CHAPTER I: GENERAL INTRODUCTION
GENERAL INTRODUCTION

It is reasonable to assume that the progress of a nation does not depend so much upon the natural resources it possesses as it depends upon the persons of high calibre, on whose shoulders ultimately live the task of exploitation of natural, physical and human resources.

All over the globe and specially in India, till recent times, it is quite unfortunate that in our educational system at all levels we fail to distinguish between the convergent and divergent talent. Herbert Spencer has remarked that the great aim of education is not knowledge but action (Spencer in Osborn, 1966). The objective of knowledge becomes inadequate when we consider the rapidly changing nature of man's future world. The social and intellectual changes are becoming common now-a-days. The children we instruct in school today will be only thirty and forty years of age by the year 2000. The knowledge explosion which is in vogue will multiply the human repertoire of knowledge manifold and will make obsolete many of the facts and concepts of today. History of human culture has witnessed that what we have already disproved and discredited were at sometime, platform of thought and development. Modern education must not content itself with developing mere role learning but also the ability of children to provide relevant and new meanings to their classroom experiences. It is obligatory on the part of the school to equip the child with generalized intellectual and other skills which will enable him to cope effectively with whatever states of the situation he will encounter later in life.

It is often found that students who secure very high marks at examination and are placed in the group of gifted children, may not be revealing any new ideas when they are required, to like writing a story or essay. On the other hand there may be students who can take up such matters, communicate novel ideas and use their imaginations. Obviously such children are
intelligent but in many cases they may not secure high marks under traditional examination. The personality characteristics and motivational orientation for scholastic performance also differed from one to another. So it can be stated, intelligence or creativity are not the only factors essential for academic achievement but many other factors like personality characteristics, Achievement Motivation are also relevant. All these psychological dimensions have underlying influences on a student to perform high or low in Academic Achievement.

Achievement Motivation is concerned with the arousal of interest in learning and, to that extent is basic for Academic Achievement. The students must be so motivated that his interest will be directed toward definite goal and help him for better Academic Performance.

The standard of excellence is also depend upon certain personality characteristics. An individual's personality is rooted in his physical and mental potentialities. As the biological factors interact with social and environmental influences, the pattern of personality is developed. Individual differ from one another to the extent they respond in their attitudes and behavior to such personality developing factors such as their emotional drives, their interest, their urges toward self-expression and their appreciation of Values. Whatever education can do to guide the young person toward desirable self-discipline and self-expression will help him to integrate his attitudes, his ideals and his overt behavior as that there will emerge a consistent and wholesome personality pattern. However, everyone knows about super-achieving students. They get high marks. But in case of these Rank Achievers hard works are not only the whole story, there are other reasons to be an excellent student. Top students brook no intrusions or study time. They take good notes while reading the text assignment. Class participations show their intellectual curiosity. They just don't want to memorize information for tests only.
They believed that better grades come from better understanding. The contribution of their parents are also crucial. From infancy, the parents imbued them with a love for learning. They set high standards for their kids and held them to those standards. They encouraged their sons and daughters in their studies but did not do the work for them. These Rank Achievers are expected to hold responsible portions in the society and assume leadership in various organizations. Innovation insight, emotional integrity of these students are expected to become the assets to the national life. Though High Achievers have been considered in almost all the early studies but studies on rank achievers i.e. those who ranked from 1st to 20th in order of examination scores have possibly not yet been attempted. We have information as to how Rank Performance differ from other categories of performers i.e. High Achievers, Average and Low Achievers in respect to intelligence, creativity, achievement motivation and personality characteristics.

The High Achieving students on the other hand have in-born desire for mastery, achievement, recognition, popularity or superiority. They had a tendency that others should notice and praise them and should accept them as an equal or even a superior person. They are highly motivated to overcome all thwarting obstacles and live up to their own standards of honour and dignity. Their intellectual capacity help them to reach their target.

The term "Average" is a statistical concept indicating the central tendency of a group. The analogy implies that any educational system based on average requirements falls short of being adequate because no actual child has average needs and average abilities. On the contrary, children differ from one another so greatly in abilities and interests that no curriculum based on a concept of the average child can possibly be adequate. Actually, the Average and Low Achievers have unrealistically high levels of aspiration for

* Rank Achievers - Students who ranked in order of merit from 1st to 20th among the examinees in the public Secondary examination in whole of West Bengal.
themselves, and when their achievements fall below their expectations, they become dissatisfied with themselves and self-rejectant in their attitudes. Educational problems arise out of difficulties with studies, examinations or handicaps in expression.

By adolescence, the pattern of behavior characterized by under achievement in which both boys and girls are involved has become well developed from the foundations laid during the childhood years (Doherty & Culver 1976). Among boys there are more underachievers than among girls. Male underachievement are often a product of boredom or rebellion against parental pressure to succeed. During this transition period another pattern of behavior characterized by Fear of success often developed among the boys. According to the traditional stereotype, success is one of the outstanding characteristics of males. When students develop a fear of success it is usually the result of repeated failures in past activities which has undermined self-confidence and led to the belief that they lack the qualities essential for success (Winchel, Fenner & Shaver, 1974).

In this perspective, it is to be noted that academic achievement of the students is predominantly influenced by a number of factors which can be broadly classified as:

(a) Intelligence (b) Creativity (c) Achievement Motivation (d) Personality Characteristics.

Academic achievement may thus be the resultant of interaction among these factors. We have proposed to consider in the present study how these factors influencing academic achievement of the Rank Achievers and High, Average & Low Academic Achievers.

INTELLIGENCE

To what extent human qualities are innately given or determined by
upbringing and environment has long been a source of dissension between radical reformers and the conservative establishment. In England in the nineteenth century, it was taken for granted that the upper classes inherited abilities superior to those of the lower classes are required a better education to fit them for their position in life. Conversely in the United States all people were believed to be created equal, and to deserve equal educational opportunities (though this did not apply to the black slaves and their descendants). Such a polarity of ideologies does not necessarily coincide with political attitudes, though it is true that extreme hereditarian and racist views were held in Nazi Germany and extreme environmentalism prevailed in Soviet Russia.

**HERIDITY-ENVIRONMENT DETERMINANTS**

The early Pioneers of mental testing, particularly Terman in America and Burt in the United Kingdom, were convinced that their versions of the Binet Simon Scale were measuring inborn ability, conceived as almost wholly determined by the genes, and developing with age irrespective of the environment in which children are reared. Hence the intelligence quotient (IQ) measured quite early in life, showed the level of education and occupation each child would be able to achieve. However, even in the 1920s, critics argued that the Army Alpha Test results of different national groups of recruits reflected the economic and educational environment of these groups, not innate ability. Several studies showed that children reared in deprived environments obtained low IQs and that it adopted by well-educated foster parents, the scores tended to improve. It is found from the studies of Shimberg (1929), Shepard (1942), Devis (1946), Piaget (1952), Anastassi (1958), Leehmann (1959), Bloom (1964), Wiseman (1967), Gruber (1975), Chatterjee (1975) and Sinha (1978) and many others that the increase or decrease in the level of intelligence of a subject depends to a considerable extent on the nature of environmental stimulation.
From the 1950 attacks on Intelligence tests as measures of innate capacities mounted, and reached their climax in the years following the publication of A.R. Jensen's article supporting hereditarian Views (1969).

In the United States, Jensen (1966) has claimed that it is hereditary factor that explain the persistence among Blocks of Low levels of educational attainment and of inferior IQ scores when compared to whites. Eysenck (1971) has argued that some 80% of the variation in IQs within a given population is the result of hereditary. Eysenck does not claim that there is a total fit between the intelligence level of a child and that of his parents but shows that there is a high probability that children will have similar intelligence levels to those of their parents. He points out that in any society open to the talents there will always be a degree of social mobility occasioned by the downward movement of the less intelligent children of the elite and the upward movement of the more intelligent children of the less privileged classes.

The argument of Eysenck and Jensen claims that intelligence is determined genetically, that is by the pool of genes (the basic particles of heridity located in the cromosomes of each cell) which individuals derive from his parents.

However, the majority of psychologists rejected both extreme views, and admitted that both genetic and environmental factors are necessary for human intellectual growth and that these interact with one another from conception onwards.

Boderman (1972) says, "Intelligence is, however, a composite and complex character, the expression of which must be dependent on a combination of the effects of environmental factors and products of many different genes, each genes probably only having a small effect on measured IQ characters determined by the joint action of many genes like height and IQ are often.
called quantitative characters because they are measured on a continuous scale. They are much more susceptible to environmental influences than are polymorphisms such as blood groups which seem to be pretty well independent of all environmental factors.

EVIDENCE OF GENETIC DETERMINATES

The bulk of evidence for genetic factor in intelligence derives from kinship studies, where correlations are found between parents and offspring, or between siblings and particularly between twins. Monozygotic or identical twins are known to carry the same genes, whereas dizygotic or nonidenticals have only half their genes in common. First cousins share one eighth, and so on. The obtained correlation coefficients ($r$) between IQs of monozygotic twins do approximate to 1.0 as would be expected if intelligence was wholly genetic. Similarly the correlation coefficients for siblings, or for a child with one of his or her parents, approximates to 0.50. But some correlations do not fit closely and different studies of the same kinship often give widely varying results. Bauchard and McGue (1981) have collated III studies, and the following are some of their average correlations: (a) for monozygotic twins reared together, the obtained figure of 0.86 falls below 1.0 partly because the twins of environments (including prenatal conditions) and upbringing have differed to some extent; (b) when the environments are more dissimilar, as with such twins reared apart, the correlation coefficient drops to 0.72; (c) dizygotic twins give a lower average of 0.60, as expected, but it is higher than the 0.47 for Siblings, probably because they are brought up more alike; (d) pairs of unrelated children should give zero correlations, but two in the same home show 0.29 and an adopted child with one foster parent averages 0.19.

ADOPTION STUDIES AND OTHER EVIDENCE

Adopted children obviously carry genes different from those of their
foster parents, but are likely to be affected by the foster home upbringing. Several studies have found a tendency for foster child IQs to rise above the level expected in their true-parent homes, though the maximum gain seems to be about 10 IQ points. Alternatively, correlations are calculated between children and foster parents, and these tend to be lower than the correlations with true parent ability (if known). However, different studies vary, and the data are often unsatisfactory for various reasons, including selective placement, where the adoption agency tries to place the child with foster parents of education and socioeconomic status similar to those of true parents. This tends to boost child foster parent correlations, and would partly account for the unexpectedly high correlation of 0.29 between unrelated children in the same home.

Apparently, then, the intelligence of adults and children can be measured with some accuracy without using tests that are affected by cultural background. These cognitive tests are not dependent on past experience, language, training or motivation.

ETHNIC AND RACIAL GROUP DIFFERENCES

The claim for genetic differences in intelligence between radical or ethnic groups is highly unpopular since throughout history, supposedly inferior groups have been the victims of discrimination, hostility, repression and even genocide. Though there is evidence both for and against the notion of genetic differences, there are no satisfactory methods of separating genetic from cultural influences. A very thorough survey of black-white differences by Lochlin et. al. (1975) concluded that they are partly attributable to "inadequacies and biases in the tests themselves", partly to "differences in environmental conditions", and partly genetic. But it is not possible to tell "the relative weight to be given to these three factors".

CONSTITUTIONAL FACTORS

There are numerous physiological conditions which affect intellectual
growth adversely. These are usually present at birth, but they are constitutional, not genetic in origin. They occur much more frequently in low social class and ethnic minority families. Dull and poorly educated parents often live in poverty. The mother's health is weakened and she is likely to incur "reproductive casualty". Infant mortality is high and surviving children may be unhealthy, inadequately cared for, or malnourished. They achieve poorly at school and are fit only for unskilled jobs. So the cycle repeated itself and it is difficult to say which features of this syndrome are causes and which effects.

Mothers who take drugs or alcohol or undergo physical or emotional stress during pregnancy, are especially apt to produce premature or unhealthy babies. Prematurely born children and those with a difficult delivery tend to be below average in intelligence, though this adverse effect seems to decrease as they grow older.

EARLY STIMULATION AND DEPRIVATION

Remarkable advances in knowledge of early child development, made in the 1970s, have shown that young children are active in their own mental growth, and not merely shaped by the environment. They appear to have inborn dispositions to be selectively alternative to human visual and auditory stimuli, and to react particularly to any novel experiences. Quite early in the first year, children and their mother engage in what might be called prelinguistic conversations, that is activities in which each stimulates the other in turn. The mother's taking encourages the infants vocalizations and later speech.

It is generally agreed that the formation of close mother child bonds in the early months is crucial to normal cognitive growth. The father is also important in providing a male model to boys. If he is absent for prolonged periods during early childhood, whether because of job demands,
marital disharmony, or other reasons, the sons tend to show proper self esteem and are more given to antisocial activities to peers. Their abilities come to resemble the female with lowered mathematical and visuospatial scores.

EFFECT OF SCHOOLING AND SOCIOECONOMIC STATE

The National Survey of Health & Development reports (Dauglas, 1964, Dauglas et. al. 1968) makes it clear that the children from economically and culturally deprived homes are burdened with a cumulative series of hindrances to achievement and educational progress. In a study, they found that not only did the children from deprived backgrounds suffer because education was hardly valued in their homes, but also they were disadvantaged at school itself. The poor achievement of many slow learners are due as much to the limitations of their cultural background as to the limitations of ability. Moreover, deprivations influence not only attainment but also the development of abilities. Various kinds of social disadvantages, particularly unstable and broken family circumstances and marked deviations from acceptable child care, affect the progress of more children than we realize (Guilford, 1969).

CREATIVITY

Creativity is one of the most highly valued qualities of human beings because creative acts influence all spheres of life. Inspite of the enormous amount of psychological research done on creativity in recent years, there is still little conceptual agreement as to what creativity is. It is often conceived as an ability to bring something new into existence. Yet others think of creativity not as an ability, rather as the psychological process or processes by which novel and valuable products are created.
There are four major psychological aspects of creativity upon which attention is focused: (1) the creative product (2) the creative process (3) the creative person and (4) the creative situation.

The creative product - In each field of creative endeavour there are several dimensions peculiar to the product of the field to which they satisfy. The five criteria of originality, adaptiveness, elegance, transcendence and realization are the several traditionally recognized demands of architecture. A similar extension of the criteria of creativity could be undertaken in all fields of endeavour.

The creative process - Such a process includes factor analysis and qualities of thinking which an analysis indicates that the creative process is a complex set of cognitive and motivational processes which involve perceiving, remembering, thinking, imagining and deciding etc. It has been widely recognized that creativity refers to the divergent thinking which places a premium or richness and novelty of ideas. There is now a general recognition that both divergent thinking and convergent thinking are required in all creative thought although their relative properties will vary widely from one creative task to another.

The creative person - The creative person appears to be intelligent, yet there is a far from perfect correlation between intelligence as measured by intelligence tests and creativity. In several professional groups e.g. architects and research scientists. The correlation is essentially zero. Certain degree of intelligence is required for a person to be creative and this level of intelligence varies from field to field and is sometimes surprisingly low. In addition, to general intelligence, special skills and abilities appropriate to a person's field of creative endeavour are clearly necessary.
for the achievement of high level and creative performance.

**The creative situation** - While speaking of creative situation, it means that creativity is not a fixed trait of personality but something that changes over time, waxing, waning, facilitated by some life circumstances, situations and inhibited by others. The creative situations allow the child to act independently but reasonably and responsibly, which is possible when there is a lack of interest, closeness between parents and child so that neither our dependence is fostered nor a feeling of rejection is experienced by the child. It also emphasizes upon the development of an individual ethical code. It cannot be said conclusively that the creative thoughts and actions are stimulated more by solitariness and separateness, the individual working alone or by interactions with others in group activity. The evidence also shows that individual differences play an important role in the process.

**DEFINITIONS**

There is no clear and concise definition of creativity accepted by all inspite of the tremendous amount of research done and various definitions put forth by different scholars working in the area of creativity.

Torrance (1965) conceives creative behavior in a multidimensional fashion. In its global definition he maintains that creativity is composed of constellation of general abilities, personality variables and problem solving traits. Torrance defined creativity "as a process of becoming sensitive to problems, deficiencies, gaps in knowledge, missing elements, disharmonies and so on identifying the difficulty; searching for solutions, making guesses or formulating hypothesis about the deficiencies; testing and retesting these hypothesis and possibly modifying and retesting them and finally communicating the results".

This definition has obviously been made to cover our anxieties which
may result from untested guesses, far from incompleteness or from disharmony. When a solution is tested, and if necessary modified and retested until no further modification is found necessary, we feel relieved about any possible deficiencies or disharmonies. This definition is useful for a number of reasons. It makes it possible to define operationally the kinds of abilities, mental functioning and personality characteristics that facilitate or inhibit with historical usage and equally applicable in scientific literary, dramatic and interpersonal creativity. According to Guilford (1962) creative abilities are characterized by originality, ideational spontaneity, flexibility and elaboration. These are component abilities most relevant for creative production which he found as a result of factor analysis. Guilford, apart from the above factors also finds certain other component abilities. These are: sensitivity to problems, analysis, synthesis, redefinition and penetration. His way of analyzing the problem or more specifically the concept of creativity is different from other thinkers in the field. He aims at isolating the different features of creative ability the ability which endows a person to produce the creative product. Creativity as a cognitive function has to be distinguished from intelligence. The intellect can be divided into memory and thinking. In creativity, it is thinking primarily, that counts, but he further bifurcates thinking and calls them as divergent and convergent thinking. Both these are concerned with production which he considers as most essential for creative thinking. Guilford (1967) defines it as "Creativity is the key to education in its fullest sense and to the solutions of mankind's serious problems".

The definitions of creativity as considered by various thinkers have been discussed. Creativity as considered in this study, is described as a capacity which can express itself in all areas of life and it is not only
artistic, it is a specific way of handing information, of observing things of behaving and reacting. There are no two opinions regarding the importance of this valuable talent. In the Indian context Rasool (1977) has described that researcher gave us an idea that all of us are born with creative potential and if given proper environment and techniques, this potential can be recognized, nurtured and measured. Mathur (1977) states that creativity is not a monopoly of a few, if opportunities are provided everyone has the potential to be creative in his own way. We can thus say that a variety of factors rather than a unitary talent accounts for the observed achievements of creativity. For the purpose of the present study, creativity has been considered as being referred by Guilford and Torrance and the test used to measure creativity is based on Guilford's distinction made on two types of thinking abilities, namely convergent and divergent thinking. The unique feature of divergent thinking is that a variety of responses are produced and Guilford relates this divergent production to creativity.

THEORIES

Many theories have been proposed to describe the process of creativity. These theories in general, try to explain the inner working of the creative process. The psychological and philosophical theories are presented here to have sound theoretical understanding of the concept of creativity.

PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORIES

The major psychological theories are presented here

a) Psychoanalytic theory: Psychoanalytic theorists, such as Kris (1952) and Kubie (1958), emphasize the importance of preconscious processes. These processes are believed to occur when the ego, with its emphasis on logical rational thought, temporarily loses its control of the thinking process, so that an unorganized, drive oriented type of thinking can occur.
It is at this preconscious level of thinking that facilitates associations between ideas related to the immediate problem and other, apparently unrelated but potentially useful are most likely to occur. The ideas produced in this way can later be evaluated in a logical, rigorous way. To engage in preconscious thinking, one must allow oneself to daydream and fantasize.

Freud (1958) believed that sublimation of repressed unconscious wishes, pregenital and libidinal urges determine creativity. Creativity originates in a conflict with the unconscious mind - 'the id'. Sooner or later the unconscious produces a solution to this conflict. If the solution is 'ego-syntonic' it reinforces an activity intended by the ego or conscious part of the personality and will result in creative behavior, if it is at odds with ego, either it will be repressed altogether or it will emerge as neurosis.

From a very different point of view, Kubie (1958) emphasized the preconscious system, and Wolman (1967) access to unconscious processes. Creativity may mean the ability to use preconscious and unconscious processes effectively. Such an ability implies that a creative individual is not bound by reality, conformity, logical processes, or repetitive unconscious difficulties. If the creative act is associated with neurotic processes, it is apt to become stereotyped, as in the artist who repeats the same picture, or the novelist who repeats the same book. According to Wolman, creative artists, capable of developing into their unconscious, have more in common with psychoanalysts than with clinical patients.

Followers of psychoanalytic view generally explain the production of poets, artists, and writers based on sublimation. Philips (1957) e.g. told that artist is a successful 'neurotic' person who seeks through socially acceptable channel, the outlet of his unconscious conflicts. On the other hand Kubie (1958) has rejected this view point. He stated that neurosis
corrupts, mars, distorts and blocks creativeness. If the neurotic succeeds in producing art objects his unconscious dominates and the objects are expressions of neurosis, then creativity is not possible.

b) **Gestalt theory**: Gestalt psychologists (e.g. Kohler, 1969, Wertheimer, 1959) use the terms "productive thinking" and "problem solving" to refer to what others might call creative thinking. Wertheimer describes productive thinking as a process of successive restructurings of a problem. The structural features of the problem set up stresses and tensions in the thinker. By following up these stresses and tensions, the thinker is led to a restructuring of the problem. Successive restructurings occur until a solution emerges. This theory also defines creative thinking primarily as a reconstruction of 'Gestalt' or patterns that are structurally deficient. Creative thinking usually begins with a problematic situation which is incomplete in someway. The thinker grasps this problem as a whole and after grasping the dynamics of the problem, the forces and tensions within the problem produce tension within the mind of the thinker, thus yielding vectors in the direction of change and improvement. Thinker transforms the problem situation, which is structurally incomplete and thus restores the harmony of the whole. In the words of Gestalt theorists, Wertheimer (1945) "Productive thinking does not proceed by either the piecemeal operation of logic, or piecemeal connection of association, but through the cognitive reorganization of gestalten".

c) **Associative theory**: Associationist theories involve the common assumption that creativity results from novel or unusual associations. Mednick (1962) defines the creative process as "the forming of associative elements into new combinations which either meet specified requirements or are in someway useful" (p.221).
The degree of creativity depends on the relative remoteness of the elements used to form the new combination. When asked to respond to a stimulus word, creative people are likely to give some remote or uncommon responses, whereas less creative people tend to give only common, stereotyped responses. The "Remote Association Test" has been standardized on this definition. The test item consists of three words drawn from mutually remote associative cluster, the subject is required to find fourth word which serves as associative link between them, for example, frog toad, shoe will have 'horn' as the link response word. To attempt an item successfully on the test, the examine must give associative responses that are likely to be at a low probability in almost anybody's hierarchy. The test is reported to have good predictive value as Mednick found high correlations between RAT and associative productivity, but it is not known what factor or factor it represents and it does not cover all divergent production abilities.

For all associationists thought is a chain of stimulus response connections. A problem initiates a succession of previously learnt responses to try out in the new situation. There is no fundamental differences between the higher and lower mental functions, between trial and error, logical or creative thoughts. The creative thinking process consists simply of the forming of associative elements into new combinations that are in someway useful; the more mutually remote the combinatory elements, the more creative the process or solution.

FACTOR ANALYTIC THEORY

For Factor analyst like Guilford (1950) the aspect of intellect represented by the IQ metric is only one of the numerous factors, and not necessarily the most importance. He disaggregated the factors of intellect,
distinguishing especially between convergent and divergent thinking. Before 1950 there had been few precedents for believing in the hypothesis of multivariate nature of creative potential. As early as 1927, Hargreaves had found tests of fluency and of originality to indicate group factors. Thurstone (1952) and his students, and Taylor (1959) had distinguished four factors in various kinds of tests of verbal fluency. Guilford in 1950 proved by his factor analytic studies that there is not only one factor or primary ability of creativity that functions equally in all areas but there are surprisingly large number of creative abilities, each limited in scope and properties and undoubtedly in its application. In his model of "structure of intellect" which he first presented in his presidential address to the American Psychological Association. Guilford lists nine factors of creativity, viz. (1) World fluency (2) Ideational fluency (3) Semantic spontaneous flexibility (4) Figural spontaneous flexibility (5) associational fluency (6) Expressional fluency (7) Symbolic adaptive flexibility (8) Originality and (9) Elaboration.

e) Motivational theory: This theory tries to explain the various sources that motivate a person to be creative. Various motivational forces have been demonstrated and it has been persistently indicated that the drive for intellectual competence and development is a natural source of motivation for creativity (Thorndike, 1931; Role, 1952) Rossman (1931) in his study of 710 inventors concluded that inventing carries its own intrinsic rewards. Exhilaration and feeling of mastery and superiority on the successful solution of problem motivates the inventor to look for new problems. Ann Roe found this to be true in case of scientists (1952). White (1961) asserts that organism has a natural drive to achieve competence by developing knowledge and skills.
Related to this motive is the finding that creative people have a strong desire to realise their own potentialities i.e. self-actualization which means becoming everything one is capable of becoming. Maslow had asserted 'what a man can be, he must be (1970, p.41). Golann (1962) is of the opinion that motivation for creative performance is in the form of a desire to make most of one's own perceptual, cognitive and expressive potentials. Rogers (1959) joins Golann in this contention. Creative people have shown preference for complexity also (Barron 1958), may be because it provides challenges to their comprehension abilities and to the facility for establishing order out of disorder.

Another drive for creative behavior has been indicated as an urge to do something different just because it is different (Hadamard 1945; Houston & Mednick, 1963). It coincides with the personality traits of creatives, preference for unusual. Interest for divergent thinking is yet another motive for creativity. Originality tests correlated positively with liking for divergent thinking, tolerance of ambiguity and reflective thinking (Merrifield et. al. 1961). Krop (1969) showed that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations were associated to higher levels of creativity and higher proportions of creative responses. Psychoanalysts point at sublimation of repressed unconscious wishes and pregenital and libidinous urges as a source of creativity (Frued, 1949; Kubie 1958). Frued stated that when freely rising a thought process becomes ego-syntonic the occasion exists for creativity. This school of thought attributes a dominant role to preconscous processes in creativity. A general consensus then is that both conscious and unconscious motives keep him with the act of creation.

INTERRELATED THEORIES

A no. of theories are composites in the sense that they combine
principles from psychoanalytic, Gestalt and associationist theories. Hadamard (1945), focusing on mathematical creativity, developed a theory with psychoanalytic as well as associationist ideas. Hadamard proposed a sequence of four steps in the creative process; preparation, incubation, illumination and verification. The initial preparation period is conscious systematic and logical, but sets in motion some unconscious thinking processes that are essential to the incubation and illumination phases. The unconscious mind produces a vast number of associations. The potentially fruitful ideas selected by the unconscious mind for their beauty and elegance. They are allowed to reach consciousness in the phase of illumination. The last step of the creative process, verification of the values of the idea and establishing its implications is entirely conscious.

Some theories combine psychoanalytic and associative elements. For example, Koestler (1964, 1978) developed a 'bisociation' theory of creativity. In bisociation, two independent matrices of ideas come into contact but this occurs only subconsciously, through a regression to the preconscious thinking processes stressed by psychoanalytic theorists. Rothenberg (1979) has proposed a psychoanalytically based theory that highlights two thinking processes that, like bisociation, facilitate association of independent ideas. Gruber's theory (1974) draws on the associationist and Gestalt positions, as well as on Piaget's theory of cognitive development. In Gruber's view, creative accomplishments are failed by conscious, purposeful action and unconscious processes are not critical rather, when people direct all their efforts toward some goal, the problems occupying their conscious thoughts will also spill our into imagery and dreams.

Mansfield & Busse (1982) proposed a somewhat similar model of
the creative process in scientific fields, involving five steps (1) selection of a problem that is both important and potentially soluble (2) extended effort to solve the problem (3) setting constraints on the solution of the problem (4) changing the constraints through a restructuring process and (5) verification and elaboration of results.

ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

All of the comprehensive theories which dominates psychology until the 1970’s had motivational concepts as a central component. The achievement motive has been described by Hackhausen (1967) as "The striving to increase, or keep as high as possible one's capability in all activities in which a standard of excellence is thought to apply and where the execution of such activities can be therefore, either success or fail". Achievement Motivation can thus be considered as extended person-intrinsic motivation because its reinforcement is delayed and arises from an interaction within person. This motivation is "a pattern of planning, of actions, and of feelings connected with striving to achieve some internalized standard of excellence, as contrasted with power or friendship. (Vidler 1977, p. 67). Achievement Motivation in terms of school performance has been found to play an important role in the academic achievement of the students. Academic Achievement is the outcome of the training imparted by the teacher to a student in the school as measured by his performance on standardized tests. It is valuable to distinguish between behavioural, dynamic and cognitive approaches all of which have shaped ideas in this field.

Theories belonging to behavioral approach describe academic motivation in terms of behavior modification, they emphasize the role of learning experiences, contingencies of reinforcement and situational variables
in determining the direction and intensity of behavior. The academic motivation broadly comes under the head of achievement motivation.

Dynamic approaches based on psychoanalysis argues that behavior is determined by internal, largely unconscious, conflicts between drives, internalized demands of culture, and the reality orientation of the ego. Psychoanalysis has contributed to the study of academic motivation by placing it within the context of personality in general, and by suggesting a framework for the analysis and treatment of motivational difficulties such as work inhibition and neurotic anxiety.

Cognitive approaches view motivation as determined by a process of decision making, in which an active individual seeking meaning and control of his or her environment considers and selects from among alternative ways of behaving. The study of Achievement Motivation has been the work of a single school of thought and of a handful of theorist and researchers who have worked closely under the general leadership of D.C. Maclelland.

MCCLELLAND'S MODEL OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

According to McClelland, general theory of motivation states that there should be two kinds of Achievement Motives, one characterized primarily by fear of failure and the other by hope of success, depending on whether achievement cues in the past history of Individual have been primarily associated with negative and positive changes in Affective level. Thus we perceive the behavioral sequence originating when an individual experiences a state of need or a motive (N). He may also be anticipating successful attainment of his goal (Ga+) or anticipating frustration and failure (Ga-). He may engage in activity instrumental (I) to the attainment of his goal which may lead to the attainment of the goal (I+) or
Sometimes his goal directed activity will be blocked. The obstacle or block (B) to his progress may be located in the world at large (BW) or it may be some personal deficiency in himself (Bp). He may experience strong positive and negative affective states which engaging in solving his problem i.e. in attempting to gratify his motive. He is likely to experience a state of positive affect (G+) in goal attainment or a state of negative affect (G-) when his goal directed activity is thwarted or he fails. Often someone will help or sympathasize with him [Nurturant press (Nup)] - aiding him in his goal-directed behavior. It is presented schematically in the Figure I. (next page)

One should note that, the five states an individual may experience (Need, Positive or Negative Anticipatory Goal States, Positive or Negative Affective states) are located within the person in this diagram. Instrumental Activity is denoted by the arrows suggestive of trails and errors in the problem-solving attempt. A block (B) (which also may be located within the person) is denoted as a barrier that must be overcome if the goal is to be attained. The symbol for Nurturant Press is another person with an arrow in the direction of the goal indicating and of some sort. And finally, the goal is indicated by a plus sign. The goal defines whether or not the various anticipations, affective states, instrumental acts and so forth of the person are achievement related or are related to some other motive. Presumably these categories may be used to describe the behavioral sequence no matter what the goal of the individual.

ORIGIN OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

The study of Achievement Motivation would not be completed without some attempt to understand its origins. How is it that some students score high and some low? Are they simply born that way? One can accept
Figure presenting the adjustive behavior sequence

THEPERSON

OBSTACLE

GOAL

N
Ga+ Ga-
G+ G-

Bw or Bp

I-

I+

Nup

Figure presenting the adjustive behavior sequence
neither of these views if the theoretical analysis of motivation previously
stated is correct. There it is argued that all motives are learned, that
they develop out of repeated affective experiences connected with certain
types of situations and types of behavior. In the case of Achievement
Motivation, the situation should involve "Standards of excellence", presumu-
ably imposed on the child by the culture, or more particularly by
the parents as representatives of the culture, and the behavior should
involve either "competition" with those standards of excellence or attempts
to meet them which, if successful, produce positive effect or, if unsucce-
ssful, negative affect. It follows that those cultures or families which
stress "competition with standards of excellence" or which insist that
the child be able to perform certain tasks will by himself - such culture
or families should produce children with high achievement motivation.
To state the same issue negatively - if a family does not set high stan-
dards of excellence, or if it does not permit the child to compete or
strive to meet them on his own, then he could not be expected to have
had the affective experiences connected with melting or failing to meet
achievement standards which cumulatively produce an achievement Motive.

The research problem then boils down to an attempt to discover
whether individuals with high and low Achievement scores have in fact
been treated differently by their families as they were growing up. One
hypothesis is that individuals with high Achievement Motivation will
have been forced to master problems on their own more often and earlier
then individuals with low Achievement Motivation. It has been tested
in three main ways: (1) by asking students of known differences in
motivation to describe their parents and their upbringing (2) by relating
objective measures of parent behavior to achievement Motivation and (3)
studying in intensively a few individuals with high and low Achievement scores.

**PERCEPTION OF PARENTS AND ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION**

1) **Child-rearing practices attributed to parents by sons with varying n-Achievement:**

As part of the extensive case study of 30 college students, Mclelland (1953) found that sons who felt their fathers had rejected them had higher n-Achievement scores than those who felt their father had loved and accepted them.

ii) **Traits attributed to parents by sons with varying n-achievement:**

In another study of Mclelland (1953) the high school male students and college students were asked to rate each parent on a seven-point scale on the following personality traits: Self confident, Helpful, Domineering, Friendly, selfish, clever, successful (Vocationally). The rating of traits were grouped into three clusters: one dealing with 'nurturance' characteristics, one with 'authoritarian' characteristics and one with 'success' characteristics. The results confirm our previous findings about perceived parental severity. In other words, students who rank low in n-Achievement tend to perceive their fathers (and their mother to a lesser extent) as more friendly and helpful. Students with high n-Achievement tend to perceive their father as unfriendly and helpful.

iii) **Parent-son relations suggested by the son's views on morality:**

On another part of the Questionnaire, the subjects were asked to rate themselves on six vices - Disrespect, General Dishonesty, Lack of courage, rebellion, Narrow-mindedness and Over Indulgence. The Low n Achievement subjects ought to feel much more guilt over Disrespect to their parents than the high n-achievement subjects, who had a believe
of their parents to be unsuccessful and rejecting. The high n-Achievement group should place much greater stock on independence, the ability to stand alone or courage.

From the above findings a conclusion can be made that students (school and college) with high n-Achievement perceive their parents as distant rather than close and themselves as independent of all types of pressure toward conformity - parental or otherwise. The students with low n-Achievement are just the opposite. They admire their parents, whom they described as friendly and nurturant, and tend to behave in a more dependent manner towards all types of authority. Such an analysis has added greatly to our understanding of how the achievement motive fits into or modifies a person's conception of his relation to the world. It also strongly suggests that the origins of achievement motivation will lie in the stress placed on independence training by the culture or family in which the child is brought. In short, the more the child is forced to master things, the greater his n-achievement, the more independent he becomes of his parents, and the more rejectant they are likely to appear to him. The theoretical analysis joins with the study-result reported earlier, in supporting the hypothesis that training for early independent mastery of skills should be associated with high Achievement Motivation.

ATKINSON'S SYSTEM

The most comprehensive attempt to build a theory of behavior using the motive of achievement is associated with the psychologist Atkinson. He believed that three variables were important in the arousal of n-Ach and consequent performance. These variables were the actual level of n-Ach of the subject (M_s) his expectancies (measured in terms of probability of success; (P_s) and the pay off or incentive value of the outcome (I_s).
In other words $T_s = M_s \times P_s \times I_s$. The concept of motive here represents individual differences in liking of success in general. The concept of Expectancy, which refers to degree of belief that some act will be followed by some consequences, and the concept of incentive value of the expected consequence or goal are the basic building blocks in the kind of theory advanced by Tolman (1955), Lewin (1938), Rother (1954), and others in the field of decision making (Edward 1954). According to this kind of Expectancy x value theory, one can influence motivation by manipulating cues which define an individual's expectations concerning the consequences of his action and/or the incentive value of the consequences (or goals) produced by action.

Following the early proposal of Lewin et. al. (1944) it is assumed that the incentive value or attractiveness of success is greater the more difficult the task. This idea is now stated as a relationship between the incentive value of success ($I_s$) and the strength of expectancy or subjective probability of success.

$P_s = \frac{I_s}{1 - P_s}$

Atkinson, however, was also responsible for introducing another aspect into his system. He believed that achievement related tasks elicited not only positive affective anticipations (a motive to appear the task and succeed) but also a negative affective anticipation (a motive to avoid the task). The latter may be deemed fear of failure (FF). Subjective probabilities of success and failure is approximately equal to one and one can use the assumption that $P_s + P_f = 1.00$

The tendency to avoid failure is generally stronger the motive to avoid failure (Mandler-Sarason 1952). As a result of past experience and individual differences, people bring different balances of these two
motives into situation. Performance is thus seen as a function of the interaction of both these motivations namely a tendency to achieve success and a tendency to avoid failure. By these means, Atkinson made the predictive power of the original theory that much greater.

The Resultant Achievement - Oriented Tendency:

In general an individual's performance will be as follows, in achievement related situations: the total tendency to approach (a product of all three variables associated with success) minus the total tendency to avoid (a product of fear of failure motivation and the expectancies and outcomes associated with failure. That is the resultant tendency equals $T_s - T_f$. This formulation gives rise to certain quite specific predictions, when one compares subjects who are high in $n$-ach and low in FF with subjects who are high in FF and low in $n$-ach. The former are expected to be more realistic in the level of difficulty they choose for a task. The reason is quite simple. They will not choose extremely difficult tasks where the probability of success is small as to be unrealistic, since they are motivated to achieve. Certainly they will not choose tasks which are too easy for them, because though the probability of success is very high, the incentive is very small. (Incentive and probability of success are of course interdependent: Incentive $= \frac{1 - P_{success}}{S}$. In consequences their motive for achievement is maximally aroused in tasks of intermediate difficulty where $P_{success} = 0.5$).

Now, if one consider the person whose fear of failure is greater than their achievement motivation. Here one should expect the opposite to hold true. Tasks of intermediate difficulty arouse the most anxiety. If the task is very simple and the probability of failure is small there are no problems. Paradoxically, if the task is extremely difficult, there
are no problems either, since the negative incentive of failing is not great. Such a person should inhibit all achievement oriented activity. Given a choice between alternatives which differ in difficulty none of them unless there are other extrinsic positive incentives to undertake these activities which overcome his resistance.

CONFIRMATION AND UTILITY OF ATKINSON'S MOTIVATION MODEL

Feather (1961) went for in demonstrating the utility of Atkinson's model, when he investigated the extent to which subjects differing in balance of n-Ach and Fear of Failure also differed in their willingness to persist at a task after a failure experience. In brief, subjects high in N-Ach and relatively low in Fear of Failure (FF) would be expected to persevere at an easy task, if they failed. The reason for such prediction is that subject would reassess the difficulty of the task after the failure experience - it would be seen as not so easy after all, and more as an intermediately difficult task. If the original task was presented to the subjects as fairly difficult to start off with, then one makes contrary predictions.

Here, the reassessment upgrades the difficulty of the task still further and the perceived probability of success is not good enough to engage fully the n-Ach of the subjects. Persistence in this latter circumstances is not to be expected. Now if one look at the situations, as they affect the person high in FF (Fear of failure) and relatively low in n-Ach. If the situation is first presented as involving an early solution then a failure experiences will once again induce a reassessment towards the task being of intermediate difficulty. It has been already observed that this is the sort of task that the high FF (Fear of Failure) subjects wants most to avoid, because the negative incentive of failure is at its
greatest. Paradoxically when the subjects fails at a task which is first presented as quite difficult, he should have no trouble in persisting at it, because he reassess it as more difficult and thus the "shame" of failing is lessened.

Feather went about testing these predictions by using a task of tracing around a figure without removing the pen from the paper. The task of course, in reality, was an impossible one, since it was necessary to induce failure experiences in all of his subjects. He manipulated his subjects initial perceived probability of success by presenting them with false norms. The predictions of Atkinson's theory were in fact confirmed. So it is not difficult to say that Atkinson's theory could be of great importance.

ATTRIBUTION THEORY

The Attribution theory, based on the work of Heider and applied to Achievement Motivation by Weiner (1980) probes further into the motivational role of cognitive factors by examining how an individual's interpretation of his or her success or failure in a task determines the perceptions of values and expectancies in the situation. Research has suggested that the usefulness of classifying student's attributions of success and failure along four dimensions: internal-external (e.g. ability vs luck); stable-unstable (e.g. ability vs effort), Controllable-Uncontrollable (e.g. effort vs task difficulty) and specific-global (e.g. musical vs general ability). However most research has investigated four specific causes; ability, effort, task difficulty and luck. Casual attribution is determined both by the features of the situations (for example covariation of the effect and the casual factor overtime, persons and entities) and by personal traits.

Weiner proposes that success and failure will be valued more when
they are attributed internal rather than external factors. Such attribution is said to lead to feelings of competence and pride in accomplishment. In this view the need for achievement is a tendency to attribute success to internal rather than external factors and apparently, more to ability rather than to effort, and hence to greater satisfaction in accomplishment. Thus, a student who succeeds across time and tasks while others do not, would tend to attribute such as noted, their way success and failure are explained has a potent effect on perception of value and expectancy of outcomes in a given task.

Though each of the above approaches has important contribution to make to the study of human motivation it is the cognitive approach which at present seems of greatest heuristic and practical value for the analysis of achievement Motivation. However, research on achievement motivation and academic achievement has been only moderately successful. It was demonstrated that under some circumstances high need for achievement, people will persist longer at a challenging task (unless, alternative tasks become more challenging) challenge especially that of marks or grades in school, has been investigated, but since need achievement is considered to be an intrinsic motivation and independent of external reinforcers such as grades and prizes, it cannot be expected that there should be a high correlation between it and school achievement. Yet a no. of studies have found some support for this position (Mcclelland 1958).

PERSONALITY

Personality characteristices and to some extent predictable behavior response patterns that each persons evolves, both consciously and unconsciously, as his style of life. The personality represents a compromise
between inner drives and needs, and the controls that limit or regulate their expression. Such controls are both internal (e.g. conscience, Superego) and external (reality demands). The personality functions to maintain a stable, reciprocal relationship between the person and his environment, it is thus a composite of the ego defenses, the autoplastic and the alloplastic maneuvers, that are automatically and customarily employed to maintain intrapsychic stability. The personality, in other words is a set of habits that characterise the person in his way of managing day to day living; Under ordinary conditions it is relatively stable and predictable. Of the many proposed definitions of Personality as it viewed scientifically today, perhaps the most inclusive is that of Allport, who has defined personality as the "dynamic organization within the individual of those Psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environments" (Allport, 1961).

In modern education the development of personality is accepted as one of the schools major responsibilities. The academic achievements indicate to a student how he compares with his classmates. If he is in a "slow" section, he discovers that he is considered less bright than children in the "Fast" section. The markedly retarded student develops feelings of inadequacy not only because he is forced to repeat grades but also because his poor social insight leads to poor social acceptance. The student who is able to do the work of the school but who fails because of feelings engendered in the home comes to feel even more inadequate and to experience more failures (Baldwin, 1958, Walsh, 1956).

The very bright student, who meets the school standards successfully without too much effort, is likely to develop negative attitudes toward authority and an intolerance toward those who are less bright than he,
whether they are his teachers or his classmates. Such students even though they are promoted to a class of older children often develop concepts of personal superiority which lead to behavior that makes them unpopular with their classmates and disliked by their teachers. Grades and report cards tend to increase a child's feeling of inadequacy, anxiety and emotional tension. Furthermore, grades lead to competition with other children and thus to increased anxiety. On the whole, pupils who make good grades or who receive social recognition through awards or teacher approval are likely to be better adjusted than those who make poor grades. The former are happier in school and have more favourable self concept.

Symonds has made the following comment on the effect of grades and academic achievement on the student's concept of himself as a person and on his relationships with children whose grades are better than his:

"Marks make a tremendous difference to a pupil. They influence his estimate of himself; they serve as a sign to him that he is liked or disliked, they determine whether he is to remain with classmates or instead to become (what he considers) an outcast and forced to join a group of strange pupils in another class. They indicate success or failure, they determine promotion; they indicate the probability of future success; they influence his parents attitude toward him. Marks help to determine whether a pupil thinks of himself as successful, smart or as a failure, an outcast, stupid, or a nitwit (Symonds, 1952).

It should be emphasized that the teacher should concerned with Personality as a developmental function rather than merely as a remedial function, consequently he must be aware of his responsibilities for guidance of each and every pupil in the development of those personality characteristics deemed desirable for effective adjustment and full living.
The personality pattern is made up of traits, or specific qualities of behavior organized and integrated into a whole. These consist of reactions to frustrations, ways of meeting problems, aggressive and defensive behavior, and outgoing or withdrawing attitudes toward other people. So an important component of the personality pattern is the personality traits. Empathy - This personality traits refers to putting oneself into the psychological frame of reference of another so that the other person's thinking feeling and acting are understood and to some extent predictable. Carl Roger defines Empathy as the ability to accompany another to whereever the other person's feeling lead him, no matter how strong, deep destructive or abnormal they may seem.

Ego Ideal - The ego ideal is the ego which feels as one with the id, as is the case with the unorganized ego of the child. The ideal condition begins to disappear with the first opposition to the gratification of his needs and while all people presumably strive to recapture this state it is for the most part only in certain psychoses (e.g. manic and catatonic episodes) that the patient grants himself everything pleasurable and rejects everything unpleasurable. The phantasy of a return to the womb is an expression of the desire to return to the state of the ideal ego.

In psychoanalysis the term ego refers to a psychic structure that undergoes gradual evolution from the time that it makes its embryonic appearance as a modification of a part of the id until it acquires more or less final form late in life. As the ego expands, as it develops new structures and functions, its limits extend from the id to reality. The person is constantly identifying himself with others. The first important identifications are connected with the parents; hence a part of developing ego is set aside. Later the composite image constituting the superego, occupies a position in the unconscious, where it continues to act as the
inner conscience and controlling agency of the id. During the course of its growth, the superego also takes over the influences of those persons who have been concerned in the child's upbringing and whom it has regarded as ideal models.

The ego ideal may change from time to time as newer identifications are made. When the person's own narcissism is threatened, it is usually withdrawn from the egoideal of latter development and regresses to what is called narcissistic ego ideal namely the mental image of perception that the child constructs of himself.

Introversion - The introversion means turning of the instincts inwardly upon oneself. "The libido in introversion is directed toward 'the inner world, the world of representation, instead of the world of reality, with objective-lowe there is a desire for motor discharge, a going out toward the object, but with introversion there is no desire for motor expression. Satisfaction is found in imagined response in dwelling on phantasied activities in connection with images and ideas of external objects" (Bronner and Bower 1930).

Introversion is often used synonymously with phantasy-cathexis. Both imply a lost of contact with reality and because of it, they differ from narcissism which does not imply such loss.

Frued's definition of introversion differs from Jung's. Frued says that introversion does not mean that erotic relation with reality has been served but that the subject" has ceased to direct his motor activities to the attainment of his aims in connection with real objects (Freud, 1924-25).

Introversion means a turning towards of the libido, whereby a negative relation to subject to object is expressed. Interest does not move
towards the object, but recedes towards the object. Everyone whose attitude is introverted thinks, feels and acts in a way that clearly demonstrates that the subject is the chief factor of motivation while the object at most receives only a secondary level (Jung, C.C. 1923).

Jung, C.G. (1971) maintained that mental or psychic energy (libido) may be directed outward (Extroversion) or inward (Introversion). Hence there are two opposed reaction types determining the nature of behavior, subjective experience and even compensation by the unconscious. Introversion (like extroversion) is rooted (according to Jung) in the biological constitution of the individual and is therefore difficult to alter. The definition of an individual as introverted or extroverted may be considered as remaining constant throughout the life.

Introverts "if normal, are characterized by a hesitant, reflective, withdrawn nature, they are reserved frightened by objects; always on the defensive and likely to hide behind mistrustful observation", they are therefore not very adoptable. Essenck also defines the introvert as the opposite of extrovert, but as a statistically determined personality factor.

Dominance - Within the various phenomena of Mendelian inheritance, this term denotes the genetic mechanism by which one member of an allelic pair of hereditary factors is endowed with the capacity of expressing itself so strongly that it prevails in the hybrid over the contrasting factor and determine the visible appearance of hybridized individual either completely or at least predominantly. The phenotype of any hybrid inheriting a completely dominant character from one of the parents exhibits no manifestations of the suppressed or recessive factor and is thus enabled to appear as a pure-bred organism in spite of its heterozygosity.

Dominant in a strictly genetic sense, this term describes the particular faculty of a hereditary factor, transmitted to a hybrid by one of
the parents to constitute the only expressible member of a given pair of contrasting character and, thus, to appear in the hybrid to the exclusion of the contrasted character transmitted by the other parents.

Neurotism - As used today, this term is interchangeable with the term psychoneurosis. At one time it was used to refer to any somatic disorder of the nerves (the present day term for this meaning neuropathy) or to any disorder of nerve function. In psychoanalytic terminology, neurosis often is used more broadly to include all psychical disorders, thus Freud spoke of actual neuroses (neurasthina including hypochondrasis & anxiety-neurosis, transference on psychoneurosis: (anxiety-hysteria, Conversion-hysteria, obsessional and compulsive neurosis and Fenichel adds to this group organ neuroses pregenital conversions, perversions and impulse neuroses), narcissistic neuroses (the chizophrenias and manic-depressive psychoses and traumatic neuroses).

In psychoanalysis a neurotic character is one which in point of mental deviation occupies a position between the healthy and the clearcut neurotic personality. He suffers from no very definite symptoms of illness but whose behavior in life is the highest degree impulsive and frequently over impulsive. A person presenting no normal symptoms but excessively pedantic, meticulous and cruel in an intellectual way, is said to be a neurotic character and to exhibit a character neurosis.

Need Achievement - Need Achievement denotes the lack of specific elements in the environment which becomes a psychophysical need in that it creates a deficiency in the organism, and a psychological demand because the state of the organism is perceived by the individual as a stress which influences behavior. In the psychological sense this need achievement however, does not necessarily refer to an organic state of physical deficiency, there
may simply be a lack of specific forms of behavioral contact with the environment and this deficiency may originate readiness to communicate up to the point of self sacrifice, or from sudden growth as well as from a deficit (A.M. Maslow, C.R. Rogers).

The need to achieve appears to be a need that becomes part of an individual's personality and affects that persons behavior in every facet of life including education. Individuals with a high need for achieve-
ment are people interested in excellence for its own sake rather than for the extrinsic rewards it can bring such as money or prestige. They prefer situations in which their personal responsibility affects the outcome. They tend to prefer to control their destinees and to make independent judgements based on their own evaluations and experience. They choose challenging goals (McClelland 1958) and prefer delayed, larger rewards to immediate smaller rewards.

Popular recognition of the important role personality plays in succe-
ssful adjustments to modern life has given strong impetus to the scientific study of personality. In simpler cultures, personality is of secondary importance in social relationships, but in higher cultures, where social life is more complex, personality has a "marketable value". As a result, it is highly prized and eagerly sought after by all who want to make a success in life. Today's parents and teachers but great emphasis which will help them to make satisfactory adjustment both to the present and to the future.

Broadly the purpose of the present study is to determine the associ-
ation of cognitive and Non-cognitive factors with the relative academic achievements of the Rank Achievers and High, Average and Low Academic achievers. This was attempted by way of a comparative study and also
correlational studies in respect of the Intelligence, Creativity, Achievement Motivation and Personality characteristics, between these four groups of school students stated above.

For the present study, the aggregate marks obtained by a student in public secondary examination was considered as the index/score of academic achievement. The students were divided into Rank Achievers, High, Average and Low academic achieving groups on the basis of this index score.

It was assumed that the standard of evaluation in all the schools considered was uniform because of the common features prevalent in the schools namely,

(i) More or less same qualification of the teacher;

(ii) Teachers, at the time of their training in teacher's training colleges, had to teach for their practice different schools of different standards;

(iii) Same syllabus;

(iv) Uniform preparation is likely to be pursued for the students of different schools and uniform standard of evaluation is likely to be followed.

However, from all these we can presume that Intelligence, Creativity, Achievement-Motivation and Personality have contributions on Academic Achievement. It may also be presumed that these four groups of students will differ with respect to all these psychological factors.

To gain a clearer perspective of the problem, and to formulate the hypothesis more specifically, we shall undertake a survey of different theoretical formulations and speculations and also a survey of experimental findings, if any in the next chapter.