CHAPTER-II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

Survey of related literature helps us to show whether the evidence already available shows the problems adequately and whether further investigation is required or not, and these may save duplication. It may contribute to the general scholarship of the investigator by providing ideas, theories and explanations, valuable in formulating the problem and may also suggest the method of appropriate research.

IMPORTANCE

The review of related literature implies locating, studying and evaluating reports of relevant research, study of published articles, going through related portions of encyclopedia and research abstracts, study of pertinent pages out of comprehensive books of subjects and going through the related manuscripts if any.

Study of the related literature forms an important part in any field of research because it enables the researcher to have a clear view of the study of the problem related to it and the work done in that area by other scholars. It is also helpful in formulating correct hypothesis and better dealing of the problem. The knowledge of related literature also guards the researcher
against probables that are likely to emerge during the course of investigation and will save him against unnecessary duplication of work.

An examination of literature provides us with an insight into the various complete, prescriptive and creative concepts in a field in which the study may be undertaken. It leads us to establish cause and effect and helps to establish certain thrust line basis, so that important conclusions can be drawn. An attempt to collect relevant literature from books, journals, magazines, encyclopedias, dissertations and abstracts for the present study was made, keeping in view the importance of related literature. After going through all the sources available, relevant references to the present study have been reported. The reference chosen for this study is intended to be a guide into the relevant literature rather than to provide evidence in support of discussions in the chapters.

The researcher had followed the following steps in literature searching. This chapter deals with review of related literature. Year wise review of related literature (In India and abroad) is presented and conclusions have been given at the end of chapter. Though researcher’s attempt is to present an evaluative analysis of the studies relating study habits and self-perception of gifted and creative arts and science students at secondary level.

The studies, which are directly or indirectly related with the areas, mentioned above have been grouped into four variable dimensions, which are as follows:

1) Researches related to study habits (In India and abroad)
2) Researches related to self-perception (In India and abroad)

3) Researches related to gifted students (In India and abroad)

4) Researches related to creative students (In India and abroad)

STUDIES RELATED TO STUDY HABITS:

Alexander and Woodraft (1940) found that several specific factors like study-time and study-habits fail to show any definite relationship with academic success.

Esther (1945) reported that there were statistical significant differences between the most successful and least successful pupils in study habits. Former group had better study habits than the latter group.

Brown and Holtzman (1955) reported significant positive relationship between study habits and achievement for both men and women students.

Jarnuar (1961) investigated some psychological factor underlying the study habits of college students by taking a sample from college students in Patna. The findings were: (i) Study habits were positively related to academic achievement but were not dependent on scholastic aptitude, (ii) Though study habits were not related to extroversion-introversion, they were related to the general personality, adjustment as well as home, health, social and emotional adjustment, (iii) The study habits had a positive relationship with background factors like position in the family, father’s occupation, hobbies, future educational and vocational plans of the student and inverse
relationship with factors such as age, membership in organization outside college and sharing household duties, (iv) On the other hand, study habits were not related to students interest in reading, music, membership in college societies, sources of recreation, doing some jobs along with studies, failure and reward in school, hours of study at home and liking for college, (v) Some environmental factors were also related to study habits. Lighting had positive relationship but noise and ventilation had negative relationship.

Rao (1965) conducted a study of some factors related to scholastic achievement by drawing a sample of 500 boys from 12 higher secondary schools Delhi. The following conclusions drawn from the study about the inter-relationships of different variables: (i) The three independent variables - intelligence, study habits and school attitude were significantly related to the prediction of scholastic achievement, while socio-economic status was not, (ii) The multiple correlation coefficient between achievement score and the scores of intelligence study habits and attitude towards school was 0.81 which was quite high, (ii) The variables, intelligence, study habits and attitude towards school, accounted for 66 per cent of the predictability of the scholastic achieved.

Varma (1966) found that students with better study habits obtained better Scores in examination than their counterparts with poor study habits.

Jain (1967) investigated the relationship between study habits and academic attainment in Uttar Pradesh colleges through a normative data collected from eight universities of Uttar Pradesh. The main findings of the
survey were: (i) Most of the items included in the study habits inventory discriminated sufficiently between various attainment levels, (ii) The scores on the study habits inventory correlated significantly and positively with attainment and the coefficients of correlation ranged from 0.29 for consultation to 0.59 for the working habits.

Lin and McKeachie (1970) observed that study habits do make a contribution to achievement of independent ability particularly for women students.

Bhaduri (1971) found that overachievers had higher scores on study habits than underachievers.

Sharma (1971) compared the study habit of 65 Gurukula and 65 non-Gurukula students. The difference between study habits of Gurukula and non-Gurukula students were not significant at any level of significance.

Trivedi and Patel (1973) compared the performance and study habits of students reading in BA (English) and BA (non-English) courses of SP University. The findings include that the average performance of students of English stream was better and significant in comparison with the average performance of students of non-English stream. Standard of knowledge of students of non-English group was lower than the average standard of students of English Group. The study habits of students of English stream were relatively better organised than the study habits of non-English stream. Students belonging to English stream had favorable attitude towards English than the students belonging to non-English Stream.
Kaushik (1974) found that the relationship between achievement and study habits was higher in model school than in ordinary school.

Chhabra (1975) studied certain social psychological variables relating to teachers morale at secondary and college levels by selecting a sample of 410 teachers of intermediate and degree colleges of the Meerut district. The findings inter-alia revealed that there was a positive and significant correlation between morale and study habits and morale and adjustment. Positive relationship existed between morale and study habits of post-graduate teachers, relationship existed between morale and study habits of post-graduate and teachers with Ph.D. Male and female teachers, did not differ in their study habits. Study habits had a positive relationship with educational qualifications. Length of teaching experience did not show significant relationship with study habits.

Chandra (1975) reported that correlation between achievement and study habits was positive and significant.

Thompson and Mark (1976) concluded that good study habits are essential for better academic achievement.

Sharma (1978) found that poor study habits were significantly associated with under achievement.

Sunanda (1980) studied the effect of counselling on the study habits and achievement of women teacher trainees by drawing 13 teacher trainees from three colleges of education for women in Madras. The major findings of
the study were: (i) The treatment groups that received counselling registered significant gain in their academic performance and study habits scores; (ii) The controlled groups had nil or insignificant gain in these two variables; (iii) Group centered behavioural Counseling was found to be the most effective of the three types of counseling in improving achievement; (iv) The personality types had no influence on the academic achievement or study habits.

Shejwal (1980) investigated the study habits of college students by taking a sample of 50 boys and 50 girls of XII and degree classes residing in a hostel exclusively meant for the economically backward students from rural areas. The major findings of the investigation were: (i) The mean score for boys was 61.16 and that for girls 56.94. The difference was significant at 0.05 level. The boys were found to have better study habits than the girls. There were sex differences in different aspects of study habits. About 91.0 per cent girls lacked the habits of preparing the topic in advance whereas about 81.0 per cent boys lacked this habit. The habit of notes taking was absent among 50 per cent to 80 per cent students. Learning and memory skills were absent among more than 60 per cent students. The students had problems in planning their time for study, developing good reading habits and taking examinations.

Saxena (1981) studied self-concept, study habits and school attitude as correlates of socio-economic status (SES) and cultural setting in different divisioners and failures of high school students of Kanpur District by collecting data from a sample of 720 high school and higher secondary students in the age group 13 to 18 years. The findings were: the SES had most significant
effect on self-concept, study habits and school attitude of different divisioners as well as failures of high school. The first divisioners belonging to the rural culture had better pattern of study habits than those belonging to the urban cluster. In the case of third divisioners and failures also, rural culture significantly promoted study habits than the urban culture. It was interesting to note that the first order interaction setting had no significant effect on self-concept, study habits and school attitude. Also the second order interaction among scholastic achievement, socio-economic status and cultural setting had no significant effect on self-concept, study habits and school attitude.

Despande and Lodhi (1981) concluded that study habits were found to be significantly related with academic achievement of boys and not with academic of achievement of girls.

Chauhan (1982) investigated the study habits of 10 to 12 years children with regard to their parental profession by taking a sample of 500 children from Hamirpur and Shimla districts of Himachal Pradesh. Parental profession was classified into 5 types like agriculture, government services (Civil), business, teaching and defence services. The main findings were: (i) Urban students possess good study habits than rural students, (ii) There was no significant difference in the study habits of boys and girls and (iii) The parental profession affects study habits of children.

Tiwari (1982) investigated the study habits and the scholastic performance at three levels of education by studying a sample of 1050 students of classes X, XII and second year degree courses studying in
different types of institutions at Varanasi region of Uttar Pradesh. The results indicated that class X students had the highest mean study habits score, significantly different from the students at the other two levels. Students of science scored the highest in all the six measures of the study habits inventory. Girls in all classes and in arts and science courses had better study habits than boys. Urban students had better study habits than rural students. Study habits scores positively and significantly correlated with annual examination marks as well as with pooled teacher ratings. Cluster analysis revealed that attitude to study habits was an important component while the amount of time for study became a significant factor in the two higher stages.

Shanmugasuridaram (1983) concluded that high achievers had better study habits than low achievers.

Christian (1983) studied need achievement and study habits of the pupils of standard 10th in relation to sex, study habits inventory of Patel (1976) and TAT test of Mehta were administered on a sample of 79 girls and 68 boys. The analysis of variance revealed that girls and boys had equally good study habits. The study suggested that study habits are one of the important factors, which is helpful to achieve more in the promising field.

Agarwal (1983) made a study on reading ability in relation to certain cognitive and non-cognitive factors. A sample of 200 males and 200 female students of XI grade were randomly selected from high schools in Bihar, India. The subjects completed a battery of reading ability tests, study habits inventory, general intelligence and non-verbal intelligence tests, anxiety,
Eysenck personality inventory and youth adjustment inventory. The results indicated that males had a greater predisposition to better study habits, neuroticism, extroversion, favorable parental attitude and a better ideal self than females. However, females showed a higher reading ability and academic achievement than males. There were significant and positive correlations in both males and females between reading ability and their study habits.

Tiwari (1984) reported that boys of Hindi medium schools possessed better study habits than boys of English medium schools but there was no significant difference in study habits of girls of English medium and Hindi Schools.

Singh (1984) surveyed the study habits of high, middle and low achiever adolescents in relation to their sex, intelligence and socio-economic status by collecting data randomly from a sample of 1600 adolescents students studying in IX class in the rural and urban areas of Himachal Pradesh. The results show that adolescent boys had significantly better study habits than adolescent girls. Study habits were related to the academic achievement significantly. High achieving adolescents had significantly better study habits than middle achievers. Middle achievers had significantly better study habits than low achievers. Study habits of adolescent boys and adolescent girls differed significantly at different levels of intelligence, high, middle and low. The triple interaction among academic achievement, intelligence and socio-economic status was not significant in relation to the study habits of either adolescent boys or girls.
Chinna (1985) conducted a study on ‘study habits’ in relation to over and under achievement in English. It was concluded that over-achievers in English had significantly better study habits as compared to under-achievers in the same subject.

Patel (1986) found that students with better study habits were superior in academic performers than students with poor study habits.

Chimikolland (1987) conducted an action research on study habits and study skills of Metallurgy students of the Government Polytechnic by collecting data randomly from a sample of 51 diploma students for all the 3 years. The important findings were: there existed a moderate positive correlation between study habits and study skills of the three groups of students. The ‘t’ values obtained were below the critical minimum required and as such there were no significant differences in the mean scores of study habits and study skills among the students of three different years. The scores of the students in the study habits Inventory were consistent to the maximum for the entire sample together.

Singh (1987) investigated into the Study habits of scheduled caste adolescents in relation to their intelligence and achievement motivation. The random sample consisted of 100 boys and 100 girls of 9th standard at high and senior secondary schools of Bilaspur, Kangra and Simla districts of Himachal Pradesh in India. Study habits Inventory and general mental ability test and TAT were used for the study. General mental ability test above the mean score were considered as high group and below the mean scores as low
group. The results reported that the main effect of intelligence \( F=9.03^{***} \) on study habits was very highly significant. High intelligent group had better study habits than the low intelligent group.

Patel (1988) conducted an investigation into study habits in relation to Score personality variables of students of H.P. University. The findings that physical science students had better study habits than the students of social science.

Hayners et al. (1988) found that low achievers differed significantly from their average and high achieving peers on study habits. Latter groups were found to have better study habits.

Stodgrass (1989) found significant positive relationship between study skills and grade point average.

Mehta et al. (1989) reported that study habits were related to academic achievement for both male and female student.

Artero (1989) studied the use of measures of study skills and attitudes to predict students’ achievement in two types of university courses: (i) conforming course, which have high structure and (ii) independent courses, which have low structure by studying a sample of students of five classes in the University of Gaam. The results indicated that the students were found to have weak study skills and attitudes. On the experimental measure, they reported using many of the study techniques considered effective by experts, but they also reported only studying an average of four hours weekly.
Students with weaker study skills and prior academic achievement tended to enroll in the independent courses rather than the conforming courses. The SSHA attitude scales predicted independent course grade much better than conforming course grade. The study skills scale of the SSHA predicted grades in both types of course equally well, as did many of the skills measured by the experimental instrument. The test taking measured by this instrument were particularly good predictors of course grade.

Snodgrass (1989) studied the locus of control, achievement motivation and knowledge and use of study skills as factors influencing academic performance in academically talented college students. The results show that the Pearsons product moment correlations indicated significant relationships between study skills and grade point average (GPA). Use of ‘multiple regression showed significance for, use of control, achievement motivation, and study skills in combination for the predictor of GPA for the group sampled. Further analysis by regression weights indicated study skills to be significant variable in the prediction of GPA.

Singh (1989) made an investigation into the Study habits of scheduled caste adolescents in relation to their sex and achievement motivation. The study was conducted on 150 boys and 150 girls belonging to scheduled caste from 9th classes in Himachal Pradesh, India. The ‘F’ value of 5.16 for the main effect of sex on the study habits was significant at 5 percent level. It indicated that the study habits of boys and girls differed significantly. Boys had significantly better study habits than girls.
Mehta et al. (1989) studied the psychological correlates of academic achievement at school level. The sample comprised of 300 students of 9th and 10th class. Total marks obtained in 8th and 9th annual examination were used as measures of academic achievement. Survey of study habits and attitudes by Brown and Holtzman (Form C., 1964) was used to measure study habits. The study reported a positive and significant correlation between study habits and academic achievement.

Ramaswamy (1990) studied the relationship between study habits and academic achievement in high and low achieving boys and girls of 11th standard in Madurai district, Tamil Nadu, India. The study habit inventory of Patel (1976) was used to measure the study habits. Product moment correlation was used to find out the relationship between study habits and academic achievement. The correlation analysis revealed significant relationship between the study habits and academic achievement variables.

Deb et. al. (1990) found positive relationship between study habits and achievement in undergraduate home science final year students.

Deb (1990) investigated the relationship between study habits and achievement of undergraduate home science students by collecting data from a sample of 90 final year B.Sc. Home Science students of colleges of Home Science. The findings revealed that different components of study habits like home environment and planning of schedule, suggestions and comments, concentration for examination, habits and interests and college environment were positively Correlated with the academic performance of students.
Another aspect of the study habits i.e., selection of subjects showed non-significant relationship with academic achievement.

Omana (1991) investigated the study and problem solving habits of college taking a sample of 400 graduate and-post-graduate students from different districts of Kerala. The results inter-alia revealed that graduate and post graduate students differed significantly in their study habits. Post-graduates applied better study techniques than graduates. Moreover Post-graduates showed a were favourable attitude towards study habits and it was reflected in their study habits and academic achievement. The study again revealed that science students were found to have better habits of study than the arts students and also students saving a favourable attitude towards study habits were found to possess better study habits.

Yeh (1991) found results of the study supporting the relation of academic achievement to the variables of achievement motivation, study habits and intellectual development.

Patnaik and Basavaiyya (1991) found that no significant relationship existed between study habits and achievement in mathematics.

Yeb (1991) investigated the relationship of academic achievement to the variables of achievement, motivation, study habits, intellectual development and junior college joint entrance examination scores among junior college students in the Republic of China. The results inter-alia included that a weak but positive correlation was found between achievement motivation and academic achievement and achievement motivation interacted
with study habits when predicting academic achievement. Study habits was the most important predictor on academic achievement, but good students preferred to study hard rather than have better study methods.

George et. al. (1991) examined the influence of high school study habits on achievement in high school and during the first semester of college, using data from 159 female and 93 male freshmen. The same study habits that contributed to success in high school were found to be unrelated to academic achievement during the first semester in college. The findings suggests that college freshmen need to acquire new study habits in order to be academically successful.

Panda (1992) in a study of advantaged and disadvantaged students noticed that high achiever adolescent students had better study habits than their counterparts.

Swennumson (1992) studied the effect of the SQ3R study method on reading comprehension of non-traditional college students. It was found that the ‘t’ test of the overall score indicated the non-traditional students made effective use of SQ3R study system, increasing their ability to read paragraphs. Four of the six paragraph categories posted significant ‘f test scores indicating an increase in comprehension ability in those areas.

Misra (1992) conducted a study on assessing the level of test anxiety, self-concept, adjustment and study habits in predicting academic achievement. The study was conducted on a sample of 88 Oriya male students of 9th and 10th class in three schools of Bhubaneshwar and Orissa,
India. To determine study habits of subjects Wrenn’s (1941) study habits inventory was used and total marks obtained in annual examination was used to know the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. It revealed significant and positive correlation between study habits and academic achievement.

Tymms and Libbon (1992) examined the relationship between time spent on homework and exam grades among approximately 3000 students from schools and colleges in Northeast England. Average time spent was 5 hrs per week. Girls reported spending approximately 30 minutes/week more than boys. The study revealed that students who marked for long hours gained slightly better grades than those who worked for modest periods.

Panda (1992) investigated study habits of disadvantaged and non-disadvantaged adolescents in relation to sex and academic achievement. The sample of the study consisted of 50 disadvantaged boys and 50 non-disadvantaged girls of 9th and 10th classes in Orissa, India. The subjects were selected randomly and matched with age, sex, area of living and birth order. Patel’s (1976) study habit Inventory was used in the study. The data was analyzed by applying ANOVA. The ‘F’ value for sex indicated significant difference. From the mean values, it was revealed that boys had significantly better study habits than girls.

Mehta and Malhotra (1993) carried out a study to find out the predictors of academic achievement among 300 arts students. Stepwise
regression analysis revealed that study habits and study attitudes were the important predictors of academic achievement.

Stella and Purushothaman (1993) examined the study habits of underachievers. 90 underachievers from rural and urban schools in Tamil Nadu, India were selected by using randomized block design. Patel’s (1976) Study Habit Inventory was used for the study. The ‘t’ test indicated significant difference between urban and rural students in respect of study habits. The mean value showed that urban students had better study habits than rural students. But no significant difference was found between boys and girls.

Stella and Purushothaman (1993) carried out a study on study habits of underachievers. The sample selected through randomized block design consisted of students of Standard IX from there state board schools of Tamil Nadu, India. One rural and two urban areas were selected. IQ score was taken as a blocking variable. There were 30 under achievers from each IQ category high, average and low. Culture Fair Intelligence test scale-2 form 3 designed by Cattell and Cattell (1961) edition and study habits Inventory by Patel (1976) were used as tools of the study. The ‘t’-test revealed significant difference between study habits of high and low IQ underachievers (t=3.76: P<0.05). High IQ high achievers had better study habits than low IQ underachievers.

Donga (1993) investigated the factors relating to study skills and rending skills of distance learners by taking a sample of 195 distance learners from IGNOU Regional Centre, Ahmedabad. The findings inter-alia revealed
that the mean, study skills score of male learners was higher than that of female learners. Distance learners with age group upto 30 years had a better study skill scores. Both the study skills and reading skills were equal among the learners coming from individual and joint families. For graduates and post graduates both the reading skill and study skills were better than the learners with low qualifications.

Mouli and Rao (1993) investigated the study habits of distance learners by drawing a sample of 203 distance learners from Dr. B.R. Ambedkar Open University. The findings include that majority of the open university students had a time schedule. They skipped the graphs and tables while reading a text. They consulted the dictionary when it was needed. Most of the open university students were in the habit of writing and keeping the notes on a subject while a lecture was in progress. Mostly the students of age group of 21-30 years were found following the above methods in order to enhance their study habits.

Loranger (1994) compared the study strategies of six 16-18 year old successful and unsuccessful learners to determine if successful learners would differ in the quality of their information processing from unsuccessful learners. Each subject read and studied on article and participated in an interview. Results showed that successful students tended to be more motivated to succeed and more likely to be active, purposeful & flexible in their strategy use while less successful students perceived themselves as successful, & they lacked selfknowledge of inefficient strategy use.
Nagappa and Venkataiah (1995) found that pupils studying in private schools were better than pupils studying in government schools on study habits. Both girls and boys in private schools possessed better study habits than girls and boys in government schools.

Verma (1996) studied the effect of study habits on academic achievement among 500 students of X class. The sample was selected from schools in Delhi by using random cluster sampling technique. Two way analysis of variance was applied to know the main and interaction effects. The ‘F’ values of 13.43, 6.84 and 5.59 which were significant at 1 percent level revealed significant independent effect of study habits on performance in Hindi, English and Social Studies. This result further revealed that students possessing good study habits scored higher than students possessing poor study habits in these courses.

Verina (1996) found that study habits had significant effects on academic achievement in Hindi, English and Social Studies. Students with better study habits had higher level of academic performance than their counterparts with poor study habits.

Patel (1996) reported that pupils who had good study habits did get significantly more achievement scores than those of poor study habits.

Gupta (1996) reported that male distance learners with high academic achievement had significantly better study habits than average, and low male achievers while female distance learners with-high achievement had
significantly better study habits than female distance learners with low achievement.

Patel (1997) investigated the causes of under achievement in mathematics of eight grade students having high numerical ability. A sample of 35 high achievers and 40 low achievers was selected from schools in Gandhinagar, Gujarat, India, based on their marks in mathematics. The chi-square analysis revealed that Study habits have tremendous effect on the achievement. High discussing important concepts / aspects of mathematics with teachers / peers and finding out solutions to their difficulties etc.

Sampath and Selvarajginanaguru (1997) studied the Study habits of higher secondary commerce students. 428 higher secondary second year commerce studying in Chidambaram taluk in Tamil Nadu were selected by using cluster sampling technique. Study Habit Inventory of Mukopadhyay and Sansanwal (1983) was used as a tool of the study. The ‘t’ test indicated that there was no significant difference between study habits of boys and girls.

Jegede et.al. (1997) reported that improved study habits performed between in English than their counterparts.

Verma and Kumar (1999) found that achievement in English, Hindi, Mathematics, General Science, and Social Studies was found to be positively and significantly related with study habits of the students, overall study involvement, study habits and Learning style of women student.
Kumar (1999) observed that first-degree distance learners of arts stream habited better study habits than students of commerce stream.

Sood (2000) did not find any significant difference in study habits of women students of science and arts streams.

Sood (2000) found that study habits of women students were not related to the type of school. Women students of govt. and public schools showed similar level of study habits.

Aluede and Onolemhemhen (2001) studied the effect of study habit counseling on the academic performance of secondary schools students in English language. The 108 senior secondary school class and two students of lumen Christ secondary school, Uromi, Edo state, Nigeria was targeted. The multi-stage stratified sampling method was used. The study habit inventory (Bakare, 1977) was taken. The findings of the study were counseling students on good study habits can bring about improvement in the students’ academic performance.

Suneetha and Mayuri (2001) conducted a study on age and gender differences on the factors affecting high academic achievement of school children. The total sample of the study comprised of 120 children of IX and X grade drawn purposively from 10 private schools of Hyderabad. Malin’s intelligence scale for Indian children, study habit inventory, multidimensional assessment of personality inventory was used for data collection. The results showed boys and girls differed significantly in drilling, interaction, sets and language dimensions of study habit inventory.
Gakkhar (2003) did a study for investigating the adjustment and study habits of female students living in families and in hostel and found that the study habit of female students living in families and in hostel did not differ significantly.

Dinesh (2003) in his investigation on a sample of 300 students (science stream = 86, arts stream = 125 and commerce stream = 89) of IX class selected randomly from government and private senior secondary schools of Chandigarh concluded significant difference in the study habits of students belonging to science and arts streams.

Sirohi (2004) found that most significant factor contributing to Underachievement is poor study habit which has been indicated by 100% underachievers.

Gupta (2004) found that Group study method is a successful device improving Academic achievement.

Sirohi (2004) conducted a study of under achievement in relation to study habits and attitudes. A sample of 1000 elementary grade students were taken from X composite schools of South District, Delhi. Tools used were general mental ability test by Jalota, teachers made achievement tests and test of study habits and attitudes by Mathur. The results found that guidance program shall lead to better results, improving the achievement of the students and thus their potentialities be maximally utilized.
Kaur (2005) investigated the study habits of male and female adolescents belonging to arts and science streams. The investigation revealed insignificant difference in the study habits of students belonging to urban and rural areas. However, significant difference was found in the study habits of male and female adolescents, as well as between adolescents studying in arts and science streams.

Sud and Sujata (2006) conducted a study on academic performance in relation to self-handicapping, test anxiety and study habits of high school children (n=200) from government senior secondary school of Himachal Pradesh. The scale used were selfhandicapping questionnaire (Sujata, 2003) test anxiety inventory (TAT-H, Sud & Sud 1997). Study habits inventory (Palsane & Sharma 1989) and academic performance (school marks were considered). The results revealed that boys were poorer in study habits than girls.

Yenagi (2006) conducted a study on study habits a function of self-perception among intellectually gifted and non-gifted students. A sample of 1020 pre university college students was randomly selected from colleges in and around Hubli and Dharwad cities of Karnataka state. Study habit inventory by Patel (1976) and self-perception inventory Soars and Soars (1976) were considered for data collection. The results revealed that the overall study habit was significantly differed from gifted and non-gifted groups. General habits and attitudes, planning of subjects, reading and note taking habits, habits of concentration were also found to be significant.
Singla (2007) conducted her study on a sample of 200 boys and girls studying in 10+1 class in the senior secondary schools of Chandigarh in order to compare their study habits. The Study Habit Inventory by Mukhopadhayay and Sansanwal (1992) was used to assess the study habits of students. Insignificant difference was found in the study habits of students studying in Arts and Commerce streams. Similarly insignificant difference was found in the study habits of boys and girls.

Niadhar Dey (2008) conducted a study on ‘A comparative study of the study habits of high achieving CBSE & ICSE students in the secondary school examination’. The objectives of the study were:

(i) To study the study habits of high achieving CBSE students;
(ii) to study the study habits of high achieving ICSE students;
(iii) to compare the study habits of high achieving CBSE & ICSE students in the school hours;
(iv) to compare the study habits of high achieving CBSE & ICSE students in the non-school hour;
(v) to compare the high achieving CBSE students in different curricular activities & practices; and
(vi) to compare the study habits of high achieving CBSE & ICSE boys & girls in secondary school examination.

The major finding of the study were:

(i) High achieving CBSE & ICSE students were having very positive & constructive study habits during school as well as non-school hours.
(ii) High achieving CBSE girls were studying more than the boys.

(iii) High achieving ICSE boys were devoting more time to studies in comparison to girls.

(iv) Boys & girls having similar types of study habits in curricular fields.

(v) CBSE & ICSE students were having similar types of subjects in tuition practices.

(vi) ICSE students were spending more money than CBSE students.

Nalni & Ganesha (2009) conducted study on study habits & students achievement in relation to some influencing factor. The stratified purposive random sampling technique was utilized to select the sample. The researcher used study habit inventory by Mukhopadhyaya & The school adjustment inventory by Bhagia. They found the relationship between study habits & students achievement relation to socioeconomic status, learning environment & intelligence.

Rajendran and Sumathi (2009) conducted a study on study habits of high school students in Dindigul area in Tamil Nadu with respect to home environment, note taking, planning of subjects, habits of concentration, general habits and attitudes, and school environment they found that boys and girls do not differ significantly in their study habits with respect to home environment, reading, note taking, concentration and preparation for examination.
Vinay (2010), investigated the study habits of secondary level arts & science students. The stratified random sampling technique was utilized to select a sample of 144 students studying in class XI out of these students, 72 students (36 male & 36 female) were from arts stream & 72 students (36 male & 36 female) were from science stream. The investigator used study habit inventory by Dr. B.V Patel. The major findings of the investigation were (i) Study habits of science students was better than arts students. (ii) Study habit of female science students was better than that of female arts students.

Magno (2011) predicting grades in mathematics and English through study habits. He investigated study habits (delay avoidance, work methods, teacher approval, and education acceptance) as predictors of grades in mathematics and English in a path model. There were several assumptions in past reviews accounting on how study habits directly explain grades in the presence of other factors but the present study isolated the effect of four study habits. There were 259 Filipino high school students who were requested to answer the Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes (SSHA) and their grades in mathematics and English for the first quarter were also asked. The four factors of study habits were first tested using a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and the four-factor structure was proven having adequate fit (\( \chi^2 = 47432.81, \text{ df}=8745, \text{ RMS Standardized Residual}=.01, \text{ RMSEA}=.01, \text{ NFI}=.94, \text{ GFI}=.95, \text{ PGI}=.97 \)). Path analysis was used to test the prediction of the four study habits to grade in mathematics and English and the model also had an adequate fit (\( \chi^2 = 366.48, \text{ IFI}=.98, \text{ NFI}=.98, \text{ CFI}=.98, \text{ and RMSEA}=.09 \)). The path analysis revealed that work methods significantly
predicted both grades in mathematics in science. Work method was the only predictor for mathematics and only teacher approval did not significantly predict grades in English.

**STUDY RELATED TO SELF-PERCEPTION:**

Kenny (1956) studied the influence of social desirability on discrepancy measures between real self and ideal self. This study was designed to indicate the necessity for controlling the social-desirability factor in testing the twofold clinical hypothesis regarding discrepancy between real self and ideal self and to assess the relative influence of social desirability on personality questionnaires, rating scales, and Q sorts. The findings support the conclusion that social desirability enters into the three personality techniques to about the same extent.

Perkins and Donald (1965) analysed three techniques for obtaining self-perceptions in preadolescent boys. Self-perception scores were obtained for 64 preadolescent boys on 3 different measures: a self-rating inventory, a projective technique, and a multiple-choice picture identification test. Scores were intercorrelated with each other, with teacher ratings of adjustment, and with measures of IQ and academic success. Self-perception scores were positively related among the 3 instruments and to teacher ratings of adjustment. Ideal-self scores on the inventory and projective measures were found related to IQ and academic success.

Bem (1967) conducted a study on organizational behavior and human performance. The assumption is often made that attitudes and beliefs cause
the behaviors with which they are associated. Recent research indicates, however, that the direction of causality may be reversed: The self-descriptive statements that typically comprise the operational definitions of “beliefs” and “attitudes” are found to be the dependent variables of the relationship and are under the partial functional control of the behaviors that precede them. The present analysis inquires into the ontogenetic origins of such self-descriptive statements and provides an interpretation of two recently reported phenomena displaying the beliefs-following-behavior sequence: the “cognitive enhancement” of a dull task and the re-evaluation of alternatives following choice. The methodological use of self-descriptive data by social psychologists is also discussed.

Ziv, Rimon, and Doni (1977) compared four groups of students: gifted achievers, gifted underachievers, average achievers, and average underachievers. Results indicated the self-concept of students who were high achievers in the average achieving group was significantly higher than that of the average underachieving group. Yet, the opposite was found with the students who were gifted. Gifted underachievers tended to report higher self-concept scores compared to gifted achievers.

Raymond Dean (1977) examined the effect of self-concept on learning free-recall and nonverbal paired associations. It was found both boys and girls of high esteem showed greater mastery of the tasks when compared to their lower esteem counterparts.
Rubin, Dorle, and Sandidge (1977) found self-esteem to have a moderate relationship on school achievement and behavior. It was affirmed that a large portion of the relationship between achievement and self-esteem could be best explained by underlying factors such as ability (as measured by standardized intelligence tests) and background (socioeconomic status).

Rogers, Smith, and Coleman, (1978) assessed the relationship between academic achievement and self-concept by making comparisons of students within their respective classrooms. It was found that reading achievement was not related to self-concept while math achievement was. When classroom achievement was taken into account by placing students into high, medium, and low groups, both reading and math were related to the self-concept. It was asserted that the context of the social comparison group or classroom context accounted for these findings.

Colangelo and Pfleger (1978) found academically gifted students had higher academic self-concepts than non gifted high school students.

Ross and Parker (1980) studied academic and social self-concept of the academically gifted. They made an attempt to ascertain whether or not the discrepancies of academic and social self-concept are reflected in the gifted students. 147 intellectually gifted male and female students 5-8 grades were administered Sear’s self-concept inventory. The responses of both the sexes indicated that these students possessed higher academic than social self-concept.
Bracken (1980) found no differences in self-concept measures among gifted students when he compared gifted, regular and French immersion students in Canada. Lea-Wood and Clunies-Ross (1995) administered the School Form of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory to 81 gifted and 77 non gifted junior high girls near Melbourne, and observed that the non gifted students scored significantly higher in total and social self-esteem measures than the gifted at all age levels.

Wherry (1981) concluded that students in full time, segregated gifted classrooms have lower self-concepts or lower perceived competence than those enrolled in part-time options.

Zarb (1981) studied the relationship between academic achievement and six nonacademic variables in ten students. The sample consisted of 30 males and 98 females, from a working class urban neighborhood. The six non-academic variables studied were (i) study habit (ii) self-concept relative to peers (iii) acceptance of educational system, (iv) self-concept relative to family (v) general achievement motivation and (vi) academic self concept. The battery of measures included the academic self-concept scale, survey of study habits and attitudes. Results indicated that self-concept and study habits were significant predictors of grade point average for both males and females. These results suggested that the best students in a normal population are not necessarily those with a high self-concept and family self-concept, but those who have developed good study habits and realistically perceive themselves as academically successful.
Hollinger (1981) investigated the self perception and the career aspirations of mathematically talented female adolescents. The role of self-perceptions of career-relevant abilities in understanding the career aspirations of mathematically talented adolescent females is studied. Female high school sophomores rated themselves on the 12 self-estimates of ability in Holland's Self-Directed Search. Based on her ideal career aspiration, each student was assigned to one of six career-aspiration groups. The results of the multiple discriminant function analysis indicated that nontraditional math career aspirants could be discriminated from the remaining five career-aspiration groups on the basis of seven self-estimates of ability. Further discriminations were less distinct although classification accuracy for all six career groups surpassed that expected by chance alone.

Betty (1982) examined self-concept and the gifted classroom: The role of social comparisons. 63 gifted students (IQ 126–250) and 71 high-achieving (IQ 109–224) students in Grades 4–6 were administered the Piers-Harris (PH) Children's Self-Concept Scale 3 times over 18 mo. Gifted Ss were placed in a 1-day/week segregated program for the intellectually and academically gifted; high-achieving Ss remained in regular classrooms. PH scores indicate that the gifted Ss had lower self-concepts than high-achieving Ss who remained solely in regular classes where the range of student ability was greater. These self-concepts increased on return to the regular classroom program. It is noted that the average scores for both gifted and high-achieving Ss far exceeded the mean for the PH standardization sample; thus, results do not indicate a low self-concept on the part of gifted children. The self-concept differences
are likely indicative of the influence that the composition of social comparison groups has on children's self-perception.

Sally (1983) conducted a study on gender differences in teacher and student perceptions of gifted students' ability and effort. They investigated female gifted students viewed the quality and importance of their work, effort, and ability differently than male gifted students. They also investigated teachers perceived male and female students differently with respect to these areas in mathematics, language arts, social studies, and science. The sample included 5,385 fourth through eighth grade students who were identified as gifted and talented by their teachers. Teachers consistently rated females higher than males on effort and the quality of their work. Teachers rated males and females similarly on all abilities except language arts in which they rated females higher. Female students rated their language arts ability higher than males while the males rated their mathematics, science, and social studies abilities higher. The correlation between ratings of students' ability and quality of work and ratings of students' effort and quality of work was significantly different for students and teachers.

Kershner (1985) conducted a study on topic a comparison of gifted and average IQ children. 15 boys and 15 girls, aged 9-11 yrs, from a gifted program (IQs of 130 or more on the Otis Lennon Test of Mental Abilities) and 30 age- and sex-matched average children (IQs between 95 and 110) were compared on Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking and left hemisphere, right hemisphere, and integrated thinking styles. Results show that sex, IQ, and thinking style each had an effect on different dimensions of Ss' creativity.
Girls, irrespective of their IQ level and thinking style, scored higher than boys consistently across the 7 creativity subscales, reaching significance in verbal and figural fluency. Gifted Ss, independent of their thinking style, were better than the nongifted Ss but only in verbal originality. The integrated thinking style was related to creativity on the Elaboration and Figural Flexibility subtests. Results support the relative independence of select facets of children's creativity from general intellectual factors; they also suggest that performance on each of the creativity subtests may be strongly influenced by different psychological, intellectual, and perhaps, social factors.

Bhogayata (1986) in his study found insignificant difference in the self-concept of boys and girls.

Nadeem and Malik (1986) in their study on 75 physically handicapped adolescents and 75 normal children of District Anantnag of J & K state found significant difference in the ‘perceived self’ and ‘ideal self’ of handicapped and normal adolescents.

Chan (1988) concluded that intellectually gifted students in upper primary grades in Australia had higher measures of general self-worth, as measured by the Harter’s Perceived Competence Scale for Children, than did the non gifted students.

Poppin (1988) conducted a study on “Relationships between gifted students' self concept and adjustment”. Actual/idealized and actual/public self concept coherence was used as a measure of s for 128 gifted fifth through eighth graders. Results indicated overall better adjustment was significantly
related to greater coherence, with some differences noted among extremely well and poorly adjusted students. Suggestions for helping students deal constructively with integrating their new status (as gifted) are offered.

Brenda (1989) conducted study on Social stigma and self-esteem: The self-protective properties of stigma. It is proposed here that this discrepancy may be explained by considering the ways in which membership in a stigmatized group may protect the self-concept. It is proposed that members of stigmatized groups may (i) attribute negative feedback to prejudice against their group, (ii) compare their outcomes with those of the in group, rather than with the relatively advantaged out group, and (iii) selectively devalue those dimensions on which their group fares poorly and value those dimensions on which their group excels. Evidence for each of these processes and their consequences for self-esteem and motivation is reviewed. Factors that moderate the use of these strategies and implications of this analysis for treatment of stigmas are also discussed.

Flach (1990) reviewed research on disorders of the pathways involved in the creative process. The apparent contradiction between the frequent incidence of affective disorders among highly creative people and studies that support significantly positive correlations between creative abilities and ego strength can be accounted for by distinguishing between the form and essence of the creative act. Creative potential is universal. All creative acts entail disrupting an existing homeostatic structure and subsequently synthesizing a new, more adaptive one. This cycle is a necessary part of the healthy response to stressful events. Thus, certain psychiatric illnesses can be
reformulated as being disorders of psychobiological mechanisms underlying the creative process, a viewpoint that offers substantial benefits to psychotherapeutic efforts.

Asher (1991) in his meta analysis and review of the research on the effectiveness of nine pull-out programs, concluded that self-concepts were not affected, positively or negatively, by program placement. He only investigated studies that had control groups and used true quasi- or experimental design.

Ford (1992) in his study of “determinants of underachievement as perceived by gifted, above-average, and average black students” examined determinants of underachievement as perceived by 148 Black fifth-and sixth-grade students in an urban school district. Explored were the respective influences of social, psychological, and cultural determinants of underachievement as perceived by Black students in three different academic programs (gifted, above-average, and average). Students were placed into groups based on profiles of achievement behavior (Types I through V) and compared relative to their perceptions and attitudes. Findings from the statistical analyses (frequency analyses, t-tests, analyses of variance, and multiple regression) suggest that psychological factors played the greatest role in underachievement or poor achievement motivation, and that underachievement behaviors were noted among all students, irrespective of their academic program. Implications and recommendations are suggested for educators working with gifted, above-average, and average Black students in urban areas.
Emilia and Houtz (1993) studied the creative skills of culturally and linguistically diverse gifted students. The purpose of this study was to explore the creative abilities of culturally and linguistically diverse students. The relationships among creativity and achievement, intelligence, nonverbal reasoning, and instructional climate were also examined. For the pupils in this study, moderate correlations were found between creativity and intelligence and between creativity and reading achievement. A low correlation was found between creativity and nonverbal-reasoning skills. Significant relationships were found between creativity and several classroom variables. Results are discussed in terms of the importance of identifying gifted youth from culturally and linguistically different background.

Cwiok (1996) studied the differences in the real self-images of intellectually gifted and average secondary school students. The level of intelligence of 30 intellectually gifted and 30 average male and female adolescents was measured with standard progressive matrices. Self-concept was measured with the adjective checklist. Results showed a significant difference between intellectually gifted subjects and their peers of average intelligence in self confidence, self-control ability, need of achievement, need of dominance, need of endurance, interception and need of nurturance and need of change.

Klein and Zehms (1996) have done a cross sectional study of intellectually gifted females in relation to self-concept. They examined self-concept scores of 104 gifted and 30 non-gifted females in grades 3rd, 5th and 8th to explore whether their Self-concept decline by grade level. The subjects
were administered the Piers – Harris self-concept scale. The mean total self-concept scores obtained in six Self-concept cluster areas were compared. Results showed that the total self-concept scores of gifted subjects declined significantly between grades 3-8 and 5-8 between grades. The mean total Self-concept scores of the control group in grades 3-8 also decline significantly but not between 5-8th grade. 8th grade gifted subjects had a much more negative sense of self in the cluster area of behavior, intellectual and school status and popularity than non-gifted subjects in the same grade level.

Pujar and Gaonkar (1997) investigated the influence of age and type of family on selfconcept of 142 high and 142 low achieving adolescents. The sample consisted of 8th, 9th and 10th standard students. The self-concept was measured by self-concept inventory of Singh and Singh (1980). The study revealed that with the advancement of age, the level of selfconcept was increased among high and low achievers.

Ablard (1997) administered the Adjective Checklist to 174 academically gifted eighth grade students and found that they demonstrated more positive self-confidence than the normative group on this instrument.

Ablard (1997) examined Self-perceptions and needs as a function of type of academic ability and gender. Negative self-perceptions and feelings that one is different make academically talented students at risk for social problems and underachievement. One-hundred seventy-four academically talented eighth grade students (47% males) completed the
Multidimensional Self Concept Scale and the Adjective Check List. Relative to a normative group of adolescents, these students had significantly higher academic self-concepts but similar social self-concepts. Academically talented females had stronger needs for achievement, dominance, and endurance, but weaker needs for succorance and abasement than a normative group of females. Students were grouped by their SAT Math and Verbal scores: Moderate Math/Moderate Verbal, Moderate Math/High Verbal, High Math/Moderate Verbal, and High Math/High Verbal. High verbal students had weaker needs to be nurturant and had less interest in relationships with opposite-gender persons than students moderate in math and verbal areas. High verbal students may be at greater risk for social adjustment problems.

Marks (1998) examined the feelings and attitudes of gifted students. He studied gifted high school students and their self-perceptions. Differences between the self-perceptions of gifted high school freshmen (n = 62) and non gifted peers (n = 162) were assessed regarding intimacy with family and peers, social support, family responsibilities, self-esteem, depression, and risk-taking behavior. Gifted students perceived themselves as being more intimate with friends, assuming fewer family responsibilities, and taking more risks (both sports- and danger-related risks). Contrary to the literature suggesting delays in the social development of gifted students, these data indicate that gifted students may be socially precocious when compared with their non gifted peers. Gifted students and their teachers were also administered the Perceptions about Giftedness Scale. Gifted students reported feeling the same as, or better than, their peers about their academic and
social skills, and their teachers closely agreed. However, the teachers rated the gifted students as being less happy than the students rated themselves.

Scott (1999) performed an investigation on teachers' biases toward creative children. Teachers' attitudes toward creative children were investigated by having them respond to 4 profiles of fictitious students: a high-creative boy, a high-creative girl, a low-creative boy, and a low-creative girl. Based on these profiles, 144 teachers and 133 college undergraduates predicted how likely each child was to engage in creative and disruptive classroom behaviors. Results showed that teachers were significantly more likely than college undergraduates to rate creative children as more disruptive than average children. Significant results also indicated a tendency for teachers as well as college students to rate low-creative girls as more creative than low-creative boys. This suggests that teachers perceive and identify creativity differently in boys and girls.

Joe (2000) examined creativity and talent of individuals that can be identified from perceptions of themselves. It describes two instruments that may be used to measure such predispositions. Several problems studied with these instruments are presented and a number of uses for the instruments are suggested.

Plucker (2001) investigated looking outside and inside; self-concept development of gifted adolescents. The internal/external frame of reference model was proposed to explain the development of academic self-concepts for general ability samples. Recent research calls into question the model's
applicability for gifted adolescents’ academic self-concept development. This model was examined for 131 adolescents participating in a summer program for academically talented students. Results suggest that the model is useful in understanding the academic self-concept development of students who are gifted, with no significant differences among students with demonstrable strengths in mathematics, verbal areas or both areas. Educators should be aware that exceptional performance in one area, such as mathematics, will probably have a positive impact in mathematics self-concept but a negative impact on other academic self-concepts, such as verbal self-concept.

Chan (2002) conducted the study on topic perceptions of giftedness and self-concepts among junior secondary students in Hong Kong. This study explored the relationships among IQ, perceptions of giftedness, and self-concepts in a sample of 116 Chinese junior secondary school students in Hong Kong. These students, nominated by their schools to join the university gifted programs, were assessed on their IQ, global and domain specific self-concepts, as well as their perceptions of their own giftedness in terms of their concern for feeling different, their critical attitude in evaluating their own performance, and their experience of high expectation to achieve from their parents. The findings indicated that in general the ways students perceived their giftedness affected differentially global self-worth and specific self-concept domains. While difference concern and critical evaluation affected students’ specific self-concepts adversely, high parental expectation had a more positive influence. Self-concept domains related to social acceptance and friendship issues were most strongly and adversely affected. Implications
of the findings for interventions to enhance the self-esteem of gifted students through restructuring their perceptions of giftedness are discussed.

Blanch (2004) conducted a study of socialized personality, scholastic aptitudes, study habits, and academic achievement. This study analyzed the relationships among Cattellian personality factors, scholastic aptitudes, study habits, and academic achievement. A total of 887 volunteer students from primary education (453 males and 434 females), enrolled in 29 public schools, participated in this research. It was found that the scholastic aptitudes were the most predictive variables of achievement, while the personality traits had a low direct contribution to academic achievement, although the students with higher scores on socialized personality traits showed better study habits than those students with lower scores on personality socialization traits. The relationship between personality and academic achievement seems to be mediated by study habits. Moreover, females obtained higher academic achievement scores than males. These differences could be explained by the fact that females showed a more socialized personality pattern and better study habits.

Singh (2004) conducted a study on 708 hosteller and non-hosteller adolescents and found significant difference in the self-concept of hostellers and non-hostellers. Results were in favour of hostellers.

Arora (2005) conducted a study on 1600 male and female students of XI class studying in secondary urban and rural schools of Kathua, Udhampur and Rajouri districts of J & K state. The Study revealed that students
belonging to the urban area were possessing a favourable self-concept for factors ‘behaviour’ and ‘intellectual’, as compared to the students belonging to the rural area.

Rascoe (2005) investigated black males self perceptions of academic ability and gifted potential in advanced science classes. The purpose of this research effort was to examine Black male students’ self perceptions of academic ability and gifted potential in science. The purposeful sample consisted of nine Black males between the age of 14 and 18 years. Four categories of self-perceptions of academic ability and gifted potential emerged from the data. These included: (a) gifted high achievers; (b) gifted “could do better” high achievers; (c) gifted “could do better” situational non achievers; and (d) gifted “could do better” underachievers. Science teachers’ influences that referenced participants’ academic achievement pointed to validation. Participants’ perceptions regarding how science teachers’ influenced their academic performance focused on science teachers’ content knowledge. Power dynamics germane to Black male participants’ value or worth that directed their efforts in science learning environments are discussed. Implications are posited for science teaching, science education programs and future research. This search endeavor was based on two premises. The first premise is that Black males’ self-perceptions of academic ability affect their science academic achievement. The second premise is that given parental, peer and community influences, science teachers have considerable influence on students’ self-perceptions of academic ability.
Kharlukhi (2005) in his research work on “A study of Self-concept in relation to some Selected Personality Variable among Teacher Trainees in Meghalaya”

Objectives: (i) To find out the self-concept of teacher-trainees in relation to sex, community and locale; (ii) to find out the personality of teacher trainees in relation to sex, community and locale; (iii) to study the relationship of self-concept with personality. All the elementary and secondary level teacher trainees admitted in different training institutions in Meghalaya were the population for this study.

The sample was drawn by stratified random sampling technique. The tool used was Self-concept Questionnaire by R.K. Saraswat which included Physical Dimension, Social Dimension, Temperamental Dimension, Educational Dimension, Moral Dimension and Intellectual Dimension. The statistical technique involved mean, SD and ‘t’ values in analysing the data.

Findings: (i) There was a significant difference between the means of male and female teacher trainees in self-concept in education dimension. (ii) About half of the teacher trainees are assertive and competitive. (iii) Most of the teacher trainees are neither shy nor socially outgoing. (iv) The teacher trainees of different types and levels of training institutes have a positive and satisfactory self-concept.

Sahu and Sood (2005) studied the impact of students’ perception of their teachers’ attitude towards them and its relationship with their Self-perception and academic achievement. The objectives of the study were.
(i) To find out the relationship between students’ perception of their teachers’ attitude towards them and their academic achievement;

(ii) to find out the relationship between students’ perception of their teachers’ attitude towards them and their self perception; and

(iii) to find out the relationship between academic achievement and self-perception of students.

The findings of this study revealed that:

(i) there was significant relationship between, students perception of teachers’ attitude towards them and their academic achievement.

(ii) there was relationship between students perception of teachers’ attitude towards them and their self-perceptions.

(iii) there was significant relationship between the academic achievement of students and their self-perception.

Yenagi (2006) conducted a study on study habits a function of self-perception among intellectually gifted and non-gifted students. A sample of 1020 pre university college students was randomly selected from colleges in and around Hubli and Dharwad cities of Karnataka state. Study habit inventory by Patel (1976) and self-perception inventory Soars and Soars (1976) were considered for data collection. The results revealed that self-
concept was also showed significant difference between intellectually gifted and non-gifted groups.

Sood (2006) investigated the educational choice in relation to academic strees, achievement motivation and academic self-concept. There were 90 boys and 90 girls. They varied in age from 17 – 19 years. The tools used were sources of academic stress scale (Rajendran and Kalliappan, 1991), academic achievement scale (Deo & Mohan, 1985) and academic self-concept scale (Kumar, 1980). The results reported that subjects who had high achievement motivation had high academic self-concept.

Schaefer and Mezick (2006) performed an investigation on fulfillment of promise: 40-year follow-up of creative adolescent girls. A 40-yr. follow-up study of 7 women from among 10 identified as exceptionally creative during adolescence indicated that all had achieved moderate success in one or more artistic domains. A self-report measure of creative achievement was used, and influences which facilitated and inhibited creativity were described by the women. A continuing creative self-concept and social support were the most commonly cited facilitative factors, while financial concerns were listed as one of the primary inhibitors of further achievement.

Wright (2007) conducted study on Self-perception of gifts and talents among adults in a longitudinal study of academically talented high-school graduates. The purpose of this study is to examine definitions and self-perceptions of giftedness among adults in a longitudinal study of academically talented high-school graduates. Past research has examined characteristics of
gifted children and adolescents, but there is a paucity of empirical research focusing on gifted adults. Little is known about how giftedness manifests itself after the school years, and how gifted adults view themselves and their talents outside of the academic world. Our study addresses this gap in the literature and increases our understanding of how giftedness impacts adults. A greater understanding of these factors should help counselors work more effectively with this population.

Neihart (2008) Identifying and providing services to twice exceptional children. Sample comprised of 743 gifted Israeli adolescent students. Educational context was hypothesized to predict context-sensitive personal variables and labeling of giftedness in the direction of better student personal-social adjustment and more favorable self-perceptions of giftedness in regular compared to special gifted classes. By contrast, students in special classes were predicted to show more positive school attitudes and better overall satisfaction with school than their mainstreamed counterparts. Analyses of the data showed that gifted adolescents in regular classes revealed a more positive personal-social profile than gifted mainstreamed students, showing lower test anxiety, a higher academic self-concept, and more positive perceptions of their giftedness. By contrast, students in special gifted classes held more favorable school attitudes and were more satisfied with their school environment in comparison to their mainstreamed counterparts. Overall, these data support the research hypotheses and point to a differential pattern of relationships between school program and personal-social adjustment.
Kim (2009) studied Korean concepts of giftedness and the self-perceived characteristics of students selected for gifted programs. Fostering creativity among gifted students has become forefront as an important element in Korea’s future economic prosperity. Since the passage of a gifted education act in 2002, all K-12 schools have been developing gifted programs. The first of two studies examines Koreans’ concept of giftedness based on the implicit theory. Three hundred twenty-eight Koreans including scientists, parents, teachers, and college students described their concept of giftedness, which includes intelligence, task commitment, creativity, interpersonal relationship, moral sense, and artistic talent. The second study explores self-reported characteristics of Korean students identified as gifted and whether identification criteria for giftedness miss creative students by emphasizing IQ and achievement scores. One thousand one hundred fifty-four students (469 gifted in sciences, 285 gifted in humanities, and 400 regular students) answered a questionnaire developed from the first study. The results indicate that students identified as gifted tend to have higher intelligence and task commitment than regular students, but tend not to differ from regular students in creativity when compared to Renzulli’s three rings concept of giftedness—above average ability, task commitment, and creativity.

Olatoye (2009) examined habit, self-concept and science achievement of public and private junior secondary school students in Ogun State, Nigeria. Study compared habit, self-concept and science achievement of students in public and private junior secondary schools in Ogun State, Nigeria. Twelve secondary schools were randomly selected from Egba and Ijebu divisions of
the state. A sample of three hundred and sixty (360) students participated in the study. Three research instruments were used to collect data. There was no significant difference in study habit and self concept of students in public and private schools. However, private school students performed significantly better than their public school counterparts in integrated science.

Hamm (2010) investigated differences in academic, affect, competence and, social self concepts in homogeneously and heterogeneously grouped gifted students. The purpose of this study was to compare domains of self-concept in gifted high school students based on their academic setting homogenous group in heterogeneous grouping. Specifically, the domains of academic, competence, and social self-concept were compared between the two groups. Gifted students collapsed across academic setting were compared to the non-gifted normative sample on affect self-concept. Participants included 43 gifted students (28 students of which were grouped homogeneously, 15 heterogeneously). The Multidimensional Self Concept Scale (MSCS, Bracken, 1992) was group administered to students who volunteered to participate in the study. Participants completed a demographics form designed to gather information to describe each group. A One-Way Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was conducted to compare the differences in academic, competence, and social self-concepts based on academic grouping. It was hypothesized that the homogeneously grouped students would score higher on the domains of social and competence self-concepts compared to the heterogeneously grouped students. Heterogeneously grouped students were expected to score higher
on academic self-concept than the homogeneously grouped Gifted Self-Concept students. It was hypothesized that there would be no difference between the scores of the sampled gifted students (collapsed across groups) and the normative sample on the affect self-concept domain, which was tested via T-test. Analysis showed that there was no significance difference between the groups in academic, competence and social self concepts. In addition, the gifted students sampled showed significantly higher affect self-concept scores than the normative.

Schiever (2010) studied the creative personality characteristics and dimensions of mental functioning in gifted adolescents. The intent of this study was to discover what relationship, if any, exists between creative personality characteristics and psychic overexcitabilities (OEs), as defined by Dabrowski’s Theory of Emotional Development. Twenty one gifted seventh and eighth grade students were given the Something About Myself (SAM) portion of the Khatena-Torrance Creative Perception Inventory and the Overexcitabilities Questionnaire. The seven subjects with the highest SAM scores were designated as the High Creative, the seven lowest as the Low Creative group. At test was performed on the group means of the two groups on the five dimensions of overexcitability. Differences between the High Creative and Low Creative groups were significant (p<.025) for imaginational and intellectual OE and (p<.05) for emotional OE. Differences Between the groups on psychomotor and sensual OE were nonsignificant. These findings have implications for parents, teachers, and counselors of creatively gifted students.
Rinn, Reynolds and McQueen (2011) published a review of literature on Perceived Social Support and the Self-Concepts of Gifted Adolescents. This study investigated the relationship between perceived social support and the multidimensional self-concepts of gifted adolescents. Participants included 217 gifted students who had completed grades 5 through 10 and were attending a summer program for the gifted. Self-concept was measured using the Self-Description Questionnaire II (SDQ-II; H. W. Marsh, 1990). Perceived sources of social support were measured using the Child and Adolescent Social Support Scale (CASSS; C. K. Malecki, M. K. Demaray, & S. N. Elliott, 2000). Results revealed three distinct clusters of perceived social support, but minimal differences with regard to self-concept and gender. Conclusions and implications regarding the social support of gifted adolescents and its impact on self-concept are discussed.

Mueller (2011) investigated social and self-perceptions of adolescents identified as gifted, learning disabled and twice-exceptional. The purpose of this study is to examine the social and self-perceptions of twice-exceptional students, those students who meet criteria for being identified as both gifted and learning disabled. In particular, we focus on how twice-exceptional students are similar to, or different from, students with only a learning disability or who are only identified as gifted. Using data collected from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health, we identified a group of 90 twice-exceptional adolescents as well as three matched comparison groups. Overall, twice-exceptional adolescents had less positive perceptions of maternal relationships and self-concept than did gifted or non identified
adolescents. Further, perceptions of maternal relationships mediated and moderated group differences in self-concept. Implications for adults working with twice-exceptional adolescents are discussed.

Goethel (2011) studied the “Parent, teacher, and self perceptions of gifted student social skills”. He found that social skills competency appears to be critical to the development of positive interpersonal relationships and may serve to increase social connectedness and psychological well-being. Research findings have been mixed regarding the social-emotional and psychological well-being of gifted and talented students. By examining teacher, parent, and self perceptions of gifted student social skills, this study sought to assess those skills which may support the development of positive relationships with adults and peers at school. Differences were found between teacher, parent, and self-perceptions of gifted student social skills at the overall Social Skills composite score and across specific scale scores. Additionally, differences emerged between in the importance these raters placed on skills within the Cooperation scale. Information from qualitative questions was summarized to provide insight which might otherwise be missed with the use of rating scales alone. Implications for practice were considered to assist educators in maximizing the well-being and potential of gifted students in their schools.

Shabu Ahmad Bhat & Javed Ahmad Puja (2011) conducted a study on self-perception and Adjustment-Astudy of post graduate visually impaired and crippled students.
The objectives of the study were (i) to study the perceived self of visually impaired post graduate student (iii) to study the perceived self of crippled post graduate students. (iii) to study the adjustment of visually impaired post graduate students (iv) to study the adjustment of crippled post graduate students (iv) to study the adjustment of crippled post graduate students. (iv) to study the adjustment of crippled post graduate students. (v) to compare the perceive self of visually impaired and crippled post graduate students (vi) to compare the perceived self of visually impaired and crippled post graduate students. (vi) to compare the adjustment of visually impaired and crippled post graduate students. The descriptive method of research was employed to carry out this piece of research. The investigators used self-perception inventory (SPI) and Bell's Adjustment inventory.

The sample for the present study consisted of 100 visually impaired and 100 crippled post graduate students selected from various departments of Kashmir University.

The collected data was analysed by using means, S.D. and t-test.

The major finding of the study were:

I. the crippled students exhibit better real self than the visually impaired students.

II. Crippled students showed better ideal self as compared to visually impaired students.
III. The crippled students possess better home adjustment as compared to visually impaired students

IV. Both the two groups of students possess similar health adjustment.

V. Both the group displayed same emotional adjustment.

VI. Crippled post graduate students displayed better social adjustment as compared to visually impaired students,

VII. The crippled students showed better total adjustment as compared to visually impaired students.

STUDY RELATED TO GIFTED STUDENTS

Milgram and Milgram (1976) produced comparable results comparing Israeli students who were gifted and non-gifted. Students who were gifted tended to show more positive self-concept and lower levels of both general and test anxiety.

Ketcham and Snyder (1977) compared students who were both of high intelligence and high socioeconomic standing, as well as students who were identified as academically weak with a normative sample using the Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale. Both groups reported a significantly higher self-concept scale than the normative group, with 83% of these exceeding the normative mean. No significant difference was found between regular advantaged students and those advantaged students who were identified as academically weak.
Colangelo and Pfleger (1978) found academically gifted students had higher academic self-concepts than non gifted high school students.

Havertape (1979) examined group differences in self-concept among students who were handicapped, students considered normal, and students who were gifted. Using a combination of the Piers-Harris Children’s Self-concept scale and “The Way I feel About Myself” Scale, it was ascertained self-concept differed with school placement but not with age. The normal group scored significantly higher than the handicapped groups while the gifted group scored higher than all other groups.

Ross and Parker (1980) studied academic and social self-concept of the academically gifted. They made an attempt to ascertain whether or not the discrepancies of academic and social self-concept are reflected in the gifted students. 147 intellectually gifted male and female students 5-8 grades were administered Sear’s self-concept inventory. The responses of both the sexes indicated that these students possessed higher academic than social self-concept.

Bracken (1980) found no differences in self-concept measures among gifted students when he compared gifted, regular and French immersion students in Canada. Lea-Wood and Clunies-Ross (1995) administered the School Form of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory to 81 gifted and 77 non gifted junior high girls near Melbourne, and observed that the non gifted students scored significantly higher in total and social self-esteem measures than the gifted at all age levels.
Wherry (1981) concluded that students in full time, segregated gifted classrooms have lower self-concepts or lower perceived competence than those enrolled in part-time options.

Karnes and Wherry (1981) compared students who were gifted with a standardized sample using the Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale. Results showed a significant difference between the two groups indicating a higher self-concept for students who were gifted.

Fowlks (1983) examined students in 3rd, 4th, and 5th grades to determine difference in attitude toward school and attitude towards self between participants and non-participants in gifted programs. Results indicated that 3rd graders who participated in gifted programs tended to have a more positive view of school and higher self-esteem when compared to 3rd graders who did not participate in gifted programs. Fifth grade participants in gifted programs were also found to have higher self-concepts than those who did not participate in gifted programs. Examining a demographically older population of students.

Kelly and Colangelo (1984) assessed the academic and social self-concepts of students who were gifted and students who were considered general. Findings indicated gifted students hold significantly higher academic and social self-concept compared to their non-gifted age mates.

Davis (1985) found that students who were labeled gifted scored significantly higher on assessments of the self-system when compared to students who were considered average. Students who were gifted scored
higher in areas of competence, preference for independent decision making, and skill mastery. It was also reported that students who were average reported a lower level of understanding when attempting to account for reasons of success and failure in school.

Gwen (1985) compared gifted and average IQ children. 15 boys and 15 girls, aged 9–11 yrs, from a gifted program (IQs of 130 or more on the Otis Lennon Test of Mental Abilities) and 30 age- and sex-matched average children (IQs between 95 and 110) were compared on Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking and left hemisphere, right hemisphere, and integrated thinking styles. Results show that sex, IQ, and thinking style each had an effect on different dimensions of Ss' creativity. Girls, irrespective of their IQ level and thinking style, scored higher than boys consistently across the 7 creativity subscales, reaching significance in verbal and figural fluency. Gifted Ss, independent of their thinking style, were better than the nongifted Ss but only in verbal originality. The integrated thinking style was related to creativity on the Elaboration and Figural Flexibility subtests. Results support the relative independence of select facets of children's creativity from general intellectual factors; they also suggest that performance on each of the creativity subtests may be strongly influenced by different psychological, intellectual, and perhaps, social factors.

Chan (1988) concluded that intellectually gifted students in upper primary grades in Australia had higher measures of general self-worth, as measured by the Harter's Perceived Competence Scale for Children, than did the non gifted students.
Poppin (1988) conducted a study on “Relationships between gifted students' self concept and adjustment”. Actual/idealized and actual/public self concept coherence was used as a measure of s for 128 gifted fifth through eighth graders. Results indicated overall better adjustment was significantly related to greater coherence, with some differences noted among extremely well and poorly adjusted students. Suggestions for helping students deal constructively with integrating their new status (as gifted) are offered.

Chiu (1990) did find differences between children who were mildly mentally handicapped compared to students who were gifted and students who were non-gifted. However, no difference in self-concept was found between students who were gifted and non-gifted.

Feldhusen, Sayler, Neilson, and Kolloff (1990) investigated changes in the self-concept after participation in a pull-out program for students who were gifted. A positive gain was seen in the self-concept of 3rd and 6th grade students who were gifted on two self-concept scales, the Piers- Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale, and the ME: A Self-Concept Scale for Gifted Students. Seventh and 8th grade participants showed positive increases only in the gifted student self-concept scale. It was inferred that these results were due to the continued reinforcement of ability that the participants in the special program received or the enhancing nature of the program.

Katzer (1991) compared the self-esteem of rural students participating in gifted programs with rural student not in gifted programs. The sample was drawn from Kansas Public School student in the 6th, 9th, or 12th grades. Self-
concept was measured using the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory, Real and Ideal QSorts, and semantic differentials. Results revealed several fruitful findings. First, no significant differences were found in self-esteem scores of students in gifted programs and those not in gifted programs when using the Real and Ideal Q-sort instrument, as well as semantic differentials. However, differences were found when using the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory.

Young and McIntyre (1991) examined the self-concept of students who were considered gifted with those of students considered average using the Piers-Harris Children's Self-concept Scale. Results indicated similarities between the two groups in all components apart from behavior. Students who were gifted obtained significantly higher scores on behavior when compared to their non-gifted counterparts.

Asher (1991) in his meta analysis and review of the research on the effectiveness of nine pull-out programs, concluded that self-concepts were not affected, positively or negatively, by program placement. He only investigated studies that had control groups and used true quasi- or experimental design.

Ford (1992) in his study of “determinants of underachievement as perceived by gifted, above-average, and average black students” examined determinants of underachievement as perceived by 148 Black fifth- and sixth-grade students in an urban school district. Explored were the respective influences of social, psychological, and cultural determinants of underachievement as perceived by Black students in three different academic
programs (gifted, above-average, and average). Students were placed into
groups based on profiles of achievement behavior (Types I through V) and
compared relative to their perceptions and attitudes. Findings from the
statistical analyses (frequency analyses, t-tests, analyses of variance, and
multiple regression) suggest that psychological factors played the greatest
role in underachievement or poor achievement motivation, and that
underachievement behaviors were noted among all students, irrespective of
their academic program. Implications and recommendations are suggested for
educators working with gifted, above-average, and average Black students in
urban areas.

Emilia and Houtz (1993) studied the creative skills of culturally and
linguistically diverse gifted students. The purpose of this study was to explore
the creative abilities of culturally and linguistically diverse students. The
relationships among creativity and achievement, intelligence, nonverbal
reasoning, and instructional climate were also examined. For the pupils in this
study, moderate correlations were found between creativity and intelligence
and between creativity and reading achievement. A low correlation was found
between creativity and nonverbal-reasoning skills. Significant relationships
were found between creativity and several classroom variables. Results are
discussed in terms of the importance of identifying gifted youth from
culturally and linguistically different background.

Cwiok (1996) studied the differences in the real self-images of
intellectually gifted and average secondary school students. The level of
intelligence of 30 intellectually gifted and 30 average male and female
adolescents was measured with standard progressive matrices. Self-concept was measured with the adjective checklist. Results showed a significant difference between intellectually gifted subjects and their peers of average intelligence in self confidence, self-control ability, need of achievement, need of dominance, need of endurance, interception and need of nurturance and need of change.

Klein and Zehms (1996) have done a cross sectional study of intellectually gifted females in relation to self-concept. They examined self-concept scores of 104 gifted and 30 non-gifted females in grades 3rd, 5th and 8th to explore whether their Self-concept decline by grade level. The subjects were administered the Piers – Harris self-concept scale. The mean total self-concept scores obtained in six Self-concept cluster areas were compared. Results showed that the total self-concept scores of gifted subjects declined significantly between grades 3-8 and 5-8 between grades. The mean total Self-concept scores of the control group in grades 3-8 also decline significantly but not between 5-8th grade. 8th grade gifted subjects had a much more negative sense of self in the cluster area of behavior, intellectual and school status and popularity than non-gifted subjects in the same grade level.

Ablard (1997) administered the Adjective Checklist to 174 academically gifted eighth grade students and found that they demonstrated more positive self-confidence than the normative group on this instrument.
Mohanty (2002) studied gifted under achievers' perception of family environment. The objectives of the study were:

i) To see whether components of family environment bear any relationship with academic achievement of gifted underachievers;

ii) to find out how does the family environment mould the gifted underachievers' achievement pattern;

iii) to find out if a gender difference exists in gifted underachievers’ perception of the family and

iv) to find out to what extent do the components of family environment variable help in the prediction of academic achievement in case of gifted underachievers, singly or jointly.

The results of this study revealed that

i) The mean score of boys was higher than that of girls.

ii) The boys scored higher on Cohesion, Intellectual Cultural Organization, Active Recreational Orientation, Moral and Religious Emphasis and control components of FES, while the girls scored higher on conflict, achievement orientation and organisation components of FES.
iii) In totality, the underachievers’ academic achievement was significantly related with all components of FES except Active Recreational Organisation.

iv) For underachieving boys, no correlation between a component of FES and academic achievement was found to be significant. However, in the case of underachieving girls, Cohesion, Independence and Control components of FES were found to be correlated significantly with academic achievement.

Yenagi (2006) conducted a study on study habits a function of self-perception among intellectually gifted and non-gifted students. A sample of 1020 pre university college students was randomly selected from colleges in and around Hubli and Dharwad cities of Karnataka state. Study habit inventory by Patel (1976) and self-perception inventory Soars and Soars (1976) were considered for data collection. The results revealed that self-concept was also showed significant difference between intellectually gifted and non-gifted groups.

Schiever (2010) studied the creative personality characteristics and dimensions of mental functioning in gifted adolescents. The intent of this study was to discover what relationship, if any, exists between creative personality characteristics and psychic overexcitabilities (OEs), as defined by Dabrowski’s Theory of Emotional Development. Twenty one gifted seventh and eighth grade students were given the Something About Myself (SAM) portion of the Khatena-Torrance Creative Perception Inventory and the
Overexcitabilities Questionnaire. The seven subjects with the highest SAM scores were designated as the High Creative, the seven lowest as the Low Creative group. At test was performed on the group means of the two groups on the five dimensions of overexcitability. Differences between the High Creative and Low Creative groups were significant (p < .025) for imaginational and intellectual OE and (p < .05) for emotional OE. Differences between the groups on psychomotor and sensual OE were nonsignificant. These findings have implications for parents, teachers, and counselors of creatively gifted students.

Mueller (2011) investigated social and self-perceptions of adolescents identified as gifted, learning disabled and twice-exceptional. The purpose of this study is to examine the social and self-perceptions of twice-exceptional students, those students who meet criteria for being identified as both gifted and learning disabled. In particular, we focus on how twice-exceptional students are similar to, or different from, students with only a learning disability or who are only identified as gifted. Using data collected from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health, we identified a group of 90 twice-exceptional adolescents as well as three matched comparison groups. Overall, twice-exceptional adolescents had less positive perceptions of maternal relationships and self-concept than did gifted or non identified adolescents. Further, perceptions of maternal relationships mediated and moderated group differences in self-concept. Implications for adults working with twice-exceptional adolescents are discussed.
STUDY RELATED TO CREATIVE STUDENTS

Kumari (1975) through her research “A study of relationship among Creativity, Intelligence, Adjustment and value patterns in Adolescence”, found that:

i) There was no significant relationship between intelligence, Adjustment, values and creativity.

ii) Sex differences existed in the field of creativity.

iii) The amount of creativity increased during adolescence.

Sharma (1977) in his research work on “A study of some factors in relation to creativity, concluded:

i) Males are superior in creativity to females.

ii) High and low creative males were significantly differentiate on intelligence, Scholastic achievements, risk taking tendency, anxiety, emotional, adjustment together with overall adjustment scores.

Bhargava (1979) reported that creativity was negatively and significantly related to anxiety, extroversion and positively and significantly related to independence.

Brar (1986) concluded through her research on “A comparative study of the performance in Bachelor of Education Examination of high creative general intelligence and socio-economic status’, that high creative students
are better in theory and skill in teaching part of B.Ed. Examination but there is no significant differences in performance in art and craft between high and low creative students.

Trimurthy (1987) found that the boys were better than girls in both verbal and non-verbal CTA. Moreover, the urban students were better than rural students in both verbal and non-verbal CTA.

Brar (1987) conducted a study on the development of creativity in relation to intelligence among the school children of 13 to 18 years age. Analysis revealed that there was a considerable increase in the growth of all the four components of figural creativity, viz, fluency, flexibility, originality and elaboration in the eighth grade. Result shows that there was more recovery in the figural creativity components after pairing to average intelligent group and the low intelligent group formed on the basis of fluid intelligent test. It was also found that there was a significant positive correlation between creativity, intelligence and achievement of students.

Shair (1988) carried out a study of creative thinking among boys and girls in relation to socio-economic status. The analysis strongly confirm the hypotheses that creativity and socio-economic status were positively correlated and no gender differences were found to exist in creativity. Analysis indicate that boys and girls belonging to the same level of socio-economic status did not differ significantly on the three components of creativity viz, fluency, flexibility and originality. Boys with high socioeconomic status and low socio-economic status were found to be different on fluency
and flexibility, however in the originality scores, the difference fail to reach any level of significance.

Flach (1990) reviewed research on disorders of the pathways involved in the creative process. The apparent contradiction between the frequent incidence of affective disorders among highly creative people and studies that support significantly positive correlations between creative abilities and ego strength can be accounted for by distinguishing between the form and essence of the creative act. Creative potential is universal. All creative acts entail disrupting an existing homeostatic structure and subsequently synthesizing a new, more adaptive one. This cycle is a necessary part of the healthy response to stressful events. Thus, certain psychiatric illnesses can be reformulated as being disorders of psychobiological mechanisms underlying the creative process, a viewpoint that offers substantial benefits to psychotherapeutic efforts.

Gautam (1993) conducted a study of creative thinking among Navodaya Vidyalaya students of Himachal Pradesh in relation to sex and socio-economic status. Findings of the study were — (i) There are no significant sex-differences in development of creative thinking of Navodaya Vidyalaya students from grade VI to VIII, though girls tend to be more creative than boys. Result also shows that high socio-economic status group of students tends to more creative than the low socio-economic status group.

Olaseinde (1994) studied the relationship of creativity and cognitive style dimension of impulsivity/reflectivity in secondary schools. The
relationship between creativity and cognitive style dimension of impulsivity/reflectivity was examined with 79 secondary school students (38 girls, mean age 15 years) in Nigeria. Result suggested that the student sample scoring high on reflectivity performed better than impulsive students on the test of creativity. Most students were more concerned with providing the right answer rather than a creative answer.

Mattoo (1994) has compared high and low creative students of class 10th. The results showed that the high creative students had greater interest in fine arts, literacy, scientific, technical and household areas.

Dockal (1995) conducted a study to investigate whether or not creativity is independent of heredity? Research also discusses creativity, which unlike that of intelligence measured by classic tests, can to a large extent be enhanced by the environment. The author suggested that the mechanism of the environment and heredity interaction appears to be the same in the development of both kind of abilities. The observed data document only a different approach of contemporary civilization toward them, while the reproductive abilities are maximally supported by education, in developing creativity. There is a great room for accidental influence as well as influence of stimulating programs.

Aguilar (1996) studied the correlation between personality and creativity. Previous research has provided conflicting accounts of the effect of personality on creative behaviour. This study involving 400 student sample, examined the issue by mean of factor analysis and Anova. Different measures
of creative behaviour and cognitive abilities are correlated with personal characteristics, such as psychoticism, extroversion and other measures of personality. The results are consistent with the idea that different forms of creative behaviour are related to distinct characteristics of personality.

Mellou (1996) studied that can creativity be nurtured in young children? It was discussed how children’s creative behaviour can be influenced by creative school environment, creative thinking programs and creative teachers. Creativity can be nurtured in young children and there is need for a broader and comprehensive pedagogical and curricular framework for creativity specialists or facilitators to apply their work. A suitable environment and appropriate teaching may encourage the development of children’s creativity. Interaction with the creative environment seems to be the most powerful possibility of nurturing creative individuals.

Blisset (1997) studied the relationship between creativity and interpersonal problem solving skills in adults. Analysis revealed that whether creativity training and inter-personal problem-solving training reflect equivalent or complementary skills in adults. 74 old under graduates completed 4 measures of inter-personal problem-solving, creative performance and creative style. Test used included the means ends problem solving, the Torrance test of creative thinking and the problem solving inventory. Students received interpersonal problem solving training and creative training. Problem solving represents complementary skills, in that each training program specifically affected performance only on related
measured of the performance. A combination of program affected both abilities.

Maria (1997) studied the academic performance of creative students. She analysed the importance of creativity in academic performance, testing a sample of 125, compulsory secondary education students (aged 12-18 years). Students completed a creative perception inventory. Result indicated scores on creativity were not associated with student's academic performance in different subjects or total performance.

Aranha (1998) studied the creativity in students and its relation to intelligence and peer perception. A relationship between creativity and misbehaviour in the classroom has often been presumed by educators. The present study attempted to clarify the relationship among intelligence, creativity and peer perception. 300 students were selected for the test of intelligence, creativity, socio-metric choices. Result shows that children from middle-high socio-economic status had higher scores on intelligence and creativity tests and those students who were viewed as creative by their peers were the most popular in the group. Girls of higher socio-economic status viewed their creative peers as the most misbehaving.

Singh (1998) from his study of “Cognitive styles and mathematical creativity among high school students”, on 700 students, found that the scores of high school students in cognitive styles, locus of control and mathematical creativity are positively skewed but intelligence scores are negatively skewed. He also found that intelligence and mathematical
creativity scores of high school students are positively and significantly correlated with academic achievements.

Cortada (1999) studied the achievement in primary education and its relation to general intelligence and the thinking process in problem solving. He examined the relationship between intelligence and achievement at school with thought processes involved in problem solving. The research was conducted in a primary school with a sample of 200 students. An achievement test consisted of general knowledge, language, mathematics was constructed and then applied to students. The Raven’s progressive matrices was used to study thought process and strategies for problem solving were also administered. Result indicate that this school system did not use the best intellectual potentiality of students.

Chadha (2000) found through her study on ‘The Attribution styles of creative and non-creative adolescents studying in various schools of Jammu province’, on 1500 students found that creative adolescents differ from each other in socially and personally perceived measure of self-esteem, educational adjustment and academic self-concept.

Allik (2001) conducted a study on intelligence, academic abilities and personality. They investigated how individuals with low and high intellectual abilities use their intellectual resources differently to express their individuality. 405 Estonians were selected for intelligence, subject and foreign language test and personality inventory. Correlation and joint factor analyses demonstrated that most of the valid variance in academic achievement and
intelligence was not related to personality measures. It was found that low intelligence persons use their intellectual abilities for seeking excitement while high intelligence persons use their intellect for regulating and controlling their affective lives.

Gupta (2002) through her research value patterns of creative college students of Jammu Region concluded that high creative students and low creative students differ significantly in relation to values. Moreover, there is marked difference between high creative and low creative group on all the dimensions of values as a whole.

Yadav (2003) conducted a study for comparing the creativity of college students with relation to intelligence and socio-economic status. 200 undergraduate students were taken for research purpose. Test used include Torrance test of creativity, Jalota’s Intelligence test and S.E.S. questionnaire by S.D. Kapoor and R.N. Singh. Result shows that more intelligent students were more creative, more socio-economically strong a student is more creative he/she will be. Results also shows that high intelligence students differ significantly with low intelligence students on creativity and socio-economic status of the students effects in a positive way to creativity of students.

Brophy (2003) compared the attributes, activities and performance of divergent, convergent and combination of thinkers. They examined the relationship between inclination for divergent and convergent thought and creative problem solving (CPS) performance. The research was conducted for
300 university students. Result shows that students preferences were associated with performance. Task completion required frequent convergent thought as well as divergent thought.

Banerjee (2003) in his research work on Self-concept and Cognitive Style of Creation and Non-creative Students in Calcutta University.

Objectives: (i) To explore the nature of relationship between self-concept and creativity; (ii) to explore the nature of relationship between cognitive style and creativity; (iii) to explore the nature of relationship between self-concept and cognitive style.

The population for the study consisted of students studying in Classes VII-VIII of secondary schools of Calcutta under the West Bengal Board of Secondary Education. Tools used were Test of creative Words and Test of Creative Figures by Baqer Mehdi, Childrens’ Self-concept Scale by Ahluwalia and Group Embedded Figures Test by Oltman, Raskin and Witkin.

Findings: (i) Grade-wise comparison of creativity showed students of Class VII to be relatively higher than Class VIII students. (ii) Cognitive style and self-concept revealed no difference due to grades. (iii) Gender-wise comparison revealed that boys had a higher self-concept than girls, but lower in overall creativity scores and more field dependent than girls. (iv) It revealed positive and significant correlation between creativity and cognitive style and creativity and self-concept. (v) The factors discriminating between high creative, moderate and low creative are fluency, both verbal.
Lubart et. al (2005) studied the Models of the creative process: past, present and future. They discussed 20th century models of creative process, including the structure of intellect model of J.P. Guilford. The basic 4-stage model of creative process, comprising preparation, incubation, illumination and verification has been prominent since the end of 19th century and many researchers have relied on it. However, research suggests that this model may need to be revised or replaced.

Mawa (2005) in her study on “Risk Taking behaviour among high and low creative secondary school students”, on 100 students of Samba Division concluded that there is a significant difference in risk taking behaviour among high and low creative secondary school students. There is significant sex difference in risk taking behaviour among secondary school students.

Annie (2007) in his research work on “A study of Creativity among Over Achievers and Under Achievers of Students of IX Standard in Relation to certain Psycho-social Factors”.

Objectives of the study were:

i) To measure the creativity (verbal, non-verbal and total) among over achievers and under achievers of IX standard pupils;

ii) to study the relationship between creativity and each of the psychosocial factors namely anxiety, values, self-concept, extroversion and introversion among over achievers and underachievers of IX standard pupils;
iii) to construct a regression equation for categorising over and under achievers.

Pandita (2009) in her study on “A Study of high and low creative higher secondary school students of Jammu region and their values” on 200 students of Jammu region concluded that creativity and values have been found negatively and insignificantly related to each other.

Kour (2010) in her study on “Efficiency of inquiry training and brain storming in the development of creative thinking of minority women of district Doda of J&K” on 105 students of Doda region concluded that the positive impact of non-verbal, verbal creativity of the two group i.e. inquiry training and brain storming is the development of creative thinking of minority women of backward hilly J&K state.

The sample for the study consisted of 611 students (including 259 boys and 352 girls) of IX standard from Thiruvananthapuram and kollam districts in the Kerala State. The sample was selected on the basis of random sampling technique. Tools used in the study consisted of verbal Test of Creative Thinking, Group Test of Intelligence, test of Achievement in Mathematics, Social Science and General Science, Anxiety Scale, value Scale and Extroversion-Introversion Inventory.

The major finding of the study were:

(i) The students of IX standard posses vary in respect of their anxiety, economic value and social value.
(ii) The boys and girls belonging to over achieving, under achieving and normal achieving group differ in their verbal creativity.

(iii) Anxiety is negatively correlated with verbal, non-verbal total creativity for over achievers and under achievers.

(iv) Values have no influence on verbal, non-verbal and total creativity for over achievers and under achievers of IX standard.

Shelton and Amberlea (2010) conducted a study on ‘creative adolescents: sex differences in achievement, interests, personality, and values’. This study investigated sex differences in 549 adolescents, who have come to CLEOS, ranging in age from 13 to 18 years. The study assessed sex differences in terms of vocational interests, personality, and values; using the Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI), Personality Research Form (PRF), the Six Factor Personality Questionnaire (SFPQ), the NEO PI-R, the Tellegen Absorption Scale (TAS), and a Values Inventory. Results showed females scored significantly higher than males on grade point average; the VPI scale-Social, the PRF scales-Achievement, Endurance, Harm Avoidance, Nurturance, and Succorance; the NEO PI-R scales-Neuroticism and Openness; and the TAS score. The study found males scored significantly higher than females on the VPI scale-Realistic and the PRF scale Autonomy.

Schiever (2010) studied the creative personality characteristics and dimensions of mental functioning in gifted adolescents. The intent of this study was to discover what relationship, if any, exists between creative personality characteristics and psychic overexcitabilities (OEs), as defined by
Dabrowski’s Theory of Emotional Development. Twenty one gifted seventh and eighth grade students were given the Something About Myself (SAM) portion of the Khatena Torrance Creative Perception Inventory and the Overexcitabilities Questionnaire. The seven subjects with the highest SAM scores were designated as the High Creative, the seven lowest as the Low Creative group. At test was performed on the group means of the two groups on the five dimensions of overexcitability. Differences between the High Creative and Low Creative groups were significant \( (p < .025) \) for imaginational and intellectual OE and \( (p < .05) \) for emotional OE. Differences between the groups on psychomotor and sensual OE were nonsignificant. These findings have implications for parents, teachers, and counselors of creatively gifted students.

Leikin (2011) conducted a study on prospective teachers' conceptions about teaching mathematically talented students. Fourty-two Israeli participants learning at mathematics education courses for getting their participating in mathematics didactics course were asked to solve a challenging mathematical task. He performed comparative analysis of problems-solving strategies, solution results and participants' success and he find similarties and difference between the attitudes of the two populations.

CONCLUSION

Singh (1987) and Stella (1993) reveals that study habit of gifted students is significantly higher than non gifted students and this finding is also supported by studies of Sundram (1989), Ayishabi (1991) and
Sundarajan and Lily (1991). At the same time Singh (1990) found significant difference in the study habit of gifted and creative students. The studies gives contradictory findings.


On the basis of above studies, it may be concluded that study habit have been studied with respect to achievement, socio-economic status and residential background.

Self-perception have been studied with respect to different psychological variables like sex difference, age group, stress, academic achievement and home environment etc.

In the former studies following factors of gifted and creative students have been studied like social development, emotional development, values, personality traits, adjustment and comprehension ability etc.
Limited studies have been carried out on self-perception of gifted and creative students. It is quite clear from the screened literature that few researches on gifted and creative students have been conducted, but the investigator regrets to state that she could not find any relevant study involving the variables included in the present problem especially at +2 level and most of the studies involving the above topic are by foreign researcher and hence a need of study in India is thoroughly justified and required. As such a study will provide a virgin ground for further researches and can have a emphatic effect on the policy makers also. This urged the investigator to attempt an objective study of study habits, self-perception of gifted and creative students.