INCLUSIVE CLASSROOM: DEVELOPING THE UNDERDEVELOPED
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Preface

This is an attempt to impart such information on various such common problems of children to parents, teachers, social workers, administrators, government or to the students of child psychology who have the case of children as their change or who are preparing themselves for it so that they can equip themselves adequately for their roles. This investigation is done with a conviction born out of first-hand experience with many special need children, over a large number of years that the results of lack of knowledge are sadly tragic and that they could be easily avoided if parents, teachers or others concerned are a little more cautious and well informed.

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CHAPTER I
The Problem and its Setting

Introduction

The behavior of a learner in a teaching learning situation besides being influenced by several psycho-social factors is also influenced by structure and dynamics of his instructional group. Mutual positive feeling of group members positive attitudes, co-operation and sympathy enhance the cohesiveness and stability of the group and consequently a conducive learning climate is generated in the classroom. Such a climate fosters the growth of cognitive, affective and psychomotor aspects of the behaviors of the member of the instructional group.

The issue of educational integration or inclusion has been the focus of much debate over the past several years. Few researchers however have focused on how inclusion into the educational main stream influences the development of a positive self identity effects the level of aspiration and achievement motivation among students with disabilities.

Brarthwaite (1995) has contended that a person and his self identity, confidence and feelings of worth influences the way he or she interacts with the environment. Giledman & Roth (1990) have provided evidence that it is important for people with disabilities to develop a positive self identity that incorporates their disabilities.

Although the goal of inclusion is to create a community in which all children work and learn together and develop mutually
supportive repertories of peer support the goal has never been to become oblivious to children individual differences. Within the field of multicultural education, the goal of color blindness (of not noticing differences) has been discredited and replaced by models that acknowledge and support the development of positive self concept for diverse groups. Similarly, the goal of inclusion in schools is to create a world in which all people are knowledgeable about and supportive of all other people and that goal is not achieved by some false image of homogeneity in the name of inclusion. Rather we must look carefully at the ways schools have typically organized around individual differences and come up with alternatives typical models of special education services have involved identifying individual differences, labeling them, and then providing segregated in not dumping students in heterogeneous groups and ignoring their individual differences. This is express fear of many who oppose inclusion- that student with individual needs will get lost in the process. We must find ways to build inclusive school communities that acknowledge students difference and meet student’s needs yet do so within a common content.

Research on motivated behavior is at the forefront of contemporary behavioral inquiry because it potentially sheds light on crucial area in every field of behavioral science and philosophy and more deeply because it concerns as issue related to man’s survival. The spirit of the present, the emergence of new responsibilities new social and cultural necessities, deep and tumultuous change in social mores and objectives have made motivation a rapidly expanding area of scientific interest as motivation plays an important role, not only in humans but in infra humans also.
A number of terms with overlapping and inter related meanings are used by psychologists to describe social motives and related motivational states. Campbell (1963) lists seventy-six of them running alphabetically from acquired drive to value including such terms as attitude frame of reference, belief idea and set but he prefers to use the term acquired behavioral disposition instead of social motives. Some psychologists considered social motive as need.

Need is a term borrowed from psychology by way of clinical psychology and personality theory. A need is basically a lack of something vital or important to the organism deficit. Need also implies that a given goal a behavior is vital and without it life would cease or normal growth would be impeded. But psychological needs are extensions of this basic idea.

Psychologist developed some theories in order to explain psychological needs. One of the important theories of Maslow (1954) proposed five levels which are:

1. Psychological Needs - needs basic to the maintenance of the body processes.
2. Safety Needs - needs to avoid external danger or anything that may harm an individual.
3. Belongingness Needs - needs to be given love, affection and nurturance by another person or persons.
4. Esteem Needs - needs to be valued, accepted and appreciated as a person to achieve to acquire status, recognition and attention.
5. Self actualization - need for fulfillment.

The needs relating to belongingness, love, esteem and self actualization are the most socialized although social learning affect attitudes behavior at all levels.
Out of various social motives, the motive of self concept, level of aspiration and achievement and achievement motivation are most important. Self concept is a documented element in personality pattern; therefore, the measurement of self concept becomes essential.

Successful implementation of diversity in education requires a special effort to respond to the special needs (SEN) of students. Schools generally tend to place priority on acquisition of academic knowledge but rarely make provision for activities designed to foster social affective development of special needs students. Special needs children have a positive self concept although significantly lower than that of their counterparts especially in social and academic dimensions. The present study emphasizes on how integration facilitates social integration of SEN students and consequently improves their self concept.

A school’s culture and climate refer to the school’s atmosphere, values and policies. These leads to particular expectations and behaviors on the part of staff members and students. An effective school is one that has high expectations for its staff members and students, provides caring support for student and staff, and provides opportunities for their participation in the classroom and broader school setting. Feelings of acceptance are promoted by a welcoming school atmosphere and a school culture that accepts different kinds of behavior in the classroom and does not make assumptions about children abilities.

Children need to believe that they are competent at something and that other believes that they can succeed. Children can develop a strong self concept in many different areas. Children can feel competent in areas related to their social, athletic, moral and creative abilities and qualities as well as their
ability to learn. By understanding these areas of strength, children come to value themselves and develop a strong self worth or self esteem. All children in inclusive classroom get opportunities to participate in activities that allow them to understand social expectations. They can then acquire the physical and social competence needed to function in their school, home and large community. As well they gain an understanding of their strengths and their interrelationship with others.

When children are valued, listened to, encouraged understood and believed in they will be successful. For a long time there have been arguments about which factors influence the student’s achievements. Some researchers attributes the students achievement to the school, other indicate that the school makes little impact on academic outcome. Other researchers say that the effective teacher is the only one who can play the main role on terms of student progress. All the factors (teacher, school context, classroom context and the community around the school) contribute or impart student’s achievement.

The effective school factors which influence students are professional leadership, learning environment, high expectations, positive reinforcement, monitoring students progress and parent school co-operation (Ayres Sawyes & Dinham, 2004; Senlley 2000; Steve Dirham, Cairney, Craigie & Wilson 1995; Alma Haris, 1999; Owenns, 1998). The effective teaching of teacher’s characteristics is: lesson clarity, instructional variety, teacher task orientation and engagement in the learning process and student success rate (Borich, 2000).

The effective teacher in inclusive classroom possesses such characteristics as: efficient use of time, good relationship with students, provide positive feedback has a high student success rate
and in general provides support for the student with and without disabilities (Lareivee, 1985).

Baerji & Dailey in their study about the effectiveness of an inclusive outcome on students with learning disabilities found that students with specific learning disabilities demonstrated academic progress at pace comparable to that of student who did not possess such disabilities in addition their teachers and parents indicated progress in self esteem and motivation.

The right of students with special needs to be educated in a inclusive classroom rather than educating them in an isolated environment has been a main concern raising issues and interest for educators policy makers and researchers in recent times and eventually become the basic issue in terms of teaching students with special needs effective school and teachers characteristics influence positively student’ achievement or outcome in an inclusive classroom. School characteristics as qualified teacher characteristics provide support for the students with and without disabilities.

While there have been many arguments about the organization of schooling for children with special needs the body of relevant evidence is still fairly small (Pectma etal., 2001). Where research has been conducted it has tended to be small scale, particularly with regard to student aspirations. However the small existing research base suggests that students with special educational needs achieve more, academically and socially in and inclusive setup than in special schools. The importance of peers in shaping young people’s aspirations is well documented (eg. Buchmann & Dalton, 2002). This operates through the influence of peers on academic achievement through the development of social skills and through sharing of aspirations. Arguably, children with special educational needs have greater opportunities to develop
social skills in an inclusive setting where their interactions are with a more devised peers group (Farrel, 2001; Morris, 2002). For example children attending special schools are “bussed” in which reduce the opportunity for learning which occurs when children walk to school or use the bus unaided (Florian & Rouse, 2001) studies of interactions between young people with and without special educational needs (Slack & Thomos, 2000; Shevlin & O’Moore, 2000) suggest benefits for the social skills of groups as learn to negotiate and adapt to differences between them. Researches show that children who attend inclusive classrooms are more likely to aspire to higher status of employment those who wish to continue their education is significantly more likely to aspire to a higher level course and are more likely to be sure about which course they want to follow. They are also more likely to spend time with friends outside of school, to report that they are able to make friends easily and that they have friends who do not have disabilities. They are more likely to aspire to live independently from their family. Thus children with SEN educated in inclusive classrooms have higher aspirations for academic and vocational achievement and independent living.

In Indian conditions the role of education is to transform a static society into vibrant one with a commitment to development and change. It has been rightly said that an important ingredient of this metamorphosis is the emergence of a learning society in which people of all ages and all of sections not only have access to education but are involved in the process of continuing education. With this view so that all sections particularly the children with special needs, who are the children who may have mild learning disabilities a profound mental retardation, food allergies or terminal illness, development delays that catch up quickly or remain entrenched, occasional panic attacks or serious psychiatric
problems, will involve in the progress of education present investigation has been taken.

**Statement of Problem**

A study of special need’s children in inclusive classroom in respect of their self-concept, achievement motivation and level of aspiration.

**Significance of the study**

Under or over evaluation of self can be tragic. Proper appraisal of one’s own potentialities is essential to a happy and useful life. The school program and classroom teacher can do much in aiding the pupil to appraise himself and hit talents properly. As the school and colleges are selective agents for placement and employment sources that rely heavily on candidate’s word in school and recommendations of their teachers. Our immediate concern is with directing motivation in school learning so as to achieve proper self appraisal and accelerate learning all along the time. Young emphasized “To the extent that self evaluation leads to self knowledge in realistic goal setting. It can be an important part of the motivational setting of the school.”

So educational institutions can provide guidance services to students to help and solve their problems related with self concept, class adjustment and personality. Educational goals may not be totally based on the information of these three variables selected in the present study. However it goes without any doubt that the information of an individual regarding his self concept, achievement motivation and level of aspiration goes a long way in helping educational guidance. A few children with faulty self concept and unrealistic level of aspiration may be advised to
correct them so that the academic performance of such children may be enhanced.

Successful implementation of diversity in education requires a special effort to respond to special educational needs of students. Schools generally tend to place priority on acquisition of academic knowledge but rarely place emphasis on activities designed to foster socio affective development of special needs students. The present study evaluates the relationship between inclusion and the students self concept, achievement motivation and level of aspiration in comparison with their non special need classmates.

The international move towards inclusion of special need children in main streaming classrooms rather than education them in isolated environment has been a main concern raising issues and interest for educators, policy makers and researchers in recent time (Chalmers, 1998). O’Brain (2001) has said that children with special education needs have the right to be educated in full inclusive classroom, and should not segregated for any reason. In addition there is difference between those students to be accepted only and included as physical individuals; the reality should be accepted physically and morally without isolating them from their peers in regular classroom and preparing appropriate education which meet their needs.

Rather than a few students being seen to have special needs, schools must regard all students needs as part of the fabric of human experience and must become open inclusive and responsive institutions which celebrate rather than eliminate human difference (Christensen, 1992).

Stanovich & others conducted a study about the differences in term of academic performance, self concept and peer acceptance in an inclusive classroom setting. The basic finding showed that
the self concept was the lowest among the students who were categorized in comparison to the students who were non-categorized also the students who disabilities had demonstrated low levels of social integration compared with those who were identified as being at risk. Further, peer acceptance was significantly higher for the non-categorized students who were at risk were accepted by their peers but had low perception in academic ability and on the other hand the students with disabilities rated higher in academic self concept that in social classrooms.

Teaching students with disabilities is an inclusive classroom may be regarded as a challenge for teacher accustomed to teaching in the regular classroom, therefore teacher should require the basic characteristics of effective teaching to be a successful teacher in inclusive classroom is not easy because usually in such cases the teaching is dealing with different abilities. Most of the effective teaching evidence comes from the research done by Westwood (1955) where he found that the effective teacher should be a good classroom manager, focusing on academic skills with good expectations, enthusiasm, using effective strategies to keep student on task and using variety of teaching and resources strategies covering the material content. Also the effective teacher uses easy presentation of material taking into account differences between the students, gives frequent feedback for all students and check for understanding by using probing questions.

It is obvious that the effective school plays an important role in terms of student’s outcome (Socially and academically). The most persuasive research suggests that the student’s academic performance is strongly affected by school culture. This culture is composed of values norms and roles existing within institutionally
distinct structure of governance, communication, educational practices and policies and so on. Successful schools are found to have cultures that produce a climate or ethos conducive to teaching and learning efforts to change schools have been most productive and most enduring when directed toward influencing the entire school climate via a strategy involving collaborative planning shared decision making and collegial work in an atmosphere friendly to experimentation and evaluation (Purkey & Smith, 1998).

Including the students with disabilities and having the knowledge of how to treat them are important characteristics of the effective school, and in this regard Ainscow indicated that the effective school does effective leadership and staff who are able to deal with all students and their needs, is optimistic that all the students can progress and develop their abilities toward successful achievement, has a willingness to support its staff by meeting their needs and taking into account the curriculum and ensuring that the curriculum meets all the students need and also effective school reviews its programs (Teacher, curriculum, students progress) frequently making sure there is progress in terms of effective teacher. Successful teachers challenge the student’s abilities by setting good quality tasks, providing students with opportunities to choose their tasks, making variation in learning strategies and providing facilities that contributes to student learning.

It is believed that educating children with special needs alongside their non disabled peers facilitates access to the general curriculum for children with disabilities. Studies show that the students with special needs in inclusive classroom are more academically effective that exclusion practices. By being included in a regular paced education setting students with special needs
have shown to be more confident and display qualities of self efficacy. Any kind of inclusion practices allow students with special needs to learn social skills through observation, gain a better understanding of the world around them, and become a part of “regular” community inclusion also benefits other children. It opens the lines of communication between the children with special needs ant their peers. If they are included into classroom activities all students becomes more sensitive to the fact that those students may need extra assistance. Many people believe that educating non disabled students and students with disabilities together creates an atmosphere of understanding and tolerance that better prepares students of all abilities to function in the world beyond school. Students without disabilities who engaged in an inclusive physical education program reported increase in self concept, tolerance, self worth and a better understanding of other people. They reported that the inclusion program was important because it prepared them to deal with disability in their own lives. Thus the study aims to assert that frequent, meaningful and pleasant interactions between people with difference tend to produce changes in attitude.

**Theoretical Orientation of variables used in the study**

After formulating the problem, the next step in every scientific research process is defining the concepts. Concept is the general notion or idea of something (Random House Dictionary, 1956). In view of McClelland (1951) “A short hand representation of a variety of events under one general heading”.

Concept must be defined in abstract terms, giving the general meaning they are intended to convey meanings and in terms of operations by which they will be presented in the particular study. The former type of definitions is necessary in
order to link the study with the body of knowledge using similar concept or constructs. The later is an essential step in carrying out any research since data must be collected in terms of observable facts. So in defining the concepts, operational definitions are needed. In support of this view McGuigan (1964) puts “An operational definition is one that indicates that a certain phenomenon exists and does so by specifying precisely how the phenomenon is measured”.

In the present study the following technical terms as variables had been used-

[1] Self concept
[2] Achievement motivation
[3] Level of aspiration

**Self Concept**

The concept of self has origin in the earliest history of personality theory. In the 17th century, the philosopher Rene Descartes discussed the “Cognito” (awareness of one’s own being) as the core of human existence. Sigmund Freud and the early psychoanalytical theories used the terms ego to refer to this organized aspect of personality and many have followed that tradition. Other theories such as William James used the terms self to describe essentially the same processes and that usage also continues into the present.

An important distinction is recognized between, on the one hand, the notion of self as a set of organizing processes (defense mechanism, perceptual habits or attitudes) that bind the personality into a coherent and integrated system, in contrast to the motion of self as perceived object, something of which the individual is aware of in his/her conscious experience. Gradually it
has become conventional to refer to this later notion of self (as object of perceptual experience) as self concept.

In view of the functionalists, the self is itself along existing as a totality and constantly emerging. It is a unique personal opinion of experience and the self is undifferentiated in time and space. William James called self “the core of personality which provides it a unity”.

The Gestaltists in emplacing the predominance of the perception of whole over parts viewed self as unitary integration developing its potentialities by assimilating with the environment. In the words of Josey (1935) the larger whole emerges into a self a seat of consciousness and a channel of self expression of the cosmos. Koffka (1935) viewed that the core of the ego is the self which represents and acts corresponding to genuine needs and their influence on behavior.

Even in the first half of the 20th century personality psychologists found the momentum of which Calkins (1919) was the main pioneer. Calkins insisted that self reference was characterized of all psychological activities and he brought to light the close relationship of behaviorism to self psychology.

In behaviorism the body corresponds logically to what personality called self. Further, she started that the testing movement has assumed the language of “Self psychology (…), the unity of the intelligence test have come to be the conscious self”.

However the psychoanalytic school of Freud gave primary importance to the term “ego” rather than self, providing the theoretical nucleus for a third related concept, self esteem referring to those aspects of self perception that concern the degree to which one likes or dislikes the content of what are perceives in the self.

Theory of self concept was elaborated in the 1940 by Prescott Leeky and Carl Rogers, focusing attention upon the
perceptual aspects of self concept and evaluative elements of self esteem. Rogers (1947, 1951, and 1967) theory of personality represents a synthesis of phenomenology as presented in the writings of Goldstein Maslow and Angyal. The principal conceptual ingredients of this theory are as follow-

**The self**

a) The self is a basic factor in the determination of behavior.
b) It develops out of the organism reaction with the environment.
c) It may interject the values of other people and perceive them in a distorted fashion.
d) The self strives for consistency.
e) The organism behaves in ways that are consistent with the self.
f) Experiences which are inconsistent with the self concept may be perceived as threatening and may be rejected, denied or distorted.
g) The perception of self changes, behavior changes.
h) The self may change as a result of maturation and learning.
i) The self become differentiated as part of the actualizing tendency from the environment through transactions with the environment- particularly the social environment.

This theory is basically phenomenological in character and relies heavily upon the concept of self as an explanatory concept. It pictures the end point of personality development as being a basic congruence between the phenomenal field of experiences and the
conceptual structure of the self a situation, if achieved would represent freedom from internal strain and anxiety and freedom from potential strain, which would mean the establishment of an individualized value system of any other equally well adjusted member of the human race. The cognitive view of self has its roots in the view of early self-theories (Combs & Snuggs :1949, Murphy:1947, Sullivan:1947). Cognitive view conceptualized self as a system of self schemata which are knowledge structure to understand, explain and integrate a given aspect of behaviors.

Markus & Smith (1981) pioneers of the view define self schemata as “generalization or theories about the self, developed from the repeated similar categorization and evaluation of behavior by one self and other, than result in a clearly differentiated idea of the kind of person one is with respect to a particular domain”.

Combs & Snugg (1959) conceived of self concept as the centre of a system of percepts that the called the phenomenal environment- environment as it’s perceived as being related or some had invoked with the self. They termed the phenomenal self with in this area are to be found objects and events that the individual sees as somehow important to him. Any event may become a threat if the individual perceives it as bringing about some unwelcome change with the system of percept what might be called the self structure. The primary need of organism is to enhance and maintain the phenomenal self. Anything that might interfere with our ability to enhance and maintain the phenomenal self is perceived as a threat.

Sarbin (1952) looks upon self a cognitive structure which consists of man’s ideas about various aspects of his being as conception of his body of his sense organs and musculature and of his social behavior. These selves which are acquired through
experience emerge in a regular developmental sequence the body
self first and much late the social self.

Further, the humanistic approach has been heavily
influenced by outstanding psychologists as Alport, Maslow etc. In
view of Allport (1961) the self is something of which we are
immediately aware. It is warm central private region of our life.
As such it plays a crucial role in our consciousness (a concept
broader than the self), in our personality (a concept broader than
consciousness) and our organism (a concept broader than
personality). Thus it is some kind of core in our being. Though
Allport emphasized more on traits in his theory of personality he
did not disregard self and its consistency. This wave of humanistic
psychology that comes into American Psychology during the
1970s generated a surge of renewed interest in both theoretical and
empirical exploration of the concepts of self concept and self
esteem.

The concept of “self” and “society” are mutually
interrelated so that one almost calls for the others. The British
theorist Charles Cooley drew early attention to the important
relationship between self and society in his idea of “looking glass-
self” proposing that the content of self perception is derived
largely through the mirror of interaction with other people
whereby on assumes the role of another in order to have a look
back at one self. George Heibert Mead (1934) an American
extended the same into a more elaborate description of feedback
from others who are especially important or meaningful
individuals and composite feedback synthesized from collective
interaction with many other people. He further observed that self
is a product of our symbolic interaction with others and that we
can perceive ourselves only as a reflection in the eyes of another.
Mead’s self is an object of awareness rather than a system of
process. The self is referred to at times as the “self image”, a term which is sometimes used as synonymous with “self concept”. Self image refers more to the impression aspect of the self whereas self concept includes the idea of impression but also such other aspects as attitudes, values, motives, goals, expectations and the like.

Among the psychologists of the Existential School, we come across the reference of Laing (1967) who has conceptualized self from a therapeutic point of view. According to him, each of us is not a discrete entity, but is part of our culture or of the groups to which we belong, including the family. In social interactions people are not encouraged to discover and be their true original selves, as well as, to meet as much as possible, the expectations and demands of others. A spirit arising between the individual’s false outer self and true inner self is consequences on intolerably confusing and conflicting social demands, sanctions and life situations.

Further conceptual model was developed at the Self Concept Research Laboratory in the Department of Psychology at Sherlorook University. This model conceives self concept as having three levels of organizations, these are the structures, substructures and categories (L. Earyer: 1981).

Thus we see that different psychologists belonging to different schools of thought have coined their own meanings of self according to their view points. However, below the superficial differences of various meanings the basic fact is agreed and sought by all, that the prediction and understanding of personality is incomplete without the study of self, the nucleus of personality. It is one of the oldest doctrines of psychology that man cannot tolerate inconsistency among his cognitions, and that he continually strives to eliminate. It is at this point that the self, the inner manikin becomes the focal point of intention, for it is self
which maintain the equilibrium and relieves the individual of the tension and anxiety which is the result of dissonance arousal.

**Structure of Self concept**

As the infant grows and learns to distinguish between himself and other people and things, a part of his total perceptual field is gradually delineated as the “me”, “I”, or “self”. As this self structure develops, it becomes the integrating core of his personality the reference point around which his experiences and coping patterns are organized. Self structure, like gravity, cannot be observed directly but is inferred from the findings that psychological functions operated in an integrated manner as part of a unified organism. As Hebb (1960) has pointed out that “the self in neither mythical nor mystical but a complex mental process”.

Miller (1965) has inferred “centralized decider subsystem which controls the entire system in all living organism the self appears to function as much a decider subsystem in human being”.

A person’s self structure influences his experience and his behavior. The self structure is a set of beliefs attitudes and ideals constructed by a person in reference to his behavior and experience. Self structure comprises the self concept of individual’s beliefs about his own personality, the self ideal his views concerning how he ought to be and various public selves his preferred modes for presenting himself to others. The person’s self concept and the self ideal are partly shaped by the beliefs and expectations hold by significant others with respect to the person.

If the individual has a strong ego, his self structure will be fairly congruent with his real self. The real self is defined as the process or flow of spontaneous inner experience. When the self
structure is not congruent with the real self the individual is said
to be self alienated showing symptoms of being driven by pride,
conscience, external authority, the wishes of others, or by his
impulses. The healthy personality is not self alienated but rather
displays responsible real self direction of his conduct.

Unhealthy self structures are characterized by inaccurate
self, unduly high self ideas, inaccurate public selves and conflict
among the components of self structure. A healthier self structure
is fostered whenever the individual behaves in ways more
constant with his real self. A healthy self structure is one in which
the components are congruent with another and with the self.

**Development of Self Concept**
The very origin of self concept is dynamic. It arises out of the
complex of the person’s interpersonal relations. No individual is
born with a self concept nor does he inherit it but rather forms one
as a result of interaction form infancy with an individual, social
and physical environment. Yet it is not taught by anybody
deliberately, as it results from incidental learning. According to
Sullivan (1953) its origin is determined by the way the person
organizes his experiences to avoid or diminish anxiety. It is
molded by approval and disapproval, praise and blame reward
and punishment. The giving or withholding of love especially by
the person most significant in the life of the individual.

Self-concept like other developed in a predictable pattern.
According to the Cowen (1950) an important step in the
development of self occurs when the child strives to break away
from complete dependency of infancy. This is a tremendous first
towards achieving and identity, towards asserting is not a usual
process rather the child perceives different aspects of himself at
different times. In a healthy pattern of development old self
concepts must change as new self-discoveries are made the unrealistic and biased elements of early concept must be replaced by the more realistic and prejudiced ones.

According to Hurslock (1972) the concepts of self are hierarchical in nature. The most basic the primary self-concept is acquired first. It is founded on the experience the child has in the home and is made up of many individual concepts each resulting from experiences from the different members of the family group. The primary self-concept includes both physical and psychological “self-image”. As the contact outside the home increase, the child develops other concepts of himself and these concept form the secondary self-concept. They relate the how the child sees himself through the eye of others. Achieving identity is a long and odious process. Many factors work together in the development of self-concept.

According to Sarbin (1952) organism passes through three stages to achieve his self-identity namely- somatic, receptor, effector and social. Sarbin’s view have some similarity with that gradually evolve as the individual grows. The first three are sense of bodily self, sense of continuity, self-identity and self-esteem. These evolve during the first three years of life, the fourth and fifth the extension of self and the self-image come into being during adolescence he is capable of appropriate striving Allport has used the term “Proprium” to include all these different aspects of self-concept.

The development character of self has also been emphasized by Dinkmeyer (1965) who believes that the interaction continues throughout the life and is associated with the mood and families sensation, pleasure, pain, resistance, rejection and gratification in his view, security is an important ingredient in the
development of child self-concept. Feelings of adequacy and belongingness are other important factors.

The development of self-based on the social interaction was elaborated by Cooley (1902) and Mead (1913). For them the sense of self cannot advance beyond self-fixation in the absence of others. Cooley calls self-determined by the attitudes of others “the looking glass self” the images of a person which other people carry in their heads.

Gale (1969) concluded form his study that child gained a growing awareness of self as he began his interactions with the significant people in his environment. Gale’s findings are in close agreement with the findings of Ames (1952) who concluded that the sense of self-appeared to develop at the earliest ages largely in relation to matter and at later ages in relation to other adults and finally in relation to contemporaries.

In this way the major development of self-beings with birth of child into the world. For the new baby, the boundary between his physical self and rest of the world does not exist. As time passes the process of differentiation starts. Among the earliest differentiation made by the child are those concerned with the discovery of the physical self or body image? Probably this begins with the differentiation or distinctions between “me” and “not me” the earliest differentiation of self from rest of the world are factual kinesthetic made as the child expulses his physical being and its contact with this surroundings. Bit by bit as experience increases the physical self which not only constitutes the primitive core of self-concept but may also continue to be a critical component of self-concept even in maturity specially in adolescent period when rapid change in physical aspects of the body occurs and thus is reflected in instability of self-concept the so called ‘adolescent identity crises’. The same is true in the declining yeas
as their bodies become less attractive, less relatable and less adequate to support activities like people who bodies are impaired by disease injury or deformity tend to suffer corresponding inadequacy in self-concept and self-esteem.

Later the dynamic aspect of self extends form body awareness to the objects people and other possessions around the individual. He identifies with these and they become as a part of himself. During the first and second years of the life the child’s freedom and spontaneity is greatly restricted by the socialization process. At this time language enables one to label experience and actions, organizing experience into integrated, conceptual categories some of the earliest words in a child’s vocabulary have to do with the self and the physical body (me, by name, toe, finger etc.). Soon the child begins to label things and people that are especially important extensions of him/herself. Finally the child beams label thoughts and actions with such evaluative terms as good, bad, naughty and so on. These labels facilitate organization of experiences pertaining to self.

Social feedback enables one to incorporate what other perceive as the part of the impression of one self. This rests upon role taking ability and is therefore related to the acquisitions of social skills in perceiving other people as well as one self. As this develops those elements becomes incorporated into the self-concept.

Identification is the process through which beliefs and values are incorporated by young children into their personalities from exposure to such agents of the society as parents, teachers and nears. Beliefs about oneself and values for our-self are generated through the identification process which includes introjections and imitation. Here special attention is given to the
importance of love and affection and of power as bases that particularly influence the development of self-concept.

Along with the development of self-concept another construct idea self is also developed. It is the personality that the person wishes to be during the years of growth, it exercise considerable leverage on the person as he is. Although Hurst, Robinson and Dorr (1946) studied the development of ideal self-concept. Their results indicated that during early childhood parents were the ideal, during the middle childhood and early adolescence romantic and glamorous figures become the ideal and with attaining maturity, there was a consistent shift towards either a successful adult or a composite imaginary person of desirable characteristics. It was also found that the children from lower socio-economic strata did not go through pre-occupation of glamour.

The degree of consistency or stability of self-concept may vary considerably cognitive processes that organize all other aspects of perception as well operate to shape the self-concept. One tends to be perceptually selective about incorporating new experiences into revisions of self-concept and self-esteem filtering through a screen of sets, expectations and defenses. These natural tendencies reserve the stability of self-concept by being more receipting to new information Marsh (1989) found that self-concept declined form pre-adolescence to middle adolescence then increase through early adulthood, sex differences in specific areas were consistent with sex stereotypes and relatively stable from pre-adolescence to early adulthood.

In general the self-concept tends to stabilize with increasing age, but this is not a uniform growth process. For some people each new success or failure yields an exaggerated boost or drop in self-esteem while others are resistant to such changes.
Inappropriate development of self-concept may be associated with dysfunctions of personal psychological adjustment. Failure to evolve a well-integrated self-system leads to fragmented and this organized self-concept. One may feel very disapproving about the content of the self-concept, reflecting low self-esteem a condition characteristic of depressive personality disorders. Low self-esteem tends to make people set low goals for themselves, resulting in poor achievement motivation lack of persistence and ambition and even social withdrawal or isolation poor self-punishment and are associated with belonging to social minorities.

Other familial variables such as parental characteristics, parent-child interaction patterns and even birth order and sparing of siblings, may influence self-concept. But these effects are complex and several variables often interact with each other in shaping the self-concept.

**Changes in Self-concept**

The self-concept is persistent, dynamic, and predictable in nature. It is persistent in the sense that often a person twists and turns new experience in accordance with his preconceived idea of himself. Self-concept is dynamic once it arises out of the complex of the person’s interpersonal relations and is determined by the way he organizes his experiences to avoid or diminish anxiety. Self-concept like other concepts develops in a predictable pattern.

Changes in individual’s self-concept occur at any time during his life but they specially occur at the beginning of each developmental phase. Self-concept is hierarchical in the sense that it is always acquired. It is founded on the experience the child has in the home.

An elaborate study regarding the changes in self-concept under normal conditions has been reported by Vidoni (1976).
administered Gough’s Adjective Check List (1965) each year from 1965 to 1973 to entering freshman of university. Results indicated a significant year to year difference on two of the five scales. Vidoni concluded that these differences indicated a change for growth in sociability and contemplative independence areas of self-concept. In India Deo (1973) studied the stability of self-concept and found a systematic decrease in consistency over time.

Although changes in self-concept are not easy to induce, it is even more difficult to change the positive attitudes that are central to self. Pilsuk (1962) observed form his experiment that in the face of adverse criticism whether from friend or stranger the subject retained a favorable estimation of his performance. In this way he concluded that there exists a group of attitudes which provide stable points in the evolution of new formation.

Glock (1972) concluded that the task of replacing a child’s negative self-concept with a more positive image is difficult but can be achieved.

Human beings are commonly observed to be subject to periodic variation in mood, often for reasons not at all clear to the individual himself whatever the antecedents of mood fluctuation one would expect that changes in mood would bring about changes in the self-concept.

Westman Ricks & Tyl (1960) studied the effect of mood on sample of 14 female students over a six week period. The subjects were asked to record their feelings each night the mood scale consisted of 10 phrases A 45 items Q sort for self and ideal self was given during six week period. Once when mood reached on extreme high and when it was at an extreme low. They found that mention self -ideal conciliation during elated mood was 0.55. During depression the median correlating was 0.07 and most of
the difference resulted from changes in self-concept rather than from changes in ideal self.

Changes in the self-concept accompanying the various other changes which take place during the development cycle would not be surprising. In an investigation Horowitz (1990) found that bereaved person prepared to make new commitments to other and to accept new roles. This process involves an unconscious change to other and to accept new roles. This process involves an unconscious change in mental structures of meanings about the self and other people. Engel (1959) found a steadily more positive self-concept is characteristic as child pass through adolescence and into young adulthood. Kuhlen (1956) found a positive curvilinear relationship between self-acceptance and age. Self-concept acceptance showed a steady increase form age 20, reached a peak during the age period 50-59 and then began a steady decline is possibility as a result of stereotypes of aging along with concrete evidence of slowdown in functioning, these comes the realization of getting old the individual is again confronted by doubts and anxieties and thus self-acceptance declines (Bloom, 1961).

To study the effect of praise and blame on the change of self-concept Deo & Bhalla (1964) have found that blame, rather than praise appeared to influence the self-concept significantly. The female subjects appeared to be more susceptible to blame or praise but the differences were not significant. Attempts have also been made to study the effect of success and failure on self-concept. Wylie (1961) observed that success leads to increase in self-esteem and failure to lower that same although less frequently. Fry (1976) also found that subjects who experienced success made significantly greater gains in positive self-
assessment and no significant relationship of success and failure occurs in relation to gender.

Studies on changes in self-concept under psychotherapy are quite numerous. The researchers have mostly, taken into consideration on dimension of self-concept i.e. self-ideal congruence and observed the changes sin it under therapeutic conditions. Usually Q sort technique was employed Butter & High (1954) concluded that the treatment increased self-acceptance an index of self-ideal discrepancy in the subjects and thus brought a positive change. In an investigation Tice (1992) found that identical behaviors had greater impact on the self-concept when performed publicly rather than privately. It is more likely to change by internalizing public behavior rather that by internalizing behavior that is identical but lacks the interpersonal context. The self-concept change extends even to behavioral changes and occurs when participants are unaware of being observed. In addition those who are high in self-monitoring are more likely to internalize their behavior than those who are low in self-monitoring.

**Definitions of Self-concept**

Self-concept is a central theme around which a large number of major aspects of personality are organized. It is more or less organized perceptual object resulting from present and past observation. It is what person believes about himself. It is the cognitive affective map of an individual which helps in understanding himself especially during moments of crises or choices.

In view of Madison (1969) the conscious aspects of the individual’s basic constructs constitute the central self and it refers to aspects of “me” and the individual is conscious of, the more
limited portion of his conscious self, that the person can describe in verbal terms, constitute the self-concept, which is a quality of self-feeling associated with a satisfactory sense of identity. Ambren (1975) defined self-concept as the “description of oneself including a person’s mental image of his physical self, his expectations about his own behavior and other such expressions of the person’s sense of himself”.

Singh (1970) considers self as the nucleus of human personality. The self comes into picture not only with regard to motivational activity but also acts as a regulating factor in perceiving, learning, remembering, judging, planning, decision making and risk taking. Rogers (1964) asserted that the inner world of the individual appears to have more significant influence on his behaviors that does the external environment stimulus.

The first part of above definition, the continuity of a flow of consciousness including, perceiving, thinking, planning, evaluating choosing willing, introspecting, intuiting and the like and the second part of this definition focuses on self as object spelling out the component. Vasantha (1973) says that self-concept is thought of primarily as physical entity and secondarily as a psychological object according to him it is however the physical self that is first brought into awareness. He further elaborated and holds that self can be viewed in the forms (a) as subject (b) as object and as process. Saraswat & Gaur (1981) described self-concept as “the self-concept is the individual way of looking at himself. It also signifies his way of thinking, feeling and behaving”. Jourd (1963) states that self-concept comprises of all the beliefs the individual holds concerning the kind of person he is. Coppersmith (1967) defines, the self is an abstraction that an individual develops about the attribution which he possesses and pursues. This obstruction is
represented by the system “me” which is person’s ideas of himself.

The dictionary of Education has defined self-concept as “those parts of phenomenal field which the individual has differentiated as selectively stable and definite parts of characteristics of himself”. The term self has been defined in the Dictionary of Sociology in the following words- “an intervening variable which serves to describe and integrate the psychological characteristic of an individual. These characteristics are inferred on the basis of the individual’s statement describing his own personality as he perceives himself.

Encyclopedia of Psychology defined “Self-concept is totality of attitudes, judgments and values of an individual relating to his behavior abilities and qualities. Self-concept embraces the awareness of these variables and their evaluation”.

Gulter (1967) gives an operational definition as “subjects responses to questionnaires composed of self-referent statement relation to interpersonal relationship and social desirability”. Desars (1979) has defined self-concept as to include perceptions of self, perceptions of college and perceptions of social milieu.

All port’s phrase is “it is some kind of core in our being”. It naturally plays a crucial part in one’s-

[1] Consciousness
[2] Personality
[3] Organism

And consequently it makes a lot of differences in one’s behavior in the society although has described the self-concept as something of which we are immediately aware, we think of it as the warm central private region of our lips. As such it plays a crucial part in
our consciousness and organism. Thus it is some kind of care in our being.

All above definitions refer to complex concepts within a person in one or more statements. These concepts are described by the theorists in the following ways:

[1] A person as an entity separated from other is experienced.
[2] Physical attributes as experienced are included in this concept.
[3] These remains a consistency in experiencing over time.
[4] A degree on unity among items included in self-concepts is experienced. As Shaverson et al. (1976) pointed out that “self-concept in broadly defined as a person’s perception of him or himself. These perceptions are formed through one’s experience and interpretations of one’s environment and are influenced especially by reinforcement evaluation by significant others and one’s attributes for one’s behavior”.
[5] It includes a person’s evaluation. Evaluative dimension can vary in importance for different individuals and also for different situations.
[6] It regulates individual’s relation to others in various situations and activities.

Zirbel (1971) counted 15 definitions of self-concept explicitly cited in studies reviewed by him. During the Meta analysis done by Hansford & Hattic (1982), 15 apparently different self-terms were recognized. These different terms for self are self-concept sentiment, self-attitude, self-confidence, self-regard, self-actualization, identity development, self-expectation, self-perception, self-ideas, self-assurance and self.

To sum up self-concept is a complex variable. It includes those patterns of stimulation which produce feelings on well-
being, hope mastery and control mediate recognizable patterns of perception. Self-concept is perhaps better reserved to mean the individual way of looking at himself in an evaluative sense ordinarily. He perceives his thoughts and acts as if he was responsible for his own behavior. Kelly (1973) suggested that these perceptions are formed through his experience with his environment and are influenced especially by environmental reinforcements and significant others.

**Dimensions of Self-concept**
There are six dimensions of self-concept used in the present study i.e. physical self, social self, temperamental self, educational self, moral self and intellectual self.

**Physical Self**
There are many beliefs about the impact of the body build or personality said that facial features were the most accurate physical indicators of personality. A person with good body or small and delicate body build or heavy build or with little muscular development compares what he can do with what his age mates can do. He is likely to develop feeling of superiority, inferiority and inadequacy which are reflected in favorable and unfavorable self-concepts. The body build affects the person’s self-concept favorable. If it permits him to do things that are as prestigious as or better than others. It also affects person’s self-concept unfavorably if what he can do has little prestige in the eyes of society.

Adjustment to life is also influenced by the person’s concept of his physique in relation to others. These perceptions shape his adjective experience. Shaffer & Shoben (1956) explained, “a puny boy is likely to develop different preferred mechanisms that a
strong healthy child because he has different experiences. Anxiety provoked by threatening diseases or disabling symptoms may lead to defensive or non-adjective behavior. In such cases, a person’s structure or physiology frustrates his motives, creates conflicts and shapes the experiences through which he learns his adjustments. The precipitating events are physiology but the adjusted process is psychological.

The more a person varies from the norms in physical attractiveness the more he varies in the favorableness of his self-concept. Many studies illustrate that deviant matures are likely to make poorer personal and social adjustment than their normally maturing peers. Lucas & Oiha (1963) found that the college students with acne score significantly higher on the neuroticism scale than those who are free from this skin blemish. Sion (1965) points out that the security one has in one’s body is related to the security with which one faces self and the world. It is found form various studies that physical appearance plays an important role in social judgments and affects the self-concept. Staffreri (1967) points out that the role of an individual’s body configuration in social interactions and the effects of these interactions on self-concepts is an important part of the total process of personality development.

**Social self:**

Social self is derived from social interactions. Social adjustments serve as the basis for self-evaluation. According to Jesshid (1952), Belt (1960), Videbeck (1960) & Kinch (1968), the social self-concept is based on the way the individual believes, others perceive him. If a child is constantly told that he is “naughty” he soon develops a concept of himself as a naughty child. A child whose parents are always telling him how bright he is develop a self-concept that
contains some elements of false pride. A person who as a child or
religion or social class will usually have a far less favorable
concept of himself than the person who is not so social. Self-concept is usually referred to as “Mirror image”.
When the child comes into contact with many people outside the
home he feels what others say about him, what status they
provide him in social group and how the others treat him. His
developed social self-concept in the home may be strengthened or
modified in some other way. Unfavorable social attitudes to
discrimination and rejection will damage the child’s self-concept
and may give rise to the feelings of inadequacy. The social self-
concept which is fully developed up to the stage of adolescence
may be changed if the person’s social experiences are marked by
different from those of previously encountered.

Temperamental Self:
Temperamental self of an individual is determined by the
prevailing emotional state or predominance of particular kind of
emotional reactions. If is an aspect of personality which is revealed
in the tendency to experience moods or mood changes in
characteristic way. It tends to be persistent and as such disclose
the emotions which play a dominant role in the person’s life.

Emotions whether persisting or fleeting color the
individual’s perception of himself and his environment and affect
his behavior emotionally toned experiences not only affect the
person self-concept at the time they occur but also memories of
experiences continue to leave their remark. The greater
discrepancy between the real and ideal self-concepts the more
likely the person is to try to express memories of unpleasant
experiences. Individual does so to eliminate the damage or harm
they do to his concept of self-dominant emotions are revealed in
facial expressions tell the story of the person’s feelings about himself and his environment. These facial expressions affects the judgments others make of him and their reactions to the individual.

**Educational Self:**
Educational institutions play a significant role in the development of personality. Children as well as adolescents spend more time in school that in any place outside the home. School provides the person’s first real opportunity to appraise himself and his abilities realistically, free from bias, and he is judged on his merits by teachers and classmates. So that he learns how people feel about him and judge his acts as compared with those of his peers.

Children’s attitudes towards their school affect both their academic and non-academic adjustment. Their academic achievement and adjustment to the extracurricular activities of school or college influence the judgments. His teachers, peers, classmates and parents make of them. These judgments affects their treatment of them and the way they are treated shapes their judgment of themselves.

If the individual sees himself as “good” person, as he believes his teachers sees him that will have an ego inflating on his self-concept. Grades influence the student’s self-concept. Poor academic work also influences self-concept.

**Moral Self:**
Moral standards are decided by cultural acts which are beneficial for the particulars society are “right” otherwise they are “wrong”. A moral code which has been developed through customs, it based on moral concepts. These concepts are learned gradually over a long period. It depends on the maturation of intellectual
capacities, specially the capacities for remembering, associating of what one learn with previously learned facts, and weighing the merits against the demerits of the different choice.

Moral or immoral behaviors has no effect on personality until the person is intellectually mature enough to understand the attitude of the social group toward his behavior. If the person realizes that his behavior falls short of group expectations or personal standards, he will have feeling of guilt and his reaction to these feelings will affect the self-concept. Feeling of guilt may lead the person to change his attitudes about the “wrongness” of certain behavior. Occasional feeling of mild guilt are not likely to have a permanent effect on the self-concept. They are make the personal ashamed of himself and more realistic about the standards he should set for his behavior. But frequent feelings of guilt are damaging to the self-concept as they make the person lose confidence in his ability.

Intolerance towards moral short coming usually reaches its peak in adolescence. Normally the adolescent become more liberal and more tolerant as his social experiences broaden. If this does not happen the authoritarian personality syndrome develops.

**Intellectual Self:**
Intelligence provides person with the capacity to adjust with his environment that life requires. The quality of adjustment is in turn a major factor in individual’s personality development. It influence the kind of adjustment the person makes to his environment, to people and also to play and how it will treat him. The brighter a person is, the more the group will expect from him. Brightness at one period represents behavior potential and this is predictive of future performance. How will the individual likes
came up-to social expectations will have a marked effect on his self-concept.

Awareness of one’s adjective ability also influence his self-concept. If one recognizes superior in school work, he will have a favorable self-attitudes unless, he discovers that his superiority has little prestige value or is actually regarded with contempt by his age mates. Baryler (1968), Butcher (1968) & Dye (1968) wrote that for adolescence the pattern of intellectual growth is fairly consistent. Other conditions that influence the development of intellectual capacities are physique, education, early home experience, motivation, emotional status and personality pattern. The attitude of significant people have more impact on self-concept of the individual the closer the social relationship between the person and others, the more their attitude towards him will affect his self-concept.

**Achievement motivation**

Motivation has come to be regarded as one of the major domain of psychology and education. It constitutes an integral part of the scientification, is fundamental part of psychologist’s effect to achieve a valid psychology of social behavior of all norms. No matter where we begin in the study of psychological process or phenomenon, we sooner or later deal with the problem of motivation.

On the importance of motivation Dutt & Subberwal (1973) state that the present century has been rightly called the century of motivation whether in education, in industry or in doing sophisticated job, motivation comforts everyone interested in
studying achievement vis-à-vis the degree of excellence evolved therein.
In recent years, the most important explaining motivation behavior has been the achievement motivation which has reviewed attention not only from psychologists but as well as from sociologists and educationists.

**Achievement Motivation - Concept & Nature**
Achievement motivation has been referred to as the need for achievement, as wish to do well. It refers to the behavior of an individual who strives to accomplish something to do his best, to excel others in performance.

According to Macelland (1953), “it refers to the motive to achieve some standard of accomplishment or proficiency”. Achievement motivation is thus a learned motive to compete and to strive to success. As almost any activity from gardening to managing an educational institution can be viewed in terms of competition and success versus failure, the need for achievement influences behavior in a large member of quite diverse situation and because it is a learned motive, there are wide differences among individuals in their past experiences and hence in their motivation with respect to achievement. There is a universal tendency in a man to strive, to excel and succeeded and to win and go ahead of others. This is more likely to be learnt by social customs and education rather than being inborn. This tendency can be called the self-assertion or the motive to achieve. If affects a great man activities of the individuals and helps him in meeting the obstructions which come in the way of achievement of his goal with greater activity to carry out the projects through a successful completion, to beat the rival, to achieve success for its own sake.
Success becomes a goal which must be achieved in one way or another. All of us wish to achieve something. David C. Maclelland says there in one thing that all his research taught me, it is that “man can shape their win destiny, that external difficulties and pressure are not clearly so important in shaping history as some people have argued. It is how people respond to those challenges that matters and how they respond depends on how much times tens of thousands or even millions of us spend on thinking about setting moderate achievable goals, taking calculated risk, assuming personal responsibility and finding out how we have done one job”.

One of the major characteristic of achievement motivation is to be anticipatory dimension. Nature of achievement motivation appears to have a future reference for instance, the stated wish for achievement, successful instrumental activity, anticipatory goal responses and a positive affect at the end.

**Theory of Achievement Motivation**
The theory of achievement motivation was proposed by Maclelland and his associates in 1953. According to this theory all human motives are learned in the environment irrespective of their nature and that two factor are important for motivation environment and affective arousal in the individual. For him motivation is “reintegration of a changes in a fact by a cue and anticipation of a future”. Change in affect contingent upon certain actions. As per example if we see an old friend after a long time, the perception of the friend works as a cue which arouses affective feelings with in us due to which we greet the friend with warm affection.

In 1966 Alkinson & Feather developed a theory of achievement motivation which was originally developed by
McClelland & others. According to them, “the theory of achievement motivation attempts to account for determinants of the direction, magnitude and persistence of behavior in a limited but very important domain of human activities. It applies only when an individual knows that his performance will be evaluated (by himself or by others) in terms of some standard of excellence and that the consequence of his action will be either a favorable evaluation (success) or an unfavorable evaluation (failure). It is, in other words, a theory of achievement orientated performance. He further suggested that the general disposition to seek success, called achievement motive might be conceived as a capacity for reaching with pride in accomplishment when success at one or another activity is achieved. The tendency to avoid failure is conceived as an inhibitory tendency which functions to oppose and dampen the tendency to perform the task.

According to Alkinson the two motives: the tendency to achieve success and the tendency to avoid failure have opposite tendencies. In other words the theory of achievement motivation asserts that the achievement motive and expectancy of success produce positive interest and active pursue of success, but the motive to avoid failure and expectancy of failure function to steer an individual away from achievement related activities because they produce a tendency to avoid on inhibit actions which might lead to failure. This avoidant or inhibitory tendency is strongest when the activity appears to be a realistic challenge that is when the expectancy of success and failure are near equal in strength, as they are in task of intermediate difficulty.

According to the theory of achievement motivation the effects of individual difference is strength of disposition to be anxious about failure should be most pronounced when the task is one of intermediate difficulty, when the task appears either
extremely difficult or very easy to be person, neither positive motivation to achieve nor anxiety about failure is strongly aroused.

Speil Berger (1959) suggests that the percentage of students high in anxiety who dropped out due to academic failure was nearly four times as great as the percentage of students low in anxiety is perceived as having some more distant future consequences in addition to immediate success and failure.

Achievement motivation has been studied with wide variety of other correlates. It is studied with sex as a correlate, with culture and self-esteem as a correlate with socio economic status as a correlate with faculty as a correlate, with adjust mental factors and personality factors as correlate.

**Level of Aspiration**

Like other psychological phenomenon motivation is important in directing individual behavior consciously and strive the individual to perform certain type of activity in order to achieve a definite goal. Every individual aims at reaching a definite goal or excellence in performance. It is a very logical reasoning that high achievement is not possible in absence on intellectual abilities. On the other hand intellectual abilities are no guarantee of high achievement. In choosing life goals people widely differ in their expectations and aspirations, goals, expectations and aspirations may either be of high standard out of the person’s capacities or may be of very low one. An individual may tend to under estimate one’s own performance while other may over rate his achievement. Due to this, many people are unhappy in life as they are unaware of their low intelligence and ability and aspire for high things and their experience serve frustration.
In describing a person’s level of aspiration we are infect describing him. It is an expression of the self, of the subject’s future or past orientation, his confidence in himself, his fear of failure, his reality. The investigation on one’s level of aspiration is an effective way of learning to understand one’s personality. Level of aspiration has motivational property due to which it is intimately linked with the process of learning.

As a concept of psychology level of aspiration was not very much recognized until 1935 when the construct was translated into English as level of aspiration, by Hoppe Dembo, in course of an experimental investigation of angles? The first experiment directed towards the analysis of the level of aspiration- a translation form German word “Anspruch &Niveau” was performed by Hoppe in 1930. It is now a familiar concept to the psychologists, educationists, sociologists and others for extensive discussion and experimentation in the last quarter of the 20th century.

Theories of Level of Aspiration

Resultant Vector Theory:
The theory was first presented by Escalona (1945) and further elaborated by Festinger (1942) and Lewin, Dembo, Seass (1944). The level of aspiration has been characterized by them as a choice situation in which there are difficult and less difficult of level. The choice is determined by the valences (attractive or repulsive qualities of a situation) the choice of a particular goal region i.e. level of aspiration is determined by the resultant force toward it. The person’s expectancy of success and failure at a given level of performance defines the relative potency of the valences of success and failure. The level of aspiration may be stated as the resolution
of a conflict which is influenced by three important factors, these are as follow:

1. The attractiveness of success
2. The repulsive of failure
3. The cognitive factor of a probability judgment which implies expectancy of success or failure.

**Definition of Level of Aspiration**
Level of aspiration is an individual’s expectation or ambition that refers to estimate on one’s future performance. According to Hoppe (1930) the level of aspiration (LOA) as a person’s expectations, goals or claims on his own future achievement in a given task. On the basis of experimental analysis, Hoppe found that a given performance is accompanied by a feeling of failure. It falls below the LOA and a given accompanied by a feeling of success if it goes above the LOA. In view of Hoppe LOA is essentially qualitative in nature.

Frank (1935) altered Hoppe’s concept of level of aspiration behaviors in the light of his qualitative technique, where the goodness of performance was measured in terms of the time take to complete the set task. The subject was acquainted with the task, given a number of trails and after each trail told how long he had taken. He was subsequently asked to state how long he thought he would take to complete the next trail. By this method, the goal was expressed in the same units in which the goodness of performance was measured, thus enabling direct comparison to be made between the level of aspiration and level of performance. Frank than redefined Hoppe’s concept of level of aspiration as “the term level of aspiration is defined as level of future performance in a familiar task which an individual knowing his level of past performance in that task explicitly undertakes to reach”. He
further views that level of aspiration is a stable personality characteristic relatively independent of specific task.

According to Boyd (1952), “Level of aspiration means an individual ambition in a dynamic situation that is it is an individual’s goal or expectation in regard to the goodness of his own future performance for a given task”. Backer & Seigal (1957) referred to level of aspiration as individuals strive for a particular goal or level of achievement.

In the words of James Drewer (1952), “The term level of aspiration is best explained as a frame of reference involving self-esteem or alternatively as a standard with reference to which an individual experiences i.e. has the feeling of success or failure”.

Joshi (1963) pointed out that in level of aspiration, individual strives positively toward the goal which is generally in keeping with his assets whereas in which fulfillment one is lost in them.

In brief, level of aspiration is an individual’s expected level of achievement. It is an aspect of personality which serves as an active psychological force that designates both goal setting and goal seeking behavior.

**Clarification of Terms used in the study**

1) **Level of aspiration**- Level of aspiration measured by Shah & Bhargava provided three dimensions-

   **Goal Discrepancy**: Goal discrepancy is the gap between aspiration for the next trail and the intermediate performance on previous trail. According to Frank (1955) this goal discrepancy is a permanent characteristic of personality. There are two types of goal discrepancy i.e. positive and negative. A positive goal discrepancy suggests that one’s goal in higher in relation to one’s previous performance and a negative goal discrepancy indicates
that one’s goal is lower than one’s previous performance. The size of the discrepancy shows how high or low one sets the goal relative to one’s performance. The general tendency by and large is to set the goal a little higher than the previous performance. In this study, goal discrepancy is operationally defined as the extent and direction of the difference between actual score on the previous trial and goal set up of the next trail, which is obtained by subtracting the actual score on a trail from the aspiration score for the next trail.

**Attainment Discrepancy:** Related to the concept of goal discrepancy is the attainment discrepancy. It is the difference between aspiration and the achievement on the same trail. The size of the discrepancy shows the extent to which one surpasses or fails to reach his goal. It also shows the degree of maladjustment or failure of the individual. Psychological feeling of success and failure depends upon the direction and the size of the attainment discrepancy and not the difference between expected and actual performance. The success and the expectation of further success increases the attractiveness of a task and the reverse is true for failure situation.

Attainment discrepancy is also considered as an index of level of aspiration where signs are reversed. If a group sets high aspiration its natural consequences is that the group is likely to fall short of actual attainment and those aspires low tend to be closer their goals in actual performance. Thus attainment discrepancy is so highly correlated with goal discrepancy is so highly correlated with goal discrepancy that it should be treated as an alternative index for other. Eysneck & Himmelweit (1946) have reported negative correlation between attainment discrepancy and goal discrepancy.
In the present study, attainment discrepancy is operationally defined, as the difference between aspiration and the achievement on the same trail. In order to obtain attainment discrepancy score, expected performance is subtracted from the actual performance on the same trail. Attainment discrepancy scores is positive when actual performance is more than the expected performance and negative when expected performance is lower than the actual performance.

*Number of Times the Goal Reach Score:* NTR’s scores provide an index of subject’s actual probability of reaching his stated goal. These may be a minimum and maximum score with reference to the number of trails and it is expected of a subject with relatively high motivation to avoid failure to approach these two limits minimum and maximum. The subjects with minimum NTR’s scores showed a very high fear of failure while there with maximum NTR’s scores is negatively related with goal discrepancy and positively related with attainment discrepancy.

2) **Self-concept** In this study following dimensions of self-concept were measured.

*Physical Self:* Physical self is operationally defined in the present study as individual’s view of their body, healthy, physical appearance and strength.

*Social Self:* Social self-concept is operationally defined in the present study as individual’s sense of worth in social interaction.

*Temperamental Self:* Temperamental self is operationally defined as in the present study as individual’s view of their prevailing emotional state or pre-dominance of a particular kind of emotional reaction.
Educational Self: Educational self is operationally defined in the present study as individual’s view of themselves in relation to school, teachers and extra-curricular activities.

Moral Self: In the present study moral self is operationally defined as individual estimation of their moral worth of right and wrong activities.

Intellectual Self: In the present study intellectual self is operationally defined as individual’s awareness of their intelligence and capacity of problem solving and judgments.

Objectives of the Study

In this study an attempt has been made to achieve the following objectives-

[1] To compare boys and girls with special needs in relation to their self-concept, achievement motivation and level of aspiration.

[2] To find out the self-concept, achievement motivation and level of aspiration of special need children.


[4] To find out the relationship between children with special needs and general children in relation to their achievement motivation.

[5] To find out the relationship between children with special needs and general children in relation to their level of aspiration.

Hypotheses

Attendant upon and congruent with the objectives stated earlier, the following hypotheses are proposed regarding the self-concept,
achievement motivation and level of aspiration of special need children in inclusive classroom.

H₁ – There is no significant difference between children with special needs and general children in relation to their self-concept, achievement motivation and level of aspiration.

H₂ – There exists no significant difference between boys with special needs and general boys in relation to their self-concept, achievement motivation and level of aspiration.

H₃ – There is no significant difference between girls with special needs and general girls in relation to their self-concept, achievement motivation and level of aspiration.

H₄ – There exists no significant difference between boys and girls with special needs in relation to their self-concept, achievement motivation and level of aspiration.

**Delimitations**

The study will be delimited in the following ways:

[1] The study will be confined to upper primary schools of Moradabad Commissionary only.

[2] The study will be confined to student of VII and VIII classes.

[3] The study will be delimited in respect of the study of only the variables of self-concept level of aspiration and achievement motivations of children with special needs in inclusive classroom.
CHAPTER II
Review of Related Literature

Knowledge of the literature related to the problem is necessary to link between past knowledge and solution of the present problem. In fact familiarity with the current and past literature always help the investigator in various ways i.e. in selecting a problem till writing a report. In this connection Goode & Hattle (1952) states, “No research project can be undertaken without the preliminary orientation. Nor should be taken without knowledge of research that has already been done in the field”.

Throughout the long history of man’s curiosity about the causes of his conduct and the shorter span of years since 1860 when psychology officially became a science, the question of a psyche agent which regulates guides and controls man’s behavior has been repeatedly raised and discussed. Perhaps the most popular concept of an inner entity which shapes man’s destiny is that of the self. William James in his famous chapter on the self in Principles of Psychology (1890, Chapter X) set the stage for contemporary the arising and much of what is written today about the self and the ego derives directly or indirectly form James. He defended the self in its most general sense as the sum total of all that a man can call his body traits and abilities, his material possessions his family, friends and enemies; his vocation and avocations and much else. This served as the basis of many formulations and much research was carried out by psychologists and sociologists (Cooley, 1902; Mead, 1913; Symonds, 1951 etc.)
In the first half of the 20th century there were the “Personalistic” psychologists such as Mary W. Calkins and Wilhelm Stern who insisted that self-reference was characteristic of all psychological activities. Since 1950’s research attention on self-concept has expanded explosively and literature on “Self” has now reached gigantic proportions. In a survey Wyle Hansford and Hattle (1982) identified 702 studies for the purpose of meta-analysis related to self-concept. Fifteen apparently different self terms were recognized during the meta-analysis. These different terms for self are self-concept, self-actualization, self-sentiment, self-attitude, self-attitude, self-confidence, self-regard, identity development, self-expectations, self-perceptions, self-ideas, self-assurance etc. The following researches and investigations gleaned form a survey of literature, were selected on the basis of scientific prominence, historical importance, educational importance and for being noteworthy contribution to knowledge in the field of self-concept. Five major topics and discussed self-concept and overall view of self-concept in relation to level of aspiration, studies related to self-concept and on achievement motivation.

Studies on Self-concept

Studies done abroad-
Especially since the 1940 problems related to self-concept have surged forth as indispensable and legitimate topics for scientific study in psychology. A number of personality theories make some provisions for the self in there systematic formulations. Psycho-analytical theory of Symon (1951) pointed out that consciously evaluations of the self did not necessarily agree with unconscious self-evaluation. A person might have one conception of himself and unconsciously he might have a contrary opinion. There should be a considerable interaction between the self and the ego.
If ego processes were effective in coping with inner demands and outer reality then the person tended to think well of himself. By and large though the effectiveness of the ego must first be demonstrated before the person can feel self-system and self-confidence. Behavior is not the product of the self rather it is the product of complex of psychological processes aroused by proximal and distal stimuli of which the person is largely unaware (Hillgard, 1949). Due to this conscious self picture can be distorted by unconscious factors. The self guards person form anxiety, it is held in high esteem and is protected from criticism. The more experiences the person has with anxiety, it is held esteem and is protected from criticism. The more experiences the person has with anxiety, the more inflated his self-system becomes and the more it become disassociated from the rest of the personality (Sullivan, 1953). He further stated that although the self system serves the useful purpose of reducing anxiety it interferes with one’s ability to live constructive with other. Rogers (1951) also found that the existence of a large gap between the perceived self and the self is generally an unhealthy state of affairs Katz & Zigler (1967) found that the disparity between “the real self” and “ideal self” tends to increase between the ages of 11 & 17 with more intelligence children showing greater disparity than less intelligent ones. As individuals become more mature and more aware of their potentialities they develop higher and higher expectations of themselves. With the collaboration of Achenback, Zigler (1963) found that high self-image disparity would invariably appear to a company the attainment of higher levels of development since the greater cognitive differentiation found as level must invariably lead to a greater capacity for self-recognition guilt and anxiety. Black & Thomas (1950), Hilson & Worchal (1957) and Attroche, Parsons & Dickoff (1960) also found the similar results. But the
findings of Byrne (1966) indicated contradictory results he found
heart competent individuals at a particular level may have the
greatest discrepancy between self-concept and ideal self-concept.

The self ideal discrepancy has been used in research
endeavors as a criterion for psychological health and personality
change although its theme which was derived from Rogers’s
theory as an instance of incongruences is not used in the same
serve as it was meant to Rogers. For Rogers (1951) incongruence
was the incompatibility between “experience” and “self”. Since no
good technique to measure the experience has been found till
today, the enthusiastic investigators have gone for measuring the
congruence or incongruence between self and ideal self instead of
“self” and “experience”. Studies have also been conducted to find
the relationship of self ideal discrepancy with more general
measures of adjustment. For instance Hanlon Hokattter &
O’Connes (1954) obtained from 78 subjects the responses for
California test of Personality and self ideal discrepancy’s source
were correlated with the various sub scale of CTP. All the
correlations except one were found significantly high. Scherer
(1974) found inverse relationship between self-ideal discrepancy
and emotional stability and leadership. In another study Witte
&Witte (1974) found that the differences between “real” and
“ideal” self were largest for the highest social level. Puhan (1976)
concluded from his study that the person with greater insecurity
feeling manifested more self-dissatisfaction which was infested by
more self-ideal discrepancy.

Self is not innate, it is a popular of symbolic integration
with others and that individual can perceive himself only as a
reflection of the eyes of others. Self can arise only in a social setting
where there is social communication (Mead, 1934). Individuals self
conceptions are heavily influenced by their social demarcation and
group membership (Kuhn & McPartland, 1954). In the similar line Rosenberg (1965) found the upper class youth are likely to have a greater self-esteem as compared with the lower class, but the findings of Cercirelli (1976) is in contradiction.

Miller (1971) studied the influence of parental situations on the individual’s self-concept. He observed that the family served as the primary social unit. The parents within the family structure act as socializing agents in providing goal and values from which the child develops various patterns elicit reactions in the form which the child develops various patterns providing the basis for interaction with other. In turn these behavior patterns elicit reactions in the form of verbal and non-verbal responses. Those responses served as indicators to the child of who is and how others feel about him. The more positive responses provide input for a favorable concept of self and result in self-actualization. The impact of language, culture and ethnicity in formation of self-concept and the development of cognitive and loping skills was studied by Sotomayor (1977). Language is closely related to individual’s sense of identity as it imposes meaning on reality. A sense of belonging which is necessary for development of self-concept, is negatively affected if the group’s language, cultural patterns and ethnic experience are not supported. This is also supported by the findings of Coleman (1980) who found low esteem in case of social minorities (ethnically, sexually or ecumenically).

Attempts have also been made to study the effect of success and failure on self-concept. In this connection Wtlie (1961) had conducted and experimental research the results provide evidence to show that success leads to increase the self-esteem and failure to lower the same although less frequently. The response of high and low self-esteem subject to success and failure in a group situation
under the conditions of high and low perceived group expectations for success and failure was investigated by Scottland & others (1957). Their results indicated that high self-esteem subjects expressed more concern about group expectations than lows and that they had succeed while low self-esteem subjects showed more concern with group expectations that the high and they were failed. Fry (1976) found that subjects who experienced success made significantly greater gains in positive self-assessment and subjects with failure experiences made greater gains in negative self-assessment. The findings of Coleman (1980) supported the results as he found poor self-concept and low self-esteem often result from excessive failure and punishment.

The impact of sex behavior on self-esteem has been investigated by numerous researcher. Recent changes in common societal beliefs and practices have revised questions about cultural patterns of feminity and their significance for women’s self-esteem.

Previous researches however have focused on examining the impact of sex idle behaviors on self-concept using theories that have been derived from a male oriented developmental theory literature (Peternon Crockett & Tobin Richards, 1982; Skaalvik, 1986) found a consistent pattern of lower self-esteem for females than males in focusing on more recent alternative theories of female development. Lindberg (1989) examined how a women’s sense of self is influenced by and connected with her gender and the soico-psycho logical context within society. Data was gathered form 77 women using with quantitative measured on female identity and self-esteem. Content theme analysis was utilized for the qualitative data while a correlation matrix with follow up t-test were employed for the quantitative data obtained results indicated that feminist women scores were not significantly different from
non-feminist women’s scores. On the self-esteem measure when analyzed by using quantitative instruments. However, the qualitative data revealed more complex information regarding the relationship between female identity and self-esteem.

In other study Stake (1992) found that men have tended to rate they higher on self-concept measures of giftedness power and invulnerabilities and women have rated themselves higher on self-concept measures of liberality and morality.

Self-concept is dynamic since it arises out of the complex of the persons interpersonal relations changes in it can occur at any time during life but especially they occur at the beginning of each developmental phase. The effect of intervention on self-concept was studied by some researcher of whom one of the renowned study was conducted by Brown & Kingsley (1975) while the determining the effect of individual contracting and guided group interaction upon thirty behavior disordered youth’s self-concept. They found that individual ideal self-perception changed following the intervention. While there was no significant change in their real self score with the result and ideal self-perceptions were closer after intervention than before. Intervention program had promoted a more realistic and mature self. Recently effect of an invention on female adolescent’s self-esteem was explored by Orgell (1922) self-esteem was measured before (baseline), after (post intervention) and five weeks after (follow up) the intervention. Data analysis revealed that there was partial quantitative evidence of an increase in self-esteem for group participants form baseline to post intervention relative to control subjects. On the performances measure, there was no significant difference between conditions.

A very few researches paid their attention on the measurement of dimensions of self-concept. Lynche, Norem
Hebeison and Gargen (1981) have quoted William Fit’s suggestion that attention should be shifted from global measures of the self-concept to configurations of responses across self-concept’s dimensions. Such configurationally pattern should be more sensitive to environmental effects. Recently Forman (1988) investigated the developmental pattern of self-concept in five areas such as intellectual social (including sex role identity), physical sexual, moral and spiritual of being raised and educated Roman Catholic adolescents. His findings indicated that all five areas of self-concept found influenced by being raised and educated Roman Catholic (consistent with Mead’s theory, 1934). A comparative study was conducted by Beatty (1992) to find the difference between visually impaired and non-impaired on self-concept global and its five dimensions. The findings clearly state that visually impaired. Total positive scores were significantly lower than those of non-impaired. Five sub scale scores viz. physical self, personal self and ideal self scores do not differ significantly. However visually impairer’s scores lower on moral/ethical self and family self sub scabs.

During the same year another study was conducted by Hawkin (1992). After selecting 45 students of sub-urban southern California High School as a sample two gaps were formed out i.e. control group and treatment group. Both the groups were given pre and post -test packet consisting of the Tennesse self-concept scale, dimensions of self-concept survey, personal data questionnaire and post treatment questionnaire. The findings indicated that the training experience helped the subjects make improvement in level of aspiration, academic interest and satisfaction and general self-concept. Control group subjects tended to more in a negative direction in terms of academic and
social self-concept. In one variable i.e. level of aspiration control group subjects showed a statistically decrease at 0.05 level.

Several correlation studies have been conducted in abroad related to self-concept of people of different countries to fine the impact of culture on self. In an attempt to study the effect of race and culture on the formation on self-concept. Zeller, Lang, Romana & Reddy (1968) found significantly difference American and Indian students. Self-concept of Vietnamese and American children was studied by Leichty (1963). Leichty concluded that different cultural values governed their respective self-concepts. Those findings are supported by McDonald & Cynther (1965) in relation of self-concept of Whites & Negros.

Another intercultural study of self-image of teenagers of Finland, United States and Germany in the age group of 12-19 years, was recently conducted by Er. Kolathi and others (1991). They found more similarities among three groups than differences. The biggest difference emerged in emotional tone and mood where finish, scores had the highest scores, vocational and educational goals and repairer adjustment skills were high among scores form the West Germany using Tennessee self-concept scale with interethnic sample of 35 subjects having one parent of Asian Indian descent and interethnic sample of 30 subjects having both parents of Asian Indian descent. Grover (1989) found that interethnic offspring had higher scores on the self-concept identity and psychological adjustment scales of the TSCs than did the interethnic subjects. The majority of the interethnic subjects choose a dual ethnic identity with which to identity with which to identity and reported. They were satisfied in having dual ethnic backgrounds.
Studies in India

Self as the nucleus of human personality comes into picture not only with regard to motivational activity but also acts as a regulating factor in perceiving learning remembering, judging planning decision making and risk taking. The level of performance a given task is not only determined by the difficulty or case of the problem, but also by the image one has built for on self in general. Due to this great importance of self in human personality Indian researchers began to pay their attention since 1960’s. Deo & Khan (1969) studied the self-concept of gifted and average boys and girls. In a comparison with average boys and girls three significant results were obtained-

[1] In comparison to average girls gifted girls have a low positive self-concept and high negative self-concept.

[2] Gifted girls are less accepting than average girls.

[3] Scores of gifted boys on self-concept are much higher than the average boys.

Self-concept of disciplined and undisciplined students of Punjab University was studied by Mrs. Deo (1967). It was found that disciplined students revealed a distantly different picture of their self-concept indicating a more stable personality as compared to the undisciplined students who have a picture of maladjusted through high emotion and low estimate of character. Using Edward Personal Preference Schedule & Mohan’s self-concept Inventory, Kshetpal & Gupta (1986) studied need patterns and self-concept. They found significant effect of hostel and day scholars of IX to XII classes with age range 14-17 years. They found significant effect of hostel’s environment on self-concept as hostlers scored significantly different on order of dominance. Male and female’s differed on achievement order, autonomy, affiliation,
dominance, heterosexuality and aggression. However self-concept was not found to differ between hostlers and non-hostlers and between males and females.

Developmental pattern of self-concept at different age levels was studied by a lot of researchers Kale (1982) investigated the developmental pattern at pre-adolescent age. His major findings indicated that the self-concept did not remain static but is showed gradually development up-to the end of his pre-adolescence period. Boys and girls did not differ and significantly developmental pattern. Parent patient and parent child relationship were found significantly associated with self-concept. Teacher’s student and peer relations were also found important in the development of self-concept. During the same year the development of self-concept during adolescence was studied by Jogawar (1982). His findings showed that the perceived self was higher at the age of 14 and lowest at the age of 18. From 18 onwards it rises up to 20 years of age. An opposite trend was seen in the development of perceived self of all of the two sexes which can be attributed to the differential treatment given to the two sexes in Indian families. The difference between the means of two age groups i.e. 14 to 18 years and 18 to 20 years was found statistically different.

Masculinity, feminity to self-esteem and adjustment was studied by Sanada & Thomas (1984) using the Kerela Masculinity and feminity scale, self-esteem inventory and Kerela personality scale on a sample of 312 secondary girls and boys. They found significantly sex difference was found between masculinity and feminity and self-esteem. Personal adjustment and social adjustment in case of female subjects while self-esteem, personal and social adjustment were positively and significantly related to the masculinity of the male subjects.
Environmental effect of family discipline on self-concept of adolescent students was investigated by Singh & others (1986). They found significant effect of family discipline on the development pattern of self-concept. Self-concept of normal disciplined is more positive in comparison to harsh disciplined group likewise self-confidence, worthiness, socialiability and emotional stability were found more positive in normal disciplined group as compared to the harsh disciplined group. These findings confirm the Theory of Mead (1934) who firmly states that self-concept developed in social communication. In context to the influence of family on self-concept evidence report that parents play a central role in influencing and developing the self-perceptions of the growing child (Bhatt, 1971).

Discrepancy between self and self-ideal shows a degree of maladjustment and disorganization of personality. This was also verified in Indian context by few researchers such as Walla (1973) found higher discrepancy between the self and self-ideal in gifted female in comparison to gifted males and average females. Hari Gopal (1979) in an extensive study on personality profiles of self-ideal discrepancy subjects found the inconsistent scores having an inadequate control over their emotions being easily affected by feelings, low in character strength, low in self-control, impatient, lacking of self-insight, socially clumsy and restless in their behavior. They frustrated and discouraged finding life dissatisfying in their failure to meet their demands and aspirations. On the other hand consistent individuals are commonly mature, stable, high on willpower, moralistic, moderately high in energy, sociable, relaxed low in neurotism being well adjusted.

Attraction behavior of young female in relation to their perceived attractiveness and self-concept characteristic was
studied by Suman (1990) with a sample of 72 female students of St. Belle’s college, Shimla. The findings of the study were as follow:

[1] There was a positive and significant relationship between self perceived physical attractiveness and self-concept.

[2] There was also positively significant relationship between self perceived, physical attractiveness and present physical attractiveness of dating partner.

[3] Multiple correlation also identified the self perceived attractiveness as predictor of attraction behavior and perception of partner’s physical attractiveness.

[4] An additional 2*2 ANOVA did not reveal any significant effect on measures of attraction.

The importance of social disability is investigated by Pervin & Lily (1967) on a sample of 100 males and females post graduates. They found that high social desirability scores are significantly related to high self-judgment and low self ideal discrepancy on evaluative dimensions, but not too much on potency and activity of S.D. scale. The highest correlation of social desirability to low social discrepancy was for high certainty and high importance ratings. Mujherjee & Jo (1974) results determined a non-significant correlations between social desirability and self-ideal disparity. This finding was supported by Mukherjee and Sinha (1971).

Most of intercultural studies on self-concept are conducted abroad. A very few researches conducted in India. Kaun & Shamim (1990) investigated the impact of age, sex and cultural differences on the self-concept of 13-19 years old adolescents form India and 300 mates from Bangladesh. Hindi and Bengali versions of self-esteem inventory were administered to the respective groups. Sex and cultural differences appeared to have profound effects on the personality, perceived self and socially perceived
self, chronological age did not appear to have any impact on either form of perceived self.

**Studies related to Level of Aspiration**

In a concepitive society like ours goal directed behavior and the factor which determine it are of great importance. In choosing life goals and while doing daily activities people widely differ in their expectations and aspirations. On aspire to become an engineer, another a profit and still another a salesman but their aspirations may be high or low. Now a days many people are unhappy in life because being unaware of their low intelligence and ability, aspire for high things and experience serve frustration. To find the difference between idealistic and realistic aspiration knowledge of level of aspiration is needed.

As a concept of psychological level of aspiration was not very much recognized until 1935, when the construct was transplanted into English as level of aspiration by Hoppe & Dembo in course of an experimental investigation? Experiments in this area were conducted only after Hoppe (1930), Dembo (1931) and Trank (1935). Many other psychologists have done considerable amount of experimental work on goal directed behavior and different factors related to it.

**Studies Abroad:**

Hoppe (1930) was the first psychologist who made out the first experimental analysis of the situation involving inspirational level. He conceived level of aspiration as a technique for studying dynamitic psychological factors which operate in the production of feeling of success and failure. His experiments’ conclusions were based upon the subject’s spontaneous remark under various success and failure situations. He viewed that feeling of success
and failure word be aroused by discrepancies between aspirations and subsequent performance. He also marked that individual differences in level of aspiration in various experimental studies may be due to important personality difference.

In a comparative society the extra ordinary awareness of completion may compel some to do better under conditions which were competitive only by virtue of their attitudes reveal the strength of cultural factors clearly. When it has been found out that level of aspiration is influenced consistently by the subject position in his own group, may have similar effects on the goal striking behavior. The level of aspiration may be extended upward or downward with knowledge about other groups. Chapman Volkman & Festinger’s (1942) study on adults and Anderson & Brandit’s study on children demonstrate the influence of the reference groups upon the size of goal discrepancy score. Gould & Lewis (1940) and Festinger (1942) followed this experiment with others which show evidence of the influence of the group standard of different degree of prestige on level of aspiration changed significantly from the first to the second session in the direction of confirming it. In a situation of competition level of aspiration may be increased (Frank, 1935).

The effect of socio-economic status on level of aspiration was also studied by researchers. Goal discrepancy scores according to Gould (1941), Stubbins (1950), Stefflee (1955), Reisman (1962), Simpson (1962) are related the socio-economic background of the subjects. Those who give low goal discrepancy are in a better socio-economic status than those who give predominantly high positive score. According to the findings of a study made by Hodgkines (1965) socio-economic status was found to relate to aspiration irrespective of community of origin. The findings of a study on social class and aspiration of Wisconsin
boys by Shah (1966) offers conclusion that lower class boys with equal ability. This goes against Gould’s view who holds that subjects having lower socio-economic status have higher aspiration score because of their sense of insecurity. The more realistic goal setting of children from the higher socio-economic level is probably the result of the greater feeling of security and more adequate self-concepts of this higher as compared with the lower class children.

In recent years there have been a lot of experiment to demonstrate how habitual success and failure operates as determinant of level of aspiration Juck Nat (1937) divided 500 subjects in 3 groups of good students sent an initial level of aspiration rather high in the scale between 7-10 in a scale of 1-10 and the poor students tended to set their aspiration either high or low between 7-10 on other. Sear’s study supported the finding of Juck Nat. She found that success group had very low positive score contrary to the failure group who were high erratic i.e. some set goals very continuously below what they had actually accomplished indicating lack of faith in themselves. Others with records of past failure set optimistic goals so far beyond their actual accomplishment that there was little hope of reaching them. Along with past success ego involvement in the task is urgently required for setting realistic level of aspiration. Studies by Rotter (1942), Himmelweit (1947), and Byers (1962) indicate that failure experiences in the classes associated with high negative or high positive goal discrepancy score while the success group show low positive goal discrepancy scores.

Rotter (1995) found persons of high negative goal discrepancy have characteristic to avoid failure at any cost while persons of low negative and low positive goal discrepancy use an unrealistic solution of frustration which is an alternative of
handling of avoiding failure. In another study Lassel & Vanvoist (1954) found that scores with a minus sigh (negative goal discrepancy) are presumed by to indicate fear personality pattern characterized by emotional and introjective responses while those with positive goal discrepancy are presumed to indicate non-fear personality pattern characterized by extra punitive. Level of aspiration increases with age Anderson (1956) and Krugman (1959) do not show very significant effect of age on level of aspiration. Sex differences have been reported in goal setting behavior by Fran (1935), Walter & Mazrot (1954) and Brunee & Rotter (1952). In almost all these studies males showed significantly higher goal discrepancy scores than females. Muthaya (1968) however observed boys having lower mean group discrepancy scores than girls. While Headstream revealed that boys and girls are alike in the matter of shifting level of aspiration.

To study the relationship of level of aspiration with different personality variables, Matric (1956) conducted a study and found no relationship between self ideal discrepancy and level of aspiration. In another study Steiner (1957) compared the stability of self-concept to level of aspiration and found no relation between the two. While supporting these findings Wylie (1961) comments that it is difficult to assume that any or all respect of self-regard would correlate with level of aspiration behavior on restricted laboratory task.

In another study conducted by Caplin (1968) on a sample of 180 intermediate grade adolescents of segregated and desegregated schools for Negros and Whites, it was found that the school related self-concept and level of aspiration of adolescents Negro and White attending the segregated school were significantly lower than those of children attending the desegregated schools. It was also found that children having more
positive self-concepts and higher level of aspirations had higher academic achievement.

Sharon (1987) examined and illuminated observations of how Black children feel about themselves in relation to self-esteem radical self-evaluation and level of aspiration. He found that the subjects had high self-esteem and high regard for the competence of members of their race. However self-esteem did not significantly relate to perceived social status. The level of aspiration task presented in conclusive results probably due to a suggested failure experience during the talk. The subjects studied responded typically to the experience of failure.

Ahmed, Aqueel (2011) in his M.Phill dissertation found that the two groups of students i.e. physically challenged and normal secondary school students have been found to be significantly different on real self dimension of self-concept inventory. The mean differences favors the normal group of secondary school students, which clearly indicates that normal group of secondary school students, have a high real self-concept as compared to physically challenged secondary school students. The findings of the study of Dinçyürek, Sibel etal. (2011) emphasize the importance of computer use by orthopedically impaired individuals for enhanced improvement of their condition. In addition, the findings stress the need for training well-educated experts who can use technology effectively to enable adaptations for individuals who need special education in the European Union. Jena (2012) in his study found that School setting and educational level do not have significant effect on orthopedically handicapped adolescents perceived control, self-esteem and academic performance. However, integrated school students showed higher perceived control, self-esteem and academic
performance than their counterparts in non-integrated school setting.

Results of Adsul (2011) revealed that there is no significant difference between high & low achievers on self-concepts namely-physical, social, emotional, moral and educational self-concepts. But it is found that there is significant difference in high & low achievers on intellectual self-concept. Ahmad etal. (2012) found in their study that the normal secondary school students have high real self, level of aspiration and academic achievement as compared to physically challenged students. On the other hand, physically challenged students were found to have high ideal self as compared to normal students.

Rajkonwar etal. (2014) in their study reported that the adjustment of visually handicapped boys and girls was found similar on overall adjustment. It also revealed that there existed no relationship between (a) adjustment and level of educational aspirations; (b) adjustment and self-concept and (c) adjustment and academic achievement of visually handicapped children.

Finding of the study of Chetri, Sita (2014) revealed non-significant difference in achievement motivation with regard to gender and locale variation but significant differences in relation to management variation. Another finding of the study was the significant difference in the academic achievement of the students with regard to locale and management variation. The relationship between achievement motivation and academic achievement also yielded a significant relationship at 0.05 level and 0.01 level.

Chetri, Sita (2014) findings of the study was that non-significant difference was observed in the self-concept of the student in gender, locale and management variation. The second finding was in respect of non-significant difference in achievement motivation with regard to gender and locale
variation. Another finding of the study was the significant
difference in the academic achievement of the students with
regard to locale and management variation. The study revealed
significant relationship between the two variables of self-concept,
achievement motivation and academic achievement.
CHAPTER III
Procedure and Interpretation of Data

Population & Sample

The decision about population is vital for any research work. The data obtained in any investigation represents a sample drawn from the total group that in statistical term in called the population or the universe. A population may be very broad or it may be narrowed down to any degree desired. The first requirement in undertaking study involving the derivation of facts and principals applicable to whole population is the selection of a representative sample of that population. There are two principal sampling methods- random and stratified. In this study random cluster sampling technique is used. This method is one whereby each member of the population under consideration has the same chance of being selected for study as any other. It should be emphasized that when data are derived from a group without careful sampling procedures. The researcher should carefully state that his findings are applicable to the group studied and may not apply to describe other individual or groups.

In the present study the inference will apply to Upper primary students of class VII and VIII both general and special need children of Moradabad Commissionary. The sample subjects used in this study are related to rural and urban background and are from varied socio-economic and religious strata. The principals as well as teachers of the selected institutions were approached one by one, the objectives of the study were explained to them and
request was made for their co-operation. To measure the variables of the study selected tools were administered on the subjects.

The selected sample consisted of special need and general students of both urban and rural background. The subject’s age ranged from 12 to 15 years. The names of educational institutions whose subjects represent the sample are given in appendix. Details of sample selected are given below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Types</th>
<th>Frequency (N)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Girls</td>
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<td></td>
<td>14 years</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>General</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Special Needs</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Picture showing gender wise sample selected for the study
Variables used in the study

Present study deals with three variables. The names of the variable are given below-

- Self-concept
- Level of aspiration
- Achievement motivation
Instruments Used

[1] Self-concept questionnaire- In the present study self-concept was measured with self-concept questionnaire by R. K. Saraswat (1984). This self-concept questionnaire consisted of 48 items covering six different areas as- physical, social, temperamental, educational, moral and intellectual. Eight items were used to measure self-concept in each of six areas which comprise an individual’s self-concept. Students responded using a 1 to 5 graphic rating scale. Responses then were summed across each of the six dimensions. Dimension scores could range from 8 to 40, with high scores indication a high self-concept.

The scoring of this test is very simple. Responses are arranged in such a way that the scoring for all the items will remain the same i.e. 5, 4,3,2,1. Whether the items are positive or negative. For first alternative the score is 5, for second alternative the score is 4, for third alternative the score is 3, for fourth it is 2 and fifth and last alternative the score is one. The summated score of all forty eight items provide the total self-concept score of an individual. There is a score table on the front page of the test booklet in which item number is given. Administrator has to write the obtained score against that item by adding all the scores of eight items given in that column the sum for that particular dimension of self-concept is found.

Reliability of this test is found by the test-retest method and it was found to be 0.91 for the total self-concept measure. Reliability co-efficient of its six dimensions are given in the table below-
Expert’s opinion were obtained to establish the validity of the test. 100 items were given to 25 psychologists to classify the items to category to which it belongs. Items of higher agreement and not less than 80% of agreement were selected. In this way content and construct validity was established.

The self-concept questionnaire is standardized on 1000 students ranging from 14 to 18 years of both the sexes of 20 higher secondary schools of Delhi pertaining to Delhi Administration and Central schools.

[2] Level of Aspiration Scale- In 1987 Shah & Bhargava have developed a paper pencil performance test to measure level of aspiration. This test has 11 sheets. Each sheet has 50 circles (each of 1 cm in diameter). There circles are arranged in five rows ten circles in each row. Above and below of these rows there are two boxes on the right side. The left box is for writing the number of expected score whereas lower box is for putting the number of actual score or completed performance. Ten trails are needed for each subject except practice trail. The testees requires one stopwatch for the test. As for each trail 30 seconds are allotted for work. At the end of this time subject will be asked to stop the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code No.</th>
<th>Self-concept dimensions</th>
<th>No. of Items</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Physical</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Social</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Temperamental</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Educational</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Moral</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Intellectual</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total Self-concept</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
marking and count the completed faces and enter it in lower box. Approximately 20 minutes are required to administer the test.

Administration of this test is not very simple. Experiments has to instruct every subject individually. Instructions are also mentioned on the first page of the booklet. In this test subject have to draw four lines in each circle so that they may appear like a human face. Subjects have to draw lines in this sequence right eye, left eye, nose and mouth. Subject are asked to work from left to right across the rows and then proceed to next line.

The procedure of scoring is simple. It provides three types of scores as Goal Discrepancy Score (GDS), Attainment Discrepancy Score (ADS) and the Number of times the Goal Reach Scores (NTRS). The practice trail is ignored in the scoring. Goal Discrepancy score is obtained by subtracting the actual score on a trail form the aspiration score for the next trail this score is the gap between aspiration for the next trail and the immediate performance as previous trail. Attainment Discrepancy score is obtained by subtracting the expected score from actual score on same trail. Number of times the goal reach score is obtained by the number of times where subject’s actual score is equal or more than the expected score.

The reliability of this test is calculated by the test-retest method and the spilt half method. The coefficient of correlation on three types of scores by adopting two methods as given in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>GDS</th>
<th>ADS</th>
<th>NTR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Retest Method</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With a gap of 1 month</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With a gap of 3 month</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Split half method</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
[3] *Sentence Completion Test*- To measure achievement motivation sentence completion test, a forced choice inventory developed by Mukherjee. This test consists 50 items. There are three alternatives in an item. Alternate to student to make reply there are 50 items in the sentence completion test and each item carry out three alternative in which total three items are correct but which one you like most make a circle and other one you like rare may be cross and leave the third one. The test has been widely used in India and has high reliability and validity.

**Statistical techniques used:**

In this study Mean, Median, Mode, Standard deviation and t-test were used for derivation a meaningful results.
CHAPTER IV
Results and Discussion

The sample of the present study comprised of General and Special need children. The data collection started with the administration of self-concept questionnaire, measure of level of aspiration and sentence completion test for achievement motivation the sample of final investigation consisted of 162 subjects for whom the complete data on all variables under study were available. As already stated, the present sample was drawn from Moradabad Commissionay. The subjects under study came from varied socio-economic status and religion studying in classes VII and VIII. The mean age of the subjects was 13 years and 06 months.

The primary interest of the present study centered around the comparison of self-concept, level of aspiration and achievement motivation of general and special need students. Differences between general students and special need students on self-concept, level of aspiration and achievement motivation were studied.

Comparison of Special need children with General children on Self-concept

Table 1 showing the relationship of self-concept of Special needs and General students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Special need children</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>182.88</td>
<td>18.159</td>
<td>2.344</td>
<td>+0.504</td>
<td>Not</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To test Hypothesis 1 that there is no significant difference between children with special needs and general children in relation to their self-concept, level of aspiration and achievement motivation. To compare special need children with general children on self-concept questionnaire, the means and standard deviations of special need children and general children were calculated on questionnaire were calculated. Since the self is not a thing, it is a complex process of continuing interpretive activity simultaneously the person’s located subjective stream of consciousness (both reflexive and non- reflexive including perceiving thinking, planning, evaluating, choosing etc.) and the resultant accruing structure of self-conception. Since the self-concept is an important dimension for special need children the questionnaire was administered in classroom where special need children were in majority. The means of special need children and general children shows 182.88 (18.159) and 184.30 (15.778) respectively. The mean
value shows higher self-concept in case of general students but the “t” value is non-significant. On the basis of mean values and “t” ratio it could be concluded that there is no marked difference in the self-concept of general students and special need students and the hypothesis 1 that there is no significant difference between children with special needs and general children in relation to their self-concept is accepted. The result is in tune with the findings of previous researches. Beaty (1992) found that the visually impaired and non-impaired do no differ significantly on physical personal and social self score. Gray Dean James (1950), Thomas (1970) and Haland (1959) in their three different studies found no significant relationship between self-concept of high and low achievers.

**Comparison of Special need children with General children on level of aspiration**

Table 2 showing the relationship of level of aspiration of Special needs and General students in total

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Special need children</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>19.40</td>
<td>13.700</td>
<td>1.769</td>
<td>+2.143</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General children</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>24.18</td>
<td>13.699</td>
<td>1.356</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The operational definition of level of aspiration as used in this study as level of future performance in a familiar task which an individual knowing his level of past performance in that task explicitly undertakes to reach (Frank, 1935). In measuring level of aspiration there types of scores were obtained namely Goal Discrepancy Score (GDS), Attainment Discrepancy Scores (ADS) and number of times the Goal reach score (NTRS).

In order to test the hypothesis 2 that there is no significant difference between children with special needs and general children in relation to their level of aspiration, the means and standard deviations of special need children and general children were calculated on Goal discrepancy scores, attainment discrepancy score and number of times the goal reach scores and total level of aspiration as given in the tables.

Table 3 showing the comparison of special needs children with general children on Goal discrepancy scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Special need children</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>17.30</td>
<td>25.566</td>
<td>3.301</td>
<td>+1.645</td>
<td>Not</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4 showing the comparison of special needs children with general children on Attainment discrepancy scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Special need children</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>-4.25</td>
<td>26.11</td>
<td>3.384</td>
<td>+2.565</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General children</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>6.29</td>
<td>25.560</td>
<td>2.531</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Picture 4 showing the comparison of special needs children with general children on Attainment discrepancy scores
Table 5 showing the comparison of special needs children with general children on Times subject reach scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Special need children</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>6.35</td>
<td>2.961</td>
<td>0.376</td>
<td>+1.263</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General children</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>6.93</td>
<td>2.675</td>
<td>0.265</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Picture 5 showing the comparison of special needs children with general children on Times subject reach scores

The means for special need and general children on GDS, ADS, NTRS and total level of aspiration shows higher values for all the dimensions for general students except GDS as depicted in tables but the “t” value is non-significant. Hence on the basis of means values and “t” ratio it could be concluded that there is no marked difference between children with special needs and general children in their level of aspiration and the hypothesis 2 that there is no significant differences between children with special needs and general children in relation to their level of aspiration is accepted. The result is not in tune with the findings of previous researches. Abha Mathur in her comparative study of adjustment problems, level of aspiration, self-concept and academic achievement or crippled and normal children in 1985 found that crippled people and normal children showed significant
differences in the level of aspiration measured in terms of goal discrepancy score.

**Comparison of Special need children with General children on Achievement motivation**

Achievement motivation is operationally defined as the need for achievement as wish to do well. It refers to the behavior of an individual who strives to accomplish something to do his best, to excel others in performance. It refer to the motive to achieve some standard of accomplishment or proficiency. Since achievement motivation is an important dimension for special need children the sentence completion test was administered in classroom where special needs children were in majority.

*Table 6 showing the comparison of special needs children with general children on achievement motivation*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Special need children</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>17.47</td>
<td>3.572</td>
<td>0.461</td>
<td>+1.563</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General children</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>18.43</td>
<td>4.145</td>
<td>0.410</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Picture 6 showing the comparison of special needs children with general children on achievement motivation

The means for special need children and general children shows 17.470 (3.572) and 18.43 (14.145) respectively in table. The mean values shows higher achievement motivation in case of general children but the “t” value does not reach up-to significance level. On the basis of mean values and “t” ratio it could be concluded that there is no marked difference in their achievement motivation and the hypothesis 1 that there is no significant difference between children with special needs children and general children in relation to their achievement motivation is accepted. This is in true with the findings of previous researches. Haward M. Weiner concluded in his study on ‘Effective Inclusion’ found that in inclusive class room both special and general children can achieve academically as well as or better than their counter parts in non-inclusive classes. Michal, Eva, Roebers, Claudia M. in ‘Swiss Journal of Psychology’ Vol 67(4) Dec. 2008 pp-249-259 found no difference with respect ot self-concept and achievement motivation in regular and special need classes.

Comparison of Boys with Special need with General boys on Self-concept

Table 7 showing the comparison of special needs boys with general boys on self-concept

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Special need children</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>188.22</td>
<td>16.218</td>
<td>2.703</td>
<td>+0.778</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General children</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>185.71</td>
<td>15.335</td>
<td>1.771</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To test the hypothesis 2 that there exists a relationship between boys with special needs and general boys in relation to their self-concept, achievement motivation, and level of aspiration. To compare the special need boys and general boys on a self-concept questionnaire. The means and standard deviations were calculated on the questionnaire of self-concept. Self-concept is a central theme around which a large number of major aspects of personality are organized. It is the more or less organized perceptual object resulting from percent and post observation. It is what person believes about himself. It is the cognitive affective map of an individual which helps in understanding himself especially during moments of crises or choices. Since special need boys were in majority. The means for special need boys and general boys show 188.22 and 185.71 respectively in the table. The mean values show a higher self-concept in the case of special need boys but the “t” value is not significant. On the basis of mean value and ‘t’ ratio it could be concluded that there is no marked difference in the self-concept of special need and general boys and the hypothesis 2 that there is no significant difference between boys with special needs and general boys in relation to their self-concept is accepted. The result is in

![Comparison of special needs boys with general boys on self-concept](image_url)
tune with the finding of previous researchers. Raney (1991), Kloomok explored that student with and without learning disabilities maintain a positive global self-concepts. R.K. Asdul (2011) in his article on ‘self-concept’ of high and low achiever adolescents found no significant difference between high and low achievers on self-concept.

**Comparison of Boys with Special need with General boys on level of aspiration in total**

Table 8 showing the comparison of special needs boys with general boys on level of aspiration in total

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Special need children</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>19.86</td>
<td>12.285</td>
<td>2.048</td>
<td>+1.934</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General children</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>24.87</td>
<td>13.719</td>
<td>1.584</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Bar chart showing the comparison of special needs boys with general boys on level of aspiration in total](image)

Picture 8 showing the comparison of special needs boys with general boys on level of aspiration in total
Table 9 showing the comparison of special needs boys with general boys on Goal discrepancy scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Special need children</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>19.42</td>
<td>24.908</td>
<td>4.151</td>
<td>+0.992</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General children</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>14.53</td>
<td>22.905</td>
<td>2.645</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Picture 9 showing the comparison of special needs boys with general boys on Goal discrepancy scores

Table 10 showing the comparison of special needs boys with general boys on Attainment discrepancy scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Special need children</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>-5.81</td>
<td>27.435</td>
<td>4.572</td>
<td>+1.750</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General children</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>25.956</td>
<td>2.997</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 11 showing the comparison of special needs boys with general boys on NTRS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Special need children</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>6.25</td>
<td>2.912</td>
<td>0.485</td>
<td>+0.623</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General children</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>6.61</td>
<td>2.794</td>
<td>0.323</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In measuring the level of aspiration three types of scores were obtained namely (1) Goal discrepancy scores (GDS) is operationally defined as the extent and direction of the differences...
between actual scores on previous trail and goal set up of next trail. The size of discrepancy shows how high or low one sets the goal relative to one’s performance, (2) Attainment discrepancy scores (ADS) is the differences between aspiration and the achievement on same trail. The size of discrepancy shows the extent to which one surpasses or fail to reach the goal, (3) Number of times the Goal Reach Score (NTRS) provides an index of subjects actual probability of reaching his stated goal. The subjects with minimum NTRS showed a very high fear of failure and with minimum NTRS are ready to take risk of failure. The total level of aspiration score is obtained by adding the above three scores.

The means and standard deviations of GDS, ADS, NTRS and Total level of aspiration for special boys show 19.42 (24.908), -5.81 (27.435), 6.25 (2.912) and 19.86 (12.285) respectively while for general boys the values are 14.53 (22.905), 3.76 (25.956), 6.61 (2.794) and 24.87 (13.719) respectively in the table. The mean values shows higher GDS for special boys and higher ADS, NTRS and total level of aspiration for general boys but the ‘t’ value is non-significant. On the basis of mean value of ‘t’ ratio is concluded that those is no marked difference between boys with special need and general boys in relation to their level of aspiration and the hypothesis 2 that there is no significant difference between boys with special needs and general boys in relation to their level of aspiration is accepted. This is not in tune with findings of previous researches. Frulong & Biggart (1999) showed that in contrast to others students the expiration of students in lowest quartile of achievement showed a marked decline between the ages of 13 to 16.
Comparison of Boys with Special need with General boys on achievement motivation

Table 12 showing the comparison of special needs boys with general boys on achievement motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Special need children</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>16.81</td>
<td>3.013</td>
<td>0.502</td>
<td>+1.935</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General children</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>18.12</td>
<td>3.963</td>
<td>0.458</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Picture 12 showing the comparison of special needs boys with general boys on achievement motivation

To test hypothesis 2 that there is no significance difference between boys with special needs and general boys in relation to their achievement motivation on sentence completion test. The means and standard deviations of special and general boys were calculated on the sentence completion test of achievement motivation. There is s universal tendency in a man to strive, to excel and succeed and to win & go ahead of others. This is more likely to be learnt by social customs and education than being inborn. It affects a great man activities of the individuals and helps him in meeting the obstruction which come in the way of
achievement of his goal. Thus achievement motivation is an important dimension for special need boys were in majority. The means for special needs boys and general boys shows 16.81 (3.013) and 18.12 (3.963) respectively in the table. The mean values shows higher achievement motivation in case of general boys but ‘t’ value is non-significant. On the basis of mean value and “t” value it could be concluded that there is no marked difference between special needs and general boys on achievement motivation and hypothesis 2 that there is no significant difference between boys with special needs and general boys in relation to their achievement motivation is accepted. Rea, Patricia, Walther Thopas, Chriss in ‘Experimental Children” Vol. 68(2) pp-203-222 in 2002 investigated and found that in inclusive classrooms 8th graders achieved higher or comparable standardized test score.

Comparison of Girls with Special need with General Girls on Self-concept

Special need children are those who markedly deviate or differ from the societally defined average or normal children in physical, mental, social, educational, emotional are behavioral characteristics to such an extent that they require a modification of traditional classroom teaching or routine class or need the specific teaching methods and programs so that they may develop their abilities, capacities and potentialities to the maximum.

Table 13 showing the comparison of special needs girls with general girls on self-concept

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Special need children</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>174.88</td>
<td>18.279</td>
<td>4.731</td>
<td>+1.126</td>
<td>Not</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Picture 13 showing the comparison of special needs girls with general girls on self-concept

**Comparison of Girls with Special need with General Girls on Level of Aspiration**

Table 14 showing the comparison of special needs girls with general girls on level of aspiration in total

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Special need children</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>18.71</td>
<td>15.843</td>
<td>3.234</td>
<td>+0.851</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General children</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>22.26</td>
<td>13.719</td>
<td>2.640</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Picture 14 showing the comparison of special needs girls with general girls on level of aspiration in total

Table 15 showing the comparison of special needs girls with general girls on GDS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Special need children</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>14.13</td>
<td>26.739</td>
<td>5.458</td>
<td>+2.089</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General children</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>20.751</td>
<td>3.994</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Picture 15 showing the comparison of special needs girls with general girls on GDS
Table 16 showing the comparison of special needs girls with general girls on ADS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Special need children</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>-1.92</td>
<td>24.647</td>
<td>5.031</td>
<td>+2.437</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General children</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>14.44</td>
<td>23.092</td>
<td>4.444</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Picture 16 showing the comparison of special needs girls with general girls on ADS

Table 17 showing the comparison of special needs girls with general girls on NTRS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Special need children</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>6.50</td>
<td>2.978</td>
<td>0.608</td>
<td>+1.798</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General children</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>7.81</td>
<td>2.113</td>
<td>0.407</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In measuring the level of aspiration three types of scores were obtained namely (1) Goal discrepancy scores (GDS) is operationally defined as the extent and direction of the differences between actual scores on previous trail and goal set up of next trail. The size of discrepancy shows how high or low one sets the goal relative to one’s performance, (2) Attainment discrepancy scores (ADS) is the differences between aspiration and the achievement on same trail. The size of discrepancy shows the extent to which one surpasses or fail to reach the goal, (3) Number of times the Goal Reach Score (NTRS) provides an index of subjects actual probability of reaching his stated goal. The subjects with minimum NTRS showed a very high fear of failure and with minimum NTRS are ready to take risk of failure. The total level of aspiration score is obtained by adding the above three scores.

The means and standard deviations of GDS, ADS, NTRS and Total level of aspiration for special girls show 14.13 (26.739), -1.92 (24.667), 6.50 (2.978) and 19.86 (12.285) respectively while for general girls the values are 18.00 (20.751), 14.44 (23.092), 6.61 (2.794) and 7.81 (2.113) respectively in the table. The mean values shows higher GDS for special girls and higher ADS, NTRS and total level of aspiration for general boys but the ‘t’ value is non-
significant. On the basis of mean value of ‘t’ ratio is concluded that those is no marked difference between girls with special need and general girls in relation to their level of aspiration and the hypothesis 3 that there is no significant difference between girls with special needs and general girls in relation to their level of aspiration is accepted.

**Comparison of Girls with Special need with General girls on achievement motivation**

Table 18 showing the comparison of special needs girls with general girls on achievement motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Special need children</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>18.46</td>
<td>4.149</td>
<td>0.847</td>
<td>-0.685</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General children</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>19.30</td>
<td>4.581</td>
<td>0.882</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The means for special needs girls and general girls shows 18.46 (4.149) and 19.30 (4.581) respectively in the table. The mean values shows higher achievement motivation in case of general boys
but ‘t’ value is non-significant. On the basis of mean value and “t” value it could be concluded that there is no marked difference between special needs and general boys on achievement motivation and hypothesis 3 that there is no significant difference between boys with special needs and general boys in relation to their achievement motivation is accepted.

**Comparison of Girls and boys with Special need on self concept**

Table 19 showing the comparison of special needs girls and boys on self-concept

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>188.22</td>
<td>16.218</td>
<td>2.703</td>
<td>2.897</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>174.88</td>
<td>18.279</td>
<td>3.731</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Bar chart showing comparison of boys and girls on self-concept](image)

Picture 19 showing the comparison of special needs girls and boys on self-concept

To test the hypothesis 4 that there exists no significant difference between boys and girls with special needs in relation to their self-concept. To compare them on self-concept questionnaire means and standard deviations were calculated. The mean values for boys and girls with special need show 188.22 (16.2180 and 174.88
(18.279) respectively in the table. The mean values show higher self-concept for special need boys and the ‘t’ value is also significant. On the basis of mean values and ‘t’ ratio it is concluded that there is marked difference between boys and girls with special needs in relation to their self-concept and the hypothesis 4 that there exists no significant difference between boys and girls with special needs in relation to their self-concept is rejected. Charled Michael, Francis Chisikwa and John Ayieko Yalo in their research paper ‘Gender differences in self-concept and academic achievement among visually impaired pupils in Kenya’ found significant gender differences in self-concept among visually impaired pupils in Kenya.

Comparison of Girls and boys with Special need on level of aspiration in total

Table 20 showing the comparison of special needs girls and boys on level of aspiration in total

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>19.86</td>
<td>12.285</td>
<td>2.048</td>
<td>+0.301</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>18.71</td>
<td>15.843</td>
<td>3.234</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Picture 20 showing the comparison of special needs girls and boys on level of aspiration in total

Table 21 showing the comparison of special needs girls and boys on GDS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>19.42</td>
<td>24.908</td>
<td>4.151</td>
<td>+0.772</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>14.13</td>
<td>26.739</td>
<td>5.458</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Picture 21 showing the comparison of special needs girls and boys on GDS
Table 22 showing the comparison of special needs girls and boys on ADS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>-5.81</td>
<td>27.435</td>
<td>4.572</td>
<td>+0.572</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>-1.92</td>
<td>24.647</td>
<td>5.031</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Picture 22 showing the comparison of special needs girls and boys on ADS

Table 23 showing the comparison of special needs girls and boys on NTRS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>6.25</td>
<td>2.912</td>
<td>0.485</td>
<td>+0.321</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>6.50</td>
<td>2.978</td>
<td>0.608</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To test hypothesis 4 that there is no significant difference between boys and girls with special needs in relation to their level of aspiration. To compare them the level of aspiration measure was administered in the classrooms where special children were in majority. Three scores are included in measuring the level of aspiration namely GDS, ADS and NTRS. The means and standard deviations of boys and girls with special needs were calculated on the level of aspiration measures. The mean values of GDS, ADS, NTRS and Total level of aspiration for special needs boys are mentioned in the table. But the ‘t’ value is non-significant. On the basis of mean values ‘t’ ratio it is concluded that there is no marked difference between boys and girls with special needs on level of aspiration is accepted. This result is true in tune with the findings of previous researches as found by Henry N. Ricciuti and Douglas G. Schultz in ‘The relationship between level of aspiration and self-estimate of personality’ found that male and females do not have significant differences in level of aspiration.
Comparison of Girls and boys with Special need on achievement motivation

Table 24 showing the comparison of special needs girls and boys on achievement motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>16.81</td>
<td>3.013</td>
<td>0.502</td>
<td>+1.679</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>18.46</td>
<td>4.149</td>
<td>0.847</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To compare the boys and girls with special needs on the sentence completion test of achievement motivation. The means and standard deviations were calculated on the test. The mean values for boys and girls with special needs show 16.81 (3.013) and 18.46 (4.149) respectively in table above. The mean value show higher achievement motivation in case of special needs girls but the ‘t’ value is non-significant. On the basis of mean values and ‘t’ ratio it is concluded that there is no marked difference between boys and girls with special needs on achievement motivation.
Hence hypothesis 4 is partially rejected on the basis of self-concept difference between boys and girls with special needs and partially accepted as there is no significant difference boys and girls with special needs in relation to their achievement motivation.
CHAPTER V
Conclusions, Implications and Suggestions for Further Study

The purpose of this study was to compare quantitatively significant differences between special need children and general children on selected measures of self-concept, level of aspiration and achievement motivation. The psychometric instruments administered to participants included (1) Self-concept questionnaire (2) Measurement of Level of Aspiration and (3) Sentence completion test for Achievement Motivation.

The population of the study consisted of male and female students studying in upper primary schools. Both male and female students of classed VII and VIII of upper primary schools of Moradabad Commissionary were taken for the purpose of sample. On the basis of gender and category the sample was divided into two groups i.e. special needs students and general students as well as boys and girls.

“t” ratio were calculated to differentiate between special need and general students and also to confirm the previous findings of the studies in addition co-efficient of correlation were also computed.

The following hypotheses were formulated prior to the analysis of the data.

Hi- There is no significant difference between children with special needs and general children in relation to their self-concept, level of aspiration and achievement motivation.
H2- There is no significant difference between boys with special needs and general boys in relation to their self-concept, level of aspiration and achievement motivation

H3- There is no significant difference between girls with special needs and general girls in relation to their self-concept, level of aspiration and achievement motivation

H4- There is no significant difference between boys and girls with special needs in relation to their self-concept, level of aspiration and achievement motivation

The conclusions of the study are presented according to the order of presentation employed in the previous chapter. The following results are drawn on the basis of ‘t’ analysis and coefficient of correlation.

[1] There exists no significant difference between special need and general children in relation to self-concept.
[2] There exists no significant difference between special need and general children in relation to their level of aspiration.
[3] There exists no significant difference between special need and general children in relation to their achievement motivation.
[4] There exists no significant difference between boys with special needs and general boys in relation to their self-concept.
[5] There exists no significant difference between boys with special needs and general boys in relation to their level of aspiration.
[6] There exists no significant difference between boys with special need and general boys in relation to their achievement motivation. 
[7] General children showed higher mean values on self-concept in comparison to special need children. 
[8] Boys with special needs showed higher mean values on goal discrepancy score in comparison to general boys. 
[9] There exists no significant difference between girls with special needs and general girls in relation to their self-concept but the general girls showed higher mean value on self-concept in comparison to girls with special needs. 
[10] There exists no significant difference between girls with special needs and general girls in relation to their level of aspiration and the girls with special needs showed higher mean values on goal discrepancy score in comparison to general girls. 
[11] There exists no significant difference between girls with special needs and general girls in relation to their achievement motivation. 
[12] There exists no significant difference between boys and girls with special needs in relation to their level of aspiration. 
[13] There exists no significant difference between boy and girls with special needs in relation to their achievement motivation. 
[14] There is significant difference between boys and girls with special needs in relation to their self-concept. 
[15] General boys showed higher mean values on self-concept in comparison to general girls
Implication of the study

Education can do much to help the individual to achieve his fullest self-realization, whatever his level of native capacity. It can provide for what Parnes (1963) calls creative calisthenics to counter act the atrophying of talents. It can help to develop those cognitive modes which are ‘Ultimate human assets’ (Toynbee, 1964) and help person to become self-actualized (Maslow, 1954). It can help to provide what Rogers (1962) calls the ‘Psychological safety’ and ‘Psychological freedom’ necessary to the creative individual. It, perhaps, means complete freedom for non-conformity of thought, even if not for non-conformity of behavior. Only concentrating on scholastic achievement we are not developing full human being through education. Educational philosophy as Guilford (1905) maintains should not disparage learning for the sake of remembering large quantities of information.

Education should concern more with fashioning of creative genius that with what Murray calls ‘Paralysis of Imagination’. This can happen only when in our teaching-learning process, we keep in mind the multi-dimensional view of intellectual functioning what seems called for us is to bring into academic education a wide range of practitioner activities and a greater emphasis on student initiative and freedom so that students achievement motivation might be improved.

In the field of education, we talk a lot about personality of the students. One of the educational aim is the development of personality. Why should education strive to develop specific personality traits among students when these have no noteworthy impact on their level of success with which students are more concerned? So no more serious efforts are needed in this direction.
Secondly in democracy, we believe in equality of opportunity. The group which is superior will naturally have more opportunities. Now this superiority leads to discriminatory attitude which in not desired in a democracy. From the view point of education should strive for that. It is true that no individuals are alike, even from personality characteristics point of view, but its implications for education may be serious so education should strive to remove these anomalies to prove fit to democratic norms.

It is concluded by the present and other researches that self-concept has its positive impact on the personality of the individual as well as on achievement motivation. To have a neat and homogenous self-concept human relation group’s involvement of students in decision making, relevant curricula, classroom interaction, video techniques etc. should be designed to improve the student’s self-concept. Individual rarely have a neat, homogenous concept of themselves. The inconsistency between self and ideal self might result in maladjustment.

Knowledge of level of aspiration of special needs children would help the educationist to draw a special plan, like guidance programs to uplift the children with special needs. Guidance program would boost up the self-concept of students that would result in good achievement motivation. This element should be included in the remedial teaching of low achievers. Guidance services are provided by educational institutions to help students to solve their problems related with self-concept, class adjustment and personality. It can also help in directing motivation in school learning so as to achieve proper self-appraisal and accelerate learning all along the line. It would help the individual to correct their faulty self-concept and unrealistic level of aspiration. So that development of properly integrated personality may take place. It
is hoped that such a correction may enhance the academic performance of individuals.

The present study might be useful in giving emphasis on the up-liftment of children with special needs in the inclusive classrooms so educationists might be successful in paying their attention to understand problems of this group. To improve their conditions the government should provide more educational amenities to create enriched environment in schools so that the percentage of dropouts might be reduced and they might progress like the normal students.

Teaching students with disabilities in an inclusive classroom may be regarded as a challenge for teacher accustomed to teaching in the regular classroom, therefore teacher should require the basic characteristics of effective teaching. To be a successful teacher in inclusive classroom in not easy, because usually in such cases the teaching is dealing with different abilities. Most of the effective teaching evidence comes from the research done by Westwood (1995) where he found that the effective teacher should be a good classroom manager, focusing on academic skills with good expectation, enthusiasm, using effective strategies to keep students on task and using variety of teaching and resources strategies covering the material content. Also the effective teacher uses easy presentation of material taking into account differences between the students, gives frequent feedback for all students and check for understanding by using probing questions.

It is obvious that the effective school plays on important role in terms of student’s outcome (socially and academically). The most persuasive research suggests that the student’s academic performance is strongly affected by school culture. This culture is composed of values, norms and roles existing within
institutionally distinct structure of governance, communication, educational practices and policies and so on. Successful schools are found to have cultures that produce a climate or ethos conducive to teaching and learning……efforts to change schools have been most productive and most enduring when directed toward influencing the entire school culture via a strategy involving collaborative planning shared decision making and collegial work in an atmosphere friendly to experimentation and evaluation (Purkey & Smith In Owens, 1998).

Including the students with disabilities and having the knowledge of how to treat them are important characteristics of the effective school, and this regard Ainscow indicated that the effective school does effective leadership and staff who are to deal with all students and their needs, is optimistic that all the students need and also effective school reviews its program (teachers, curriculum, student’s progress) frequently making sure there is progress in terms of effective teacher. Successful teachers challenge the student’s abilities by setting good quality tasks, providing students with opportunities to choose their tasks, different learning strategies and providing facilities that contribute to student learning.

It is believed that education children with special needs alongside their non-disabled peers, facilitates access to the general curriculum for children with disabilities. Studies show that the students with special needs in inclusive classroom are more academically effective than exclusion practices. By being included in a regular paced education setting students with special needs have shown to be more confident and display qualities of self-efficacy. Any kind of inclusion practices allow students with special needs to learn social skills through observation, gain a better understanding of the world around them, and become a
part of ‘regular’ community inclusion also benefits other children. It opens the lines of communication between the children with special needs and their peers. If they are included into classroom activities, all students become more sensitive to the fact that those students may need extra assistance. Many people believe that education non-disabled students and students with disabilities together creates an atmosphere of understanding and tolerance that better prepares students of all abilities to function in the world beyond school. Student without disabilities who engaged in an inclusive physical education program reported increase in self-concept, tolerance, self-worth and a better understanding of other people. They reported that the inclusion program was important because it prepared them to deal with disability in their own lives. Thus the study aims to assert that frequent, meaningful and pleasant interaction between people with difference tend to produce changes in attitude.

**Recommendations for the further studies**

Following are some of suggestions which can be undertaken for further study-

1. A study of fixated behavior as a determiner of self-concept.
2. Level of aspiration as a correlate of achievement motivation.
3. A comparative study of self-concept and level of aspiration among boys and girls with special needs.
5. A study of factors responsible for the development of self-concept among children with special needs and general children.


Deo, P. (1967) Self-concept of disciplined and in-disciplined students, Ph.D. Department of Education, Punjab University.


Hamachek D. (1995): Self- concept and school achievement: interaction dynamics and a tool for assessing the self-


