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

CREATIVE EXPERIENCE

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

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

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

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

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

Reynolds (1992) examined the impact of art education on creative thinking, academic achievement, self-esteem, locus of control, and appreciation for the arts. A sample of 615 participants divided into three
groups, experimental, modified control, and the control group. A pre-posttest design was used to measure outcomes. Results indicated that participants involved in the arts education program scored significantly better than their control group peers in the areas of creativity, social and parental self-esteem and appreciation for the arts. Auh (1997) conducted a study and found that the best predictor of compositional creativity were informal musical experiences, musical achievement, and academic grades. The findings also suggested that compositional creativity was significantly related to informal musical experiences, musical aptitude, musical achievement, and academic grades. Silvia and Phillips (2004) examined when self-evaluation influences creativity. They predicted that feeling able to improve would buffer against the detrimental effects of self-evaluation on creativity. Two experiments manipulated self-evaluation and perceived ability to improve potential failure on the creativity task. Self-evaluation reduced creativity in both experiments, but only when people did not affect creativity. Connections between self-motives, creativity and defensiveness are discussed.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Zhou and Oldham (2001) examined developmental assessment
strategies and creative personality on individuals’ creative performance.
college students performed a role-playing task in laboratory setting and completed personality questionnaire. Results showed that individuals exhibited the highest creative performance when they expected a self-administered assessment and had creative personality. Kaufman and Baer (2004) asked 241 students to give self-ratings of their creativity in domains. They also examined how such self-assessments in diverse domains relate to other measure of cognitive ability and to creativity as measured with a personality scale. In general, if students viewed themselves as generally creative, they also viewed themselves as creative in different areas. The only area that was not correlated with general creativity rating was mathematics. Wolfradt and Pretz (2001) investigated the relationship between creativity and personality among 204 subjects. The results of this investigation show a close association between creativity and specific personality traits.

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

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

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

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

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

**ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

SELF-ESTEEM

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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


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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**EMOTIONAL STABILITY**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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