CHAPTER- I
INTRODUCTION

Disability is a part of human diversity and a person's disability is always specific to that person.

A disability may be generally defined as a condition which may restrict a person's mental, sensory, or mobility functions to undertake or perform a task in the same way as a person who does not have a disability. It does not mean that a person with a disability is unable to perform all the important requirements of a task. The only thing that separates a person with a disability is that, for one reason or another, they are unable to do certain things in the same way as the mainstream of society. They may require some form of adaptation or alteration to assist them to overcome the effect of their disability.

The degree of disability may range from mild to moderate, severe, or profound. A person may also have multiple disabilities. Conditions causing disability are classified by the medical community as:

- inherited (genetically transmitted)
- congenital, meaning caused by a mother's infection or other disease during pregnancy, embryonic or fetal developmental irregularities, or by injury during or soon after birth;
- acquired such as conditions caused by illness or injury later in life.

Types of disability:

Usually when people hear the word “disability”, they think of physical disabilities and immediately associate it with someone who is in a wheelchair, but there are different types of disabilities such as:

- Physical disability: includes impairment which limits the physical function of limbs, fine bones, or gross motor ability.
• **Sensory disability**: includes impairment of one of the senses. For example vision and hearing impairment

• **Intellectual disability**: includes a broad range from mental retardation to cognitive deficits

• **Mental health and emotional disabilities**: includes Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), Anxiety Disorder, Depression etc.

• **Developmental disability**: for example Spina Bifida.

• **Non-visible disabilities**: includes several chronic disorders, such as Diabetes, Asthma, Epilepsy.

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities recognizes that disability arises from the combination of impairments and barriers that "hinder full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others". The impairments can include "long-term physical, mental, intellectual or sensory impairments" whilst the barriers can be attitudinal or environmental.

According to World Health Organization, a disability is “any restriction or lack (resulting from an impairment) of ability to perform an activity in the manner or within the range considered normal for a human being.” The most commonly cited definition is that of the World Health Organization in 1976 (1), which draws a three-fold distinction between impairment, disability and handicap, defined as follows:

An impairment: any loss or abnormality of psychological, physiological or anatomical structure or function; a disability: any restriction or lack (resulting from an impairment) of ability to perform an activity in the manner or within the range considered normal for a human being; a handicap: a disadvantage for a given individual, resulting from an
impairment or a disability, that prevents the fulfilment of a role that is considered normal (depending on age, sex and social and cultural factors) for that individual.

According to activists in the disability movement, the World Health Organisation has confused between the terms 'disability' and 'impairment'. They maintain that impairment refers to physical or cognitive limitations that an individual may have, such as the inability to walk or speak. In contrast, disability refers to socially imposed restrictions, that is, the system of social constraints that are imposed on those with impairments by the discriminatory practices of society. In 1980, the WHO reaffirmed this classification (WHO 1980). However, in 2001, the WHO issued a new International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF).

The ICF distinguishes between body functions (physiological or psychological, e.g. Vision) and body structures (anatomical parts, e.g. the eye and related structures) (WHO 2002). Impairment in bodily structure or function is defined as involving an anomaly, defect, loss or other significant deviation from certain generally accepted population standards, which may fluctuate over time (WHO 2002). Since an individual’s functioning and disability occur in a context, the ICF also includes a list of environmental factors. The ICF lists 9 broad domains of functioning which can be affected:

• Learning and applying knowledge
• General tasks and demands Communication
• Mobility
• Self-care
• Domestic life
• Interpersonal interactions and relationships
• Major life areas
• Community, social and civic life.

WHO has adopted a sequence underlying illness-related phenomenon as:

\[\text{Disease} \rightarrow \text{impairment} \rightarrow \text{disability} \rightarrow \text{handicap}\]

Thus, the Union of the Physically Impaired against Segregation defined impairment and disability in the following manner. An 'impairment [is] lacking part of or all of a limb, or having a defective limb, organism or mechanism of the body'. 'disability [is] the disadvantage or restriction of activity caused by contemporary organization which takes no or little account of people who have physical impairments and thus excludes them from the mainstream of social activities'.


- The term "disability" summarizes a great number of different functional limitations occurring in any population in any country, of the world. People may be disabled by physical, intellectual or sensory impairment, medical conditions or mental illness. Such impairments, conditions or illnesses may be permanent or transitory in nature.

- The term "handicap" means the loss or limitation of opportunities to take part in the life of the community on an equal level with others. It describes the encounter between the person with a disability and the environment. The purpose of this term is to emphasize the focus on the shortcomings in the environment and in many organized activities in society, for example, information, communication and education, which prevent persons with disabilities from participating on equal terms.
The United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD) is the first legally binding international instrument which sets out the rights of persons with disabilities. It aims to “promote, protect and ensure the full and equal enjoyment of all human rights and fundamental freedoms by all persons with disabilities and to promote respect for their inherent dignity.” The CRPD was adopted by the UN General Assembly on 13 December 2006 and it entered into force on 3 May 2008. As of May 2010, it has been ratified by 86 States including India. General Principles: Article 3 sets out general principles which should guide the implementation of all articles of the CRPD.

1. Respect for inherent dignity, individual autonomy including the freedom to make one’s own choices, and independence of persons;
2. Non-discrimination;
3. Full and effective participation and inclusion in society;
4. Respect for difference and acceptance of persons with disabilities as part of human diversity and humanity;
5. Equality of opportunity;
6. Accessibility;
7. Equality between men and women;
8. Respect for the evolving capacities of children with disabilities and respect for the right of children with disabilities to preserve their identities.

According to a World Bank report ‘People with Disability in India: From Commitments to Outcomes’, (released in New Delhi on December 3, 2008, International Day of the Disabled), India has some 40 to 80 million persons with disability. But low literacy, few jobs and widespread social stigma are making disabled people among the most excluded in India.
Children with disabilities are less likely to be in school, disabled adults are more likely to be unemployed and families with a disabled member are often worse off than average. With better education and more access to jobs, people with disabilities can become an integral part of society, as well as help generates higher economic growth that will benefit the country as a whole.

Thus, The Equality Act 2010 of UK aims to protect disabled people and prevent disability discrimination. It provides legal rights for disabled people in the areas of:

- Employment
- Education
- Access to goods, services and facilities including larger private clubs and land based transport services
- Buying and renting land or property
- Functions of public bodies, for example the issuing of licenses

The Equality Act also provides rights for people not to be directly discriminated against or harassed because they have an association with a disabled person. This can apply to a career or parent of a disabled person. In addition, people must not be directly discriminated against or harassed because they are wrongly perceived to be disabled.

In the Act, a person has a disability if:

- They have a physical or mental impairment
- The impairment has a substantial and long-term adverse effect on their ability to perform normal day-to-day activities

For the purposes of the Act, these words have the following meanings: ‘Substantial’ means more than minor or trivial; ‘long-term’
means that the effect of the impairment has lasted or is likely to last for at least twelve months ‘normal day-to-day activities’ include everyday things like eating, washing, walking and going shopping.

1.1 PSYCHOSOCIAL IMPLICATIONS OF DISABILITY

Disability at any age brings profound psychological changes to the person. Many people are born with disabilities and grow up dealing with the limitations they place on their activities and life choices. Others may start life as most everyone else but become disabled due to an illness or accident. Acquiring a disability through illness or accident affects not only the person’s life style but also his attitudes. It becomes a dividing line of before and after and requires a number of adjustments physically, emotionally and psychologically. Physical disabilities may range from a stiff joint to major body trauma that put the individual into a wheelchair. Physical disabilities vary widely, but all have the effect of putting limitations on the person with disability. Some may not tie a shoe, others may not be able to reach down to even put on the shoe, still others are limited to the point of needing assistance with the most basic of human needs. Physical limitations, especially when the person has not always been disabled, affect a person emotionally and psychologically. Those healing from an injury or illness, especially when it results in a lifetime impairment, deal with the emotional side of realizing they may never be able to swing a bat, run a race, walk or even dress themselves again. They often feel they are no longer whole, that they are somehow “less than”, because they can no longer be what they once were or do what they once could. They may feel life is no longer worth living.

Thus people who experience disability for the first time undergo stress: cope with life transitions, value changes and experience disability issues across their life spans. Disability may spell hardship or even tragedy
to the individual, depending on his occupation, cultural background and social status, and the support he receives from or provides for his family. They have to go through different stages which include shock, anxiety, denial, mourning, anger, depression, acceptance and adjustment.

The acceptance of the limitations imposed by the disability and the total investment of the person in his rehabilitation program is basic to adjustment. It is from this point in rehabilitation that the person begins to look ahead and develop realistic goals for his future. Disability affects how a person views himself/herself and plays a part in how hard that person will work to overcome that disability or in channelling that passion in other healthy directions.

Adolescents with impairments may have difficulties in accepting themselves as being handicapped with certain capacities and limitations (as defined by the impairment above), the more limited range of positive experiences may have a retarding effect on their overall development. A thriving and satisfying school life enhances the life enjoyment of many students, yet many students can find major barriers to achieving this. It is not surprising that a number of students find themselves experiencing stress originated from academics but students with disabilities may experience even greater stress while having fewer strategies to deal with it. They are often at an even greater disadvantage and appear to be under high academic stress which may impact their mental health as well as their academic performance. Such a situation may result in a negative emotional experience which is detrimental to their life and happiness. A student’s happy school life depends on both internal and external factors such as proper study habits, self-regulation, academic achievement motivation, time management and so on. The aforesaid paragraph underlines various psychological overtones of impairment viz. academic stress, academic
achievement motivation, self-regulation etc. which draw attention of the researcher.

1.2 ACADEMIC STRESS

Academic Stress is the one significant obstacle to school students’ academic performance. It may adversely affect their physical, emotional and mental health and thus, can prove to be the ultimate career stopper. In the present age of competitions, where each person is facing challenges in one way or the other and each has high aspirations but lack of time to achieve these goals ultimately results in the occurrence of stress.

It is important to note that not all stress is negative or bad. For instance, in his work on the topic of stress, Hans Hugo Bruno Selye, more commonly known as Hans Selye (1974) conceptualised two categories, namely good or desirable stress (eustress) and bad or undesirable stress (distress). Eustress is pleasant, or at least challenging, and can produce positive effects such as the maximisation of output and creativity. Ironically, without this positive type of stimuli, life can become stressful. In contrast, distress is evident when a person perceives himself or herself as having no ability to control a stressful event. Distress is likely to result in a loss of productivity and a decline in overall levels of well-being or happiness. Although everyone manifests a response to stress, reactions vary widely across individuals. Even at a physiological level, when confronted with a major stressor, some people experience a rapid increase in heart rate while others feel a tightness or knotting in the stomach or tension headaches (Johansson, Cavalini & Pettersson, 1996).

Shirom (1982) defined stress as an individual’s perception that environmental demands (stressors) exceed his or her capabilities and resources, thus leading to negative outcomes. Similarly, Humphrey, Yow and Bowden (2000), described stress as any factor, acting internally or
externally, which makes adaptation to environment difficult and which
induces increased effort on the part of the individual to maintain a state of
equilibrium between himself and the external environment. In short, stress
is what we feel when we think we've lost control of events. Stress is an
integral part of everyday life and simply cannot be avoided.

All encounter stressful stimuli many times a day in their personal
and social domains and, as school life is an essential aspect of human
existence, in the academics.

Out of number of stresses faced by adolescents and young adults,
academic stress emerges as significant mental health problem in recent
years (Rangaswamy, 1995). Many school students, disabled and non-
disabled, undergo considerable academic stress that affects their academic
performance, psychosocial adjustment along with their overall emotional
and physical well-being.

Academic stress is a mental or emotional pressure, tension or stress
that comes due to the demands of school/college life. It may arise from
being exposed to new educational concepts, adjusting to new social
settings and taking on larger workload. Academic stress is the product of a
combination of academic-related demands that exceed the adaptive
resources available to an individual” (Wilks, 2008). It is widely
acknowledged that academic achievement and academic ability depend on
both internal and external factors such as proper study habits, intelligence,
educational aspirations of self and parent medium of instruction and so on.
If these situations are not conducive for learning, they may lead to
academic stress.

Hence, the academic stress can be defined as the anxiety and stress
that comes from schooling and education. There is often a lot of pressure
that comes along with school life. There is studying, homework, tests, labs,
reading, quizzes and so on. There is the stress of doing all of work, balancing time and finding time for extra-curricular activities. Stress can be a positive aspect of learning if students experience stress as a challenge can exhibit an increased capacity to learn (Roberts & White, 1989). Many experience distress rather than challenge, which can lead students to feel threatened and helpless.

In an academic situation, such as school, a student reacts in the form of mental distress to an anticipated frustration associated with failure in annual examination or even to the awareness of the possibility of such failure (Gupta & Khan, 1987).

Academic stress is an emotional tension of a student which is expressed or felt by him during his failure to cope with the academic demands and its consequences may be exhibited in the form of major health hazards and problems, both physical and mental. Moderate amount of stress can motivate students in their academics and increase their capacity to learn but too much academic stress may interfere with how a student prepares, concentrates and performs. Stressed children show signs of emotional disabilities, aggressive behaviour, shyness, social phobia and often lack interest in otherwise enjoyable activities. Excessive stress affects students’ academic performance. Academic stress may take many forms and can affect students in different ways. Procrastination is a common stumbling block for many personality types. Research shows that poor prioritization, time management and self-regulation often sabotage students mentally, physically and academically. Putting off reading, paper writing, and other studying until the last minute has a two-pronged effect. It increases chances of doing poorly and it can stir up feelings of stress and anxiety. When academic stress is perceived negatively or becomes excessive, students experience physical and psychological impairment. (Murphy & Archer 1996).
Thus, academic stress has been reported as an important factor influencing individuals’ various behaviours, activities and academic performance. The key to avoid becoming a drop out, as a result of academic stress is to identify its sources or factors which lead to academic stress.

1.2.1 Sources of Academic Stress:

Academic stress among students has long been researched on and researchers have identified different sources responsible for it. Information load, high expectations of students, parents and teachers, academic pressure, high competitiveness, limited time are some of the important sources which create tension, pressure, fear and anxiety among students.

Sources/stressors influencing students can be categorised as academic, financial, time or health related and self-imposed (Goodman, 1993). Research studies reveal that lack of parental help, congenial examination system, living upto parental expectation, attitude of the teachers and fear of examination were the stress causing factors. One of the most common causes of academic stress is anxiety, reports Misra. Her study (2000) revealed that anxiety, ineffective time management and a lack of satisfying activities outside of academia were strong predictors of academic stress.

Despite disagreement about the predominant cause of academic stress, researchers agree that the most common form of anxiety causing academic stress is achievement anxiety. Achievement anxiety is a fear of failure in an academic setting that arises when parents, teachers or the student's own expectations exceed what the student believes he/she can realistically achieve. Sources of achievement anxiety include failure to satisfy ambitious or overly critical parents’ expectations in early childhood as well as early exposure to overachieving siblings or peers. Seeing others
receive praise and rewards for their achievements can give students a false impression of what teachers and parents expect of them. Other important sources of academic stress in school children are imposing excessively high self-expectations and the great expectation of parents for achieving good marks in their examination. Students now have more home work than ever before and if the child fails to do home work as per the expectations of their teachers, the result is the cumulative academic stress.

Kadapatti and Vijyaluxmi (2012) found that high aspiration, poor study habits, more study problems, change in medium of instruction and low socio-economic conditions are the factors responsible for academic stress. To fall short of their own or others’ expectations in school, job, athletics, or any other activity one risks both external and internal costs: threat to academic or career prospects, disapproval, rejection, humiliation, guilt, and a blow to the self-esteem (Schafer, 1996).

According to Wilks (2008), time management issues, financial burdens, interactions with teachers, personal goals, social activities, adjustment to the campus environment, lack of support networks are some of the sources of stress among students. In addition to these, assignments, examinations, school curriculum, overcrowded classrooms, the pressure to perform well in a limited time make the academic environment extremely stressful.

Many of school life’s demands cause stress especially academic burden, financial problems, adjustment to the school environment, high expectations, limited opportunities and fear of examinations and when a student feels academically stressed, it can affect everything he does. Stress can cause how he feels, how he thinks, how he behaves and how his body works.
1.2.2 Effects of Stress:

Students today face increasing amounts of school work, assignment deadlines, and exams. By having all this stress and thoughts in their heads they will probably not be able to focus on school work and studying for exams. All the school assignments will take most of their “free time” and being able to play sports, having hobbies and socializing with others will no longer exist because they won’t have the time to enjoy life. This stress can be really hard to deal with and if the students are not careful they may end up making bad decisions that can affect their future such as dropping out of school or falling into drugs. It is “cultural truism” that stress is associated with impairment of health and the negative emotional experiences associated with stress are detrimental to “quality of life and sense of well-being” (Sinha, 2000).

Poor academic performance, diminished peer popularity, depression, attention difficulties, somatic complaints and substance abuse are commonly observed problems among the victims of academic stress without being aware of how to cope with them (Sinha 2000).

A number of researchers have discovered that excessive amounts of stress are associated with many harmful correlates in the lives of school students.

**Physiological effects**

The direct physiological effect of stress can be observed in biological damage that results from a prolonged stress response (McEwen, 2005). These functions include our working memory, self-regulation and cognitive flexibility. Executive functions are critical for reasoning, planning and problem solving, and for regulating emotions and attention. They are essential to academic success.
Academic stress may cause poor sleep. Many studies demonstrate that students consistently fail to get healthy amounts of sleep and the leading causes for this phenomenon are an excess of homework and stress. Several harmful consequences are associated with too little sleep, such as cognitive impairment, interpersonal difficulty, and, reciprocally, higher stress (Carskadon, Acebo, & Jenni, 2004). Bhinderwala in an article “Signs your baby is stressed” (The Times of India, 2014, March 8) explains, symptoms of stress include temper tantrums, sleep disorder and loss of immunity.

**Psychological effects:**

Stress is a significant risk factor for many mental health problems, such as anxiety and depression. Stress can also affect our emotional well-being and emotional intelligence. It negatively impacts our ability to intuit other people’s feelings, convey our own feelings and communicate. Stress can prevent us from being aware of and controlling our emotions, getting along with others, adapting to change, and maintaining a positive mood. Stress is related to reduced self-concept, low self-esteem and low self-worth.

High levels stress can:

- Affect decision-making, creating impulsivity
- Increase likelihood of making mistake
- Cause us to ignore cues
- Interfere with personal relationships
- Lower productivity

How can a student having such psychological problems caused by academic stress be happy and lead a good and balanced life? Negative emotional experiences associated with stress are detrimental to happiness and overall well being.
1.3 HAPPINESS:

Happiness and Subjective well-being have recently received increased attention from researchers. Through centuries people have been talking and thinking about happiness. Dalai Lama has emphasised the importance of happiness and urged people to seek happiness. In his book (Lama and Cutler, 1998), he states that happiness is not readymade but is a result from our actions.

The origins of happiness research or more generally termed as ‘quality of life’ research lie in the 1970’s emergence of disenchantment with the traditional economic approach to measuring progress. After the second world war, with the plight against illness and poverty, governments were interested in measuring progress mainly in terms of disease control, gains in income and income-equality. But in the 1960s, with the development of the affluent welfare states in the west, limits to economic growth were recognised and new, more social way of measuring progress was called for (Veenhoven, 1996).

Thus happiness research began. For many centuries the subject of happiness was the realm of theologians and philosophers who speculated prescriptions on ‘good life’ but recently it transcended into the domain of social sciences, first in psychiatry where depression had been the object of concern and later into mainstream social sciences (Easterlin, 2004).

1.3.1 Concept of Happiness:

Happiness is a state of mind or feeling such as contentment, satisfaction, pleasure or joy. Philosophers and religious thinkers have often defined happiness in terms of living a good life or flourishing rather than simply as an emotion.
Defining a personal matter such as individual happiness can be a tricky thing because happiness is, more than anything else, a very private concern that cannot be ascertained from the outside. Human beings are complex organisms, an adequate construction of the idea of human well-being (happiness) must also be complex. Someone who, according to specific norms of leading a good life, ought to be very happy, does not have to feel happy. Many hidden factors may be influencing this person. It all depends on whether an individual feels that he or she is happy. Happiness will be defined as the degree to which an individual judges the overall quality of his or her life-as-a-whole favourably (Veenhoven, 1984).

Webster’s Dictionary defines happiness as, “an agreeable feeling or condition of the soul arising from good fortune or propitious happening of any kind; the possession of those circumstances or that state of being which is attended enjoyment; the state of being happy; contentment; joyful satisfaction; felicity; blessedness.” The term happiness captures a huge variety of positive emotional responses, including such things as cheerfulness, serenity, optimism, and joy. Happiness has also been defined as “the preponderance of positive affect over negative affect with a distinct focus on the affective evaluation of one’s life situation” (Diener, 1984). According to Hills and Argyle (2001), happiness is a multidimensional construct comprising both emotional and cognitive elements. Three main components of happiness have been identified: frequent positive affect or joy, a high average level of satisfaction over a period, and the absence of negative feelings such as depression and anxiety (Argyle & Grossland, 1987).

‘Happiness’ as an Aristotelian eudaimonia or general well being involving in his phrase, “living well and doing well” can be characterised by enjoying goods of the mind (e.g. wisdom, moral virtue and pleasure),
goods of the body (e.g., physical beauty, health) and external goods (e.g., wealth and adequate material resources), good parents and families, good friends, peace and security within and between communities, and well-governed communities. Happiness is often taken to mean something very close to an extended feeling of pleasure or an extended good mood or pleasant affect. In her book, The How of Happiness (2008), positive psychology researcher Lyubomirsky elaborates, describing happiness as “the experience of joy, contentment, or positive well being combined with a sense that one’s life is good, meaningful and worthwhile”. Michalos (1991) summarized the Profile of a happy person as one who is likely to have low levels of fear, hostility, tension, anxiety, guilt and anger, high degrees of energy, vitality and activity, a high level of self-esteem and an emotionally stable personality, a strong social orientation, healthy, satisfying, warm love and social relationships, an actively lifestyle with meaningful work; and to be relatively optimistic, worry-free, present-oriented and well-directed.

1.3.2 Related/Similar Concepts

Some economists use the phrase “subjective wellbeing (SWB)” as a synonym for “happiness” but in psychology, SWB is a broader concept than happiness. Bruni and Porta (2007) provide some clarification on the differences between happiness and SWB. SWB is comprised by four components i) pleasant emotions ii) unpleasant emotions iii) global life judgment (life evaluation) and iv) domain satisfaction (marriage, health, leisure etc). Happiness is different from life satisfaction: although both happiness and life satisfaction are components of SWB, life satisfaction reflects individuals’ perceived distance from their aspirations while happiness results from a balance between positive and negative affect.
Natvig, Albrektsen, and Qvarnstrom (2003) pointed out that “well-being” is often used interchangeably with “happiness” although the focus of well-being is broader than happiness and it includes contentment, health, prosperity, and wellness as well as happiness.

Quality of life (QOL) is another concept that is sometimes used interchangeably with happiness, although QOL is broader than happiness. Meeberg (1993) defined four critical attributes of QOL: feeling of satisfaction with one’s life in general, the mental capacity to evaluate one’s own life as satisfactory or otherwise, an acceptable state of physical, mental, social, and emotional health as determined by the individual, and an objective assessment by another that the person’s living conditions are adequate and not life threatening. Thus, happiness is contained within QOL.

1.3.3 Measuring Happiness:

Happiness is difficult to define and it is even harder to measure as it is a qualitative phenomenon. In general there are two extreme concepts of happiness (subjective and objective happiness). Subjective happiness asks people how happy they feel themselves to be, subjective measures of happiness capture people’s feelings or real experiences in a direct way. It includes self-reported happiness and satisfaction. Objective happiness is a physiological approach which aims to capture happiness through the measurement of brain waves.

Argyle (2001) approaches happiness in his book “Psychology of happiness” in which he examines what science can tell us about happiness based on a comprehensive review of available research. Among other things Argyle studies how scholars study and measure happiness. He explains that subjective well-being is a measure of happiness conducted by asking survey respondents how they felt about their life. Happiness can be
measured by single questions and thus be assessed in large-scale surveys (Diener, 1995). Researchers have focused on people’s experiences of pleasure and displeasure and found that the assessment of these experiences involves: 1. individuals’ own judgements about life-satisfaction, 2. the frequency of positive affect and 3. the infrequency of negative affect. These three constructs are summarized as happiness. Thus a happy person can be assumed to be satisfied with life and to experience more positive than negative affects. There are instruments for measuring happiness. The best measure to use depends on many factors, including the population of intended use, the psychometric characteristics of the measure, the number of items, and scale accessibility. The Oxford Happiness Inventory (OHI) is a broad measure of personal happiness. The scale has been used worldwide and cross-culturally to compare students in Australia, Canada, U.K., India, Iran & the U.S.

1.3.4 Importance of Happiness:

The study of school students’ happiness is important because in this period of life, different events and transitions may influence their development and happiness. Happiness is probably a result of full engagement and optimal performance in the existential challenges of life (Ryan & Deci, 2001). During school life, daily problems seem to be equally stressful experiences as major life events. In accordance with these findings, the occurrence of various forms of psychopathology, including affective and behavioural disorders increases dramatically during school life. In a secondary school student’s life, happiness is related to positive outcomes in multiple life domains, such as academics, health and relationship with parents, teachers and peers. The joyful environment will affect learning and glorifying of talents among students and will double their energy. All efforts for happiness show that happiness could bear a lot
of forms with various viewpoints such as: satisfaction level of life, health & positive thought, active & constructive welfare, suitable life quality and so on. Fredrickson (1998) stated that happiness and cheerfulness are a part of satisfaction which may cause more plays and amusements with better possibilities for development of bodily, social and mental skills. Research findings reveal that happy individuals are less likely to experience mental health problems.

Happiness is an aspiration of every human being. The experience of happiness is beneficial to school success because it promotes curiosity, creativity and cooperation. The experience of positive feelings motivates students to succeed at academic work and to persist with efforts to attain their goals. Individuals who are happier are more likely to be healthy and will, in turn, tend to be more creative (simply because happier and healthier individuals will take fewer sick days). Happiness has the potential to generate positive snowball effects in society. Research has shown that people who are happier are likely to bring happiness to those around them, resulting in networks of happier individuals. It was found that who are surrounded by happy people are likely to become happier in the future.

1.3.5 Theories of Happiness:

There are a number of theories as to the causes of happiness (Diener, 1984). Several psychological theories related to happiness have been proposed. Some of them are:

**Telic Theories:** According to Telic theories also known as endpoint theories, happiness is gained when some state, such as goal or need is reached, as Telic theories are based on some specific desires of which the person is aware. As far as needs are concerned, they are universal, such as those postulated by Maslow, or they may differ from individual to individual such as those proposed by Murray. There is a widespread
agreement that the fulfilment of needs, goals and desires is somehow related to happiness and conversely, unfulfilled needs cause unhappiness. Telic approach to happiness is based upon person-environment fit—the idea that people are in situation that match their personalities. For this approach, accurate measures of needs and goals are required and longitudinal methodologies would help indicate whether achieving the goals actually heightens subjective well being.

Activity Theories: Activity theory maintains that happiness is a by-product of human activity. Aristotle was a major proponent of this Activity theory. He reported that happiness comes about through virtuous activity, that is, from activity that is performed well. Activity theory states that one should concentrate on important activities and goals and happiness will come as an unintended by-product. Unlike goal theorists, activity theorists propose that happiness arises from behaviour rather than from achieving endpoints. However the two ideas are not necessary incompatible and thus could possibly be integrated.

Top-Down versus Bottom-up Theory: Bottom-up theorists maintained that. a happy life is merely an accumulation of happy moments. In contrast, the top down approach assumes that there is a global propensity to experience things in a positive way, and this propensity influences the momentary interactions an individual has with the world. In the top-down approach to happiness, global features of personality are thought to influence the way a person reacts to events. Philosophers have frequently placed the locus of happiness in attitudes, thus suggesting a top-down approach. Democritus maintained that a happy life does not depend on good fortune or indeed on any external contingencies, but also, and even to a greater extent, on a man’s cast of mind. The important thing is not what a man has but how he reacts to what he has. In the bottom-up
approach, a person should develop a sunny disposition and sanguine outlook as positive experiences accumulate in the person’s life. According to this theory, one can be happy if pleasures are carefully selected and accumulated.

Associationistic Theory: This theory maintained that happy persons might be those who have very positive affective experiences associated with a large number of frequent everyday stimuli. One general cognitive approach to happiness has to do with association networks in memory. Research on memory networks suggests that persons could develop a rich network of positive associations and a more and limited and isolated networks of negative ones. In such persons more events or ideas would trigger happy ideas and effect. Thus, according to associationistic theory, a person might have associative networks that cause a predisposition to happy reactions.

1.3.6 Predictors of Happiness:

Research investigating the sources of happiness has focused on determining the strongest predictors of happiness. These general categories of happiness predictors have been identified:

1. Life circumstances and demographies,
2. Traits and dispositions,
3. Intentional behaviours (Lyumbomirsky et al. 2005).

According to Ryff (1989), six important psychological well being constructs which promote happiness of an individual are:

1. self-acceptance
2. positive relations with others
3. Autonomy
4. Environmental mastery
5. purpose in life
6. personal growth.

Some other important predictors of happiness are:

- **High Self-esteem:** High self-esteem has been reported to be one of the strongest predictors of psychological well-being. Furnham & Cheng (2003) explored that self-esteem and relationship with parents had direct positive impacts on happiness in a sample of 234 participants (mean age = 18 years). The study used the OHI to measure happiness.

- **Friendship:** has been found to be one of the strong predictors of happiness. Peer friendship has been found to play an important role in adolescence, mainly in providing social support and shared interest and joined activities.

- **Personality:** Some researchers have concluded that personality is a greater determinant of happiness than race, social status, money, religion and relationships. It is reported that Extraversion and Neuroticism would be respectively, positively and negatively correlated with happiness.

- **Emotional Intelligence:** Individuals high in emotional intelligence are capable of regulating stress and being happier.

  Seligman (2003) also provides the acronym PERMA to summarize Positive Psychology's correlational findings; humans seem happiest when they have:

  a. Pleasure (tasty foods, warm baths, etc.),
  
b. Engagement (or flow, the absorption of an enjoyed yet challenging activity),
c. Relationships (social ties have turned out to be extremely reliable indicator of happiness),

d. Meaning (a perceived quest or belonging to something bigger), and

e. Accomplishments (having realized tangible goals).

1.4 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION:

While there are a number of factors that affect performance in school, one of the most influential is motivation. Motivation is generally defined as internal condition that stimulates, directs and maintains behavior. It is obvious that students who are not motivated to succeed will not work hard. Motivation is a starting point of any work in a certain course, it directs students’ activity and helps them to persist in study tasks through the school year.

The process of motivation has been shown below:

\[ \text{Motive} \rightarrow \text{Behaviour} \rightarrow \text{Goal} \rightarrow \text{Feedback} \]

Continuing with the same motive or switching over to new motive.

Motivation stemming from a desire to perform well or a striving for success is called achievement motivation. Need for Achievement (nAch) (McClelland, 1961) is one of the psychological motives that play an important role in success and achievements of a person. McClelland defines achievement motivation as the extent to which individuals differ in their need to strive to attain rewards, such as physical satisfaction, praise from others and feelings of personal mastery. People with high achievement motives will act in ways that will help them to outperform others, meet or surpass some standard of excellence, or do something unique. People in whom need for achievement is strong, seek to become accomplished, and to improve their task performance. (McClelland et al, 1953).
A form of process in context of achievement motivation is:-
Goal/Target + Ability + Motivation = Achievement Motivation

The motivation applied for achieving academic objective is termed as **Academic Achievement Motivation**.

Academic Achievement motivation is the most important contributor to students’ academic success. Motivation, as an academic engagement refers to “cognitive, emotional, and behavioral indicators of student investment in and attachment to education” (Tucker, Zayco, & Herman, 2002).

Academic Achievement Motivation may be expressed as follows: Achievement of Academic Goal/Target + Motivation = Academic Achievement Motivation

In an academic environment, achievement motivation is the enthusiasm for learning, the eagerness to acquire knowledge and grow in self-improvement. It is the moving force that instils within a child, the desire to accomplish or achieve.

Academic Achievement motivation refers to a person’s need to achieve academically and his willingness to do things that he or she considers important or valuable and endeavours to achieve perfect results. Academic Achievement motivation is a stable learned characteristic in which satisfaction comes from striving for and achieving a level of excellence. According to the views of psychologists, the main motivations for students studying are reflected on achievement motivation and researches show that achievement motivation is the key element that influences students’ self-monitoring capacity and study efficiency. Achievement motivation is expectancy of finding satisfaction in mastery of difficult and challenging performances where as in the field of education in particular it stands for the pursuit of excellence.
In other words, academic achievement motivation could be seen as self-determination to succeed in whatever activities one engages in the field of academics be it challenging assignments, tiring homework, classroom tasks, group discussions, self-learning, examination and so on.

Gesinde (2000) posits that the urge to achieve varies from one individual to the other, while for some individuals need for achievement is very high whereas for others it may be very low. However, there are high achievers and low achievers. What is responsible for the variation could be the fact that achievement motivation is believed to be learnt during socialization processes and learning experiences.

The U.S. famous psychologist Atkinson believes that achievement motivation has two factors, respectively, the motivation to pursue achievement and the motivation to avoid failure. What is more, the two motivations might be different in their force. Atkinson found that if an individual’s motivation to pursue success is stronger than the motivation to avoid failure, the individual will have higher subjective probability estimation on success; similarly if an individual’s motivation to avoid failure is stronger than the motivation to pursue success, the individual will have higher subjective probability estimation on failure.

Extrinsic and intrinsic motivation are fundamental constructs in conceptualizations of achievement motivation. Extrinsic motivation refers to engagement generated by external forces, such as incentives and rewards. Intrinsic motivation refers to the performance of activities for the sake of the pleasure or satisfaction inherent in the activity itself. Much research has shown that more often than not extrinsic rewards undermine intrinsic motivation. According to the authors, the most important single ingredient in achievement motivation is a feeling of self-directed competence.
1.4.1 Importance of Academic Achievement Motivation

Achievement motivation in academics forms to be the basic for a good life. Students who are oriented towards achievement, in general, enjoy life and feel in control. Being motivated keeps them dynamic and gives them self-respect.

They set moderately difficult but easily achievable targets, which help them achieve their objectives. They do not set up extremely difficult or extremely easy targets. By doing this they ensure that they only undertake tasks that can be achieved by them.

Academically achievement motivated students prefer to work on a problem rather than leaving the outcome to chance. It is seen that achievement motivated students seem to be more concerned with their personal achievement rather than the rewards of success. It is also seen that students with high achievement motivation evidenced a significantly higher rate of advancement in academics as compared to others. A great deal of research has found that students high in academic achievement motivation are more likely to have increased levels of academic achievement.

At this point, the significance of early academic motivation to future academic success should be clear. However, different types of academic motivation have different implications for academic achievement. If a student has high levels of academic motivation, knowing whether that student is extrinsically or intrinsically motivated may be important in making predictions about that student’s academic career. As discussed earlier, students who are intrinsically motivated to learn do so for the pleasure of learning, not to get external rewards. There are many differences between extrinsically and intrinsically motivated students, and the following list describes some of the most important differences.
Intrinsically motivated students:

- Earn higher grades and achievement test scores, on average than extrinsically-motivated students.
- Employ "strategies that demand more effort and that enable them to process information more deeply".
- Are more likely to feel confident about their ability to learn new material.
- Use "more logical information-gathering and decision-making strategies" than do extrinsically-motivated students.
- Are more likely to engage in "tasks that are moderately challenging, whereas extrinsically oriented students gravitate toward tasks that are low in degree of difficulty".
- Are more likely to persist with and complete assigned tasks.
- Retain information and concepts longer, and are less likely to need remedial courses and review.
- Are more likely to be lifelong learners, continuing to educate themselves outside the formal school setting long after external motivators such as grades and diplomas are removed.

Achievement oriented students are driven to master complex challenges, to find solutions, overcome goals, and they love getting feedback related to the level of success. Standards of excellence, precise goals and clear roles motivate these students. This results in a non-conscious concern for achieving excellence through individual effort. They usually set challenging goals for themselves, assume personal responsibility for accomplishment and take calculated risks for achieving these goals. In simple words, they love to achieve, and to measure that achievement.
1.4.2 Achievement Motivation Theory

David McClelland (1961) believes that the need for achievement is a distinct human motive that can be distinguished from other needs. One characteristic of achievement motivated people is that they seem to be more concerned with personal achievement than with the rewards of success. They do not reject rewards but the rewards are not essential as the accomplishment itself.

Atkinson (1966) theorized that orientation results from achieving success and avoiding failure. The motive to achieve success is determined by three things: (1) the need to succeed or need achievement (nAch); (2) the person's estimate of the likelihood of success in performing the particular task; and (3) the incentive for success- that is, how much the person wants to succeed in that particular task. The motive to avoid failure is determined by three similar considerations: (1) the need to avoid failure which, like the need to achieve success, (2) the person's estimate of the likelihood of failure at the particular task; and (3) the incentive value of failure at that task, that is, how unpleasant it would be to fail (Atkinson, 1966).

Both McClelland and Atkinson’s achievement motivation theory was based on a personality characteristic that manifested as a dispositional need to improve and perform well according to a certain standard of excellence. In order to assess people’s need for achievement, they used a projective instrument called the Thematic Appreciation Test (TAT) that elicits unconscious processes. In this instrument, people are asked to write a story describing the thoughts, emotions and behaviours of a person in an ambiguous picture or drawing (for example, a child sitting in front of a violin). The stories are then coded for achievement-related content including indicators of competition, accomplishments, and commitment to
achieve. This technique, labelled the Picture Story Exercise (PSE), was used in numerous studies that tested the relations of n-Ach with various indicators of performance.

1.5 SELF-REGULATION

Self-regulation is an active way of managing behaviour to achieve a goal. Self-regulation is necessary for a person to have self control and ability to inhibit actions. In other words, self-regulation is a person’s self control of behaviour, emotions and thoughts. Scholars define self-regulation as a systematic process of human thoughts that involves setting personal goals and steering oneself toward the achievements of those goals. It is a central feature of social cognition and important in goal setting, work motivation, learning and education.

Acc. to Zimmerman, self regulation is the process whereby students activate and sustain cognitions, behaviours and affects that are systematically oriented toward the attainment of goals. Self-regulation is a greater predictor of long term success than I.Q. “Self-regulation is the ability to manage your own energy states, emotions, behaviors and attention, in ways that are socially acceptable and help achieve positive goals, such as maintaining good relationships, learning and maintaining wellbeing.” Stuart Shanker (2010).

Schunk and Zimmerman (1998) have pointed out that self-regulated learners are generally characterized as active participants who efficiently control their learning experiences in many different ways, including organizing and rehearsing information to be learned, and holding positive beliefs about their capabilities, the value of learning and factors that influence learning. Developmental researchers have identified self-regulation – the ability to respond effectively to various stressors and return to a state of equilibrium – as central to the ability to learn.
Singer and Bashir (1999) state in their article that self-regulation is considered a “meta” construct that is specifically defined as “a set of behaviours that are used flexibly to guide, monitor and direct the success of one’s performance”. They support that self-regulation is co-constructed with social interactions. It is also a result of personal process, the environment, and one’s own behaviour. The process of self-regulation includes these sub-processes: Self-monitoring, Self-evaluation and Behavioural adjustment.

Most educational psychologists agree that effective learning requires students to self-regulate their cognition, motivation and behaviour (Zimmerman, 1989). Despite the importance of all three aspects of self-regulation, most research into self-regulation has focused on the nature and function of the cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies. Contemporary self-regulation has been heavily influenced by the work of one scholar whose initial writings were published in the 1970s. Bandura’s Social Foundations of Thought and Action helped to shape the direction and development of self-regulation. Compared to the clearly cognitive orientation in meta cognition, self-regulation initially emphasized behavioral and emotional regulation. With Bandura’s later writings on self-efficacy, motivation emerged as an additional regulatory area. Further, Bandura (1977) described human functioning as the interaction between person, behaviour, and environment. Specifically, self-regulation emphasizes the reciprocal determinism of the environment on the person, mediated through behaviour. Person variables include the distinct self processes that interact with the environment through one’s actions. For example, Bandura’s self-reinforcement processes in Social Learning Theory (SLT) are predominately motivational. These motivational dimensions include evaluative dimensions of performance, personal standards, valuations of
activities, and attributions. However, the act of self-regulation does not occur without the interaction of the person with the environment. Although these contextual factors may play a smaller role than the person processes, these interactions are critical to the self-regulation process. This theoretical focus appears different than with metacognition, involving a type of exogenous constructivism.

Since the publication of Bandura’s classic volume, self-regulation has continued to develop. For instance, of particular interest to this review is the emergence of self-regulation research in academic domains by Zimmerman, Schunk, and colleagues (e.g., Zimmerman and Schunk 2001). Others, such as Graham and Harris (e.g., Graham et al. 1991) have provided a finer-grained analysis of self-regulation in their examination of self-regulation strategies in academic domains such as writing. The increased focus on self-regulation in academic settings appears to have directly contributed to the emergence of a new term, self-regulated learning or SRL. SRL emerged in the 1980s and gained prominence in the 1990s, just as the work on hypermedia was becoming a growing presence in the educational literature.

The developmental path of SRL is quite different from the trajectories of meta-cognition and self-regulation. Specifically, while meta-cognition and SR developed in parallel with little observable cross-fertilization, most models of SRL incorporate aspects of both meta-cognition and self-regulation to shape its lens on learner monitoring. Unlike the beginnings of meta-cognition and self-regulation, the regulatory focus was relatively broad. The broader regulatory focus in SRL integrates both endogenous and exogenous theories into one that Moshman (1982) described as dialectical constructivism. In SRL, “neither exogenous learning nor endogenous development is, in this view, predominant over
the other: The two exist in a relation of reciprocal constraint and facilitation. Byrnes (1992) pointed out that fusing these theories is possible, since they are not mutually exclusive. Byrnes also noted that integrated views were increasingly sought, just as SRL began to gain in popularity. As we will see in the analysis that follows, this wide scope of SRL comes with positive and negative consequences in the empirical research.

Self-regulation is a cyclical process of cognitive engagement in which purposive behaviour is planned, adapted and evaluated (Zimmerman, 2000). Typically the whole process comprises three or four phases (depending on how any one conceptual model demarcates the different forms of cognitive engagement), which are generally ordered in time but which are not hierarchical, thereby allowing the possibility of phases operating simultaneously and dynamically (Pintrich, 2004).

- The first phase is one of forethought or planning in which learners set clear goals, select and sequence a series of strategies and/or procedures to realize the goals and identify potential barriers to the successful realization of their goals, on the basis of their extant knowledge (procedural, declarative, strategic and conditional).

- A second phase is one of monitoring which involves learners being aware of what they are doing: understanding how what they are doing fits into the already determined sequence of steps and anticipating what ought to be done next.

- The third phase is one of learners implementing and adapting their strategies to maintain control over themselves or the task. Because both monitoring and regulation are being carried out throughout the execution of the plan, these phases can be difficult to distinguish empirically and quite properly could be collapsed into one.
• The final phase is one of reaction to, and reflection on, the outcome of the execution of the plan in which learners can compare their current progress with their goals, make attributions for their progress and evaluate aspects of the task environment to judge both the appropriateness of their goals and their own strategic behaviour.

According to Alpert Sleigh (1997), self-regulation includes several components:

• motivation to monitor and control learning
• the learner's epistemic beliefs on learning
• meta-cognition
• cognitive and learning strategies
• prior knowledge and mental models to scaffold new knowledge
• self-efficacy

Of the various phases, the planning and setting of goals is critical because this establishes the direction of subsequent learning. It is of superordinate importance because there can be no self-regulation without goal direction. In each and all of these processes, there is the potential for learners to perform skillfully. Self-regulation is documented as a necessary condition for efficient learning, there is a lack of clarity in the literature (Zeidner, Boekaerts & Pintrich, 2000) as to the conceptual distinction between self-regulation and meta-cognition (thinking about one's thinking). In positing self-regulation to be a complex web of conceptual dimensions most models of self-regulation would accord a role to meta-cognition (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001), although specific models vary as to the centrality of this construct. A further potential for confusion is in the lack of distinction between self-regulated learning as a cognitive competency and self-regulation as the behavioural performance of a skill (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997).
While the psychological literature makes clear that self-regulation is essentially a cognitive competency, for which there might or might not be behavioural tactics, the very fuzziness of the construct could render the pedagogic significance of self-regulation to be incidental rather than fundamental to those of us wanting to improve the learning environment but who do not have the appropriate psychological knowledge.

There are good reasons for believing that learners’ conceptions of their own attempts to acquire knowledge and to apply such knowledge to their own intellectual development are important sources of pedagogic information for tutors, and therefore worthy of investigation. One reason is that skilful self-regulation is associated with greater forethought to preparing for learning, with more effective effort in carrying out the learning task, with more comprehensive reflection on the volitional control exercised in the realization of the learning goal and with improved academic achievement (Zimmerman, 1989). Another reason is that self-regulation is the mechanism through which transfer of learning occurs within the paradigm of social cognition.

Karoly (1993), has conducted an extensive review of self-regulation mechanisms underlying cognitive and somatic based learning in therapy and performance, and defines self-regulation as: those processes, internal and/or transactional, that enable an individual to guide his/her goal-directed activities over time and across changing circumstances (contexts). Regulation implies modulation of thought, affect, behaviour, or attention via deliberate or automated use of specific mechanisms and supportive meta-skills. The processes of self-regulation are initiated when routine activity is impeded or when goal directedness is otherwise made salient (e.g., the appearance of a challenge, the failure of habitual action patterns, etc).
To conclude, from a theoretical perspective, self-regulation is a proactive process whereby individuals consistently organize and manage their thoughts, emotions, behaviours, and environment in order to attain academic goals (Zimmerman, 2000). Students become self-regulated by setting goals, selecting and using strategies, monitoring performance, and repeatedly reflecting on learning outcomes over a lengthy period of time. In other words, self-regulation operates through three areas of psychological functioning that are essential in learning: cognitive (e.g. learning strategies), motivational (e.g. self efficacy, task value) and meta-cognitive (e.g. self-monitoring and self-reflection). The motivational domain of self-regulation implies that students believe in their capabilities and value academic activities as a task that would enhance learning. It can enhance one’s persistence when faced with difficulties. The cognitive component of self-regulation relates to the strategies students use to complete academic tasks and process the information more effectively. Strategies vary depending on the task. The third component of self-regulation is meta-cognition, wherein students set goals and monitor their progress. Students engage in meta-cognition when they reflect on why they do not understand a text or a problem and use strategies such as rereading the text or seeking help in solving the problem.

1.6 JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

As it has been stated earlier in the introductory section that academic stress is a crucial problem of a student life in the present scenario. Our education system has loaded the students with a variety of pressures such as vast curriculum, examination fear, neck-to-neck competitions etc. Peer pressure and parent pressure add tons to their problems. Students’ happiness get suppressed under the academic stress. Stress overloads our mental and physical resources and interferes the
effective use of skills, thus badly affecting our performance. The findings of doctors, psychotherapists and child psychologists reveal that students especially secondary school students experience anxiety, stress and depression due to academic pressure and excessive academic pressure is associated with deliberate self-harm and even suicides. There is a recent news in The Times of India (2014, March 21) that in another case of exam stress, a 19-year-old girl appearing for Class XII board exams committed suicide by setting herself ablaze after being unable to deal with the academic stress.

Review of literature reveals that a number of studies have been conducted on academic stress. Sun (2012) worked on educational stress and his study revealed a positive relationship between educational stress and poor mental health. Conner, Pope, and Galloway (2010) explored what students themselves said about the causes of their school-related stress and many students reported feeling stressed out, overworked, and sleep deprived. They spoke of the tolls of stress on their mental and physical well-being and happiness. The school students’ happiness is important because in this period of life, different events and transitions may influence their overall development.

In a school student’s life, happiness is related to positive outcomes in multiple life domains, such as academics, health and relationship with parents, teachers and peers and is associated with better possibilities for development of bodily, social and mental skills. Over the years, behavioural scientists have observed that students with a high level of academic achievement motivation and self-regulation exhibit certain characteristics and have an intense desire to achieve something in the area of academics. Students who are motivated towards achievement and have self-regulation skills, in general, feel in control and enjoy life. Thus,
academic achievement motivation and self-regulation are likely to be the predictors of academic stress and happiness, and in this way, findings of the study will assist in reducing academic stress and enhancing happiness.

Review of literature reveals that studies are available on academic stress in relation to depression, mental health problems, suicidal ideation etc. but the researcher could not find sufficient studies exploring relation of academic stress with academic achievement motivation and self-regulation. Further, there is dearth of researches in the area of academic stress as well as happiness in relation to academic achievement motivation and self-regulation especially with reference to disability.

India has a growing disability rights movement and one of the most progressive policy frameworks. Even then, a lot more needs to be done for the education of individuals with disabilities. There are evidences that students with various disabilities experiencing a number of psychological problems are not able to make optimum use of their abilities in academic area. Several efforts have been made to solve this enigma. Despite the efforts of persons concerned with special education, the problem still persists. Research related to different intervening variables viz. various type of intelligence, students’ motivation, self-efficacy, self-regulation, and achievement motivation are not only of theoretical importance but also have educational implications. These constructs have been found to be sensitive to subtle changes in students’ behavioural contexts, to interact with self-regulation learning processes, and to mediate students’ academic achievement.

In order to understand the psycho-social implications of disability, the present study endeavours to explore the effect of disability on such psychological variables like academic stress, happiness, academic achievement motivation and self-regulation and therefore the study
attempts to find out the difference between disabled and non-disabled secondary school students with regard to the said variables.

This study is also helpful in designing intervention programmes to improve academic achievement motivation and self-regulation of students which in turn may be helpful in making school students academically less stressed and happier. Facts mentioned above led investigator to undertake the present study.

1.7 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

ACADEMIC STRESS AND HAPPINESS IN RELATION TO ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION AND SELF-REGULATION OF DISABLED AND NON-DISABLED SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

1.8 OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

Academic Stress


In the present study Academic Stress means the score obtained by a student on Scale for Assessing Academic Stress (SAAS) developed by Sinha, Sharma and Nepal (2003).

Happiness

Happiness has been conceptualized as a positive inner experience, the highest good, and the ultimate motivator for all human behaviors (Argyle, 1987 cited in Bekhet et al., 2008) and as “the degree to which an

In the present study happiness means the score obtained by a student on Oxford Happiness Inventory (OHI) developed by Argyle (2001).

**Academic Achievement Motivation:**

The motivation applied for achieving academic objective is termed as academic achievement motivation.

In the present study academic achievement motivation means the score obtained by a student on Academic Achievement Motivation Test (AAMT) developed by Sharma (1984).

**Self-regulation:**

Acc. to Zimmerman, self regulation is the process whereby students activate and sustain cognitions, behaviours and affects that are systematically oriented toward the attainment of goals. Its dimensions are: academic, pro-social, religion and friendship self-regulation. Investigator used self regulation questionnaire developed by Ryan and Connell in 1998 to measure scores of self regulation of school students which is based upon Zimmerman’s work.

In the present study, self-regulation scores mean the scores obtained by the school students on Self-Regulation Questionnaire (SRQ) developed by Ryan and Connell (1998).

**Disabled:**

Acc. to PWD Act (1995), Disabled or person with disability means a person suffering from not less than forty percent of any disability as certified by a medical authority.
1.9 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY:

1. To find out the correlation between academic achievement motivation and academic stress of secondary school students.

2. To find out the correlation between academic achievement motivation and happiness of secondary school students.

3. To find out the correlation between self-regulation and academic stress of secondary school students.

4. To find out the correlation between self-regulation and happiness of secondary school students.

5. To study the contribution of academic achievement motivation and self-regulation to academic stress among disabled and non-disabled secondary school students.

6. To study the contribution of academic achievement motivation and self-regulation to happiness among disabled and non-disabled secondary school students.

7. To study the difference between orthopaedically impaired and non-disabled secondary school students in terms of their academic achievement motivation, self-regulation, academic stress and happiness.

8. To study the difference between visually impaired and non-disabled secondary school students in terms of their academic achievement motivation, self-regulation, academic stress and happiness.

9. To study the difference between non-disabled male and female secondary school students in terms of academic achievement motivation, self-regulation, academic stress and happiness.

10. To study the difference between male and female secondary school students with orthopaedic impairment in terms of academic
achievement motivation, self-regulation, academic stress and happiness

11. To study the difference between male and female secondary school students with visual impairment in terms of academic achievement motivation, self-regulation, academic stress and happiness

12. To study the difference between congenitally and adventitiously visually impaired secondary school students in terms of academic achievement motivation, self-regulation, academic stress and happiness

1.10 HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

On the basis of review of related literature investigator formulated following research hypotheses:

1. Academic achievement motivation is likely to be negatively related with academic stress of secondary school students.

2. Academic achievement motivation is likely to be positively related with happiness of secondary school students.

3. Self-regulation is likely to be negatively related with academic stress of secondary school students.

4. Self-regulation is likely to be positively related with happiness of secondary school students.

5. Non-disabled secondary school students are likely to be found better than the students with orthopaedic impairment in terms of academic achievement motivation, self-regulation, academic stress and happiness.

6. Non-disabled secondary school students are likely to be found better than the students with visual impairment in terms of academic achievement motivation, self-regulation, academic stress and happiness.
7. Non-disabled male secondary school students are likely to be found better than non-disabled female secondary school students in terms of academic achievement motivation, self-regulation, academic stress and happiness.

8. Male secondary school students with orthopaedic impairment are likely to be found better than the female secondary school students with orthopaedic impairment in terms of academic achievement motivation, self-regulation, academic stress and happiness.

9. Male secondary school students with visual impairment are likely to be found better than the female secondary school students with visual impairment in terms of academic achievement motivation, self-regulation, academic stress and happiness.

10. Congenitally visually impaired secondary school students are likely to be found better than adventitiously visually impaired secondary school students in terms of academic achievement motivation, self-regulation, academic stress and happiness.

1.11 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Due to limited time and resources, the present study was delimited to:

1. A sample drawn from Haryana, Punjab, Uttrakhand and Chandigarh only.

2. Only 450 secondary school students. It included 150 orthopaedically impaired, 150 visually impaired and 150 non-disabled secondary school students.

3. A sample of students studying in ix, x, xi and xii classes.