CHAPTER-V

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Schneiderjan et al (2005) found strong correlation between emotional stability and academic success. Significant correlation between big five traits and academic performance have been demonstrated in a number of studies
Emotional stability has been identified as a factor, contributing to academic success within higher education (Wankowski, 1991). Dhaliwal (1971) attempted to investigate the relationship of certain personality factors with over and underachievement. The findings revealed that over achievement goes with reservedness, high verbal ability, emotional stability, obedience and sobriety while underachievement goes with opposite tendencies of outgoing traits, low verbal ability, emotional instability and happy go lucky dispositions.

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

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

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

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

Lister, Leach, and Walsh (1989) examined the extent to which the development of conversation concepts in 24 visually handicapped children is similar to that in 50 sighted children. Results strongly support for similarity in
order of acquisition of conversation concepts by visually handicapped students and sighted students. Wyver and Markham (1999) compared the scores of 19 children with severe congenital visual impairment (aged 4-12yrs) and 82 children of same age and gender with full vision on divergent thinking. Result shows that there is no significant difference in comparison of the mean scores of children with severe visual impairment and students with full vision. Halpin, Halpin, and Torrance (1973) compared scores of verbal fluency, verbal flexibility and verbal originality on the Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking for 81 blind and 81 sighted 6-12 yrs olds. Blind subjects were more verbally fluent, flexible and original. Scores did not vary significantly by age, sex or race.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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