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2.1 INTRODUCTION

Survey of related literature forms an important aspect of this research, since it makes the researcher acquainted with current knowledge of the fields in which the research is carried out. It helps the researcher to canvas current knowledge, opinion and thinking. He picks up clues for creating or evaluating his own design from the reports of previous researches and arrives at a more comprehensive group of related aspects of the topic. A familiarity with the literature in any problem area helps the researcher to understand what is already known; what others have attempted to find out; which methods or approaches have been promising or disappointing and what problems remain to be solved or studied.

Review of the related literature, besides allowing the researcher to get acquainted with the current knowledge in the field, serves the following specific purposes.

1. By studying related literature, researchers can avoid futile and useless problem areas.
2. The review of related studies enables the researcher to define the limits of his field, thereby helping the researcher to delimit and define his problem.
3. The knowledge of related material makes the researcher up-to-date with the work which others have done and thus helps to state the objectives clearly and consciously.
4. The review of related researches gives the researcher an understanding of research methodology, which refers to the way the study is to be conducted.

5. The analysis of related literature also provides insight into statistical methods through which, the validity of the results is to be established.

6. The final and important specific reason for reviewing related literature is to know about the recommendations of previous researchers listed, in their studies, for further research.

In the words of Good (1952), the key to the vast store house of published literature may open doors to sources of significant problems and explanatory hypothesis, provide helpful orientation for definition of the problems, background for selection procedure and comparative data for interpretation of results. In order to be truly creative and original, one must read extensively and critically as a stimulus to thinking.

Hence, in this chapter the researcher attempts a detailed and critical analysis of the related and significant concepts and variables with the help of available theoretical schemes and research studies. This chapter has two parts. The first part focuses on the conceptual and theoretical explanations of the significant variables and substantiates the rationale of the study. The second part deals with specific studies about the concepts and related factors and highlights the common trends in the research fields to establish the significance of the present study.
Part 1

CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS

This part of the chapter deals with the theoretical and conceptual explanations of the variables of the study. It provides various definitions, theories, and other explication about adolescents, their creativity, self-concept and achievement motivation.

2.2. ADOLESCENCE: A DYNAMIC REALITY

Derived from the Latin verb “adolescere”, the literal meaning of “adolescence” is apparent; “to grow or “to grow to maturity”. Primitive people – as was true also in earlier civilizations – do not consider puberty and adolescence to be distinct periods in the life span. The child was regarded as an adult when capable of reproduction. The term “adolescence”, as it is used today, has a broader meaning. It includes the process of mental, emotional and social maturation. The concept of adolescence as a period of life distinct from childhood or adulthood has some roots in writings from the far distant past. Plato (1961), thought that males under the age of 18 should not be permitted to drink, because “fire must not be poured on fire”. Aristotle (1955), conceived of the adolescents as distinct from their elders especially of bodily desires and sexual instincts to which they are mostly disposed.

Adolescence is the period of life bounded by puberty and assumption of adult responsibilities. It is heralded by puberty, which begins with the appearance of secondary sex characteristics and ends with psychosocial markers, such as
assumption of adult responsibilities. Adolescence is a psychological concept with biological correlates, but puberty is primarily a biological concept. In our culture adolescence is the "neither fish nor fowl", as the saying goes—'neither children nor adults'. According to Piaget (1982), psychologically, adolescence is the age when the individual becomes integrated into the society of adults, the age when the child no longer feel that he/she is below the levels of his/her elders but the equal, at least in rights.

This integration into adult society has many affective aspects, more or less linked with puberty. It also includes very profound intellectual changes. The intellectual transformations, typical of the adolescence thinking, enable him to achieve his integration into the social relationships of adults, which are, in fact the most general characteristics of this period of development.

Adolescence has generally been considered as a difficult period as indeed times of transition often are. This has been emphasized, and perhaps overemphasised, by writers from both psychoanalytic and sociological traditions. G. S. Hall (1943) described adolescence as a time of 'Sturm und Drang'—'storm and stress'. Phrases such as the 'identity crisis' of adolescence, 'the generation gap' between teenagers, and their parents, and 'the turmoil' or 'storm and stress' of the adolescent period have become well worn, if not hackneyed.

As adolescents become independent from their parents they may spend more time with peers and turn to peers more for social support and identity. One view of adolescent's social development is that there is a transition from a "parent
orientation” to “peer orientation”. This view was especially prevalent in the 1970s and early 1980s. J.S. Coleman (1980) in USA and David Hargreaves (1980) in UK documented the importance of peer groups in adolescence and how the values of such peer groups might diverge greatly from those of teachers and parents. Researchers tend to support the view that adolescents become more peer oriented and less parent oriented as they get older, though with the qualification that the content area or situation is of great importance.

For instance, parents have been found to remain more influential than peers in areas such as educational planning and future life goals. However peers are more influential in everyday matters and status linked issues, such as the choice of clothes and use of leisure time. (Stone et. al, 1979 and Hopkins, 1983). During adolescence, the parent - child relations will become more mutual and reciprocal in which divergent opinions may be expressed and the new ideas discussed. But it is opined that this relationship does not become as truly mutual as peer relationships. (Youniss 1980)

In the early years of adolescence, conformity to the group is still important to boys and girls. Gradually, they begin to crave for identity and are no longer satisfied to be like their peers in every respect, as they were earlier. According to Hunter, (1984) the way young people perceive their parents and peers, is not necessarily the same as how parents perceive events, or what an outside observer might record as happening, if they could observe family interactions.
Adolescence is a transitional period and transition does not mean a break with or change from what has gone before but rather a passage from one stage of development to another. This means that what has happened before will leave its mark on what happens now and in the future. As Potter and Wetherrell (1987) have explained, the psychic structure of the adolescents has its roots in childhood and many of its characteristics that are generally considered as typical of adolescents, appear and were already present during late childhood.

2.2.1 THEORIES ON ADOLESCENCE

The theoretical frames, which tried to explain the dynamic reality “adolescence”, may be broadly classified into ‘Organismic theories’ and ‘Environmental theories’.

The Organismic theories include

(a) *The Biological views*: proposed by Stanley Hall (1920) and William Sheldon (1954);

(b) *Psycho Analytical views*: of Sigmoid Freud (1938), Karen Horný (1967), Anna Freud (1958), and Eric Erickson (1975); and


The Environmental theories include

(a) *Sociological and Anthropological Views*: propounded by Kingsly Davis (1947), Margaret Mead (1928), Robert Havighurst (1964) and

(b) *Social Learning and Behavioural Views*: of B.F. Skinner (1976), Albert...
Bandura (1977), and Neal Miller (1984).

The theories also may be further classified on the basis of their approach, depending with stage approach or continuous developmental approach.

According to the organismic model, processes within the individual, rather than factors in the environment, are the primary forces underlying human development. Theories that are representative of the organismic model can either endorse the stage approach to human development or contend that human growth is continuous.

Stage theories maintain that adolescence is one of the distinct stages in life, during which specific types of development occur in a relatively predictable fashion. From the stage theory perspective, specific developmental stages are considered both universal and invariant.

In contrast to stage theories, theories predicted upon the environmental model do not perceive adolescence as a distinct stage of development. (Muss, 1975). The adolescents’ development is perceived as a gradual, continuous process, and without stages that differ qualitatively from one another.

The contemporary life span approach has been described as a transactional, contextual or dialectical of human development, because it attempts to synthesize both the organismic and environmental perspectives (Baldwin 1980). From the life span theorists’ frame of reference, an adolescence behaviour is a consequence of the exchange between internal factors, such as cognitive development, and
environmental factors, such as reinforcement. Thus, adolescence is both acting upon and being acted upon by the environment.

2.2.2 CREATIVITY DURING ADOLESCENCE

In the case of adolescents, the significance of development and utilisation of divergent thinking is very high because it is during this time they bloom out with their cognitive field through the development of their operational thinking. If we compare the creative expeditions of children and adolescents, we understand that the creativity of children is instinctual but the creative endeavours of adolescents are rational and productive. Once they start to think rationally and logically, the importance of divergent thinking also increases. This period also shows a deliberate shift from the instinctual creative expressions of the childhood to the rational creative functions of the adolescents, which serve as the basis of their future life and achievements.

This potential creativity of adolescents is understood as another cognitive capacity like intellect and is to be functionalised through creative activities like original, flexible and novel contributions. According to A.C Pachaury (1986), creativity like intelligence is also normally distributed among population. The researchers have also ascertained that the creative potential can be made optimally functional through a planned intervention. The culture, motivation and personality factors have a dispositional effect in the functionalisation, as well as the nurture of the creative capacity of the adolescents. According to Getzels (1985), creative thinking (the functionalised elaboration of the potential creative capacity) is the
highest of mental functions and creative production, the highest peak of human achievement. These creative capacities are the result of the cognitive developments of this particular period. If appropriate measures are not taken to nurture this potentiality, the achievements and success in life will be badly affected and if so, they become problems to themselves and others in society.

The self-debasing drive causes an adolescent to regress to primordial states of behaviour. The self-transcending drive, by contrast, propels an individual to lofty levels of achievement and self-actualization. It is this supremacy of the self-transcending drive over the self-debasing drive, which results in the functional creativity. This is described as "the sublimation of the self-transcending emotions as transformed into creativity". The potentially creative adolescents have the capacity to see new relationships, to produce unusual ideas and to deviate from traditional patterns of thinking. (Eysenck, et.al. 1972). They have a generalized constellation of intellectual ability, personality variables and problem-solving traits. Functionally creative adolescents have a more general trait that includes not only originality but also flexibility, fluency and motivational and temperamental traits as well. (Guilford 1959).

For, Violato Claudio and Travis Leroy (1995) adolescence is a multiplicity of events, experiences, behaviour, people, and cultural meanings. In his book "Advances in Adolescent Psychology", the author attempts to provide a detailed and in-depth analysis of the central issues related to adolescent psychology. A comprehensive representation of the topic is provided through the integration
of historical, socio-political, and empirical research, with theories on adolescence. He very well emphasizes the importance of creativity, intelligence and achievement of adolescents. According to him, the creativity of adolescents is very significant to their future life and appropriate training and caring should be provided to utilise their creative potentials through fostering their self-concept and autonomy. They should be properly understood and accepted so that they may work with their creative talents and attain optimum achievement.

Singer Dorothy and Singer Jerome (1990), combining a scientific and humanistic approach in a series of essays that draw on both clinical and literary data, analyses the significance of creativity of children and adolescents. The book traces the development of the imagination in the young child’s invocation of imaginary friends and fabrication of imaginary worlds; the adolescent’s daring, rule-governed games; and the adult’s private imagery and inner thought. The examples and detailed review of the research show that children’s make-believe continues, if less overtly, into adulthood in secret societies, Mardi Gras costumes, and Renaissance fairs, for example, and that a well-exercised imagination enriches adult life. Selected examples from the childhoods of famous, or nearly famous, and of less well-known people, who simply wished to record their life experience, are used in the examination of the origins, the determinants, and the manifestations of the human imagination in childhood and early adolescence. The author specifies the importance of the divergent thinking and associates the identity crises and other associated problems of the adolescent period with the under-utilisation or unutilisation of potential capacities and talents. They also propose some measures.
to improve the condition and one such important measure is the self-concept development activity for the effective utilisation of the potential capacities.

According to the authors (Singer Dorothy and Singer Jerome (1990)), Self-concept and Achievement motivation are the comprehensive affective correlates of the functionalisation of the potential creativity. If the adolescents' self-concept is good and there is optimum achievement motivation, the adolescents, who are gifted with the potential creativity, will utilise them and attain appropriate achievement in life. On the contrary, if their self-concept and achievement motivation is below the required, their creative talents will not be utilised and will further become problems for themselves, families and society in general.

Huffman Lynne and Hauser Stuart (1994), discusses directions for future research on the importance of emotion during adolescence. They note that such research should include an expanded focus on the normative range of emotional expression and on related adaptive behaviours, including competencies, coping, self-esteem, achievement motivation and creativity. As the authors observe the self-concept of the adolescent has a significant role in the process of making the potential creativity, functional and active. They also warn that, if these potential capacities are not properly utilised they will develop into emotional concerns or even problems for the adolescents.

Brittain Lambert, (1985) in the retrospective compilation of speeches and ideas by Viktor Lowenfeld, is representative of his work between the years 1946 to 1960, reveals his concern with the importance of creativity in education. The
elaboration on the creativity of adolescents emphasizes the relevance of self-concept and positive regards for appropriate functioning of potential creativity to produce optimum results. According to him, the creative potential can not be increased or decreased but can be utilised and made functional, if self-concept and achievement motivation of adolescents are properly maintained. If the adolescents have proper self-concept, their autonomy, freedom of work and freedom to choose will be high and in such conditions, they will work according to their talents and capacities, provided they have realistic achievement motivation.

2.3 CREATIVITY

The extensive work carried out during the past few decades by a brilliant team of researchers, starting from Guilford (1966), has helped us to make a scientific study of this highly complex aspect of human behaviour. Even the most perfectory semantic analysis would convince one of the highly varied meanings in which it is used.

2.3.1 DEFINITIONS

Psychologists have essentially talked of creativity, in terms of the thought process. Several definitions of the concept are available. Different definitions stress different aspects of the concept; sometimes the same aspect is expressed using different terminology.

For Dehaan and Havighurst(1961), potential creativity is the capacity, which leads to the production of something new and desirable. The new product may be new to society or merely new for the individual who creates it.
According to Rogers (1970), creative potential is the capacity for the emergence in the action of a novel rational product growing out of the uniqueness of the individual, on the one hand, and the materials, events, people or circumstances of his life on the other.

Flanagan (1963) defines creativity as a broad concept of being potent to bring forth almost anything new in the way of an idea, a formulation, a model, and a theory of an aesthetic or practical product.

Mednick (1963) gives his own definition as follows. Creative thinking process is the expression of the potential capacities, forming of associative elements into new contributions, which either meet specified requirements or are in some way useful. The more mutually remote the elements of the new combination, the more creative the process of solution.

For Vinacka (1957), creative functioning is close to fantasy and imagination, with problem solving as a major function. According to his definition, More than imagination is involved, however, for we conceive a creative situation to be one, which combines realistic thinking and imaginations. It has many of the characteristics of both problem solving and fantasy. It is a kind of problem-solving without any predetermined or ‘correct’ solution and with self-expression or externalization (of the potential capacities and natural talents) as its dominant feature. It resembles fantasy by calling upon the free reorganization of past experience and by being influenced more by inner-need states (potential capacity) than by external demands. But it differs from fantasy because it is under far
greater voluntary control (at least during a large part of the mental activity) and because it becomes externalized and eventually results in some tangible final product which, however, unlike a typical problem solution, is a new or more satisfactory achievement.

Hence the term creativity may be defined as the potential capacity of human being to be multidimensional in thinking and the creation of something unique and new. This potential capacity is functionalised or expressed through the divergent thinking and creative productions but is clearly observable or otherwise represented through certain characteristics and behaviours traits.

The potential creativity is an inner urge to be divergent in thinking and acting. This is the inner call to deviate from the traditional single-headed convergence to the multifaceted new flexible way of inquiry and creation. This is a basic instinct to be different and unique through directed, rational and divergent thinking in the process of living and making the existence successful and productive.

2.3.2 THEORIES ON CREATIVITY

While psychologists have not adequately delineated the concept of creativity itself, it is understandable that there is a good deal of controversy in the existing theories of creativity. As Guilford (1966) rightly remarks, there is disagreement among theories attempting to account for the act (creativity). Some of the typical theories about creativity are outlined below.
23.2. a) PSYCHOANALYTIC THEORIES

According to the psychoanalytic theories, the creative process involves regression from rational thinking towards primary processes. Freud (1983), after analysing the mental processes of the creative writers, comes to the conclusion that the creative work is a kind of sublimation of the repressed complexes. The creative writer, Freud says, does the same thing as the child at play: he creates a world of fantasy, which he takes very seriously, separating it from reality. The imaginative writer may be compared with 'the dreamer in broad daylight' and his 'creation' with 'daydream'; he achieves the fulfilment of a wish in his creative work. Kris (1963) calls it 'regression in the service of the ego'. Maslow (1968) holds that this capacity to regress in the service of the ego, retrieve material from the preconscious, and return with it to the world of reality, as the vital aspect of creative process.

23.2. b) PSYCHOMETRIC APPROACHES

In his article on 'Traits of Creativity', Guilford (1970) points out the importance of trait concepts. According to him traits are properties of individuals, and hence the most defensible way of discovering dependable trait concepts at present is that of factor analysis. He conducted a brief survey of the known primary trait that is believed to be related to creativity. The survey includes both aptitude and non-aptitude traits, among the latter being traits of temperament and of motivation. After considering all the known factors that could be regarded as belonging in the intellectual category, Guilford proposes a system of those factors and calls it a 'structure of intellect'. Guilford points out fluency, flexibility,
originality, elaboration, redefinition, and sensitivity to problems as aptitude traits. He very briefly reviews the principles of the system and points out that the creative thinking capacities find logical places within the system and are the expressions of the unique innate talents which are to be properly utilised and expressed through appropriate ways.

2.32. c) COGNITIVE THEORIES

Cropley (1972), is an important exponent of cognitive theories. He points out that the cognitive theories are concerned with ways in which people come to grip with their environment. Accordingly, creativity represents not differing systems of associational bonds, but different ways of getting and handling information and different ways of combining data in seeking effective solutions (different ‘mind style’). This characteristic way in which one goes about taking information from the world is called ‘cognitive style’. ‘Field-dependence’, ‘scanning -focusing’, and ‘leveling- sharpening’ are different cognitive styles. The cognitive characteristics of the creative thinker are:

1. He is likely to possess cognitive styles involving least censoring of information available from the external world:

2. He has the ‘willingness to take risks’, a cognitive variable related to ‘creatively gifted.

3. He is willing to ‘have a go’, intellectually speaking;

4. He is ‘flexible’ and ‘adaptable’ and not ‘rigid’ in his intellectual functioning.
2.3.2. d) THEORIES BASED ON SELF-REALIZATION

Rogers (1970) considers functional creativity as a process of self-realization i.e. the realization of the innate creative potentials. He observes that there is a distinction between creativity that is 'potentially constructive' and that, which is 'potentially destructive'. The inner conditions of constructive potential creativity for him are:

(i) Openness to experience (extensionality or extension orientation) which denotes lack of rigidity and the permeability of boundaries in concepts, beliefs, perceptions, and hypothesis, a tolerance for ambiguity (where ambiguity exists) and the ability to receive much conflicting information without forcing closure upon the situation.

(ii) An internal locus of evaluation: This means that the source of our locus of evaluative judgement is internal. This, in other words, refers to the fact that for any potentially creative person, the value of his product is established not by the praise or criticism of others, but on the basis of his own assessment of the worth of his product.

(iii) The capacity to toy with elements and concepts. This means the capacity to play spontaneously with ideas, colours, shapes, relationships; to juggle elements into impossible juxtapositions; to shape wild hypotheses; to make the given, problematic; to express the ridiculous; to translate from one form to another and to transform into improbable equivalents. The potential creativity thus works as the foundation of the creative functioning and is expressed through the divergent
thinking and divergent production. These capacities are represented through the aptitudes, attitudes and certain behaviours and characteristics.

23.2 e) THEORY OF CREATIVE TRANSACTUALISATION

Taylor (1976) explains his theory of creative transactualisation as follows. He has examined a number of suggested sources of creativity, and has grouped them into three categories.

First, those who postulate Reaction Sources including

Vitalism: - (Descartes) The origin of creativity as a product of some mystic reality, and is apparent in the concept of ‘divine inspiration,

Nativism: - (Golton, Kretschmer, Hirschman 1982) creativity as originating from hereditary endowment, i.e., in-born and unacquirable. Creative personalities are born, not made

Romanticism: - (Gordon (1975) creativity arises from inspiration generally resulting from a dramatic occasion,

The Unconscious: (Freud, (1983) Jung, (1966), Grotevant, (1989) Kris (1963)) creativeness is a relaxation, regression or sublimation, of ego functions,

Culture: - (Steinberg (1980), Torrance (1971). It is an essential force from which creative ability emerges

Serendipity: - (Lean (1975), Cannon (1983))) Source of creativity is a ‘happy accident’. It suggests that creativity as singular process results from external or internal force outside of the person’s control or responsibility, and that creativity develops, therefore, is somewhat an alien experience.
Second, proponents of ‘Interaction Sources’-including

Empirical: - (Torrance (1971) A new condition and not a natural state of existence, to be generated in individuals given certain learning opportunities

Interpersonal: - (Osborn (1988), Parnes (1967), Anderson (1981), Gordon (1975), Most of us can work better creatively when teamed up with the right partner because collaboration tends to induce effort, and

Personal origins: - (Getzels (1962), Csikszentimihalyi (1977), Goldstein (1939), Maslow (1960), and Rogers (1970). One’s own, in the values, motives, self-actualization drive, self-reflective thought-suggest a more complex person-environment system; alien development, and partially outside of a person’s control or responsibility.

Finally, those who uphold Transaction Origins: - (Taylor (1963), Schachtel Gutman (1969), Peterson (1983), Mumford (1987)). Seeking origins of creativity, they say that it may be misleading, since they may not have any personal origins other than those inherent in the very nature and make up of the biologically experiencing organism. If not interfered that would continue through out the organism’s lifetime-including complex transactional motivation and environmental stimulation, suggest inherently natural bio-experimental and environmental processes.

23.2.f) THEORY BASED ON S-R ASSOCIATIONS.

Among the theories of creativity, the explanation provided in terms of stimulus-response associations represents one important approach. The S-R-
(Stimulus-Response) theory of creativity was advanced by Mednick. (1963). According to this theory, any condition or state of the organism which will tend to bring the requisite associative elements into ideational continuity will increase the probability of a creative solution.

A variant of Mednick's associative theory is available as S. R. Theory in terms of instrumental conditioning. This theory emphasis that one's behaviour is shaped by the particular patterns of reinforcement received during the processes of growing up. The extent to which a child is able to make creative responses will be heavily dependent on the extent to which he has been rewarded or punished for creative thinking during his past childhood.

Creativity is the process of becoming sensitive to problems, deficiencies, gaps in knowledge, missing elements, disharmonious and so forth, through the utilisation of the potential capacity to be creative. Torrance (1969) undertook a comparative study of potential creative and non-creative persons on the basis of which he was able to identify some traits, which are specific to creative individuals. These attributes include courage and independence, risk taking, persistence, inquisitiveness, and complexity. This potential creative capacities once appropriately utilised will become a multidimensional (verbal and nonverbal) attribute differentially distributed among the people and includes chiefly the factors of problem solving, fluency, flexibility, originality, acquisitiveness and persistency. The creatively gifted can express elaborative thinking, adaptive thinking and developmental thinking.
Biographical and contingency factors play as large a role as personality traits in stimulating and fostering the innate creativity. In a study Sing (1989), reported that to focus on a creative individual without considering his biographical factors is almost like studying plant growth without considering the soil. Biographical factors such as, socio-cultural and educational background of the family, parent’s attitude towards children and family size, are also noteworthy. These socio-cultural and familial variables in fact work with the self-concept and the achievement motivation of the adolescents and they in turn affect the creative functioning. Thus it is generally observed and theoretically concluded that the self-concept and achievement motivation are the comprehensive affective variables in the process of functionalising the potential creativity.

The potential creativity is the capacity to generate or produce, many associations that are unique within a criterion of relevance. The potential creative individual is one who not only attempts complex solutions of problem external to him through special attentions to and preference for apparent disorder, but also attempts to create himself through commitment to a complex personal synthesis.

2.3.3. DESCRIPTION OF THE CREATIVE PERSON

An adolescent with creative potentials would also be expected to have creative personality characteristics. Certain personality characteristics of a creative adolescent have appeared so persistently in research studies that we can describe as some undisputed qualities. They are - typically good but not necessarily high intelligent, open to experience, tolerance to ambiguity and uncertainty,
(Taylor and Holland, 1964). They promote imaginative use of disorder, the wise discipline of order, the capacity for the intuitive mode (Ornstein, 1974) and the holistic capacity for 'peak experiences' (Maslow, 1964). They will be more willing to take risks but will not be impulsive (McClelland, 1963); with traits of divergence (Torrance, 1962); unconventionality, sensitivity to problems and fluency in thinking (Guilford, 1964; 1977). They have a tendency to see the not seen, to synthesize more and richer ideas, to fantasize more richly possible, to be psychodynamically more complex (Barron, 1963); risk takers, meaning makers, question askers, anti-authoritarian and enduring.

2.3.4. STAGES IN CREATIVITY

J. Rosseman (1931) says that there is a general agreement that 'acts of creativeness' (the process of functionalisation of the potential to the creative products) great or small involve four phases in a context. These are the stages through which the innate potential talents of an adolescent become functional. If the capacity to be creative is to be materialized, their self-concept and achievement motivation should be adequate.

First, there is the long immersion of the potentially creative sensitive mind in some specific medium, which gives delight and fulfilment whether it be the world of colour, tone, movement, space, time, etc... Minds both great and small are first marked out for the pathway of creativeness through the fact that they are sensitive to something in this challenging and fascinating world.
The second phase in creativeness appears when this sensitivity of this potentially creative mind demands contact and assimilation and leads to the acquisition of storehouses full of experiences which consolidate themselves just as all learning processes do into higher unites or structured patterns or ordered experiences. New love of such experience incubates them to a flash point of readiness so that a new spark will precipitate a chain of reactions of growing creativity upon environmental encouragement.

The third phase in creativeness is the Illumination. It is from this great storehouse based on years of accumulation and incubation that the third phase "The sudden inspiration" takes place.

The fourth step that always emerges in the process of creating is the "hammering out" or the sifting. Insights or illuminations small or great come to all of us in all spheres of life. They depend for their very existence and testing the critical evaluating and perfecting of the work done. After the "fine frenzy" the "quiet eye" after "composing with fury" "correcting with phlegm" and especially correcting with socially accepted judgements. These are the stages in the history of the individual creative act.

In this process of operationalising the creative potentials the self-concept and achievement motivation are significant because they are the comprehensive affective variables which operate the potential creativity to the functional creativity. If there is no appropriate self-concept and achievement motivation, the creative potentials will not be utilised and in turn will be converted to be problems for the
individuals and the society. In the case of the adolescents, this problem will be more crucial because even otherwise they are already fighting it out with many other biological, social, emotional and identity related problems.

2.3.5. TYPES OF CREATIVITY.

Taft (1971) has come out with a classification of creativity in terms of the involved cognitive processes. He has labelled this cognitive style as ‘hot’ and ‘cold’, depending upon the cognitive processes involved in each. Both these are to be found in varying proportions, in any creative process. According to Taft, performance on divergent thinking tests of originality is closely related to ‘cold’ and ‘hot’ creativity. For Vinacka, (1927) creativity is close to fantasy and imagination, with problem-solving as a major component.

Ghiselin (1963) points out two levels of creativity, one ‘higher’ (‘primary’ or ‘major’) and the other, ‘lower’ (‘secondary’ or ‘minor’). Creative action of the higher sort “alters the universe of meaning itself by introducing into it some new element of meaning or some new order of significance or commonly both”. Creative action of the lower sort gives further development of an established body of meaning through initiating some advance in its use. It extends the range of application of what exists without intrinsic alteration.

Maslow (1963), proceeds to synthesize the two levels in his observation that creativity which uses both types (primary creativity and secondary creativity) of process easily and well, in good fusion or in good succession and it is called the integrated creativity.
2.3.6. CREATIVITY AND ITS FUNCTIONING.

There is considerable difference in the functioning of creativity of the children and adolescents. The potential creativity of children will naturally get expressed because it is an instinct. But in the case of adolescents, if the potential creativity is to be developed to appropriate fruits there should be a purposeful effort and attempt in a very encouraging atmosphere which boost up their self concept and achievement motivation. There are some authors who have attempted to study the process of functioning of creativity and have concluded that if the potential creativity is to be optimally used, the creativity is to be creatively canalised on the basis of their self-concept and achievement motivation. (Getzels (1962) Ghuselin, Brewster (1952) Busse (1981) Torrance (1966) W.M Gallander and Crowley Jeannine (1993), Fagan Ronald (1994) McCormick Megan (1993)).

Van Boxtel and Herman Monks (1992) studied 79 male and 89 female adolescents who participated in a study concerning identification and socio-emotional situations. Subjects included 22 many-sided gifted achievers, 45 one-sided gifted achievers, 27 gifted underachievers, and 74 controls. Results suggest that the general self-concept of high school students, including the gifted, be correlated with academic self-concept. He further concludes that, though there is no direct relationship between the creativity and self-concept they are indirectly correlated as the intervening variable because the self-concept plays an important role in the process of making the potentiality to be functional and productive.
There are some authors who say that self concept has a role in the process of making the potential creativity to be functional and also has the ability to accelerate or seduce the achievement motivation of the person. (Parness (1967) Taylor (1964) Haddon (1971) Garzarelli Pamela and others (1993).

2.4. SELF-CONCEPT

'Self-concept' is the sum total of all an individual can call his own, including both physical and mental data. The self is the totality of our impressions, thoughts and feelings such that we have a continuing conscious sense of being. It is a composite of ideas, feelings and attitudes a person has about himself. It includes one’s self esteem sense of personal worth, and one’s sense of who or what one would like to be or one’s ideal self.

The Western concept of the “self”, as an individual, entirely separate from its social context and relationships, is relatively a recent development. This does not mean that social influences can be entirely discounted. From the very beginning, psychological theories of the self have recognized how important other people are in influencing the ideas, which we develop of ourselves. William James (1890) argued that the self-concept develops from social comparisons. He argued that we compare ourselves with significant others and use this information to develop an idea of what we are like. G.H.Mead (1934) also emphasized the importance of social interaction, in the development of the self-concept. He saw the self-concept as being informed directly through social expedients. Goffman (1959) saw the self-concept as reflecting the collection of social roles played by the individual.
2.4.1. ELEMENTS OF SELF-CONCEPT

The term self-concept is often regarded as consisting of three components; the Self-perception, the self-image and the self-esteem. The explanation of these components will bring out the definition of the term Self-Concept.

2.4.1.a) SELF-PERCEPTION

Bem (1967) suggested that how we perceive ourselves is an important part of the self-concept. Self perception theory argues that we observe how we are acting, and draw conclusions from this about what we are like.

Rogers (1970), defines the self as an organized, consistent, concept gestalt, composed of perceptions of the characteristics of the ‘I’ or ‘Me’ and the perceptions of the relationships of the ‘I’ or ‘Me’ to others and to various aspects of life, together with the values attached to these perceptions.

2.4.1.b) SELF-IMAGE

The self image is a factual self portrait, including information about the body, its height, weight and build; the person’s likes and dislikes; his past experiences, and so on. This includes some sub factors of general self-concept. They are as follows; Physical Self Image, Psychological Self image; Field Self image, Basic Self Image, Ideal Self image, Situational Self Image, Social Self Image etc...

Lewis (1971), found that, a significant relationship existed between the general self-concept and other self factors and achievement.
2.4.1. c) SELF-ESTEEM.

Self-esteem, on the other hand is the evaluative component of the self-concept, and is concerned with internalized social judgments and ideas about how worthwhile our trait or personal quality is. Carl Rogers (1961) also saw self-esteem as a significant factor in psychological health. Rogers believed that self-esteem develops through childhood as we internalize social standards, or conditions of worth, which we learn through everyday social interaction. He argued that people have two fundamental psychological needs, the positive regard from other people and the need for self-actualization. Identity status has been related to family background. Those in foreclosure reports close relationships to parents, those in moratorium and achievement, more distant or critical ones.

Savin Williams and Demo (1984) examined changes in self-esteem in a longitudinal sample of about 40 young people from 12 to 15 years of age. Their general conclusion however is that there is a gradual process whereby adolescents' developing cognitive abilities permit greater self-awareness... Adolescence appear more to be a stage of development, in the true sense than of disruption.

2.4.2. THEORETICAL VIEWS

Self-concept can be understood as the relatively stable picture people have of themselves and their own attributes. Two features of self-concept are of particular theoretical and practical relevance; the 'content' of self-concept and the evaluation of attributes. Various theorists have emphasized different aspects of the structure, function and the determinants of self-concept.
2.4.2a) LOOKING-GLASS SELF CONCEPT THEORY

A particularly influential approach to the origin of self-concept was 'symbolic interactionism'. Cooley (1902) introduced the concept of the 'looking-glass self', to represent the idea that "a person's self-concept is in large part the result of interactions with others significantly". He, who saw feedback from others as being crucially important, developed this idea further. According to him the self-concept is like a looking-glass, reflecting what we believe other people think of us. This self-concept includes both evaluative and illustrative dimensions. The evaluative dimensions are the judgement that we believe other people are making about us, and illustrative dimensions are what we believe they see when they look at us.

2.4.2b) FUNCTIONAL THEORY OF SELF-CONCEPT

A comprehensive theory dealing with the function of self-concept was suggested by Epstein (1973). He indicated a variety of positions on the nature of self-concept. According to him, "self-concept serves two basic functions:

a) Hedonic. It maximizes pleasure and minimizes pain which is equivalent to the self esteem;

b) Structuring or integrating. It organizes and assimilates the data of experience, which focuses on the total to maintain the conceptual system and consistency.

2.4.2c) PHENOMENOLOGICAL THEORIES

According to the phenomenological theories, the adolescents' personality is directed by the "self," which interprets experiences on the basis of its own
private, idiosyncratic concepts and the self-image. Hence adolescents’ personalities depend on the way they perceive the self and the way, the self perceives other people and experiences.

The adolescent self-concept is an essential construct in most phenomenological theories of personality. In attempts to analyse this phenomenon, researchers have examined the adolescent self-concept in relation to such variables as family relationships, school grades, peer group, gender and age.

A necessary precondition for the development of the self-concept is the ability to differentiate itself from the surrounding environment, that is to, develop a sense of the self as subject which is the existential self, “I”. Another condition is to learn the particular attributes that define the self as object, which is the categorical self “Me”.

The investigation in the development of the content of the self-concept beyond infancy has largely been based on verbal rather than behavioural criteria, in particular, on clinical interviews or content analysis of standardized response data.

In the opinion of Brooks Gunn, (1979) at birth there is no self-concept.

For children, a secure emotional attachment to their caregivers is the crucial prerequisite for the development of a favourable self-concept. According to Lewis and Brooks Gunn, (1979) a key to the development of a favourable self-concept is the experience of regular consistencies between actions and outcomes in the external environments, which allow the infants to establish generalized...
expectations about control of the world. Particularly important behaviours are caregiver’s attempts to meet the infant’s homeostatic needs and parental imitation of infant’s actions.

According to Coppersmith, (1967) the parenting style used by parents of boys with high self-esteem was characterized by high acceptance of their children, clearly defined limits on their children’s activities, and, within the limits set by parents’ standards and social norms, respects for individuality.

Self-concept refers to the picture or image a person has of himself. Goffman (1959) views the self-concept as reflecting the collection of social roles played by the individual. In short, self-concept deals with the sum total of an individual’s beliefs about his or her own personal attributes. In other words, it is the ability to differentiate itself from the surrounding environment. In this investigation self-concept is classified into four aspects. They are basic self, ideal self, situational self and social self.

2.4.3. ADOLESCENCE AND IDENTITY STATUSES

James Marcia (1980) described four different types of identities that adolescence may adopt. They are: identity diffusion, foreclosure, moratorium, and identity achievement. Marcia refers to each of these options as an identity status.

According to Marcia (1980), young people with the diffused identities have not yet chosen any vocational or ideological direction, even though they may have experimented with various roles and ideologies. The identity-diffused
youngsters frequently resort to defense mechanisms as ways of coping with the anxieties associated with not having developed an identity. From this view, continuously being consumed by the latest fad or continually seeking immediate pleasure can be manifestations of an identity-diffused adolescent's sense of the meaninglessness. (Logan, 1978). Identity diffusion has often been found characteristic of adolescents who feel rejected and detached from their parents. (Marcia, 1980).

Similar to identity diffused youth, who have not yet adopted an identity, adolescents in the moratorium identity status are currently struggling with their identities. In Marcia's model, the moratorium youth lack defined goals or clear values that contribute to feelings of anxiety. Nevertheless, these young people tend to be characterized by sophisticated levels of moral reasoning, self-esteem, self-directiveness, curiosity, social activity, and emotional expressiveness. According to Marcia these adolescents have an ambivalent relationship with their parents. Furthermore, the parents of the moratorium adolescents tend to have encouraged their children's autonomy, expressiveness, and independence.

In contrast to identity diffused or moratorium youths, an individual with a foreclosed identity has an identity and a system of clearly defined values. From Marcia's and Erickson's perspectives, unfortunately, these adolescents have prematurely endorsed the viewpoints of their parents and society's other authorities in lieu of examining alternative roles and values. For example, a boy with the foreclosed identity may oblige his parents' expectations that he become
a physician, without ever exploring any other vocational options. A girl whose identity is foreclosed may embrace the religious and political policies of her family without ever discussing or reading about different perspectives. The pattern that has emerged from most of the existing research associates the foreclosed identities with conformity, conservatism, and submissiveness. (Marcia 1980).

Young people with foreclosed identities tend to have a great need for social approval than youths in the other identity statuses. They are often the most susceptible to persuasion by others—especially by those whom they perceive as authorities, such as religious leaders, teachers or parents.

The fourth type of identity status that Marcia perceives for adolescents is achieved identity. Individuals with an achieved identity have experienced the confusion and uncertainties that accompany experimentation with different identities and ideologies during adolescence. As a consequence of their struggles and experimentation, however, the individuals emerge from adolescence with an independently formulated identity in regard to vocational, personal, and ideological issues. According to Marcia's view identity achievers are the people most likely to be ethical, empathetic, resistant to authority's unreasonable demands, reflective, self-confident, and academically successful.

Adolescents who become identity achievers generally describe their parents as people who have encouraged them to explore a variety of ideologies and to experiment with different social and vocational roles. (Marcia 1980) Correlational studies suggest that adolescents are most likely to develop matured identity
statuses when their parents employ a democratic parenting style, demonstrate affection, and support their children’s independence. (Adems 1985, Adams & Jones 1983; Cooper, Grotvent, Condon 1984)

The central task of adolescence is self-definition. It is the period in which a young person learns who he is, and what he really is, and what he really feels. It is the time during which he differentiates himself from his culture though on the culture terms. It is the age at which he becomes capable of deeply felt relationships. Self concept is the constellation of things an adolescent uses to describe himself. It is the perceived self. It is a composite of thoughts and feelings that constitute a person’s awareness of his individual existence, his conception of who and what he is. It is the organization of qualities that the individual attributes to him. The self-concept as the core of the personality pattern is largely responsible for the ease or difficulty of the adolescent experience.

2.4.4. SELF-EFFICACY

Bandura (1989) argued that one of the most important features in self-perception is what we believe that we are capable of achieving. Self-efficacy beliefs are about our own perceived competence-what we believe we can do well, or at least adequately. He identified four psychological processes that are affected by self-efficacy. The first is cognitive, in which the self-efficacy beliefs can be shown to affect the thought pattern people use, which in turn affects behaviour. The second is motivational which affects the achievement motivation that in turn determines the achievement and development of an individual. The third is
affective. The fourth is selection. Thus one's beliefs about one's personal efficacy will directly affect what one chooses and the way one behaves and act especially with the functioning of his talents and abilities. They clearly emphasize that the self-concept has got direct relationship with the functioning of creativity, intelligence and all other cognitive faculties. The level and quality of the functioning of creativity will decide the level and quality of achievement motivation and achievement of them.

2.45. ADOLESCENCE AND ACHIEVEMENTS

Achievements bring personal satisfaction as well as social recognition. That is why achievements, whether in sports, school works, social activities or in any other field in any form will be a strong interest and motivation for the adolescent’s progresses.

Canon and Simpson (1980) conducted a study on college going students and found that, there is a significant relationship between self-concept and achievement Motivation. Pathani (1985), in a study on 700 adolescents found that self-concept is a significant predictor of achievement Motivation. Panwar (1986) found that academic achievement had significant effect on self-concept, the family background had significant effect on self-concept, school background had significant effect on self-concept. Mishra (1991) explores the effect of self-concept, achievement motivation and academic achievement and concluded that, self-concept had significance effect on achievement motivation and academic achievement of students. The study also revealed that self-concept had to play a
vital role on the achievement of girls than that of boys. Gorrell's (1990) research on self-effusions and its contribution of self-concept theory, indicated the significant and relevance of the affective variable, self-concept in economic situation. Hirunval (1980), in a study of pupils' self-concept, academic motivation, classroom climate and academic performance and found that academic motivation as measured by junior index of motivation was positively related to self-concept and some of its components like goal oriented activity and problem avoidance.

2.5. ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Achievement motivation is relatively a new concept in the world of motivation. It owes its birth to U. S. A., and is basically a product of a system that is based on capitalism. The word motive is derived from the Latin word MOVERE, meaning, “to move”. The basis of achievement motivation is achievement motive that is a motive to achieve. Those who engage themselves in a task on account of achievement motive are said to work under the spirit of achievement motivation.

‘Achievement motive’ refers to the tendency to strive for success or the attainment of a desired end. Achievement motivation is the desire for or interest in success in general or in a specific field of activity. It is a need to excel in something. A motive is a desired goal that promotes behaviour. Motivation factors direct and energize behaviour. The drive is a motivational tension, or arousal that energizes behaviour in order to fulfil a need. The need for achievement motivation is a stable learned characteristic in which satisfaction comes from striving for and achieving a level of excellence. Intrinsic motivation, is motivation by which
people participate in an activity for their own enjoyment, not for the reward it will get them. Extrinsic motivation, is motivation by which people participate in an activity for a tangible reward. Achievement motivation is the disposition to strive for satisfaction derived from success in competition with some standard of excellence.

People with a high need for achievement seek out situations in which they can compete with some standard, and prove themselves successful. People high in achievement motivation are apt to choose tasks that are of intermediate difficulty. The outcome of high need for achievement is generally positive, at least in a success-oriented society such as our own.

Differences in achievement motivation depend on individual definitions of what constitute achievement, expectations of failure and fears of rejection. One must also consider ability, skill, energy, self-concept and the like. Motives, needs, drive, and instincts are all constructs, which are the ideas devised to explain behaviour that is otherwise puzzling. Incentives and experiences often alter cognition and emotions leading to motivation.

25.1. DEFINITIONS

There are many attempts made to define the concept ‘Achievement motivation’ by different authors at different times. Some of the significant definitions that give a clear picture of the term are cited below.

Atkinson (1966) define achievement motivation as the striving to increase one’s on capacity or activities in which a stand of excellence is to apply and where the execution of such activities can either succeed or fail.
According to Spencer&Helmerich (1983) Achievement motivation is thought to arise from needs to pursue excellence, reach lofty goals, or succeed in difficult tasks. It involves competing with others or against some internal or external standard. (Spencer&Helmerich 1983.)

For Mc Clelland, (1966) achievement motivation is an overall tendency to evaluate one’s performance against standards of excellence to strive for successful performance and to expedients pressure contingent on for successful performance. Achievement motivation contributes to the satisfaction of the adolescents. Achievement motivation is the superhighway to development.

Flaganan (1967) in his review of research on achievement motivation, has pointed out that the basic motivating factors leading man to work long hours, under unsatisfactory conditions are closely related to the content of the job and are based on the feeling of accomplishment and growth with respect to value objectives.

2.5.2 THEORIES OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

There are different theories, which try to theorize about Achievement motivation. Some of them are explained below.

McClelland (1961) and his associates developed theories of achievement motivation at the University of Harvard. For motivation two factors are important, environmental and affective arousal in the individual. Theories of motivation are mainly classified into three major headings.
252. a) CONTENT THEORIES

Content theories draw our attention to the 'what' of motivation. Abraham Maslow (1968) and David McClelland (1961) are the exponents of the content theories. The content perspective stresses the understanding of the factors, leading individuals to the needs that are motivated to be fulfilled. This concept is presented in the following equation.

Need....... Drive....... Action.......Satisfaction.

They usually behave in ways that will lead to the satisfaction of their needs.

252. b) PROCESS THEORIES

These theorists stress on the 'how' of motivation or the how and what of the goal individuals are motivated by. The notion of expectancy is fundamental to the process theories of motivation, i.e. what a person is likely to get as a result of his or her behaviour. An additional factor in motivation is the strength of an individual's performance for the expected outcome.

252. c) REINFORCEMENT THEORIES

These theories are very much associated with Skinner and others (1957). It does not utilize the concept of motive or process of motivation. They deal with how the consequences of past actions influence future action.

McClelland (1961) considered that human motivation could be understood in terms of needs, but emphasized the importance of social needs, rather than physiological or basic activity. The two needs which he particularly identified in this aspect were the need for achievement (often referred to as the n- Ach) and
the need for affiliation. He proposed that achievement motivation was the reason why some people seem to be very keen to do well, while others seem to be reluctant to make an effort, and they seem to mind whether they are successful or not. He also argued that different societies, as well as individuals, showed different levels of achievement motivation.

2.5.2. d) DRIVE THEORIES

In the early years of psychology the "why" of the behaviour was accounted for by the concept of 'instinct'. When we're talking about human behaviour, motivation becomes far more complex than just the performance of acts and actions. In the first half of the 20th-century, psychologists who were interested in motivation often used the idea of 'instinct', but addressed their efforts to trying to find out how instincts influenced behaviour. In 1932, McDougall proposed that, each behaviour represented a manifestation of some kind of underlying 'drive', which provided the air energy for the behaviour to take place. So according to McDougall, the presence of a drive could be inferred from the behaviour that was manifested.

The self-debasing drive causes an individual to regress to primordial states of behaviour. The self-transcending drive by contrast propels an individual to lofty levels of achievements and self-actualization. It is this supremacy of the self-transcending drive over the self-debasing drive, which results in creativity. This has been described as the sublimation of the self-transcending emotions as transformed into creativity. The sublimation of these drives into scientific
discoveries or artistic constructions is creativity. Jung (1966) also wrote about the creative drive suggesting that “the source of the creative product is ‘Id’ the collective unconscious, and that the creative motivation, inherent within each of us, exists as an autonomous impulse”.

2.5.2. e) PRIMARY AND SECONDARY DRIVES

A number of attempts were made to classify different types of drives. Morgan (1943) drove a distinction between primary drives - those, which satisfied the basic need within the organism-, and secondary drives, which were learned or social. He further subdivided the primary drives into two kinds; physiological drives, which are concerned with unavoidable physiological necessities, such as hunger, sleep, thirst and sex; and general drives, concerned with more wide-ranging or less specific goals like exploration, fear, manipulation and affection.

2.5.2. f) AROUSAL THEORY

The belief that we try to maintain certain levels of stimulation and activity, increasing or reducing them as necessary. (Berlyne, 1967). This theory is consistent with the Yarkes-Dodson Law. It is the principle that high levels of motivation increase efficiency in the performance of simple tasks, whereas a lower level of motivation permits greater efficiency in the performance of complex tasks. Arousal is a general level of activity or motivation in an organism. Optimal arousal is the level of arousal at which the person can function best.

2.5.2. g) DRIVE REDUCTION THEORY

According to this theory, activities are carried out in order to satisfy a need and they cease when the need is fulfilled. (Hull 1943) Drive reduction was what
motivated and energized learning and behaviour. According to him, even more complex behaviour could be traced back to a motivation of origin in terms of the satisfaction of a primary drive. It is the internal state of the organism, which determines whether it would learn or not.

2.5.2. b) INCENTIVE THEORY

According to this theory, the behaviour is motivated by the extra stimuli of rewards and incentives. (Hoyenga & Hoyenga 1984). An incentive is an object, person, or situation perceived as being capable of satisfying a need or desirable for its own sake. Strong needs combined with the enticing incentives create the most powerful drives. Incentive and needs can interact to influence the strength of drives.

2.5.2. i) COGNITIVE THEORY

One contemporary approach to motivation focuses on the role of thoughts, expectations, and understanding of the courses of people’s behaviour. Our expectations of what motivates others have an important impact on how we behave to them. In short, each of us tries to develop and act up on our own motivational theories in an effort to explain the reasons behind our own behaviour and that of others.

2.5.2. j) HUMANISTIC THEORY

This theory emphasizes people’s basic goodness, and their tendency to grow to higher levels of functioning. It is the conscious, self-motivated ability to change and improve along with people’s unique creative impulses that make up the core
of personality. (Carl Rogers 1971). He believed that human beings have two fundamental needs, and that the satisfaction of each of these needs is essential for psychological health. The first of these is the need for positive regards, which he said was a basic need and one, which could not be left unfulfilled without psychological harm to that person. Satisfaction of the second need, then need for self-actualization, is concerned with the human tendency for personal growth. He argued that to develop one, and to actualize one's abilities and talents, is a basic need in all human beings, and that psychological harm would result if this need were not expressed in some way.

In 1979 Rome Harre argued that, obtaining social respect from others is an important, and much under-researched human motivator. The need for respect also, relates with another aspect of social motivation and social identification. This social belonging or identification to social groups and categories occurs in a real society, with real inequalities and values belonging to some groups, which carry more status than others. It is important for the group members to provide a person with a positive source of self-esteem, since seeking positive self-esteem is very much a fundamental motivation for human beings.

2.5.3. ORDERING MOTIVATIONAL NEEDS

Maslowe's (1968) hierarchy of needs: - Maslowe's model considers the way different motivational needs are ordered in a hierarchy, and it suggests that before more sophisticated, higher order needs can be met, certain primary needs must be satisfied. In order for a particular need to be activated, and to guide a
person’s behaviour, the more basic needs in the hierarchy must be met first. People are self actualized when they fulfil and realize their highest potential. In a sense reaching self-actualization is the highest level of motivational fulfillment. In his latest writings, Maslow added an even higher level, which he called transcendence. Transcendence refers to the spiritual need to view oneself from the perspective of others, considering oneself in terms of the universe and the laws of nature.

Motivation energizes and directs goal-oriented behaviour. Early theories of motivation utilized the concept of instinct as the explanation for much of human behaviour. Later drive theories argued that physiological drive is the general force that motivates behaviour. Hull’s (1943) theory of motivation posited behaviour as a function of drive, habit, strength and incentives. Maslowe’s humanistic approach supported a hierarchy of motives, which set a level of need being more basic than others in driving human action. Finally, opponent-process theory described motivations as a tension between opposing forces, such as pleasure and pain in driving behaviour.

Most theories of motivation categorize different types of individual motives including, physiological, the learned effectance and combination motives. Physiological motives include hunger and thirst. Learned motives are acquired through classical and operant conditioning. Successful people may have a greater need to achieve than others may. Effectance motives prompt behaviours that make one competent and effective in one’s environment. General activity, exploration,
curiosity, and tactile manipulation have all been related to greater competence and efficacy. Combination motives are produced by a combination of physiological and learned or experiential influences.

Thus, the conceptual analysis of these major variables formulates a theoretical frame for the present study. The creativity of adolescents is different from the creativity of children due to their development in the cognitive domains. The creativity of children is instinctual but the creativity of adolescence is rational and works as the basis for their future life achievements, success and developments. If this creative potentiality is not properly utilised it will be converted into destructive activities and the adolescents will be a problem instead of being the future potential resource. These potential capacities of an adolescent start functioning only in a favourable atmosphere and reinforcing environment. The theoretical explications further clarify that the self-concept has a role in the process of making this potential creativity functional and fruitful. The achievement motivation of the adolescents also has a role in the achievement (success) and this motivation will work effectively to produce appropriate achievements only when the self-concept is good.

This analysis has revealed various definitions, perceptions, theories, arguments and formulations about the variables and their interrelationships. This analysis also highlights the fundamental propositions put forward by eminent psychologists, sociologists and educationists. The conceptual analysis clearly exposes the significant sub factors associated with the major variables of the
study, there by making the conceptual frame of the present study. This conceptual analysis also has helped in the selection of the significant studies, specifically conducted about the variables and sub-factors.

Part II
SPECIFIC STUDIES CONDUCTED.

Numerous studies are conducted about the variables, Creativity, Self-concept and Achievement motivation at different levels and in different countries focusing on the different sub factors and sub variables for different purposes. Some studies also try to establish the relationship between these variables. The significant and relevant studies are summarized in the following paragraphs. The selected studies are arranged according to the chronological order. The general trends are abstracted towards the end of the citations. These selections include both Indian and abroad studies.

Murray (1938) while describing the various aspects of personality including self concept, which control behaviour, points out that performance may be regarded as a kind of behaviour at the back of which there may be a hypothetical force or a need; primary or secondary.

Field (1951) has reported an increase in need achievement in women following the arousal of concern about social acceptance and personal worth.

Weinberger’s (1951) study suggested that students with high motivation for achievement have comparatively higher esteem and sense of worth than students having low achievement motivation.
Morgan (1952) found that there is a positive association between needs achievement and self-concept among high ability college students.

Van Zelst (1952) found that freedom to choose one's own work partner increases performance.

Veroff Wilcox and Atkinson (1953) found the average Self-concept and need achievement scores of American College women to be already as high under relaxed conditions as it is for men or women under aroused conditions. Nevertheless individual differences in need achievement showed the same relation to performance in women and men.

Pottharst (1953) also found that students who are high in need achievement tend to over estimate their previous grade point averages in college.

Dc Charm (1955) found that while need achievement scores were positively related to memory and performance, valuing achievement scores were not related to these measures but show a tendency of subjects to be influenced by the opinion of expert's ambiguous situations.

Atkinson (1955), showed that recall of interrupted tasks, conventionally viewed as indicative of strength of motivation, is positively related to the strength of need achievement in individuals only when tasks are presented as tests, on which it is important to do well, which provide appreciation and acceptance for the doer.

Potent (1955), has found that students, who are high in need achievement tend to state higher levels of expectation for performance of a task at which they
have had no previous experience than students who are low in need achievement.

Rossen (1956), using a sample of male school students, concluded that perception about themselves and concepts about their life are directly related to their achievement motivation.

Lazarus (1956), found that high school students who volunteered to be subjects in response to a notice posted on the bulletin board had higher average need achievement scores than a group of college student volunteers. Other research has amply demonstrated that, of total samples of high school and college students the average need achievement score is significantly lower among higher secondary students.

Striver (1958), using sample of high school students, concluded that boys of high ability and creativity who had well-adjusted self-perceptions had a higher need for achievement than equally able boys, who were not motivated for college work. From his study he further concludes that if the ability and potentialities are to be properly utilized their self-concept and motivation for achievements are to be properly activated and boosted.

McDavid (1959), established in a study that there existed positive correlation between achievement and achievement motivation especially in that of adolescents.

Rosen (1959), found that when individuals are encouraged to think independently and take part in decision-making, their achievements increase. He attributes this phenomenon to the enhancement of their perceptions about themselves and their abilities. According to this study, a good concept about the
self and working environment will surely provide an opportunity to the concerned to function and activate their abilities especially the divergent and creative potentials.

Burrie (1961), demonstrated that improving self-concept through a counselling programme help college students improve their achievement motivation and achievement.

McClelland (1961), in the classical study of need achievement pointed out that there is slight association between grades and achievement motivation.

Taylor (1964), obtained similar results in his study with discrepant achievers i.e. there is a slight association between grades and achievement motivation.

Lilling and Caris (1965), pointed out that there is a correlation between achievement motivation and achievement.

Cropley (1966), used factor analysis to understand the nature of convergent and divergent thinking abilities. He stated that it was possible to distinguish between convergent and divergent thinking abilities in terms of factor overlaps.

Pellak, Brock and Kiesler (1967), found that when individuals are allowed to choose their work and activities, their performance increases because that allows their self-appraisal and freedom to work. He also found that the self-concept has a positive influence on the process of making the potentialities of a person.

Studies by Mehta, Mc Keachie et. al. (1968), noticed positive correlation between achievement motivation and opinions about their emotional and
temperamental factors. Identical findings were obtained irrespective of the fact that the three studies were conducted with students belonging to different educational levels, and different cultures.

An interesting experiment of an exploratory nature in India was designed to test the effectiveness of creative-problem solving by using brainstorming and related procedures (Raina and Chadurvedi, 1970). The Programme included some exercises to support their ego status and concepts about themselves. The hypothesis, that the methods employed in the course would produce a significant increase in the fluency or in the quantity of ideas, was supported and it was positively proved.

Vernon (1970), by making quantitative assessment of non-cognitive parameters in University students’ examination, established the fact that motivational variables have significant relationship with the self-concept and performance in examinations. The study revealed that intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation have significant effect on the functioning of creativity.

McAlpine (1972), undertook a major piece of research on the fluency and flexibility of thinking of secondary school pupils with high ability in science in Newzealand, U. S. A and U.K. Variables included fluency, flexibility, intelligence creativity and other personality factors. The result suggested caution in referring to fluency and flexibility (divergent or creative thinking) as a general trait existing outside a particular field of endeavour, or even as a unified trait within a discipline like science.
Devasta and Thomson (1973), found that a creative child gets irritated when strict discipline is enforced in the family. The study also pointed out those activities that permit the individual's freedom, independence, curiosity, exploration and self-confidence are decisive to the development of creative ability.

Winterbottom (1973), has found that need achievement in male children is related to parental attitudes towards independence, training and personal autonomy, which are associated with high need achievement.

Long (1974), set up three experiments to demonstrate that functional creativity test scores (fluency, flexibility and originality) may be influenced by task definition and changes in subject motivation. In experiment one, subjects were presented with two parallel "uses for objects" tests. They increased their levels of originality and fluency, between tests, in accordance with the type of responding they believed to be appropriate. In the second, the present action to subjects of favourable statements concerning creativity, immediately prior to selling the second of two parallel "uses of objects tests, was found to have significant effect on their production of original responses. A control group, who received no such statements, showed no significant change. In experiment three, subjects who were led to believe that their originality would increase from one form of a "uses of objects" tests to another, showed a significance increase in their production of original responses. Subjects with no such expectations showed no significant change. It was concluded that enhancement of creative production following deliberate training may be partly the result of improved
task definition, heightened subject motivation and improved self concept.

Korman (1974), found that higher expectation from an individual in terms of goals to be achieved or time allocated for achievement has a positive impact on the individual performance of the potential creativity.

Atkinson and Raynor (1974), found that achievement motivation has a positive relationship with performance but the test of potential creativity predicts a negative relationship with performance.

According to Simonton (1978), too much formal education detracts from an individual's creativity in discouraging nonconformity and inundating students with the traditional perspectives.

Gupta (1979) had conducted a study about the fundamental dimensions of creativity. From his investigation it seemed that creativity was patterned on the model of structure of intellect given by Guilford and he does claim it to be based mainly on divergent intelligence and the mental abilities involved in creativity were low to those grouped as under- divergent thinking.

Markle Allan, Rinn Roger, and Goodwin Brenda (1980) found that an achievement motivation-training programme designed to help under achieving students through improving their self-perception and personal wellbeing have substantially improved their academic performance.

Grabe Mark and Lata Michael (1981) observed that appropriate effort was strongly correlated with adolescents' achievement, even when difference in adolescents' aptitude was controlled and indicated that the influence of
achievement motivation on achievement was mostly determined by the relationship of achievement motivation and adolescents’ errors on expending appropriate effort.

Ames (1984) found that children who worked in the individualistic (learning goal) context were less likely to attribute failure to ability and were more likely to engage in self-instruction than were children working in the competitive (performance goal) context.

Powers Stephen (1984) examined the relationship of achievement motivation to attributions regarding achievement grade level and sex among 333 middle school boys and girls. Multiple regression analysis indicated that the attribution of success increased effort more than other attributions.

Bharadwaj (1985), reported that age, sex and familial background affect the effective utilisation of creativity components and the discerned facts would provide a better future in the domain of creativity along with better guideline to the adolescents’ future perspectives.

Wagner Stephan and Irwin (1985), used the performance as an indicator variable and showed that non-failing students had higher levels of achievement motivation than failing students because they maintained a good opinion about themselves. Their experiences have supported their self and boosted their morale to do well with their potentials and capacities.

Whitmore and Joanne (1986), found that school experience could be hazardous to the mental health and achievement motivation of young gifted
children. Rather than facilitating the development of the exceptional potential for learning and academic achievement, school experience can produce damaging effects on the child’s perception of self and other attitudes towards school and social competence and thereby may destroy their giftedness.

Beena Jose (1987), in her study, indicated that the affective variables and creativity might be definitely related to the sex groups. It is interesting to note that sex difference in the number of affective variables increases as the level of creativity increases from low creative group to high creative group.

Ramesan (1987), in his study on some social familial variables discriminating between creative and non-creative secondary school pupils found that social -familial variables like parental occupation level, parental education level, socio-economic status and birth order are capable of discriminating between creative and non-creative. He has also shown that a stimulative home environment has a role in the development and functioning of creativity among pupils.

Butler (1987), found that children, who received information about their performances or ability level through normative grades or praise (performance goal manipulated) on a divergent thinking test, showed less intrinsic motivation than children, who received feed back of fast relevant comments or no feed back. This study also reveals that the adolescents are to be properly informed of their abilities and capacities and that their self-concept has an influence on their achievement.
Ali M.R. (1988), found in one of his studies, that the result of an achievement motivation questionnaire taken by 67 college students in Zambia and averages of their term examination grades indicate that students who scored high on achievement motivation did better on academic test, and possessed good scores in self esteem and personal worth.

Jayasree (1988), declared, in her study among the higher secondary students that, attitude and perceptions about themselves along with others have significant role in the development of creativity among adolescents.

The findings of the study conducted by Chandini K.S. (1989), reveal that, to identity verbal, figural, symbolic or total creativity, the select social familial variables couldn’t be made use of.

VanderArk (1989), in a study seeks to give potentially pertinent information and ideas for the development of a model and of hypotheses that are relevant in terms of combining the areas of self-concept and creativity. Selected sources from the areas of psychology, education, and music education are presented as the basis for ideas and thoughts for further research. The ideas in this paper focus on a review of selected self-esteem studies and models. Apparently, many self-esteem inquiries have been highly selective in studying certain variables and factors that teachers and psychologists seem to recognize as being linked closely in the process of human thinking especially of divergent thinking. These factors include creativity and motivation among others. The impetus for presenting thoughts on self-esteem and creativity is an interest fostered by recent publications and
presentations on creativity in music education and sources in self-esteem, attitudes, and motivation in music education. Areas discussed include achievement, gifted and self-esteem, validation of self-esteem, failure and self-concept, experimental studies, self-concept and music, and creativity and self-concept. Among numerous variables reported in the literature, the following are some that have been studied as causal or interactive factors in self-esteem.

Stitt Beverly and Stitt Tom (1990), presented activities to increase human relations skills for women. Each activity includes sections on the goal, group size, materials required, time required, objective, procedures and directions, discussion questions and key points, and evaluation. Activities are, (1) self-esteem, including sections on interaction, insights, and self-worth; (2) growth motivation, including sections on perception and self-concept; (3) assertion, including sections on perception and behaviour styles; (4) interpersonal comfort, focusing on perceptions; (5) empathy, focusing on listening; (6) drive strength, focusing on goal setting; (7) decision making, focusing on problem solving; (8) time management, focusing on daily priorities; (9) sales orientation, focusing on creativity; (10) commitment ethic, including sections on priorities and friends; (11) stress management, including sections on daily stress and peer pressure; and (12) employment, including sections on the resume and interview. All these programmes were designed to vitalise the self-concept to develop effective utilisation of creativity. The findings have established a positive effect and the author concludes that the self-concept has significance in the development of the creativity.
The presentation of Welch Olga Hodges (1990), focuses on how foreign language study may be used to motivate hearing-impaired adolescents and to improve their English proficiency skills. Research on foreign language acquisition as it relates to self-concept development in hearing-impaired youth is reviewed, and a pilot project involving students at the Tennessee School for the Deaf in Knoxville is described. Through interviews, teacher observations, assessment of student progress, and a self-esteem inventory, 14 hearing-impaired 11th-grade students were evaluated to explore the relationship between their self-esteem and achievement motivation. Students from both an experimental and a control group participated in a computer-assisted vocabulary building programme and students in the experimental group also received Wortgefecht, a computerized German programme that allowed students to learn basic grammar and syntax. Preliminary findings included, (a) students in both groups had difficulty with the English vocabulary-building programme; (b) the teacher reported some change in the self-esteem (achievement motivation) of students in the experimental group; (c) students in the experimental group scored higher on the German comprehension test than they did on the English; and (d) students viewed their experiences with the computer-assisted German positively. The experiment supports the assumption that the Self-concept Improvement Programme can positively affect the achievement motivation.

Angell Marion (1991) in the practicum report describes the development of a programme designed to improve self-confidence in low achieving seventh
grade girls towards computers. The questionnaire “My Feelings towards Computers” was used for pre- and post-comparisons. Students were introduced to the computer programme LOGO, were taught to compose programmes using the Logo computer language, and were exposed to a computer atmosphere that stressed critical thinking and creativity. The results, as indicated by pre- and post-testing, showed that seventh grade low-achieving girls could increase their self-confidence in computers by using LOGO. Increased self-confidence was noted in the following areas: liking computers, the field of computers as an occupation, the perception that girls are capable with regard to computers, the ability to understand computers, and being smart enough to use computers. It was concluded that Logo is an effective tool in increasing the self-concept towards computers of low achieving seventh grade girls.

This monograph “Choices for Challenge” contains the conference proceedings of the 1991 conference of the Society for the Advancement of Gifted Education, held in Calgary, Alberta. The papers have the following titles and authors: “Experiencing Creativity in Music” (Loretta Baker); “Students Who are Hearing Impaired and Gifted: Teachers’ Perspectives” (Mary Ann Bibby); “You’ve Come to the Library to Learn About Dinosaurs... But I’m Here to Teach You About Research” (Elaine Blakey); “Computers and Telecommunications in the Elementary School” (Gloria Cathcart); “Mentorship: How and For Whom?” (Don Green); “Integrated Activities for Classroom Enrichment” (Cledwyn Haydn-Jones); “Beyond Reference Skills and Report Writing—Facilitating the Gifted
Learner’s Investigation of Real Problems” (Jo-Anne Koch); “Mentorship on Action” (Stephen Leppard); “Gifted Females: A Dilemma” (Judy Lupart); “The Artifact Exchange Network Session” (Marilyn Macyk and Bonnie Lebowitz); “Facilitation of Emotional Expression in Gifted Students” (Sal Mendaglio); “Panel Discussion-Programming for High Achievers: Administrators’ Point of View” (Keith Muirhead); “Creative Writing Ideas” (Mary-Ellen Perley); “Teaching the Sciencitically Talented” (G. Harold Poelzer); “Research Developments in Gifted Education” (Michael C. Pyryt); “Intuition and Giftedness” (Deborah Skaret); “Sex Role Orientation and self-concept in Gifted Adolescents” (Josie Tong); “Strategies Developed for Use with Elementary Gifted/Learning Disabled Students in a self-contained Classroom” (Janet Wees); “We Believe in Honoring Human Potential” (Marie Whelan); “Writing to Publish: Breaking the Barrier” (Carolyn Yewchuk). The general trend in all these papers is that the giftedness of the children is to be properly understood and specific steps are to be taken to make these capacities used and effective. One important step to this objective is to improve the self-concept and achievement motivation so that people may utilise their capacities for useful results.

Raw James and Marjoribanks Kevin (1991), present the study results of relationships between adolescents’ perceptions of family and school environments and measures of their creativity, morality, and self-concept. Parallel forms of environment schedules are used to assess the social psychological contexts of families and schools. The study concludes that self-concept, morality, and
creativity have modest associations with perceptions of family and school environments.

Yau Cecilia (1991), in a study defines the term “self-image” or “self-esteem” and defines the term “creativity” from psychoanalytic and humanistic interpretations. It then proposes the theory that a positive self-image enhances the possibilities for creative productivity or lifestyle.

Davidson Philip (1992), suggests that children’s implicit beliefs and theories about schooling mediate adolescents’ achievement motivation. Seventy students (half girls and half boys) in a middle class suburban school district in grades 3 through 12 were interviewed about several dimensions of knowledge about education, including reasons for schooling, conditions of learning, conceptions of intelligence, and curriculum objectives. Interviews followed a standard open-ended format, and after responding to each question, students were encouraged to elaborate and present reasons for their views. Findings revealed both increasing linear and nonlinear developmental trends. Students’ ability to conceive of learners as active participants rather than passive recipients increased progressively with age, as did their valuing of nontraditional educational objectives such as art and music. Compared with students in the middle grades, older and younger students believed more strongly in the intrinsic value of education and in the value of meta-educational objectives such as learning to learn, and less strongly, in the modifiability of intelligence through effort. The results suggest that children initially form a naive personalistic orientation toward education, which is rejected.
in early adolescence in favour of a practical, societal orientation; and that older adolescents adopt an orientation that coordinates both personalistic and societal perspectives.

The Multidimensional Motivation Instrument and the Classroom Environment Scale were used by Payne Oscar (1992), to examine the effects of the variables motivation (achievement motivation, academic self-concept, social self-concept, and emotional self-concept) and the classroom learning environment (involvement, affiliation, teacher support, task orientation, order and organization, and rule clarity) on the verbal and mathematics Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) scores of approximately 300 black high school seniors. The students took the SAT during the fall of the 1989-90 school year. Also studied were the effects of ability and sex on SAT scores. Multiple regression indicated that the motivation variable academic self-concept had significant positive effects on verbal and mathematics scores, but no other motivation variable had significant effects.

Torrance Paul (1992), in an article offers guidelines for developing a national climate for creativity and invention. It recalls the post-Sputnik climate in the United States and notes evidence of Japan's increasing commitment to creativity. It recommends encouraging students to imagine themselves as inventors, providing early training in inventing skills, and encouraging the inventive talent. He also emphasizes the importance of developing positive self-concept and favourable achievement motivation among the adolescents to make their potential creative talents to be constructively utilised.
Brewer Chris (1993), observes that a sense of self-worth and trust in oneself provides the will to survive, the desire to create, the ability to learn, and the courage to reach out and connect with another human being. This guide provides a self-worth-building model based on the acronym SELF: (1) Sensing; (2) Expressing; (3) Learning; and (4) Forming. The self-worth model focuses on providing ways to develop connections and relationships with others through activities that stimulate the senses and encourage creativity. The goal of the guide is to provide a resource book of activities designed to develop aspects of self, integrate relationship skills in curriculum materials, and help define the roles of human beings in nature, in community, and in the universe.

Delcourt Marcia (1993), in the study of 18 highly reactive/productive secondary school students reveals subjects' insights into ways they obtained ideas for their projects, how interest in their investigations was sustained, and what they learned from projects. Data from school documents, students, and parents are examined in terms of demographics, family background, educational experiences, and student perceptions. The study revealed that their perceptions about themselves have a positive relationship with their achievement motivation and success in life.

Ellis Julia (1993), in a presentation examines classroom dynamics that can lead to adolescent girls doubting their ability, creativity, and importance. Before children even start attending school, girls have learned verbal and physical self-restraint, thus requiring teachers to give more attention to boys who are more
difficult to control. At school, intelligence is associated with the personality characteristics of independence, self-confidence, and adventuresome interests, and boys are freer than girls to publicly manifest these characteristics. Girls learn to present themselves as modest, self-deprecating, passive, and obedient while boys learn to be self-assertive and self-promoting. Children's understandings of themselves get constructed through significant adults' (e.g., teachers') understandings of them. There are many things, teachers can do to support the development of girls' gifts in the classroom. Strategies include: offering assignments that invite more self-expression; research students' related interests before beginning a unit on a particular topic; challenging myths about gender; facilitating class dialogue about girls and boys being able to be friends; and having students work in mixed-sex groups.

Spicker Howard (1993) describes the strategies, accomplishments, and outcomes of a project designed to identify intermediate level disadvantaged rural gifted children and develop curriculum practices appropriate for their use. Project objectives are outlined, along with evidence of their accomplishment. Findings of the project include (1) the identification procedures that were developed significantly increased the number of disadvantaged rural gifted children being served; (2) project students performed significantly lower than traditionally identified gifted students on standardized intelligence, achievement, and verbal creativity tests both before and after the interventions; (3) project students did not differ from other students on nonverbal creativity tests, self-concept measures,
or creative writing samples; (4) although educators support the principle of providing educational opportunities to disadvantaged children, they do not like the idea of using special selection procedures to identify children; and (5) regular classroom teachers are unlikely to provide curriculum modifications for integrated disadvantaged gifted students without assistance and reinforcement from a gifted education curriculum consultant. The general conclusion of this attempt is that, special care is to be given to develop the giftedness of the disadvantaged children.

Jaffee Lynn and Ricker Sherri (1993), establishes the relationship between activity and positive self-esteem in girls 12 to 17 years of age. The primary goal was to determine if the positive relationship between physical activity and positive self-esteem, which exists for women also, exists for girls. It was also hoped that insight would be gained regarding the factors that are associated with both diminished self-esteem and the reason girls choose to drop out of sports. Data was collected for this study in a focus group format. The girls in each focus group (n=67) were asked to fill out a questionnaire exploring: (1) confidence and perceived competence; (2) levels of activity, sports each girl participated in, reasons for being active and perceived obstacles to physical activity; and (3) career choices and the perceived viability of a chosen career. After completing the questionnaire, the girls were engaged in a discussion focusing on their views on sports, gym, confidence and risk-taking, and their concerns about becoming adults. The decline in athletic participation among adolescent girls and the link between physical activity and positive mental health suggests that girls should be encouraged
book, the Leader’s Guide provides a complete course on self-esteem for young children. The Guide endorses three core beliefs: (1) All children are inherently valuable without regard to gender, race, religion, family background, economic status, appearance, abilities, health, possessions, or any other factor; (2) All children have the right to feel good about themselves exactly as they are; and (3) A child’s value is unconditional. The children’s book introduces several important concepts that strengthen and support self-esteem. The Leader’s Guide shows how to teach and reinforce those concepts in a hands-on, experiential way. The activities make full use of children’s natural curiosity and creativity.

Shechtman Zipora (1994), measures the degree to which group guidance and small group counselling generated positive change in the social acceptance and self-esteem of normal and socially ineffectual adolescents. Both methods enhanced the social acceptability of the adolescents, with partial gains recorded in self-esteem. He recommends a combination of both methods.

According to Saitzyk Arlene (1994), as girls approach early adolescence, they begin to experience losses in self-competence and in authenticity in relationships. These girls hide their strengths for the sake of relationships. This study attempts to change this phenomenon through a 13-week small group intervention programme, The Transition to Adolescence Programme (TAP). TAP encourages group members to assert their individuality within the context of connection, and in this respect, focuses on empowering girls to maintain their sense of self in the self-in-relation and well-being outcome measures, which in
turn may allow them to meet their own needs as well as the needs of others in their relationships. The issues discussed within group meetings include self-esteem, personal power, peer pressure, and sexuality. Activities include visualization techniques, role-plays, and drama and exercises to help participants match or share in the emotions being expressed by the other group members. TAP also provides an environment that is conducive to the development of mutually empathic and empowering relationships in order to assist girls in developing more personally defined racial/ethnic identities in their own terms. The participants in the study were from local Boys and Girls club where most of the members were minorities, and many lived in families dependent on social aid. All participants, both the intervention and control group, completed a battery of self-report measures before the programme began, and at its conclusion. The results revealed varying degrees of change in the attitudes of these girls. Positive changes were noted on some self-report measures such as self-competence. Regarding the measures of psychological distress, the results revealed just a few significant differences between the control and intervention groups, which were related to the age of the participants.

Hacker Douglas (1994), examines the development of abstract thought in adolescents and the conflicts arising from its process from an existential view. He proposes an existential model that views various types of adolescent behaviour as the manifestation of the adolescent’s defense mechanisms developed in response to existential conflict and presents specific examples of existential concerns.
Huffman Lynne and Hauser Stuart (1994), discuss directions for future research on the importance of emotion during adolescence. They note that such research should include an expanded focus on the normative range of emotional expression and on related adaptive behaviours, including competencies, coping, self-esteem, and creativity. The application of research to clinical problems and methodological issues are also discussed. The study also emphasises the importance of boosting the self-concept for effective utilisation of the creativity.

According to Giles Gerald (1995), “Creative Values and Self-image” is a credit developmental study course, offered at Utah’s Salt Lake Community College to help students assess their own values and self-image, learn and understand related theories and research, understand the relationship between their own values and self-image as they relate to goal setting, and apply the theories and research to their personal lives. At the beginning and end of the course, students complete a values and self-image appraisal inventory, rating the importance of statements related to the following 10 values: aesthetics, or the appreciation of beauty; self-control; creativity; family relationships; humanity, or tolerance; physical well-being; renown, or being well-known and liked; social skills; spirituality; and wealth. Major topics covered in the course include the workings of the brain, positive personal affirmations, goal setting, creation of a life philosophy, and analyses of the 10 values in the inventory. To determine the effect of the course on students’ values, results from the beginning and ending term inventories were analyzed for 9 males and 26 females in winter 1995. The analysis
indicated that females showed a significant increase in all of the values except in social skills, while males showed a significant increase only in the social skills area.

According to Newton Miller (1995), adolescence is becoming an increasingly dangerous time of life, with increased violent deaths, juvenile delinquency, and sexual activity. Designed for therapists in psychology, social work, school psychology, family therapy, guidance counselling, and other areas, this book outlines current knowledge concerning adolescent development, along with the author's own experience as a therapist. Part 1 outlines normal adolescent neurological, physical, and reproductive development. Part 2 describes developmental tasks in several areas including personal identity, peer relations, and vocational choice. Part 3 focuses on developmental traps such as aggression and substance abuse, and includes proposals for treatment and for changes in social attitudes and policy. The concluding chapter notes that change is possible, and includes suggestions for social change, and a discussion of the "rewards" of guiding youth. One of the most important recommendations made by the author is that there should be a deliberate attempt to improve the self-concept of the adolescents so that their creativity and other potential capacities will be properly utilised and they will be well adjusted and accepted in society. This will in turn help them to develop an appropriate ego identity and may produce optimum achievements. According to the author, if this caution is not taken the adolescents will develop themselves to be problems in all aspects instead of being the gifted resource and future potentiality.
Harden Theo (1995), in a discussion of the role of reading in second language learning, redefines reading and links it, within language learning, to a revised concept of motivation. To fulfill a more useful function in language teaching, reading should be considered a truly creative rather than basically receptive process. One theory of motivation proposes that the tendency to approach an achievement-related goal is a product of three factors: need for achievement (motivation for success), probability of success, and the incentive value of success. In language learning, probability of success approaches zero when the hope of success is defined as mastering the language, particularly if the hidden agenda is to gain the skills of a native speaker. However, because written text is passive, the reader/learner can be active in “creating” the message. Reading should be considered as a truly creative rather than receptive process. The learner is supposed to find out what the author wants to say and how he says it. Sacrificing the author would put the reader in a more autonomous position. The reader determines what the text means, a position in which the motivation is based on challenge.

Jaffee Lynn and Mahle Lutter (1995), with the help of past research on women, have indicated that a fear of becoming fat emerges during adolescence and continues into adulthood. This study focused on factors associated with negative or positive body image, such as weight, physical activity, teasing, comparison to others and racial identity. Data was drawn from an eight-page questionnaire completed by 152 girls who participated in YWCA summer programmes in various parts of the United States. Findings indicate that low body image was associated...
with several factors. Many factors concerned weight and included (1) weight for height; (2) perceived weight; (3) worry about weight; (4) talking about weight; and (5) attempting to lose weight. Other factors associated with negative body image included comparison of appearance to that of others, teasing, wanting to be attractive to boys, negative comments, and lower levels of participation in organized sports. Girls with high body image were less preoccupied with and less worried about their weight, less likely to compare their appearance to that of others, and less likely to report wanting to be attractive to boys. Perceptions of their weight were similar for black and whites girls; however, black girls were more likely to consider themselves attractive, to like the way they looked, and to feel their bodies were competent and capable. The Physical self-concept has significant relationship with the achievement motivation and the development of the adolescent’s capacities.

Kaplan Avi Bos and Nathan Goal (1995), in their theory of achievement motivation, provided the framework for an investigation of the relationship among young adolescents’ motivational orientation, perceptions of the educational environment, and psychological well being. One hundred sixty-eight sixth graders’ reports of personal achievement goals and perceptions of the school as stressing task goals and ability goals were related to measures of general and academic well being. Students’ reports of holding task goals and perceiving the school as stressing task goals were related to positive psychological well being, while reports of holding ability goals and perceiving the school as stressing ability goals were
related to negative psychological well being. These patterns were found among African American students as well as Euro-American students. However, path analyses pointed to possible different processes operating for the African American and the Euro-American students in the sample. Cluster analysis, based on the assumption that students hold and perceive the environment as stressing multiple goals, suggested that the most adaptive profiles were holding high task and low ability personal goals, and perceiving high task goals and low ability goals in the school.

Klenowski Val (1995), in his paper reports on research in student self-evaluation processes. Student self-evaluation requires judgment of the “worth” of one’s performance and the identification of strengths and weaknesses with a view to improving learning outcomes. Research was conducted at three sites: an Australian country secondary school; a suburban London (England) further education college; and an inner city high school in London. The study identified two broad types of student self-evaluation processes. The informal processes were integrated into the teaching and learning practice quickly, verbally, and pragmatically. The formal processes were more paper-based with a tangible outcome that was used for evaluating the student’s progress. Analysis of both types of self-evaluation identified several elements: use of criteria, teacher-student interactive dialogue, and ascription of a grade. In order for student self-evaluation to take root and flourish, the following supporting factors were found necessary: pedagogical change, a shared value system between students and teachers, and a
school-wide evaluation ethic. The constraints on student self-evaluation were lack of time, the paucity of professional development and support for student self-evaluation, and the change process itself. The intended learning outcomes for students included: independence in their learning, responsibility for decision making related to assignments, productivity, and creativity in taking charge of their own work. The findings of the research indicated that despite the constraints mentioned, where student self-evaluation was implemented and supported, it was possible to see an empowering impact on students.

Hart Daniel and Fegley Suzanne (1995), examined the self-understanding and moral judgment of 15 African American and Hispanic American adolescents nominated by community leaders for their exemplary caring behaviour. These “care exemplars” were more likely than comparison adolescents to describe themselves in terms of moral personality traits and goals and to view themselves as having close continuity to their pasts and futures. The study further emphasized a clear relationship between the achievement and achievement motivation of adolescents. According to the findings, the positive achievement motivation will lead to the high achievement in the academic performances. Similarly poor achievement motivation is correlated with the poor performance.

Hoge Dean and others (1995), in a 2-year longitudinal study of 322 6th and 7th graders compared 3 levels of self-concept (high, middle, and low) and studied the effects of self-concept on achievement and achievement on self-concept. Influences of self-concept on grades were significant, but grades had only a modest influence on self-concept.
Generalized future expectancies of personal life success (optimism) and failure (pessimism) were examined by Koizumi Reizo (1995), in a cross-sectional study, with Japanese fifth- through ninth-grade students (n=584). Average optimism scores were lower and average pessimism scores were higher after the transition to junior high school.

Olenchak Richard (1995), in his study examined the effects of a highly structured, personally tailored enrichment programme for 108 students in grades 4 through 6 who were gifted and learning disabled. Results indicate that yearlong participation in the programme had significant positive impact on attitudes toward school, self-concept, and creative production.

Suarez Orozco Carola; Suarez Orozco Marcelo (1995), focusing on the ethnic identity and achievement motivation of adolescents, report on a study of Mexican-origin and Anglo American adolescents and set it in sociopolitical, theoretical, ethno-historical, and demographic contexts. The heart of the book is a study of four groups of adolescents: Mexicans in Mexico, Mexican immigrants to the United States, U.S.-born children of Mexican immigrant parents, and mainstream Anglo Americans. The 189 subjects, aged 13-18, attended public middle schools or high schools. Psychological instruments, including one that elicited personal narratives, were used to examine familism, family conflict, peer influence, attitudes toward authority and school, achievement motivation, and self-concept. All three Mexican-origin groups had higher levels of familism than did Anglo adolescents. Compared to Mexicans and Mexican immigrants, Anglo American
adolescents had lower achievement motivation and greater ambivalence toward authority and schooling, concerns with autonomy, family conflict, and peer group orientation. Second-generation Mexican Americans were transitional, revealing strong family orientation but lower achievement motivation.

The journal “New Horizons in Education” (1995), 37th issue contains articles in either Chinese or English, each with abstracts in both languages. They include: “‘Every Person Is a Creative Being’: Teaching Method Designed To Cultivate Creativity from the Perspective of Educational Psychology” (Wai Man Lee); “Sex Differences in Problem Behaviour and the self-concept: An Investigation of Hong Kong Junior Secondary School Students” (Po Yin Drew, David Watkins); “What Motivates Teachers?” All these chapters try to establish the significance of creativity during adolescence and how this can be made effective through the enhancement of their perceptions about themselves. The Journal also try to establish the importance of achievement motivation in the performance of adolescents and argues that the adolescent age is highly significant and that creativity is to be very carefully nurtured.

adolescence and tries to emphasize the influence of the concepts about the self in the process of activating the motivation. The self-concept plays a definite role in the promotion or deportation of the achievement motivation and thus improves or stunts the achievement and success of life.

Lyxell Bjorn and Adamson Lena (1996), examine 44 college students to explore identity development in late adolescence. They examine self-concept, existential questions, and content with communication patterns. Results demonstrate a positive and stable self-concept in most of the participants. The self-concept quality was significantly related to how subjects experienced adults’ interest in their existential questions. This perception about their situations and existence has significant effect on the achievement motivation and achievements in the adult life.

Albert Robert (1996), examines six sets of data on giftedness and creativity, finding little evidence for the belief that creativity in adults is mirrored in children. He questions whether children are creative, and whether creativity can be taught. He discusses creation of transitional objects; gaps, novelty, curiosity, and exploration; puberty as a developmental marker; cognitive maturity and ego defences; and educational impediments to creativity. According to the study, the development of a child gets seduced or it may not produce appropriate expressions if not carefully managed and developed through the nurturing of the positive self-perceptions.
As Young Tami Lynn and Lichtenberg James (1996), observe, the importance of family to identity is an accepted tenet of identity theories, though there is some dispute about the nature of this parental relationship and its facilitation of identity formation. This study investigated the relationship between the two developmental constructs of identity and attachment. Using the Identity Status Paradigm, hypotheses were tested with 329 college seniors regarding the relationship of parental attachment and the presence/absence of the processes of exploration of identity alternatives and commitment to specific aspects of identity. Analyses included a multivariate analysis to assess differences among identity statuses on variables of parental emotional support/affect and parental encouragement of autonomy, and a discriminate analysis to test whether these variables could better classify females into identity status in comparison to males. The hypothesis that a positive conceitedness with parents would distinguish between identity statuses reflecting commitment versus those lacking commitment was largely supported. The hypothesis that greater parental encouragement of autonomy would characterize identity reflective of both exploration and commitment received limited support. The autonomy variable reflected differences when comparing identity characterized by both exploration and commitment with identity lacking both exploration and commitment.

De Alencar, Eunice Soriano (1996), in an evaluation by 428 Brazilian university students of their own level of creativity and that of their teachers and colleagues, students evaluated themselves on a seven-point scale and completed
the Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking. They rated themselves and their colleagues more creative than their teachers did. The study confirms the idea that the creativity during adolescence is significantly higher than during any other development stage in the life span. More than that, the creativity of adolescents is rationally different from the creativity of children on the basis of the rationality and divergence on the basis of the thinking patterns.

House Daniel and Prion Susan (1996), in their study investigated the correlation between noncognitive variables and academic success in a freshman composition course. A sample of 257 freshmen taking an introductory English course, completed a survey assessing their attitudes and achievement expectancies. The questionnaire measured self-ratings of overall academic ability, drive to achieve, writing ability, creativity, and self-confidence in intellectual ability. Correlations were computed for the entire sample and separately for male and female students. American College Testing Program Composite scores and self-ratings on academic ability, achievement drive, and academic expectations showed a significant positive correlation with English course grades. Results suggest that noncognitive variables should be considered when providing academic counselling during the freshman year. According to the author, the creativity and achievement motivation are to be properly developed for the appropriate development of the adolescents. According to the study findings, the most important factors that affect the development of these faculties are the perceptions and concepts about themselves. The self-concept is of great significance for the
development of the creativity of the adolescents to functionalise achievement motivation and make optimum achievement in life.

Margolin Dythe (1996), in a paper explores the role of self-discovery in the early stages of caregiver professional development, with a focus on the array of choices available to university students. The assumption is that many people do not know their repertoire of skills until asked to complete a project requiring those skills; thus, “the heart of becoming a professional involves gestation of self-development as an adult.” It is necessary that students be given a wide variety and levels of information so they can recognize where their own inner linkages seem to connect with various professions. Until students identify their professional choices, they are not comfortable or confident in planning their academic programmes. Students should continue the search for professional development because it: (1) promotes exploration; (2) stimulates creativity; (3) promotes self-awareness; (4) energizes activity; (5) increases self-testing; (6) creates open-mindedness; (7) affects positive mental health; (8) sharpens decision-making; and (9) increases self-respect and self-confidence. Professional development can begin at any age and should begin when the individual senses that it is the right time. The adolescence is of significance because it is the age when the individual usually selects the career and starts to think seriously and creatively about himself, his self-image and future life.

Plucker Jonathan and others (1996), in a survey examined educational aspirations and perceptions of school climate among gifted students at the Maine
School of Science and Mathematics, a state-funded rural school serving grades 11 and 12. Students at the magnet school completed the 84-item Grades 6-12 Aspirations Survey, returning 97 usable forms. The instrument has 12 scales: 2 measure student aspirations, 8 measure student perceptions of school climate, and 2-estimate student enjoyment of life and achievement motivation. Results were compared to an archive of survey data from 260 11th- and 12th-grade students of general ability. Compared to the archive data, magnet school students reported higher levels of aspirations, achievement motivation, general enjoyment of life, and perceptions of school climate conditions. Findings suggest that high-ability secondary students attending magnet schools have high aspirations, higher than those of students in a general-ability sample. In addition, magnet school students appear to perceive a school climate that is supportive and fosters achievement and aspirations to a greater extent than do general-ability students attending traditional high schools.

Kernis Michael (1996), examined the extent to which level and stability of fifth-grade children’s self-esteem predicted achievement motivation and reasons for anger. Findings indicate that the unstable children’s self-esteem, the lower their scores on measures of curiosity/interest and preference for challenge.

The monograph “Faces of Excellence.” Annual SAGE Conference Proceedings (7th, Calgary, Alberta, Canada, September 27-28, 1996) contains the conference proceedings of the 1996 conference of the Society for the Advancement of Gifted Education (SAGE). The major focus of the conference...
was to explore “state-of-the-art” knowledge regarding social-emotional development, thinking skills, philosophy, creativity, counselling techniques, charter schools, instructional resources, and gender issues as they relate to the unique needs of gifted and talented individuals. This document presents summaries of selected conference sessions.

The seven presentations are, (1) “The Concept of Giftedness in the Context of First Nations Culture and Philosophy” (John W. Friesen), which discusses giftedness in the Canadian Native cultural context; (2) “Artifact Box Session” (Joanne Lozynsky), a description of a biannual inter-school project in which students collect and exchange artifacts representative of their locale; (3)”GTEC [Gifted and Talented Education Council] Resources (Chris Meaden and Terry Gerling), which describes the “Dimensions of Learning” framework for designing and assessing integrated lessons; (4) “The Emotional Drama of Giftedness: self-concept, Perfectionism, and Sensitivity” (Sal Mendaglio and Michael C. Pyryt); (5) “Fun in Sciencing” (Micheline Rivard), which provides a collection of science activities for the junior high level; (6) “You Are What You Ask—The Power of Teaching Students’ Questioning Skills for Enabling Thinking” (Bernard Schwartz and Garnet Millar); and (7) “Intuition and Giftedness” (Carolyn Yewchuk), a discussion of the mechanisms of intuition and suggestions for fostering creativity. The general observations of the proceeding clearly emphasize that the creativity of the people should be properly developed if the giftedness is to be utilised.
DuBois David; and others (1996), used new Self-Esteem Questionnaire (SEQ) to assess early adolescent feelings of self-worth and self-evaluations relating to primary contexts (peers, school, family) and two other salient domains of experience (sports/athletics, body image). They found support for the proposed developmental-ecological framework underlying the measure.

Spicker, Howard and-others (1996), describe the strategies, accomplishments, and outcomes of a project designed to identify economically disadvantaged gifted rural children (grades 3-8) from African American, Hispanic, Native American, and Appalachian descended, rural Caucasian population. Project objectives are outlined, along with evidence of their accomplishment. The project developed instruments and procedures for identifying ethnically diverse gifted students and developed science curriculum procedures and teaching strategies appropriate for nurturing the talents of these children. Findings of the project are discussed. These include: (1) the identification procedures developed for the project significantly increased the number of disadvantaged gifted rural children from diverse population being served; (2) the elementary school science curriculum interventions improved the scientific problem-solving skills of identified students; (3) a follow-up study of students in junior high school showed a maintenance of creative writing skills and self-concept scores, while science attitude and achievement, as well as other creativity measures, dropped; (4) participating teachers became sensitized to the greater abilities of previously underserved children; (5) identification improved student self-confidence and
aspirations to graduate from high school and attend college.

According to Huntsinger Carol, Jose Paul et al. (1997), most research on adolescents has been conducted with white, middle-class adolescents, which has created a lack of differentiation among the majority and minority cultures in the United States and other parts in the world. To correct this, adolescents from two cultural groups at two points in time were studied so as to see how their trajectories differ in terms of academic achievement, activity choices, time use, and self-perception. A sample of 55 second-generation Chinese-American and 58 Euro-American students from well-educated, suburban families participated in two data collections 5 years apart. Results indicate that the Chinese-American students achieved higher grades, had higher aspirations, participated more in arts and academic extra-curricular activities, and spent more time doing homework than their Euro-American counterparts. Euro-American students participated in band and sports to a greater degree, got more sleep, spent more time with friends, dated more, and were more likely to be employed than Chinese-American students. It was found that activity participation was related to the adolescents' self-perceptions. Chinese-Americans' self-ratings of competence and acceptance tended to be lower, which may reflect self-effacement on the part of Chinese people.

Grant Dale and-others (1997), in their report examine the motivational variables and support structures that influenced the success of African American females who graduated with honours from a rural Georgia high school. Case studies
focus on the nature of the honours graduates’ friendships and the role that friendship may have played in motivating these students to become honours graduates. Subjects were 6 of the 10 African-American females who were honours graduates. Data were collected from a participant questionnaire and interview protocol; school transcripts; and instruments assessing intelligence, self-concept, motivational orientation, and school attitudes. Participants had ability scores in the average to above average range and grade point averages ranging from 89.86 to 93.64 percent. Participants perceived themselves to be strongest in the area of behavioural conduct; global self-worth and social acceptance were also very positive. The only domain in which the group mean indicated negative self-perceptions was athletic competence. In addition, participants felt most successful when learning new and interesting things, solving tricky or complex problems, understanding complicated ideas, and thinking. The group agreed that the purposes of schooling were to teach students to overcome obstacles, set high standards and not give up, prepare for challenging jobs, become creative problem solvers, and become imaginative.

Sharpe's Donald and Wang Xinbing (1997), examine self-concept, assuming it to be genetic in origin and that adolescents’ perception of personal, relational, and academic self-identity occurs uniformly across cultures. Results indicate a high similarity between the majority and minority adolescents, suggesting developmental propensities in self-concept formation. Environment seemed weakly connected to self-concept.
Horowitz Tamar Ruth Mosher Naftalie (1997) compared 88 Ethiopian students with 85 Israeli students to investigate the formers' achievement motivation. Findings indicate that there are some elements in the socialization of Ethiopian students, such as a high level of aspiration and the ability to postpone gratification that can be looked upon as components of achievement motivation. The positive self-concept is correlated with the high achievement motivation and high achievement.

Gross Miraca (1998), uses poetry and diary entries of highly gifted young people to portray the process of individual identity development. Among topics discussed are theories of identity development, adolescence, awareness of difference by intellectually gifted children, development of a protective mask to hide a love of learning, moral development, and identity diffusion in adulthood.

McInerney Dennis (1998), in the paper presents an overview of 15 years of international study, designed to determine the nature of motivational beliefs, values and goals held by students from different cultural groups, the comparability of these beliefs, values, and goals with those promoted by classrooms and schools, and the impact individual, cultural/social, peer, family, class and school influences have on student motivation, achievement, and school retention. The work has been disseminated over the years through a number of scholarly journals in the United States and Australia. Participants have included: (1) 496 Australian Aboriginal students; (2) 1,173 Anglo Australian students; (3) 487 immigrant-background Australian students; (4) 919 Navajo students; (5) 141 Arabic-background Australian students.
students; (6) 198 Betsiamite Canadian Indian students; (7) 1,078 Anglo American students; and (8) 80 Yavapai Indian students. A major finding is that the motivational profiles of these diverse cultural groups are strikingly similar. Analysis techniques included exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, multivariate analysis of variance, multiple regression analysis, discriminate analysis, content analysis, and non-numerical unstructured data indexing, searching and theorizing (NUD.IST) analyses. The findings suggest that the motivational profiles of the diverse groups participating are more similar than different, and that only a narrow range of goals and sense of self variables is important in explaining school achievement on educational criteria, and that these are similar across all the groups. A narrow range of achievement goals and a sense of self appear important in explaining school achievement on educational criteria. The role of school socialization in explaining this similarity is explored as the subject of planned research. The level of self-concept is very significant for the effective development of creativity and other personal abilities.

Roeser Robert Eccles Jacqueline (1998), studied relationships between adolescents’ perceptions of their middle school (school goal structures, autonomy provisions, positive teacher regard) and changes in academic motivation, achievement, and psychological adjustment. They found perceptions to be important predictors; for example, perception of positive teacher regard and an emphasis on individual effort and improvement were associated with increased academic success and decreased depressive symptoms.
Daniels Susan (1998) discusses of the creative self and considers ideas of the described, not defined, self; the differentiated self; intensity, transformation, and development of the creative self; complexity of the creative self; the dialectical self; dialectical personality traits or bipolar mood disorder; and the inventive self. During adolescence the person is expected to develop a rational and realistic self-image and that will definitely affect his creativity and achievement motivation.

2.7. Conclusion

The review of this literature reveals some very important trends in the research field and further substantiates the significance, relevance, and rationale of this research study. These critical analyses also provide the theoretical references and furnish the background for the formulation of the problem for study.

Most of the studies about creativity are designed with dimensions like intelligence, personality factors and socio-familial correlates. Socio-psychological and socio-cultural correlates of creativity are not adequately represented. The educationists and psychologists try to investigate the relation of creativity to intelligence, school behaviour, school environment, individual development, personal characteristics, socio-familial factors and so on. There is a general agreement among the researchers about the presence of creativity (potential) among all, in the childhood but have no clear idea about what happens to that when they grow to maturity or how this potential capacity can be made functional and properly utilised for appropriate results. The researchers have no
clear explanation about the factors, which affect or influence the functioning of creativity. Most of the studies concentrate on the manifested creativity variables like the originality, flexibility and novelty in the process of problem-solving or artistic activities. No serious scientific attempt is found, that try to study the potential creativity of individuals especially that of the adolescents.

There are numerous studies and theoretical formulations about creativity in general and they all generally focus on children’s creativity. There are some studies regarding the creativity of artists, literary writers and other similar classically accepted creative groups. Almost all the studies are on the children’s’ creativity and only seldom studies are found about the adolescents. Even though adolescence is the most significant period of life, especially with regard to the development and utilisation of creativity, the researchers have not yet made any significant attempt to study this specific reality of this unique period scientifically. Almost all the studies are about the functionalised and verbalized creativity which is measured with the traditional functional creativity tests and no serious attempt is made to study the potential creative capacities and the comprehensive affective variables, which make the creative potentials functional and divergent.

The research community has attempted to expose the significant but troublesome period “adolescence”. The thrust in these studies is on their identity crisis, relationships with parents, family life, and relations with peers and similar other groups, the psychotic and neurotic problems associated with them etc.. Primarily they are considered and treated as problems than an important potential
force even by scientific researches. Very few attempts have been made to study their self-concept and achievement motivation. This is not only a theoretical lacunae but also a very significant practical problem and concern for the social workers and other similar professionals who are concerned about the development of human beings and society in general. One of the most important postulates of almost all these studies is the traditional and western concept about adolescents. Majority of the studies are carried out in the European or western cultures, which is drastically different from our culture especially in the case of adolescents and their development. There are no serious attempts made to study the adolescents in the Indian cultural and socio-economic situations.

The self-concept of the adolescents has not yet been probed adequately by the researchers. The general misunderstanding that ‘adolescence is a short transitional period and their self-concept is not very significant’; may be the reason for this neglect. In fact the self-concept has a vital role in the formation of the identity of the adolescents and it serves as the ground for the adult personality. It also exerts some vital influence in the functioning of the faculties and talents of people, which in turn decides the success, or failure of their life. The studies about the self-concept have identified a multitude of variables, which influence the formation, and modification of the self-concept.

Another trend found in this review is that no serious attempt has been made to study the achievement motivation of adolescents. There are some studies, which try to establish the relationship between the achievement motivation and
achievement. The studies have tried to establish the positive and negative relationships existing between these variables. There are seldom studies about the relationships of achievement motivation with self-concept and the creativity. The studies have proved that very strong relationships exist between the self-concept and achievement motivation. The studies give different perceptions about the relationship between creativity and self-concept. This is also the state of relationship between the creativity and achievement motivation. Thus there exists a theoretical and research lacunae in the relationships among the creativity, self-concept and achievement motivation of adolescents.

Another practical problem with regard to creativity is that this abundant gift in the children slowly dies or is neglected when they grow to maturity. There is no serious attempt to study what happens to this grace of nature once they develop through our present educational and cultural practices. The researcher could not find any specific research trying to analyse the relationship of the self-concept and achievement motivation with the creativity of adolescents. At the same time the researchers have clearly established the significant positive relationship between the self-concept, achievement motivation and achievement.

Hence the researcher realizes that this study is very significant and proposes to study this problem in detail using the following methodology.