socially perceived self ($r=.142$) and gender ($r=.167$) at .05 level. Negative significant correlation is being found between academic achievement and difference ($r=-.195$) at .01 level. Academic achievement is not significantly correlated with personally perceived self ($r=-.023$), emotional stability ($r=-.100$), age ($r=.103$), family system ($r=-.014$) and area of living ($r=.131$) of visually handicapped and sighted students.

The results highlight that personally perceived self is positively and significantly related to socially perceived self ($r=.596$) at .01 level. Personally perceived self is negatively but significantly related to emotional stability ($r=-.193$) and age ($r=-.212$) at .01 level. Personally perceived self is not significantly associated with difference ($r=.034$), gender ($r=-.057$), family system ($r=.096$) and area of living ($r=.085$) of visually handicapped and sighted students.

It is clear from the table that socially perceived self has positive significant relation with gender ($r=.176$) at .05 level. Negative significant correlation have been found between socially perceived self and difference ($r=-.776$) at .01 level. Socially perceived self is not significantly correlated with emotional stability ($r=-.078$), age ($r=-.039$), family system ($r=.054$) and area of living ($r=.041$) of visually handicapped and sighted students.

It is evident from the table that negative but significant correlation have been found between difference and gender ($r=-.261$) at .01 level.
Difference is not significantly correlated to emotional stability \( (r=-.049) \), age \( (r=-.127) \), family system \( (r=.000) \) and area of living \( (r=.016) \) of visually handicapped and sighted students.

The table reveals significant positive correlation between emotional stability and gender \( (r=.248) \) at .01 level. Emotional stability is not significantly associated with age \( (r=-.127) \), family system \( (-.040) \), and area of living \( (r=-.008) \) of visually handicapped and sighted students.

### Table 2

**Inter Correlation Between Demographic Variables and Psychological Variables of Visually Handicapped Students**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</table>

* p < .05; ** p < .01


The table 2 explains that creative experience is significantly and positively correlated with academic achievement \( (r=.411) \) at .01 level. Creative experience is not significantly related to personally perceived self
(r=-.103), socially perceived self (r=-.039), difference (r=-.061), emotional
stability (r=-.100), gender (-.044), age (r=.197), family system (r=.086) and
area of living (r=.048) of visually handicapped students.

It can also be observed from table that academic achievement is
significantly and positively correlated with age (r=.345) at .01 level.
Academic achievement is not significantly correlated with personally
perceived self (r=-.144), socially perceived self (r=-.036), difference (-.084),
emotional stability (r=-.077), gender (r=.139), family system (r=.032) and
area of living (r=.109) of visually handicapped students.

It is being noticed from table that there is significant positive
correlation between personally perceived self and socially perceived self
(r=.626) at .01 level. Personally perceived self is negatively but significantly
correlated with age (r=-.228) at .05 level. Personally perceived self is not
significantly correlated with difference (r=.037), emotional stability (r=.141),
gender (r=-.170), family system (r=.187) and area of living (r=.046) of
visually handicapped students.

The table also mentions that socially perceived self is negatively but
significantly correlated with difference (r=-.749) at .01 level. Socially
perceived self is not significantly correlated with emotional stability (r=.007),
gender (r=.016), age (r=.024), family system (r=.137) and area of living
(r=.004) of visually handicapped students.

The table defines that difference has no significant correlation with
emotional stability (r=-.122), gender (r=-.119), age (r=-.176), family system
(r=.041), and area of living (r=.028) of visually handicapped students.
The significant positive correlation exits between emotional stability and gender ($r=.570$) at .01 level. Negative significant correlation is being found between emotional stability and age ($r=-.315$) at .01 level. Emotional stability is not significantly related to family system ($r=.080$) and area of living ($r=.015$) of visually handicapped students.

Table 3

Inter Correlation Between Demographic Variables and Psychological Variables of Sighted Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>CE</th>
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<th>PPS</th>
<th>SPS</th>
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</table>

* p < .05; ** p < .01


Table 3 describes positive significant correlation between creative experience and academic achievement ($r=.422$) at .01 level. Creative experience is not significantly correlated with personally perceived self ($r=.074$), socially perceived self ($r=.109$), difference ($r=-.093$), emotional stability ($r=-.080$), gender ($r=.044$), age ($r=.041$), family system ($r=-.103$) and area of living ($r=-.135$) of sighted students.
It is being noticed from table 3 that positive significant correlation have been found between academic achievement and socially perceived self \((r=.294)\) at .01 level. Academic achievement is negatively but significantly correlated with difference \((r=-.300)\) at .01 level. Academic achievement is not significantly associated with personally perceived self \((r=.064)\), emotional stability \((r=-.138)\), gender \((r=.151)\), age \((r=.032)\), family system \((r=-.129)\) and area of living \((r=-.008)\) of sighted students.

The table displays that personally perceived self is positively and significantly associated with socially perceived self \((r=.546)\) at .01 level. Negative significant correlation is being found between personally perceived self and emotional stability \((r=-.263)\) at .01 level. Personally perceived self is not significantly correlated with Difference \((r=.045)\), gender \((r=.028)\), age \((r=-.095)\), family system \((r=-.056)\) and area of living \((r=.050)\) of sighted students.

The table describes that socially perceived self is significantly correlated with gender \((r=.340)\) at .01 level. Negative significant correlation have been found between socially perceived self and difference \((r=-.807)\) at .01 level. Socially perceived self is not significantly correlated with emotional stability \((r=-.174)\), age \((r=.073)\), family system \((r=-.075)\) and area of living \((r=-.013)\) of sighted students.

It can also be drawn from table that difference is negatively but significantly associated with gender \((r=-.385)\) at .01 level. Difference is not significantly correlated with emotional stability \((r=.024)\), age \((r=-.147)\), family system \((r=.055)\) and area of living \((r=.049)\) of sighted students.
The table depicts that emotional stability is not significantly correlated with gender ($r=-.069$), age ($r=.102$), family system ($r=-.185$) and area of living ($r=-.079$) of sighted students.

**Table 4**

**Showing Mean Comparison Between Visually Handicapped and Sighted Students on Creative Experience (CE), Academic Achievement (AA), Self-Esteem (SE) and Emotional Stability (ES)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Visually handicapped students</th>
<th>Sighted students</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CE</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AA</td>
<td>57.06</td>
<td>61.94</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>6.57</td>
<td>6.65</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is evident from table 4 that there is no significant difference between the mean scores of visually handicapped and sighted students on creative experience ($t=.31, p >.05$), self-esteem ($t=.67, p >.05$) and emotional stability ($t=.26, p >.05$). Whereas, significant difference can be found between the mean scores of visually handicapped and sighted students on academic achievement ($t=2.97, p <.01$). Sighted students scored significantly high mean scores ($M=61.94$) than visually handicapped students ($M=57.06$) on academic achievement. On creative experience sighted students scored high mean scores ($M=3.66$) than visually handicapped students ($M=3.62$). In case of emotional stability, sighted students scored high mean scores ($M=6.65$) than visually handicapped students ($M=6.57$) whereas on self-esteem visually
handicapped students scored high mean scores ($M=.47$) than sighted students ($M=.41$).

**Table 5**

**Showing Mean Comparison Between Visually Handicapped and Sighted Boys and Visually Handicapped and Sighted Girls on Creative Experience (CE), Academic Achievement (AA), Self-Esteem (SE) and Emotional Stability (ES)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Visually handicapped and sighted boys</th>
<th>Visually handicapped and sighted girls</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CE</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AA</td>
<td>57.77</td>
<td>61.75</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>6.13</td>
<td>7.23</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It may be seen from the table 5 that visually handicapped and sighted boys and visually handicapped and sighted girls differ significantly on academic achievement ($t=2.39$, $p<.05$), self-esteem ($t=3.81$, $p<.01$) and emotional stability ($t=3.61$, $p<.01$). Visually handicapped and sighted girls scored significantly high mean scores ($M=61.75$) than visually handicapped and sighted boys ($M=57.77$) on academic achievement. In the case of emotional stability visually handicapped and sighted girls scored high mean scores ($M=7.23$) than visually handicapped and sighted boys ($M=6.13$), whereas visually handicapped and sighted boys scored significantly high mean scores ($M=.58$) than visually handicapped and sighted girls ($M=.26$) on self-esteem. No significant difference found between visually handicapped
and sighted boys and visually handicapped and sighted girls on creative experience (t=.05, p>.05).

Table 6

Showing Mean Comparison Between Visually Handicapped Boys and Visually Handicapped Girls on Creative Experience (CE), Academic Achievement (AA), Self-Esteem (SE), and Emotional Stability (ES)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Visually handicapped boys</th>
<th>Visually handicapped girls</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CE</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AA</td>
<td>55.78</td>
<td>59.26</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>5.60</td>
<td>8.22</td>
<td>6.86</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 indicates no significant difference between the mean scores of visually handicapped boys and visually handicapped girls on creative experience (t=.44, p>.05), academic achievement (t=1.39, p>.05) and self-esteem (t=1.19, p>.05). However, visually handicapped boys and visually handicapped girls differ significantly on emotional stability (t=6.86, p<.01). Visually handicapped girls scored significantly high mean scores on emotional stability (M=8.22) than visually handicapped boys (M=5.60). On academic achievement visually handicapped girls scored high mean scores (M=59.26) than visually handicapped boys (M=55.78), whereas visually handicapped boys scored high mean scores (M=3.65) than visually handicapped girls (M=3.56) on creative experience. In the case of self-esteem visually handicapped boys scored high mean scores (M=.52) than visually handicapped girls (M=.38).
Table 7

Showing Mean Comparison Between Sighted Boys and Sighted Girls on Creative Experience (CE), Academic Achievement (AA), Self-Esteem (SE) and Emotional Stability (ES)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Sighted boys</th>
<th>Sighted girls</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CE</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AA</td>
<td>60.28</td>
<td>63.60</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>6.80</td>
<td>6.50</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 shows that sighted boys and sighted girls do not differ significantly on creative experience (t=.43, p >.05), academic achievement (t=1.52, p >.05), and emotional stability (t=.69, p >.05). They only differ significantly on self-esteem (t=4.13, p <.01). Sighted boys scored significantly high mean scores (M=.65) on self-esteem than sighted girls (M=.17). Further it can be seen that sighted boys scored high mean scores (M=6.80) on emotional stability than sighted girls (M=6.50), whereas sighted girls scored high mean scores (M=3.70) than sighted boys (M=3.62) on creative experience and sighted girls also scored high mean scores (M=63.60) than sighted boys (M=60.28) on academic achievement.
Table 8

Showing Mean Comparison Between age group 5-12 and 13-19 Years of Age of Visually Handicapped and Sighted Students on Creative Experience (CE), Academic Achievement (AA), Self-Esteem (SE) and Emotional Stability (ES)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Age of visually handicapped and sighted students</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5-12</td>
<td>13-19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>1.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AA</td>
<td>58.53</td>
<td>61.00</td>
<td>1.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>1.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>6.83</td>
<td>6.27</td>
<td>1.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It may be seen from table 8 that there is no significant difference between two age groups i.e. 5-12 years and 13-19 years of visually handicapped and sighted students on creative experience (t=1.49, p >.05), academic achievement (t=1.45, p >.05), self-esteem (t=1.80, p >.05) and emotional stability (t=1.80, p >.05). The 5-12 years age group of visually handicapped and sighted students scored high mean scores (M=.50) than 13-19 years age group of visually handicapped and sighted students (M=.35) on self-esteem. We can also see that 5-12 years age group students scored high mean scores (M=6.83) on emotional stability than 13-19 years age group of visually handicapped and sighted students (M=6.27). The 13-19 years age group of visually handicapped and sighted students scored high mean scores (M=61.00) on academic achievement than 5-12 years age group of visually handicapped and sighted students (M=58.53). Whereas it can also be observed that 13-19 years age group of visually handicapped and sighted students
scored high mean scores (M=3.76) than 5-12 years age group of visually handicapped and sighted students (M=3.56) on creative experience.

Table 9
Showing Mean Comparison Between Age Group 5-12 and 13-19 Years of Age of Visually Handicapped Students on Creative Experience (CE), Academic Achievement (AA), Self-Esteem (SE) and Emotional Stability (ES)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Age of visually handicapped students</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5-12</td>
<td>13-19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>1.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AA</td>
<td>51.95</td>
<td>60.48</td>
<td>3.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>1.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>7.43</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>3.29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is clear from table 9 that there is significant difference between two age groups i.e. 5-12 years and 13-19 years of visually handicapped students on creative experience (t=1.98, p <.05), academic achievement (t=3.64, p <.01) and emotional stability (t=3.29, p <.01) whereas, no significant difference has been found between these two age groups on self-esteem (t=1.77, p >.05). Visually handicapped students, whose age are 5-12 years, scored significantly high mean scores (M=7.43) than 13-19 years age group of visually handicapped students (M=6.00) on emotional stability, while visually handicapped students whose age are within the range of 13-19 years, scored significantly high mean scores (M=3.77) than 5-12 years age group of visually handicapped students (M=3.40) on creative experience. On academic achievement 13-19 years age group of visually handicapped students scored significantly high mean scores (M=60.48) than 5-12 years age group of visually handicapped students (M=51.95). In case of self-esteem the age
group of 5-12 years of visually handicapped scored high mean scores (M=.60) in comparison to 13-19 years age group of visually handicapped students (M=.39).

Table 10

Showing Mean comparison Between age group 5-12 and 13-19 Years of Age of Sighted Students on Creative Experience (CE), Academic Achievement (AA), Self-Esteem (SE) and Emotional Stability (ES)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Age of sighted students</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
<td>5-12</td>
<td>13-19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AA</td>
<td>61.77</td>
<td>62.67</td>
<td>.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>1.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>6.54</td>
<td>7.11</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10 shows that there is no significant difference between the two age groups of 5-12 years and 13-19 years of sighted students on creative experience (t=.40, p >.05), academic achievement (t=.32, p >.05), self-esteem (t=1.48, p >.05) and emotional stability (t=1.01, p >.05). The 5-12 years age group sighted students acquired a high mean scores (M=.46) in comparison to the age group of 13-19 years sighted students (M=.22) on self-esteem. Sighted students whose age are within the range of 13-19 years, scored high mean scores (M=3.74) than the age group of 5-12 years sighted students (M=3.64) on creative experience. On academic achievement 13-19 years age group sighted students scored high mean scores (M=62.67) than 5-12 years age group students (M=61.77). The 13-19 years age group students scored high mean scores (M=7.11) than 5-12 age group of sighted students (M=6.54) on emotional stability.
Table 11
Showing Mean Comparison Between Visually Handicapped and Sighted Students of Joint and Nuclear Family System on Creative Experience (CE), Academic Achievement (AA), Self-Esteem (SE) and Emotional Stability (ES)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Family system of visually handicapped and sighted students</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Joint</td>
<td>Nuclear</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AA</td>
<td>59.79</td>
<td>59.40</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>6.76</td>
<td>6.56</td>
<td>.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11 shows no significant difference between visually handicapped and sighted students who belong to joint family system and those who are living in nuclear family system on creative experience ($t=.000$, $p > .05$), academic achievement ($t=.20$, $p > .05$), self-esteem ($t=.000$, $p > .05$) and emotional stability ($t=.56$, $p > .05$). Visually handicapped and sighted students of joint family system and nuclear family system scored equal mean scores ($M=3.64$) on creative experience, whereas visually handicapped and sighted students who are from joint family system scored high mean scores ($M=59.79$) on academic achievement than who are living in nuclear family system ($M=59.40$). Students who come from joint family system and who belong to nuclear family system scored equal mean scores on self-esteem ($M=.44$). On emotional stability students from joint family system scored high mean scores ($M=6.76$) in comparison to students who live in nuclear family system ($M=6.56$).
Table 12
Showing Mean Comparison Between Visually Handicapped Students of Joint and Nuclear Family System on Creative Experience (CE), Academic Achievement (AA), Self-Esteem (SE) and Emotional Stability (ES)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Family system of visually handicapped</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Joint</td>
<td>Nuclear</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AA</td>
<td>56.47</td>
<td>57.32</td>
<td>.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>6.30</td>
<td>6.69</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12 indicates that there is no significant difference between the visually handicapped students who are from joint family system and who belong to nuclear family system on creative experience ($t=.85$, $p >.05$), academic achievement ($t=.32$, $p >.05$), self-esteem ($t=.40$, $p >.05$) and emotional stability ($t=.79$, $p >.05$). Visually handicapped students who live in joint family system scored high mean scores on self-esteem ($M=.51$) than visually handicapped students who belong to nuclear family system ($M=.46$). Whereas visually handicapped students who have nuclear family system scored high mean scores on creative experience ($M=3.67$) in comparison to visually handicapped students who have joint family system ($M=3.50$). The students of nuclear family system scored high mean scores on academic achievement ($M=57.32$) than students of joint family system ($M=56.47$). In case of emotional stability students of nuclear family system scored high mean scores ($M=6.69$) than visually handicapped students who have joint family system ($M=6.30$).
Table 13
Showing Mean Comparison Between Sighted Students of Joint and Nuclear Family System on Creative Experience (CE), Academic Achievement (AA), Self-Esteem (SE) and Emotional Stability (ES)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Family system of sighted students</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Joint</td>
<td>Nuclear</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AA</td>
<td>64.77</td>
<td>61.23</td>
<td>1.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>7.45</td>
<td>6.45</td>
<td>1.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13 shows no significant difference among sighted students who have joint family system and who have nuclear family system on creative experience (t=1.03, p >.05), academic achievement (t=1.29, p >.05), self-esteem (t=.55, p >.05) and emotional stability (t=1.86, p >.05). Sighted students who belong to joint family system scored high mean scores (M=3.85) than sighted students who have nuclear family system (M=3.61) on creative experience. The sighted students of joint family system also scored high mean scores (M=64.77) on academic achievement in comparison to students who belong to nuclear family system (M=61.23). In case of emotional stability, students of joint family system scored high mean scores (M=7.45) than students of nuclear family system (M=6.45). While Sighted students who are from nuclear family system scored high mean scores (M=.43) on self-esteem than sighted students who have joint family system (M=.35).
Table 14

Showing Mean Comparison Between Visually Handicapped and Sighted Student of Rural and Urban Area on Creative Experience (CE), Academic Achievement (AA), Self-Esteem (SE) and Emotional Stability (ES)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Area of living of visually handicapped and sighted students</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AA</td>
<td>56.08</td>
<td>60.21</td>
<td>1.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>6.65</td>
<td>6.60</td>
<td>.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table reveals the fact that there is no significant difference between visually handicapped and sighted students who are living in urban area and who belong to rural area on creative experience (t=.05, p >.05), academic achievement (t=1.87, p >.05), self-esteem (t=.23, p >.05) and emotional stability (t=.11, p >.05). The overall population of visually handicapped and sighted students who belong to the rural area scored high mean scores (M=3.65) on creative experience than students who come from urban area (M=3.64). The students of rural area also scored high mean scores (M=6.65) on emotional stability than students of urban area (M=6.60). Whereas visually handicapped and sighted students who live in urban area scored high mean scores (M=.45) on self-esteem than students who belong to rural area (M=.42). Students of urban area also scored high mean scores (M=60.21) on academic achievement than students who come from rural area (M=56.08).
Table 15

Showing Mean Comparison Between Visually Handicapped Student of Rural and Urban Area on Creative Experience (CE), Academic Achievement (AA), Self-Esteem (SE) and Emotional Stability (ES)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Area of living of visually handicapped students</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AA</td>
<td>55.00</td>
<td>57.91</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>6.52</td>
<td>6.59</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the table 15 illustrates that in case of visually handicapped students there is no significant difference between urban and rural students on creative experience ($t=.47$, $p > .05$), academic achievement ($t=1.09$, $p > .05$), self-esteem ($t=.28$, $p > .05$) and emotional stability ($t=.15$, $p > .05$). Visually handicapped students who lives in urban area scored high mean scores on creative experience ($M=3.65$) than students of rural area ($M=3.55$). On academic achievement the urban students also scored high mean scores ($M=57.91$) in comparison to rural students ($M=55.00$). Urban students mean score is also high on self-esteem ($M=.48$) than rural students ($Mean=.44$). In case of emotional stability the urban area students also scored high mean scores ($M=6.59$) than rural area students ($M=6.52$).
Table 16

Showing Mean Comparison Between Sighted Student of Urban and Rural Area on Creative Experience (CE), Academic Achievement (AA), Self-Esteem (SE) and Emotional Stability (ES)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Area of living of sighted students</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>3.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE</td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AA</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>62.34</td>
<td>61.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td></td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td></td>
<td>.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>7.40</td>
<td>6.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td></td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16, reveals that no significant difference exists between sighted urban and rural students on creative experience (t=1.35, p >.05), academic achievement (t=.08, p >.05), self-esteem (t=.49, p >.05) and emotional stability (t=.79, p >.05). Sighted students who live in rural area scored high mean scores (M=4.20) on creative experience than urban students (M=3.63). The sighted students of rural area also scored high mean scores (M=62.34) on academic achievement than urban students (Mean=61.92). On emotional stability students of rural area scored high mean scores (Mean=7.40) than students of urban area (M=6.61). Whereas sighted students who live in urban area scored high mean scores (M=.42) on self-esteem in comparison of the students who live in rural area (M=.28).
Table 17
Self-Esteem Regressed on Creative Experience (CE) and Academic Achievement (AA) of Visually Handicapped and Sighted Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Standardized coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CE</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AA</td>
<td>-.195</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 17 shows that 4% of the variation in self-esteem can be explained on the basis of creative experience and academic achievement. The table depicts that of the two predictor variables i.e. creative experience and academic achievement, academic achievement (t=2.55, p <.05) emerged as a significant predictor in explaining self-esteem of the total sample i.e. visually handicapped and sighted students. Whereas, creative experience (t=.03, p >.05) does not have any significant contribution in defining self-esteem of visually handicapped and sighted students.

Table 18
Self-Esteem Regressed on Creative Experience (CE) and Academic Achievement (AA) of Visually Handicapped Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Standardized coefficient</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CE</td>
<td>-.031</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AA</td>
<td>-.071</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 18 indicates that 1% variation in self-esteem can be explained through creative experience and academic achievement. It means that of the
two predictors i.e. creative experience ($t=.28, p >.05$) and academic achievement ($t=.64, p >.05$), both are not emerged as significant predictors in explaining self-esteem of visually handicapped students.

Table 19
Self-Esteem Regressed on Creative Experience (CE) and Academic Achievement (AA) of Sighted Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Standardized coefficient</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CE</td>
<td>.041</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AA</td>
<td>-.317</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 19 reveals 9% variation in self-esteem can be explained on the basis of creative experience and academic achievement. The table also shows that of the two predictors i.e. creative experience and academic achievement, academic achievement ($t=2.97, p <.01$) emerged as a significant predictor in explaining self-esteem of sighted students, whereas creative experience ($t=.38, p >.05$) does not play any significant role in describing self-esteem of sighted students. The similar trend can be seen in table 17.

Table 20
Emotional Stability Regressed on Creative Experience (CE) and Academic Achievement (AA) of Visually Handicapped and Sighted Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Standardized coefficient</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CE</td>
<td>-.059</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AA</td>
<td>-.076</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| R²        | .01                      |
Table 20 illustrates that 1% variation in emotional stability can be explained on the basis of creative experience and academic achievement. Both the predictors i.e. creative experience ($t=.76$, $p >.05$) and academic achievement ($t=.98$, $p >.05$) have no significant contribution in explaining emotional stability of visually handicapped and sighted students.

Table 21
Emotional Stability Regressed on Creative Experience (CE) and Academic Achievement (AA) of Visually Handicapped Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Standardized coefficient</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CE</td>
<td>-.083</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AA</td>
<td>-.044</td>
<td>-.39</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td></td>
<td>.01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be observed from table 21 that 1% variance in emotional stability can be explained on the basis of creative experience and academic achievement. Of the two predictor variables i.e. creative experience ($t=.75$, $p >.05$) and academic achievement ($t=-.39$, $p >.05$) both do not play significant role in elucidating emotional stability of visually handicapped students.

Table 22
Emotional Stability Regressed on Creative Experience (CE) and Academic Achievement (AA) of Sighted Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Standardized coefficient</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CE</td>
<td>-.026</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AA</td>
<td>-.127</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td></td>
<td>.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 22 gives us a view of 2% variation in emotional stability on the basis of creative experience and academic achievement. Two of the predictors i.e. creative experience (t=.24, p >.05) and academic achievement (t=1.15, p >.05) have no significant contribution in interpreting emotional stability of sighted students.

Table 23
Self-Esteem Regressed on Gender, Age, Family System (FS) and Area of Living (AL) of Visually Handicapped and Sighted Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Standardized coefficient</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-.299</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.172</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FS</td>
<td>-.005</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AL</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td></td>
<td>.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is clear from table 23 that 10% variation in self-esteem can be explained on the basis of the four predictor variables i.e. gender, age, family system and area of living. While, only gender (t=4.28, p <.01) and age (t=2.47, p >.05) emerge as significant contributor in defining self-esteem of visually handicapped and sighted students. The remaining two predictors i.e. family system (t=.07, p >.05) and area of living (t=.65, p >.05) do not play any significant role in describing self-esteem of visually handicapped and sighted students.
Table 24
Self-Esteem Regressed on Gender, Age, Family System (FS) and Area of Living (AL) of Visually Handicapped Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Standardized coefficient</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-.151</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.196</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FS</td>
<td>-.013</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AL</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td></td>
<td>.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 24 depicts that 5% variation in self-esteem can be explained on the basis of the four predictor variables i.e. gender, age, family system and area of living. All the four predictors i.e. gender ($t=1.49$, $p >.05$), age ($t=1.92$, $p >.05$), family system ($t=.13$, $p >.05$) and area of living ($t=.52$, $p >.05$) do not contribute significantly in explaining self-esteem of visually handicapped students.

Table 25
Self-Esteem Regressed on Gender, Age, Family System (FS) and Area of Living of Sighted Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Standardized coefficient</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-.439</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.190</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FS</td>
<td>-.013</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AL</td>
<td>.130</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td></td>
<td>.20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is crucial to note from the table 25 that 20% variation in self-esteem can be explained on the basis of the four predictor variables i.e. gender, age,
family system and area of living. Only gender ($t=4.62$, $p < .01$) and age ($t=2.01$, $< .05$) emerge as significant contributor in defining self-esteem of sighted students. The remaining two predictors i.e. family system ($t=.14$, $p > .05$) and area of living ($t=1.34$, $p > .05$) do not contribute significantly in explaining self-esteem of sighted students.

**Table 26**

**Emotional Stability Regressed on Gender, Age, Family System (FS) and Area of Living (AL) of Visually Handicapped and Sighted Students**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Standardized coefficient</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.244</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.096</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FS</td>
<td>-.045</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AL</td>
<td>-.059</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td></td>
<td>.08</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is evident from table 26 that 8% variation in emotional stability can be explained on the basis of the four predictor variables i.e. gender, age, family system and area of living, out of these only gender ($t=3.45$, $p < .01$) contribute significantly in defining emotional stability of visually handicapped and sighted students. Age ($t=1.36$, $p > .05$), family system ($t=.64$, $p > .05$) and area of living ($t=.83$, $p > .05$) do not contribute significantly in explaining emotional stability of visually handicapped and sighted students.
Table 27

Emotional Stability Regressed on Gender, Age, Family System (FS) and Area of Living (AL) of Visually Handicapped Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Standardized coefficient</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.538</td>
<td>6.60</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.254</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FS</td>
<td>.093</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AL</td>
<td>-.058</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R^2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 27 describes that 39% variation in self-esteem can be explained on the basis of the four predictors i.e. gender, age, family system, and area of living, only gender (t=6.60, p <.01) and age (t=3.11, p >.05), emerge as significant predictors in explaining emotional stability of visually handicapped students. On the other hand family system (t=1.15, p >.05) and area of living (t=.71, p >.05) have no significant emergence as the predictors of emotional stability of visually handicapped students.

Table 28

Emotional Stability Regressed on Gender, Age, Family System (FS) and Area of Living (AL) of Sighted Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Standardized coefficient</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-.057</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.058</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FS</td>
<td>-.168</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AL</td>
<td>-.021</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R^2</td>
<td></td>
<td>.04</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 28 explains that 4% variation in emotional stability can be defined on the basis of the four predictor variables i.e. gender, age, family system and area of living. However, all the four predictors i.e. gender (t=.55, p >.05), age (t=.56, p >.05), family system (t=1.60, p >.05), and area of living (t=.19, p >.05) do not have any significant contribution as the predictors of emotional stability of sighted students.
CHAPTER-V

DISCUSSION
The focus of the present investigation is on studying Creative Experience and Academic Achievement as Determinants of Self-esteem and Emotional Stability of Visually Handicapped Students. Results indicate that creative experience does not have any significant contribution in defining self-esteem of visually handicapped and sighted students (Table 17). Table 18 clearly shows that creative experience does not emerge as a significant predictor in explaining self-esteem of visually handicapped students. Creative experience also has no significant role in describing self-esteem of sighted students (Table 19). Thus on the basis of the above results we can conclude that creative experience has no significant influence on self-esteem.

Some earlier studies support this finding like Wright and Noppe (1975) found no significant relationship between creativity and self-esteem. Williams, Poole, and Lett (1977) found that there were no significant differences between the self-esteem scores of high and low creative individuals. Rampoul, Singh and Didyk (1998) found correlation between self-concept and creativity, were generally low or negative. Copper (1977) suggests no significant relationship between self-concept and creativity. Jaquish and Ripple (1981) found no relationship between measure of divergent thinking and self-esteem across different age groups.

On the other hand, Felker and Trefinger (1971) found that fourth grade students having high self-concept, scored significantly higher than low self-concept students on self-evaluation of creative abilities and verbal fluency, flexibility and originality. Nabi (1979) argued that the creative person possess self-acceptance to a greater extent than less creative people. Kristen and Giri (1996) also found positive relation between self-esteem and creativity.
Coopersmith (1967) found that persons with high self-esteem are likely to be more creative, assertive, and independent than persons with low self-esteem. Curva (1983) found a significant correlation between the self-concept and subtest fluency of the creative thinking test.

It is clear from above studies that some studies found positive relationship between creativity and self-esteem whereas, others found negative relationship. Many of the discrepancies may be due to the use of different measures of creativity and of self-esteem or self-concept. The concept of self-esteem and self-concept are not precisely the same, and some of the differences in the results may be due to using the term interchangeably. In addition, inconsistencies in the result may be due to that people of different age groups were used as subjects in different studies. It may not be appropriate to compare studies using people of different age groups because the relationship between creativity and self-esteem/self-concept may vary over the life span. In any instance it is not at all clear that creativity necessarily related to a good self-concept. Therefore, it is probably best to say that creativity and self-concept are moderately positively related.

Results also highlight that academic achievement emerged as significant predictor in explaining self-esteem of overall sampled population i.e. visually handicapped and sighted students (Table 17). However, academic achievement does not emerge as significant predictor of self-esteem of visually handicapped students (Table 18). Academic achievement has been emerged as a significant predictor in describing the self-esteem of sighted students (Table 19).
A number of studies supported the finding that academic achievement is a significant predictor of self-esteem. Some studies have shown that academic achievement and self-esteem have a positive relationship. Purky (1970) found that self-esteem is related to some components of success either academic or verbal. He concluded that there is continuous interaction between self-esteem and academic achievement. Low self-esteem is believed to cause countless diverse problems such as academic underachievement, academic overachievement, drug addiction, violent behaviour, teenage pregnancy and criminal behaviour (Adler, Cohen, Honston, Manly, Wingert & Wright, 1992). Beck (1984) supported the contention that positive self-concept and academic achievement are closely related. Rosenberg (1965) suggests that the key to self-esteem is that the amount of difference between what a person desires and what that person considers he/she achieved and the general sense of support that persons feels from people around him/her.

High self-esteem has many positive effects and benefits, especially among college students. Students who feel positive about themselves have fewer sleepless nights, succumb, less easily to pressure of conformity by peers, are less likely to use drugs and alcohol, are more persistent at difficult task, are happier and more sociable, and most pertinent to this study is that they tend to perform better academically. On the other hand, college students who have low self-esteem tend to be unhappy, less sociable, more likely to use drugs and alcohol, and are vulnerable to depression, which are all related with lower academic achievement (Wiggins, 1994). Marsh (1992) found very specific relationship between self-concept and school achievement.
Hamachak (1995) also stated that self-concept and school achievement are related. The major issue is the direction of the relationship: does self-concept produce achievement, does achievement produce self-concept. Gage and Berliner (1992) state, “the evidence is accumulating, however, to indicate that level of school success, particularly over many years, predicts level of regard of self and one’s own ability (Bridgeman & Shipman, 1978; Kifer, 1975) whereas level of self-esteem does not predict level of school achievement. The implication is that teachers need to concentrate on the academic success and failures of their students. It is the students’ history of success and failure that gives them the information with which to assess themselves”.

There is general agreement that there is a close relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement. However, there is considerable disagreement as to the specific nature of this relationship. It has been argued that students have to do well in school in order to have positive self-esteem or self-concept, another position is that a positive self-esteem is necessary prerequisite for doing well in school.

Covington (1989) reported that as the level of self-esteem increases, academic achievement also increases; as self-esteem decreases, achievements decline. Holly (1987) compiled a summary of some 50 studies, and indicated that most supported the idea that self-esteem was more likely the result than the cause of academic achievement. However, he acknowledged that certain level of self-esteem is needed in order to achieve academic success for a student and that self-esteem and achievement go hand in hand. They feed each other.
However, the debate about which comes first— a positive self-concept or academic achievement—is more academic than practical. The most essential thing is to appreciate the interaction and the reciprocal dynamics between self-concept and achievement. They are mutually reinforcing. While there may be little justification for embarking on a programme to raise the level of self-esteem with the aim of raising academic achievement. There are many other justifications for raising self-esteem of students.

Research on the effects of self-esteem on educational levels has shown that those with a higher level of self-concept tend to do better in school and receive more education. This further specifies, those with more education have a higher level of self-concept. Various studies have shown that people with low self-esteem try to avoid exposing their unfavourable characteristics. In order to do this, they avoid any thing that may risk revealing their mistakes. Due to this, they do not take on any challenges that may also bring rewards, such as furthering their education (Wood et al, 1994).

Different studies reached the conclusion that academic achievement and self-esteem are positively related (Bankston & Zhou, 2002; Lockett & Harrel, 2003; Verkuyten & Brug, 2002; Wong & Watkins, 2001). Educational achievement and self-esteem seem to be highly interrelated and influences each other; nonetheless, the foundation for academic achievement seems to be positive self-esteem, which has to be cultivated early in life. Low self-esteem is often cited as the eventual source of poor academic achievement and self destructive behaviour (Haggerty et al, 1996). Maikhuri (1997) found in his study that there is no significant correlation between academic achievement and self-concept.
The present investigation reveals that academic achievement is a significant predictor of self-esteem of sighted students however; it is not a significant predictor of self-esteem of visually handicapped students. Results also depicts that creative experience does not predict self-esteem of sighted as well as visually handicapped students. Reasons behind this are that in academic achievement a student is able to get his/her academic performance in the form of examination report card. This visual report card is helpful to enhance self-esteem of sighted students. Whereas visually handicapped students do not perceive it in the similar manner, the visually handicapped students greatly differ from the sighted students in terms of self-esteem and academic achievement.

Contrary to this, creative experience is not a predictor of sighted or visually handicapped students. The creativity is the inner ability of an individual. Although the students are being applauded for their creativity, but it encourages them for the time being and does not have any impact on their report card. That is why it is not a significant predictor of self-esteem.

Results indicate that creative experience does not contribute significantly in explaining emotional stability of visually handicapped and sighted students (Table 20). Table 21 shows that creative experience has no significant role in defining emotional stability of visually handicapped students. In Table 22 we can see that creative experience does not emerge as a significant predictor in elucidating emotional stability of sighted students. On the basis of this result we can say that creative experience is not a significant predictor of emotional stability.
There have been many studies which support these findings like Cattell and Drevdahl (1955) compared the scores of 140 famous scientists in American universities, with those of university teachers and administrators and also with average score of the general population. The research scientists were found to be more withdrawn and unsociable, less emotionally stable, more intellectually self-sufficient and more radical. The same differences were found when Drevdhal (1956) compared creative and non creative students in science and arts subjects. Creative individuals have been observed to be gloomy, bitter, cool, unstable, pessimist and pleasure seeking (Barron 1969). Comparative studies are also available on artists-non artists, and scientists-non scientists. Personality factor like stability, anxiety, neuroticism and emotional stability, dominance, independence of emotional behaviour, sensitivity towards others, unconventionality and flexibility, originality, ego involvement and ego strength, control over the impulses, early interest in intellectual activities and hobbies and emotional responsiveness have been comparatively observed to be present in creative individuals. (Roger & Mc Guire, 1967; Cattele 1963; Eiduson, 1962; Taylor & Barron 1963; Cattel 1958; Butcher, 1970).

Cattell and John (1964) found creativity to be much more associated with emotional stability. Goyal (1974), while studying creative science students found that they were characterized by higher level of intelligence, emotional stability and better adjustment. Singh (1975) indicated in his findings that various components of creativity showed positive and significant relationship with emotional adjustment as well as with social adjustment. Gupta et al (1976) found creativity to have positive and significant relation
with social, emotional and educational adjustment of the individual. Singh (1980) reported creativity to have positive and significant relation with social, educational and overall adjustment, but not with the emotional adjustment.

As far as non significant contribution of emotional adjustment to creativity is concerned, it has already been remarked that even emotionally disturbed people like neurotics or psychotics can produce something novel and original, depending upon their inner conflicts and inner urges. Of course the analysis of their creative works may reveal something different from that of emotionally stable person. However, it is to be remarked that the greater number of the empirical findings are in favour of positive influence of emotional stability, independence and maturity on the creative behaviour.

Results of this study also show that academic achievement has no significant contribution in explaining emotional stability of visually handicapped and sighted students (Table 20). Academic achievement do not play significant role in defining emotional stability of visually handicapped students (Table 21). In case of sighted students academic achievement also have no significant contribution in interpreting emotional stability (Table 22).

Lounsbury (2004) studied general intelligence, big five personality traits and construct work drive in relation to two measures of collegiate academic performance a single course grade, and self reported grade point average. Emotional stability was significantly related to course grade but not with grade point average (GPA).

Schniederjan et al (2005) found strong correlation between emotional stability and academic success. Significant correlation between big five traits and academic performance have been demonstrated in a number of studies.
(e.g., Busato, Prins, Elshout & Hamaker, 2000; Chamorro-Premuzic & Furnham, 2003; De Fruyt & Mervielde, 1996; Furnham & Chamorro-Premuzic in press; Furnham et al Lounsbury, Sundstron, Loveland, & Gibson, 2003; Paunonen & Ashton, 2001; Paunonen & Nicol 2001). Emotional stability has been identified as factor, contributing to academic success within higher education (Wankowski, 1991). Dhaliwal (1971) attempted to investigate the relationship of certain personality factors with over and underachievement. The findings revealed that over achievement goes with reservedness, high verbal ability, emotional stability, obedience and sobriety while underachievement goes with opposite tendencies of outgoing traits, low verbal ability, emotional instability and happy go lucky dispositions.

Suri (1973) investigated the relationship between personality traits of intellectually superior, average and below average students under matched socioeconomic conditions. The findings revealed that superior students differed from the average and below average and were found to be more intelligent, emotionally stable, assertive, venturesome, tough mindedness, and controlled and relaxed while the average and below average students were found to be less intelligent, affected by feelings, obedient, assertive expedient, shy, tender minded apprehensive, in-disciplined, self-conflicted and tense. Sharma (2006) found in her study that children with high emotional stability have better study habits than their counterparts with low emotional stability.

As the results represent that creative experience and academic achievement of both the visually handicapped and sighted students do not predict emotional stability. It is not necessary that a creative person will also be emotionally stable perhaps the person may be less emotionally stable, as
most of the studies have shown this finding. Similarly, in case of academic achievement the investigator does not find any significant impact of academic achievement on emotional stability of both visually handicapped and sighted students.

The finding clearly reveals that emotional stability which is a personality trait has been governed by various other factors. The factors, which influence emotional stability of a person, are the behaviour and nature of the family members, relatives, friends, and surroundings of that particular person. All these factors make a person emotionally stable or unstable. However, it may be possible that an emotionally stable person is able to acquire a higher degree of achievements as most of the studies have found similar results.

Table 4 shows that there is no significant difference between the mean scores of visually handicapped and sighted students on creative experience. Some studies support this finding, Tisdal and Hurst (1971) conducted study on divergent thinking and found that blind and sighted did not differ on divergent thinking. Madsen and Darrow (1989) compared scores of 32 sight-impaired students on the musical aptitude profile with their performance on a test devised by Walker (1981) to pair visual imagery with musical stimuli. Results indicated that subjects mean scores on the musical aptitude profile were almost identical to the composite mean for similar age matched sighted students. Walker test yields a lower mean.

Lister, Leach, and Walsh (1989) examined the extent to which the development of conversation concepts in 24 visually handicapped children is similar to that in 50 sighted children. Results strongly support for similarity in
order of acquisition of conversation concepts by visually handicapped students and sighted students. Wyver and Markham (1999) compared the scores of 19 children with severe congenital visual impairment (aged 4-12yrs) and 82 children of same age and gender with full vision on divergent thinking. Result shows that there is no significant difference in comparison of the mean scores of children with severe visual impairment and students with full vision.

Halpin, Halpin, and Torrance (1973) compared scores of verbal fluency, verbal flexibility and verbal originality on the Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking for 81 blind and 81 sighted 6-12 yrs olds. Blind subjects were more verbally fluent, flexible and original. Scores did not vary significantly by age, sex or race.

Arora (2002) compared blind and normal children on creative potential and found that blind children show poor creative potential than normal children. Kamila (1986) compared the creative thinking of blind and normal children. The findings of the study revealed that the normal children tend to score significantly higher than the blind children on all the three creative abilities viz fluency, flexibility and originality.

As the result shows that the visually handicapped and sighted students do not differ significantly on creative experience. The major cause of this result is that creativity is an innate human phenomenon. Almost every person has this inborn tendency. That is why both the visually handicapped and sighted students have no difference in case of creativity as most of the studies support this finding. However, in the long run if a person has the exposure to express creativity, may be more creative than the person who does not have the exposure for it. As another set of studies shows that normal children are
more creative than visually handicapped. It is just because they have more exposure in comparison to their counterparts.

Significant difference found between the mean scores of visually handicapped and sighted students on academic achievement (Table 4). Sighted students scored significantly high mean score on academic achievement than visually handicapped students. Bhatnagar (1996) studied 50 blind and 50 sighted, studying in middle and high special school. Sighted children were higher than the blind children on achievement. Visually handicapped were poorly adjusted in emotional, social and educational ground, they were also poor in their total adjustment (Sarita & Sharma 1987).

Venderlock (1982) observed that blind does better on arithmetic than general population. Beaty (1994) conducted a study on assessment of psychological and academic adjustment of 30 undergraduates with visual impairments and 43 nondisabled undergraduates. Result revealed no intergroup differences on psychosocial adjustment. The mean grade point average of subjects with visual impairments was higher than that of nondisabled subjects. Blind/low vision students scored higher than sighted students on self-esteem. It is very interesting to note that a recent study discovered an edge in achievement for the blind as compared to the sighted. The achievement of blind children in Hindi, English and Social Sciences was higher than the sighted peer in an integrated educational setting (Singh, 1984). Okoro (1993) compared the academic achievement of sighted and visually impaired pupils, when expose to two different teaching methods in science. He found that visually impaired pupil performed better than the sighted pupils.
Odetokun (1999) compared the academic achievement of the blind and low vision pupils. Findings revealed that the low vision subjects had higher academic achievement than the blind students. Martinez and Sewell (1996) found no significant difference in the GPA score and IQ scores of the students with and without visual impairment. Klinkosz, Sekowsk, and Brambring (2006) compared academic achievement of sighted and visually handicapped students. They found no main effect of visual status on academic achievement.

The result explains that there is significant difference in the scores of academic achievement of both visually handicapped and sighted students. It is an acceptable general fact that vision plays an important role in every aspect of human life. Hence, sighted students perform better than visually handicapped students. Secondly, more accessories are available for the sighted students in the form of books, audio, video and day to day observations, whereas visually handicapped students have lesser number of useful accessories. All these accessories are helpful to enhance the knowledge of a person which led to better performance. That is why sighted students have higher academic achievement in comparison to visually handicapped students.

Table 4 also shows that there is no significant difference between the mean scores of visually handicapped and sighted students on self-esteem. Martinez and Sewell (1996) investigated the self-concept of students with and without visual impairment. There was no significant difference between the self-concept of visually impaired and sighted students. Sherrill et al (1990) compared the self-esteem of blind and sighted disabled young people aged...
from 9-18 years. No self-esteem differences were found between those categorized as blind and disabled sighted youth. Griffin-Shirley and Nes (2005) studied self-esteem and empathy among 71 students with visual impairment and 88 sighted students. They found no significant differences between the two groups of students in their level of self-esteem, empathy towards others and bonding with pets. Hen, Weisse, and Lifshitz (2007) conducted a study on self-concept and quality of friendship of 40 adolescents with visual impairments (20 in public schools and 20 in a residential school) were compared to those of 41 sighted adolescents. The findings indicate a similar self-concept profile for sighted adolescents and adolescents with visual impairment. Huurre, Komulainen and Aro (1999) found in their study that the self-esteem of the sighted and visually impaired adolescents did not differ significantly.

Beaty (1991) suggested that young people with visual impairment, including with low vision has a lower self-concept in several dimensions than their peers without impairment. Harter et al (1997) found that blind people showed extreme values, they either had a very low self-concept overrated their personal attributes compared to sighted people. Three studies of Spanish students with low vision, aged 4-7, 8-11, and 12–17 years found overall, the participant’s score for some dimensions of self-concept were lower than those of comparison groups of sighted students of same ages (Amezeua, Fernandez, Lopez-Justicia, & Pichardo 2001). Lopez-Justicia, Martinez, and Medina (2005) examined differences in self-concept between children with congenital low vision and their sighted peers. The findings revealed that children with low vision scored lower than those with normal vision.
Obikar and Stile (1990) compared the self-concept of visually impaired and normally sighted students. They found that visually impaired subjects scored high than normally sighted subjects on Student Self-Assessment Inventory subscales. Another sample of blind and sighted 10-13 years old school children showed higher self-esteem among blind children compared to sighted children (Muller, Larned, Leonetti & Muller 1984).

The result highlights an important finding in case of self-esteem. The self-esteem of both the visually handicapped and sighted students does not differ significantly. As we know that self-esteem is an internal tendency of a person to value his/her self. It is an inner feeling of one’s self that how much one favours his/her self. In this world every human being valued himself/herself, whether he/she may be normal or disabled. That is why there is no significant difference between the two groups.

Result also shows no significant differences between the mean scores of visually handicapped and sighted students on emotional stability (Table 4). Zehran (1965) found that blind children possess the same personality characteristics as that of the sighted one. Kapoor and Sen (1984) made a comparative study of the congenitally and adventitiously blind and their sighted peers on some personality variables. The results indicated that the congenitally and adventitiously blind group do not differ significantly from each other or from their sighted peers on the personality variables, emotional stability, perceptual rigidity and social responsibility.

Bhargava and Lavania (1981) compared the personality factors of sensory disabled and normal children having same age and sex. The result showed that the sensory disabled were more reserved, emotionally unstable,
shy, dependent, sentimental, secure and relaxed than their counterparts i.e. the normal children. Goel and Sen (1985) reported few studies which were carried out recently in the context of personality dimension of the visually handicapped. The result showed that a large number of the subjects have poor self-concept and emotional stability, below average intelligence and physical dependence. Rath (1988) compared the personality dynamics of blind and sighted students. The result showed that the blind subjects were less adjusted on the dimensions of family relationship, emotional stability, adjustment to reality, mood and conformity in comparison to sighted students.

The results show no significant difference between visually handicapped students and sighted students on emotional stability. In general terms, we consider emotions as an internal tendency. Every person has this tendency. However, the personal experiences make a person emotionally stable or unstable. Hence, it is the circumstances which play a crucial role in the stability and instability of emotions. It means if a normal person faces the bad circumstances and experiences, he/she may become emotionally unstable, similarly can be happened in case of disabled. Contrary to this if a person experiences good things in life; he/she may be emotionally stable, irrespective of normality and abnormality. It may be occurred just opposite, e.g. if a person has strong control over his or her emotion, can be stable in the bad circumstances irrespective of sights and blindness. That is why there is no significant difference in the emotional stability of visually handicapped and sighted students.

Table 6 shows no significant difference between the creative experience of visually handicapped boys and girls. Siddique (1989) found in
his study that blind boys were found much more creative than the blind girls.
Arora (2000) made a study on creative potential of congenitally impaired
boys and girls. Findings of the study revealed that boys of congenitally blind
group are more superior on creative potential and its components like fluency,
flexibility and originality.

Table 6 also shows that visually handicapped boys and girls differ
insignificantly on mean scores of academic achievement. Singh and Kumar
(1981) concluded that males and females do not differ in intelligence and
females have slightly greater aspiration than males. They further state that an
intelligent student achieves more and that higher expectations lead to higher
achievement. Haider (1998) found in his study that school performance of
boys differs from that of girls. Boys perform a shade better than girls.

Table 6 also shows no significant difference between the mean scores
of visually handicapped boys and visually handicapped girls on self-esteem.
Munford (1994) conducted a study and found no significant gender
differences in levels of self-esteem. The majority of studies have found that
during adolescence, females report lower self-esteem (Cairns et al., 1990;
Chubb et al., 1997; Martinez & Dukes, 1991; Quatman & Watson, 2001) and
greater depressive mood (Marcotte, Fortin, Potvin, & Papillon, 2002) in
comparison to males. Some researchers have also shown that not only
adolescent females report lower self-esteem, but their self-esteem decreases
and depressive symptoms increase over time when compared with males (e.g.,
Robins et al., 2002).

Peterson, Sarigiani and Kennedy (1991) indicated that blind men had
more positive and realistic self-concept than blind women. Rothemburg
(1997) also noted these differences and found that women scored higher on personal identity, physical, family and social self-concept and men scored higher on self satisfaction and moral self-concept. Alfered-Liro (1998) found that male college students fare better in the transition between secondary and tertiary education in terms of their self-concept. Male and female students start with same level of self-concept, and female decline over the first 18 months of studies before starting to catch up with their male counterpart. Marsh (1990) suggests that it is possible that the female students will exhibit lower levels of self-concept than their male peers.

Table 6 also shows that visually handicapped boys and visually handicapped girls differ significantly on emotional stability. Visually handicapped girls scored significantly high mean score on emotional stability than visually handicapped boys. Arora (2002) found in his study that visually handicapped girls are emotionally less stable than boys. Gramer and Imaike (2002) proposed that females are less emotionally stable than males.

Table 7 shows that sighted boys and sighted girls do not differ significantly on creative experience. Kelgeri, Khadi, and Phadnis (1989) found in his study that there is no association between sex and creativity.

Kogan (1974) and Tegano and Moran (1989) found a tendency for girls to score higher than the boys. However, boys scored higher on originality in grade three. Coon (1969) and Warren and Luria (1972) found higher scores for girls in early adolescents on figural creativity. Sajid (1984) found female respondents had higher scores on creativity as compared to male subjects.
Kelley (1965) found that boys were significantly more creative than girls’ respondents. Strauss and Strauss (1968) found male respondents to be significantly high on creativity in comparison to their counterparts. Prakash (1966) studied boys and girls on creativity and found that boys were significantly higher on creativity as compared to the girls. Raina (1971) has also shown the boys to be superior to the girls in respect of their creative performance. Torrance (1962, 1965); Torrance and Aliotti (1969) in their study found male respondents to be significantly higher on the measure of verbal originality. Further there are studies which have reported no significant difference between members of the two sexes with regard to their creative performance. These suggest that sex and creativity are independent of each other.

Table 7 also shows that sighted boys and girls do not differ significantly on academic achievement. Various researchers found in their studies that males score higher on average than females on tests of mathematical abilities (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974; Hyde, Fennema and Lamen, 1990; Halpern, 1992; stumpf; 1995; Halpern 1996). Owens and Barnes (1982) investigated how the gender differed in their learning preferences in the subjects of English and Mathematics. Results indicated that males have higher preferences for competition in Mathematics; however females have higher preferences for competition in English.

Robert, Sarmistha and Sloane (2002) found in their study that although women students perform better on average than their male counterparts, they are significantly less likely to obtain a first class degree. Johnson (1993)
suggests in his study that females were more prone to report higher grade point averages than males.

Table 7 also shows that sighted boys and sighted girls differ significantly on self-esteem. Sighted boys scored significantly higher mean scores on self-esteem than sighted girls. Kling et al (1999) conducted a study to examine gender differences in global self-esteem. Result indicated that males score higher on standard measure of global self-esteem than females but the difference is small. A study has done by Seifert and Miller (1988) stated that males are judged less harshly than females, which in turn causes females’ performance and behaviour to be evaluated negatively which decreases their self-esteem. Marjoribanks and Mboya (2001) found in their study that male participants had significantly higher score on perceptions of their physical, emotional stability and relations with their peers, whereas the female participants had significantly higher scores on perceptions of their music abilities. Kaminski et al (2005) found in their study that boys reported higher self-concept than girls on the physical ability and physical appearance subscales, but girls had higher self-concept than boys on the reading subscale. Cheng and Puge (1989) found in their study that male tended to have higher self-esteem than the female.

Maehr and Nicholls (1980) suggested that some gender differences in self-esteem might be due to a response bias, in that girls have been found to be more modest in self-report measures than boys. Furthermore, some researchers have shown that gender differences in adolescent self-esteem may be linked to gender differences in the perception of physical appearance. For example, a longitudinal study of students in the 3rd through 11th grades
indicated that in elementary school, boys and girls viewed their physical appearance equally, but at the end of high school, girls' views of their physical appearance was significantly lower than those of boys (Harter, 2000). Connor et al (2004) found in his study that age is not significantly correlated with self-esteem.

Table 7 also shows no significant difference between sighted boys and sighted girls on emotional stability. Budaev (1999) found that females have higher agreeableness and lower emotional stability than males. Gramer and Imaike (2002) also report that men's emotions are stable than women. Brabner (2003) indicated that females tend towards affection and sadness, and males incline to pride. Affection and sadness are categorized negative emotions (low emotional stability); pride is classified low agreeableness (Gomez, 2006). In addition, Wolfradt and Dalbert (2003) found that females tend to neuroticism (low emotional stability). Aleem (2005) conducted a study and found that the male students are more emotionally stable than female students.

Table 8 shows no significant difference between two age groups that is 5-12 years and 13-19 years visually handicapped and sighted students on creative experience, academic achievement, self-esteem and emotional stability.

It is clear from table 9 that there is significant difference between two age groups i.e. 5-12 years and 13-19 years of visually handicapped students on creative experience, academic achievement and emotional stability whereas, no significant differences found between these two age groups on self-esteem. Visually handicapped students, whose age are 5-12 years, scored
significantly high mean scores than 13-19 years age group of visually handicapped students on emotional stability, while visually handicapped students whose age are within the range of 13-19 years, scored significantly high mean scores than 5-12 years age group of visually handicapped students on creative experience. On academic achievement 13-19 years age group of visually handicapped students scored significantly high mean scores than 5-12 years age group of visually handicapped students.

Table 10 shows no significant difference between two age groups that is 5-12 yrs old and 13-19 yrs old sighted students on creative experience, academic achievement, self-esteem and emotional stability.

Mumford, Olsen and James (1989) studied the influence of age on creativity and argued that the creation of new understandings is most likely to occur in the earlier phases of people’s careers. Daccy (1989) examined the evidence in support of the theory that there are certain critical periods in life during which creative ability can be cultivated most effectively. These 6 periods are 0-5 yrs, 10-14 yrs, 18-20 yrs, 28-30 yrs, 40-45 yrs and 60-65 yrs. Read (2005) investigated self-perceived changes in creativity over the life span. Findings indicated that participants do not perceive a decline in creativity with age.

Environmental influences may explain in part, why childhood creativity seems to be a poor predictor of adult creativity (Albert, 1996). Although most young children are very creative, it is estimated that creativity diminished by 40% between the ages 5 and 7 (Grupas, 1990; McCormick & Plugge, 1997). At these ages formal schooling begins, and there is some agreement that education inhibits the transformation of early talent into adult creativity (Albert, 1996; Amabile, 1996).
Haider (1998) found in his study that the classroom performance of younger subjects were better than the older subjects.

Findings on age as a predictor of self-esteem have been inconsistent. Various longitudinal studies (Bergman & Scott, 2001; Block & Robins, 1993; Chubb et al., 1997; Wade, Thompson, Tashakkori, & Valente, 1989) and a cross-sectional study (Mullis & Chapman, 2000) found that self-esteem levels remained constant with increased age, and therefore increased age was not a significant predictor of self-esteem. Other longitudinal researches indicated a gradual increase in self-esteem across adolescence (Hirsch & Rapkin, 1987; Jones & Meredith, 1996; O'Malley & Bachman, 1983; Wigfield et al., 1991). Conversely, Robins and colleagues (2002) provided a comprehensive picture of age differences in self-esteem from age 9-90 years. Self-esteem levels were high in childhood, dropped during adolescent, rose gradually throughout adulthood, and decline sharply in old age. Hoppe (1995) showed in his study that the correlation between self-esteem and age was 0.6. He found that age determines self-esteem. Old people tend to have higher level of self-esteem than do younger people. As per table 8 depicts. Some researches indicated that self-concept remains stable over the life span. Others indicate that it can increase with experience. It is therefore possible that older students will exhibit higher level of self-concept than the younger students (Marsh, 1990).

When children were younger they never thought about self-esteem and what it meant or even how it could possibly shape them as a person. As they got older, self-esteem started to become of some importance on how they viewed themselves especially when their peers started to have an influence or impact on their life.
Table 14 reveals the fact that area of living has no significant influences on creative experience, academic achievement, self-esteem and emotional stability of overall population i.e. visually handicapped and sighted students. As the table 15 illustrates that in case of visually handicapped students the area of living, either it is urban or rural does not play any significant role in explaining the creative experience, academic achievement, self-esteem and emotional stability. Table 16 reveals that area of living plays no significant role in determining creative experience, academic achievement, self-esteem and emotional stability of sighted students. Bansan and Agarwal (1997) examined the differences in creative thinking ability among young children. No significant difference was noted between rural and urban children on creative thinking.

Siddique (1989) found in his study that children coming from urban area have more creative potential in comparison to children coming from rural area. Kelgeri, Khadi, and Phadnis (1989) found in their study that creative performance of urban subjects was significantly better than that of rural subjects. Srivastava (1981) found in his study that high achievement and high self-concept are found frequently among urban students. Daftuar, Sinha and Daftuar (2000) examined the relationship of risk taking with academic achievement in students coming from different habitual backgrounds. It was found that rural students showed greater risk taking than urban students.
CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY
The objective of the present endeavour was aimed to study the “Creative Experience and Academic Achievement as determinants of Self-esteem and Emotional Stability of Visually Handicapped Students. Keeping in view the objective of the study, an empirical investigation was undertaken and thereafter data were tabulated and analysed with the help of Product-moment coefficient of correlation, t-test and Regression analysis for obtaining results.

The thesis comprises of six chapters. Chapter-I emphasises on the present scenario of the visually handicapped students vis-a-vis independent variable i.e. creative experience and academic achievement and dependent variable self-esteem and emotional stability as a part of the introduction of Ph.D. thesis.

In the past, handicapped children were excluded from the purview of nominal experience. They have been treated as defective beings and believed that these children will not profit from regular schools and their facilities. In the early nineteenth century as the idea of democracy, individual freedom and egalitarianism swept in west, and advancement in learning theory and technology contributed to the emergence of optimistic attitude towards handicapped pupils. UNESCO envisaged the most positive response to this section of population in the year 1946. The Warnock committee (1978) reviewed a report on the educational provisions for the handicapped children and youth in England under the Act of Education for all handicapped children (U.S. Public Law, 94-142). In India educational provisions for handicapped children has become a priority as a result of the National Policy on Education 1986. All these attempts brought the galore of publicity on the needs of the blind in the world and in India as well.
In 2002 there were 161 million visually impaired people in the world, of whom 124 million had low vision and 37 million were blind. The disabled population in India is approximately over 90 million, of these 40.5 million are visually handicapped in which 12 million are blind and 28.5 million are with low vision. Hence, blindness is a severe handicap. A handicap is a disadvantage for a given individual, resulting from impairment or disability, that limits or prevents the fulfilment of a role that is considered normal depending on age, sex, social and cultural factors for that individual. Individual whose normal learning and development is impaired by visual conditions and who therefore, need specific conditions and related services in order to develop their abilities can be identified as visually handicapped.

Visual handicap includes-

One, who after the best possible adjustments and ocular corrections uses remaining vision for learning is called partially sighted. A WHO consultation has suggested “a person with low vision is one who has impairment of visual functioning even after treatment and/or refractive correction, and has a visual acuity of less than 6/18 to light perception, or a visual field of less than 10 from the point of view of fixation, but who uses, or is potentially able to use, vision for the planning and/or execution of task”. In order to decide which people may require special education and assistance because of their visual disabilities, various governmental jurisdictions developed more complex definitions referred to as legal blindness. Total blindness refers to the complete lack of form and light perception and is clinically recorded as “NLP” an abbreviation for no light perception.
Creativity is a highly complex cognitive ability that involves the generation of new concept or ideas, or new associations between existing concepts or ideas. Scientifically, the products of creative thought are usually considered to have both originality and appropriateness. In other words, the ability to make something original, to imagine things that do not exist, and to come up with new ideas is called creativity. Creativity can make common things special and special things common! Creativity is essentially a form of problem solving that involves problems for which there are no easy answers: that is problem for which popular or conventional responses do not work. Creativity is a process through which a creative individual manifests sensitivity to the problem, deficiencies, missing elements and irregularities. The individual is very much anxious for the correct solution by way of formulating hypothesis about deficiencies, testing and retesting in the light of various modifications and ultimately achieves solution of the problem. In view of this it is speculated that creativity will have an impact on the personality of the visually handicapped in general and the emotional stability and self esteem in particular. Hence, creativity is thought to predict self-esteem and emotional stability of visually handicapped students.

Academic achievement has great importance in the present socio-economic and cultural context. Obviously in schools great emphasis is placed on formal education. The effectiveness of any educational system is gauged to the extent of the student achievement whether be it in cognitive, affective or psychomotor domain. These objectives are socially established based on the age, prior learning and capacity of individuals with regard to education, socialization and qualification. Studies conducted on academic achievement
notably focus on student progress and individual, institutional and organizational factors of achievement, along with social relationship interactions that determine, facilitate or hinder academic achievement.

Academic achievement is the knowledge attained or skills developed in the school subjects, are usually designed by test scores or by marks assigned by teachers or by both. Students academic achievement can be influenced by his intelligence, interest, aptitude, hard labour, method of learning, socioeconomic status, family inference, home environment, parental aspiration and reward, personality characteristics, sex differences, quality of teaching, school environment and peer influence. Therefore, it can influence the self-esteem and emotional stability of the individuals particularly the visually handicapped.

Over the past few decades, self-esteem has been the theme of numerous conferences and the subject of many books. The topic has huge exposure, and parents and teachers have been endlessly instructed about how important it is to build a child's self-esteem. Self-esteem is a widely used concept both in popular language and in psychology. It refers to an individual's sense of his or her value or worth, or the extent to which a person values, approves of, appreciates, prizes, or likes himself or herself.

Emotional stability is considered as one of the important aspect of human life. It is one of the effective determinants of the personality patterns. An emotionally stable individual has the capacity to withstand delay in satisfaction of needs, capability to tolerate a reasonable amount of frustration, belief in long term planning and is able of delaying or revising his expectations in terms of demands of the situations.
Chapter II has been devoted to review of literature. A perusal of readily available literature on creativity the researcher reviewed that in certain studies visually handicapped were more creative than the sighted students. In a large number of studies the sighted students were more creative in comparison to visually handicapped students. Whereas, a few studies concluded that there is no significant difference between the visually handicapped and sighted students on creativity. The reviewed literature shows that creativity influences self-esteem. The studies concluded creativity develops self-esteem. A number of studies assessed the effect of sex on creativity. Amongst them some studies found that gender did not significantly influence creative thinking. While other studies shows that boys are much more creative than girls. A few studies found opposite results. Existing literature compares the academic achievement of visually handicapped and sighted students. Several studies found that visually handicapped students were academically better than sighted students. Visual status has no main effect on academic achievement. Some studies revealed the result that sighted students do academically better than visually handicapped students. A number of studies indicated significant relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement. A few studies depicted that there is no significant correlation between self-esteem and academic achievement.

Many researchers found similar self-concept profile for sighted adolescents and adolescents with visual impairment. Whereas a few studies concluded that visually handicapped students scored high on self-concept than sighted students. Various scholars examined gender differences in global self-esteem and concluded that male scored high on self-esteem than female.
Reviewed studies showed that visually handicapped were less emotionally stable than sighted students. Many scholars concluded in their studies that male students are more emotionally stable than female students. Several investigations revealed that children with high emotional stability have better study habits than their counterparts with low emotional stability.

Chapter III deals with the method and procedure opted for investigation. The study was conducted on 200 students. Of these, 100 were visually handicapped and 100 were sighted students. The sample of visually handicapped students were selected from Ahmadi School for Blinds, Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh and the sample of sighted students were drawn from Union School of Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh. The sample of visually handicapped students consisted of 63 boys and 37 girls and in the sample of sighted students there were 50 boys and 50 girls. The upper age limit of the sample is 19 years.

The general information or the family background of the visually handicapped sample is that 70% of them belong to nuclear family system while 30% students have joint family system. In case of sighted students as high as 80% students live in the nuclear family system and only 20% belong to the joint family system. In case of area of living 29% visually handicapped students belong to rural area and 71% belong to urban area whereas 5% sighted students belong to rural area and 95% belong to urban area. The educational profile of visually handicapped students’ parents shows that 12.5% parents have primary education while a higher percentage of secondary level education can be seen that is 39%. The college/university educated parents’ percentage is 26%. A total of 22.5% parents are uneducated. On the
Other hand the 16.5% parents of the sighted students have primary education. The secondary and college/university levels education is 31.5% and 25.5% respectively. A formidable 26.5% parents are uneducated in the sighted students' sample. The employment structure of the sampled visually handicapped students' parents showed that out of total employed parents 30.9% are employed in the public sector/government services and 69.1% have the private sector employment. Whereas the sighted students' parents have 24.5% public sector employment and as high as 75.5% private sector employment. The average monthly income of the visually handicapped students' parents 5,351 Rs per month. In case of the sighted students' parents the average monthly income is only 4,260 Rs per month. The data was collected individually. The investigator explained the items of the questionnaire to each participant and recorded the responses accordingly.

In the present study the researcher used the following tools to measure the academic achievement, creative experience, self-esteem and emotional stability of visually handicapped and sighted students. The creative experience of students is measured by ratings of their concerned teachers on a five-point scale. For measuring academic achievement, the researcher had used the annual examination marks of the students obtained from the office records of the institution. Self-esteem of students is measured through Self-esteem Inventory, developed by Prasad and Thakur (1977). It consists of 30 items. Of the thirty items, seventeen were socially desirable and thirteen were socially undesirable. The scale was developed with a view to assess personally perceived self and socially perceived self. Split-half reliability coefficient of both sets of the inventory is .82 and .78 for personally perceived
self and socially perceived self respectively. Retest reliability coefficient found for both the tests were .69 and .66 respectively for personally perceived self and socially perceived self. Emotional stability of children is measured through Emotional Stability Test for Children, developed by Sengupta and Singh (1985). This scale contains 15 items for testing emotional stability of children. The maximum possible score of this test is 15. Test-retest reliability was .70 which was significant beyond .01 level. The split-half reliability was .55. The data collected were analysed statistically by using SPSS package 15.0. Tests of Correlation, t-test, and Regression analysis are used.

Chapter IV and V are devoted to result and discussion. The results conclude that creative experience did not predict self-esteem. Some earlier studies support this finding. They found no significant relationship between creativity and self-esteem. On the other hand several studies found positive relationship between self-esteem and creativity.

Results also showed that academic achievement did not emerge as significant predictor of self-esteem of visually handicapped students. Sighted students’ academic achievement predicts their self-esteem. A number of studies supported the finding that academic achievement is a significant predictor of self-esteem. These studies also concluded that there is continuous interaction between self-esteem and academic achievement. Results also conclude that creative experience is not a significant predictor of emotional stability. There have been many researchers who found in their study that creative individuals are less emotionally stable, more intellectually self-sufficient and more radical. But on the other side some researcher found creativity to be much more associated with emotional stability.
Results also show that academic achievement has no significant contribution in explaining emotional stability. Some scholars concluded in their studies that emotional stability was significantly related to course grade but not with grade point average.

The results depict that there is no significant difference between the mean scores of visually handicapped and sighted students on creative experience. Some studies support this finding. Studies conducted on divergent thinking found that blind and sighted did not differ on divergent thinking. Some studies have shown significant difference between the mean scores of visually handicapped and sighted students on creative experience. These studies conclude that sighted students scored significantly higher score on academic achievement than visually handicapped students. A few studies compared academic achievement of sighted and visually handicapped students. They found no main effect of visual status on academic achievement.

Result also shows that there is no significant difference between the mean scores of visually handicapped and sighted students on self-esteem. Some researchers investigated the self-concept of students with and without visual impairment. They found no significant difference between the self-concept of visually impaired and sighted students. Other studies suggested that young people with visual impairment, including with low vision has a lower self-concept in several dimensions than their peers without impairment. Results reveal no significant differences between the mean scores of visually handicapped and sighted students on emotional stability. Studies found that blind children possess the same personality characteristics as that of the sighted ones.
In the light of the research experience it is suggested that further research is required for assessing other factors which influence academic achievement of visually challenged students. Personality of blind and normal children can be studied in more detail by taking a large sample to draw more fruitful generalization.

**Suggestions for Further Research**

In social science no research work is perfect due to certain restrictions and limitations faced by the researcher. So conducting research is a learning process in which many issues gradually come to light and the total perspective becomes clear. It is not possible to study all the variables in one single study. Therefore, the investigator has some suggestions for further researches in the field.

1. The academic achievement is effected by a large number of factors. Besides self-esteem and emotional stability the other factor is socioeconomic status which may be taken in to consideration by the researchers to analyse their determining value for the achievement of visually challenged.

2. Personality of blind and normal children can be studied in more detail by taking a large sample to draw more fruitful generalization.

3. The visually challenged students may be compared with sighted counterparts on different psychological and social factors. However, comparison may be made on the basis of school ambience, i.e., integrated and segregated school settings.
4. The self-esteem differences between the blind students of the two environments i.e. special and integrated school may also be quite interesting for further researches.

5. A study of rehabilitation programme, welfare programme can be undertaken through various institutions, organizations, voluntary and non voluntary agencies.

6. The teaching method used for these children in our country can be analyzed and compared with teaching practices used in other countries. Suggestions can be made solicited and modifications made in the existing prevalent methods in our country.

7. A study of status of literate and illiterate blind people in India can be conducted.


Thompson, P. R. (1974). The severely multiply handicapped; what are the issue? Proceeding from the regional topical conference, University of Ulah, state lake city.


**Websites**


http://www.coping.org/lowesteem/low.htm


http://www.vanderbilt.edu/AnS/psychology/health_psychology/esteem.htm#What%20is%20Self-Esteem.

APPENDICES
APPENDIX - I
Demographic Information Sheet

Name : 
Age : 
Sex : Male/Female
Class :
Hometown : Rural /Urban
Family System : Joint / Nuclear
Birth Order : I\textsuperscript{st} born/ 2\textsuperscript{nd} born/ 3\textsuperscript{rd} born

Father  Mother
Parents Education :
Parents Occupation :
Parents Income :
## Creative Experience Rating Scale

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<td>Solving puzzles</td>
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APPENDIX - III
स्व-बोध प्रश्नावली (भाग-1)

निर्देश:

कुछ प्रश्न इस प्रश्नावली में दिये जा रहे है कि आप इस को एक एक करके ध्यान से पढ़े प्रत्येक कथन के साथ नोट में दिये है जो कि पूर्णतः सही है या पूर्णतः गलत है कथन को पढ़ने के बाद जो उत्तर आप पर लागू हो उत्तर पर सही का निर्णय (√) लगाएं इसी तरह आप को सारे प्रश्न के उत्तर देने हैं हर कथन को आगे से पढ़कर एक-एक करके उत्तर दें। यद्यपि समय की कोई सीमा नहीं है फिर भी आप काम को व्याख्याता समाप्त करने का प्रयास करें। आप निःसंकोच उत्तर दें। आपका उत्तर पूर्ण रूप से गुप्त रखा जायेगा।

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<td>मैं चीजों से सीखने में कुछ से मुझे मुझे लज्जा का अनुभव होता है।</td>
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<td>मैं अपने प्रेरणात्मक से आसानी से दूसरों को प्रभावित कर लेता हूँ।</td>
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15. मैं हीन भावना से प्रत्येक नहीं हूँ।
16. मैं अपने को दुःखित मानता हूँ।
17. मैं आसानी से अनजाने व्यक्ति से भी नितिता स्थापित कर लेता हूँ।
18. मैं स्वभावतः झगड़ाबाज़ हूँ।
19. अपने समक्ष लोगों में, किसी दूसरे को मैं अपने से श्रेष्ठ नहीं मानता।
20. असफल होने पर भी प्रायः मैं निराश नहीं होता।
21. लोगों के साथ मिलकर काम करने की अपेक्षा में अकेले काम करना पसन्द करता हूँ।
22. मुझे चीजों को नष्ट करने की आदत है।
23. मैं अपने को सुन्दर मानता हूँ।
24. मैं कठिन परिस्थिति को ही सफलता का साधन मानता हूँ।
25. दूसरे को उन्नति में स्वभावतः नहीं देख सकता।
26. मैं नियमों का पालन करना और करना अपना कर्तव्य मानता हूँ।
27. मैं पैदाव विद्वास नहीं रखता।
28. जब कोई मेरी बात नहीं मानता तो मुझे बड़ा क्रोध आता है।
29. मैं नियमों का उल्लंघन करना में बुरा नहीं समक्षता।
30. मुझे बड़ा आदर की तीव्र आकांक्षा है।
निर्देश:

इस बार भी आपको वही प्रश्नावली दी जा रही है। पहली बार आपको यह समझकर उत्तर देना था कि आप द्वार पर अपने अपने बारे में व्यर्थ सोचते हैं। इस बार आपको यह ध्यान में रखकर उत्तर देना है कि आपको जानने वाले लोग आपके बारे में व्यर्थ सोचते हैं। क्या प्रत्येक वक्तव्य को पढ़ने के बाद एकाध मिनट सीने ले कि लोगों की आपके सम्बन्ध में उस वक्तव्य के बारे में व्यर्थ राय है। उसके बाद ही उत्तर दें। उसी प्रकार से उपयुक्त उत्तर पर सही निशान लगाकर अपने उत्तर दें। ध्यान रखें कि यहाँ भी कोई वक्तव्य छूटने न पायें।

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1. मैं दयालु स्वभाव का हूँ।
2. मेरा स्वभाव विड़ड़िधा है।
3. मुझे इमानदारी कूट-कूट कर भरी हुई है।
4. मैं कजूस नहीं बर्तक सविस्तरी हूँ।
5. किसी भी परिस्थिति में अपने को असानी से अभ्यासित करने की क्षमता मुझे है।
6. मैं स्वभावव: जिद्दी हूँ।
7. मैं चीजों को अत्त व्यस्त देखना पास नहीं करता।
8. मैं असानी से अपने संबंधों पर नियन्त्रण पर सकता हूँ।
9. अपने से छोटे से कुछ से सीखने में मुझे लज्जा का अनुभव होता है।
10. मैं असानी से दूसरों पर विश्वास नहीं करता।
11. मैं खुशमद पसंद व्यक्ति हूँ।
12. मैं अपने कर्त्तव्यों का पालन निष्पापक करता हूँ।
13. मैं अपने व्यक्तित्व से आसानी से दूसरों को प्रभावित कर लेता हूँ।
14. मैं नेतिक्यादी न होकर भीतिक्यादी हूँ।
15. मैं हीन भावना से ग्रस्त नहीं हूँ।
16. मैं अपने को बुद्धिमान मानता हूँ।
17. मैं आसानी से अनजाने व्यक्ति से भी मित्रता स्थापित कर लेता हूँ।
18. मैं स्वभावतः झगड़ावृद्ध हूँ।
19. अपने समकक्ष लोगों में, किसी दूसरे को मैं अपने से श्रेष्ठ नहीं मानता।
20. असफल होने पर भी प्रायः मैं निराश नहीं होता।
21. लोगों के साथ मिलकर काम करने की अपेक्षा मैं अकेले काम करना पसंद करता हूँ।
22. मुझे चीजों को नष्ट: करने की आदत है।
23. मैं अपने को सुन्दर मानता हूँ।
24. मैं कठिन परिश्रम को ही सफलता का साधन मानता हूँ।
25. दूसरे को उन्नति में स्वभावतः नहीं देख सकता।
26. मैं नियमों का पालन करना और करना अपना कर्तव्य मानता हूँ।
27. मैं पैसों में विश्वास नहीं रखता।
28. जब कोई मेरी बात नहीं मानता तो मुझे बड़ा क्रोध आता है।
29. मौका पड़ने पर नियमों का उल्लंघन करना मैं बुरा नहीं समझता।
30. मुझे बड़ा आदर बनने की तीव्र आकृष्टा है।
APPENDIX- IV
Consumable Booklet  
of  
ESTC  
(Hindi Version)

Dr. (Mrs.) A. Sen Gupta (Patna)

Dr. A.K. Singh (Patna)

कुंवा निम्न सूचनाएँ दीजिये :-

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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>लिंग</th>
<th>दिनांक</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

निदेश

पीछे के पृष्ठ पर कुछ कथन दिए गए हैं जिनका समन्वय आपके व्यवहार गुणों से है। प्रत्येक कथन के सामने दो खाने (☐☐) बने हैं जो अपने कथन के समन्वय में आपके "है" या "नहीं" उत्तर को सूचित करते हैं। कथन को पढ़ने के बाद जो उत्तर आपके ऊपर लागू हो उसके नीचे वाले खाने में सही का निशान (✓) लगा दें इनका कोई भी पूर्व निश्चित उत्तर नहीं है, अतः आपको जो उत्तर सही लगे वही आपके लिए ठीक होगा। यही वस्त्र की कोई सीमा नहीं है फिर भी आप कमान को यथास्थिति समाप्त करने का प्रसार करें। आप निष्केंद्र उत्तर दें। आपका उत्तर पूर्ण रूप से गुप्त रखा जायेगा।

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>क्रसंख</th>
<th>कथन</th>
<th>हैं</th>
<th>नहीं</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>माता-पिता द्वारा डोंटे जाने पर तुम रोना प्रारम्भ कर देते हो</td>
<td>☐</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>सहपाठी या दोस्त के साथ झगड़ा होने पर तुम गुस्से में आकर उसे बहुत मारते हो।</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>3.</td>
<td>तुम्हें प्रायः ऐसा लगता है कि तुम्हारे शरीर या दिमाग में कुछ खराब हो गयी है।</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>किसी व्यक्ति को दुर्घटना में खस्से देखकर तुम घबरा जाते हो।</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. परीक्षा में उत्तीर्ण (Pass) न होने से तुम बहुत उदास होकर लोगों से मिलना-जुलना कुछ समय तक बन्द कर देते हो।

6. भाई बहन में ज़रा-सा ज्ञान होने पर तुम उन्हें मार बेठते हो।

7. कक्षा में जवाब न देने पर तुम बहुत देर तक अपने मे उथल-पुथल महसूस करते हो।

8. अपने सामने सॉफ, मकड़ा या अन्य कोई इसी तरह का जानवर देखने पर तुम रोने लगते हो।

9. गृह-कार्य (Home-Work) न करके जाने से भी तुम वर्ग में निर्धार रहते हो।

10. किसी साथी की पेंसिल या कलम चुराकर तुम शान्त भाव से बिना किसी डर के बैठे रहते हो।

11. तुम हल्की सी डॉट पर सो देते हो।

12. तुम अपनी मनपसंद चीज़ को पाकर बहुत अधिक खुश हो जाते हो तथा उसे दूसरे को दिखाने के लिए प्रयत्नशील रहते हो।

13. दोस्तों के साथ जरा सी बात पर नाराज हो जाते हो।

14. तुम अक्सर अपने दोस्तों को जली कटी सुनाते हो।

15. कोई तुम्हें बुरा-भाला भी कहता है तो उसका कोई असर तुम पर नहीं पड़ता है।