CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

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

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

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

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

In the present study, an attempt has been made to go through the research works concerned with the investigation as well as reference books, monographs and journals. In this chapter, the researcher has presented related studies concerning the Value Pattern, Academic Achievement, Special School and Inclusive School in India and abroad. They have been classified as:

2.1 STUDIES ON VALUE PATTERN

2.2 STUDIES ON ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

2.3 STUDIES ON SPECIAL AND INCLUSIVE SCHOOL

2.1 STUDIES ON VALUE PATTERN

Murray (1969) has conducted a study and found that the teachers with high social values are perceived by their students as significantly more concerned than the teachers with low social values. Self actualizing teachers do not have significantly different theoretical values. However, they do differ on other scale of the study of Values. Home economics teachers profile on the six scales differs slightly from that of women in general.

Nichols (1969) has reported that the values generally have no significant relationships to ratings of teacher success. There is significant relationship between the theoretical and aesthetic values and specific aspects of the success criteria.
Mehryar (1970) has made an attempt to cross validate Eysenck's hypothesis regarding the relationship between E (Extroversion) and T (Tough mindedness). 69 students (M & F) are randomly selected from among 450 students of IIInd year in University in Southern Iran. The results have failed to support Eysenck's main hypothesis (The relationship between E & T). Tender mindedness has also correlated with both the economic and social values. Radicalism has a significant relationship with aesthetic value and extroversion has significant relationship with the political value.

Entwistle (1972) has found that students of different types of institutions (college of education, polytechnics, language, pure science, applied science, mathematics) differ in their values.

Ahmed (1972) has conducted a study on 'Relationship between values and modernity with special reference to college girls'. This study is an attempt to find out if social changes affected the value system. The investigation is a co relational study.

Katiyar (1972) has studied values and vocational preferences of the intermediate class students in U.P. and has found that all the students are high in democratic, social and knowledge value. The value systems of the students of the five courses are very much similar. Hindu students are higher than the Muslim and Christian students in health values.

Gaur (1972) has conducted a study on values and perceptions of high school students to investigate the relationship between learning and students' value, self-concept and perception with special reference to urban and rural boys and girls and to study the perception of students towards home, school, friends, occupation and society. Rural boys and girls do not differ on aesthetic, political, religious, theoretical, economical and social values.
Urban boys and girls do not differ on social values and the theoretical values but negatively related to economical and religious values.

**Makhija (1973)** has made a study to inquire into the interaction among values, interests and intelligence and its impact on scholastic achievement and found that intelligence and religious values have a significantly positive influence on scholastic achievement.

**Eshian (1976)** has reported that the mean scores of pre-degree and degree class students are not significant on personal values except in one case; differences in the mean score on social values are significant. Differences between the students from the two types of colleges are very clearly marked both as regards to personal values and social values.

**Lopes and Henry (1976)** has conducted a study to study the relationship between students with regard to approval of democratic values.

**Kalai (1977)** has found that both male and female students of Indian colleges are no longer tied to the old values. He has also found that the agencies of social change are education, independence, western culture, and industrial organization and they desire of high standard of living and media of mass-communication.

**Ghosh (1977)** has conducted a study Distribution of Social Values among certain selected strata of youths and Prediction of Good Citizenship with the help of the Values. He found that (a) the increase in the years of schooling has no direct impact on the acquisition of values (b) though the value scores of the youths from families with different socio economic status do not differ significantly in all cases, it can be said in general that the youths with higher socio economic status have high value scores. (c) The youths from families with different socio-economic status do not, however, differ in the nationalism score. (d) Democracy scores gradually
decrease with the rise in socio-economic status of rural students (e) majority of the students like to be active in aesthetic or art oriented activities. Here, the girl students have scored higher than the boy students (f) the girls have scored higher than the boys on religious, moral and scientific values (g) on economic, moral, political and aesthetic values, the students of Std XI have scored higher than the students of Std X (h) on all other values except the rational and the political, the urban students have scored higher than the rural students (i) on social, rational and moral values, students with lower income have scored higher than students with higher income.

**Herbert (1979)** examined that the six variables (Theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political and religious) are different between two different groups and they are significant at or beyond the 0.05 level as follows:

1. Economic scale of the study of values scale
2. Aesthetic scale of the study of values scale
3. Social scale of the study of values scale.

**Shankar and Asthana (1979)** stated that males generally gain higher rankings for political and economic values and females gain higher rankings for aesthetic values.

**Aliaimo & Joseph (1979)** in their investigation attempted to investigate factors influencing value respects to environmental problems. They found, that there are significant grade level effects on environmental values. There was no significant effect of sex on environmental values but significant effect was found between the criterion variables ("values") and the predictor 'inner' variables.


**Kumar (1984)** collected some of the studies and published in the Journal of Indian Educational Review. These are presented in the following lines:

Studies by Kinnana John F. and Suziedails Antanas (1962), Irey (1963), Hellond (1963), Mehta and Khane (1967) and Woodruff (1942) reveal that different individuals have different patterns of values. Charles Morries studied the values of student of The United States, India, Japan, China and Norway in 1945. The result of the study showed that there is a lot of difference in the value patterns of the persons of different countries. Pal, S.K. examined the value pattern of engineering, law, medical and teacher training students in Indian colleges. He also found much difference in the hierarchical system of values of these students. Soubhagyavati (1967) studied the values of the pupil teachers and those of female teachers.

**Sharma (1987)** compared a sample of 300 students of Saraswati Shishu Mandir and 420 students of Public schools. The students of Saraswati Shishu Mander were found significantly different in comparison to students of Public schools on democratic, cognitive and power values.

**Wyatt (1988)** conducted a study on value congruence. He has perceived values congruence impacts positively on institutional integration, peer group and academic performance.

**Sharma and Singh (1991)** studied the needs and values of Adolescents, by taking 96 undergraduates of 16-19 yrs age group. They found significant relation between achievement, motivation and theoretical value, need of affiliation and political value, need of affiliation and religious value and need of aggression with religious value.

**Sharma (1992)** did a comparative study of the students of Saraswati Vidya Mandir and students of English medium schools. Researcher used
self-made questionnaire related to cultural elements. The students of Sarasvati Vidya Mandir were found superior on cultural pattern in comparison to the students of public schools. No significant difference was observed on their social dimensions.

**Rawat (1993)** studied the value pattern of secondary school teachers and found that the teachers most preferred values are humanistic, creative, knowledge and social value. The least preferred values are aesthetic, religious, political and economic values.

**Tiwari and Tiwari (1993)** conducted a study to know the caste difference in life values of college students and found that there was a significant caste difference in theoretical, aesthetic and religious values. The students belonging to higher caste are high in these values in comparison to the students of lower caste.

**Srivastava (1994)** studied values, personality factors and self-concept. The results of his study was theoretical values are positively correlated to outgoing, self-discipline and negatively correlated to frustration. Economic values are positively correlated to freedom and negatively correlated to self-discipline. Social values are positively correlated to sociability, while political values are negatively correlated to frustration.

**Paghan (1994)** studied the relation among moral values and other personal values of school students, by taking a sample of 561 students belonging to 14 different secondary schools of Puri District. He found that the moral values are positively correlated with religious value, cognitive and health values and negatively correlated with luxurious values and family values.
Kumar & Swami (1994) studied the variables related to value system of 1050 students and found that undergraduates give importance to social values like – Love, equality, freedom, honesty, happiness. He found no significant difference between their personality and value system. There was positive relation between value system and college environment.

Gupta and Gangol (1994) studied the importance of acquired values in primary, middle and high school students. The sample of the study consisted of 500 students studying in different types of schools e.g. Catholic, Secular, Jain, Hindu and schools of J. & K. Researcher found difference among the value importance of the students of schools of different background. The researcher found that the students of 5th & 8th standard level gave importance to honesty, love and dutifulness whereas at 10th level students gave importance to co-operation.

Padhan and Thakkar (1994) conducted a study of Moral value in relation to intelligence and sex of the students studying in different types of secondary schools and found that the Moral value has significant positive correlation with intelligence. The urban students are higher in moral values in comparison to rural students, but there was no significant difference in relation to sex. The moral values of students studying in co-educational and single sex schools are not significantly different.

Ally & Karunanidhi (1995) studied the religious feelings of male and female students of Chennai. In the findings of his work there was no significant sex difference between values and religious feelings of high and low religious groups.

Saher et al. (1995) studied the perception of values related to secularism by taking a sample of 225 students of Devi Ahilya University and found that general students followed values of secularism.
Verma et al. (1995) performed an investigation on personal values of students of scheduled caste and general castes. The major findings of the study are – (i) The students of general caste are higher on economic, happiness, power and family prestige values. (ii) The aesthetic, economic, cognitive, power and health values of general caste female students are significantly higher than the female students of scheduled caste. (iii) The female students are higher in religious and aesthetic values in comparison to the male students.

Chatterjee (1995) This paper endeavors to present systematically the essential Components of human values and their evolution through various socio-religious movements in the Indian history. The first part of the paper examines the principal values that represent the Indian ethical system. Tyaga (renunciation), dana (liberal giving), nishtha (dedication), satya (truth), ahimsa (non-violence) and upeksha (forbearance) are examined as the keynotes of the Indian values system. The second part looks briefly at the historical context of the evolution of this values system. Enumerating the broad gamut of ideas which emanated in the upanishadic age and underlining the contributions made to the sustenance of human values in India by the various reform movements in the five thousand years of Indian history, the paper unearths the richness and resilience of Indian ethos. The paper concludes that for the perpetuation of the Indian values system, the Indian concept of dharma has acted as a sustaining principle through the ages.

Pratima (1996) found that the students of U.P. Board and C.B.S.E. differ significantly in some values.

Das (1996) studied the scope of value education in curriculum of secondary schools of Orissa and found that different subjects have different
scope of value education. He found that the life values such as co-operation, help, discipline and love have been given more emphasis in curriculum.

**Vajpayee (1997)** performed and investigation on the differences of place and sex on life values and found that urban students are significantly lower than the rural students in theoretical and social values, but they do not differ significantly on political values. Female students are higher on aesthetic, social and religious values in comparison to male students, but they are lower on economic values. There was no difference in political and theoretical values of different sex.

**Singh and Soni (1999)** studied values of students in relation to sex difference and medium of education. 150 students of Lucknow University and affiliated colleges were taken as sample. In the major findings the value of world peace, self-respect, freedom, family security and equality do not differ significantly on the basis of medium and sex. On values of national security the students of Hindi medium are higher than the students of English medium.

**Fernandes (1999)** examined the impact of the Value Clarification Action Plan on the quality of values education for secondary school students. The study identified values to be modeled through teacher behavior, created an action plan for pre-service teachers through the values clarification process, trained students in values personalization, helped teacher trainees in preparing lesson plans that integrated values, and identified the impact of value personalization on the quality of their teaching values in the classroom. A group of 40 out of 100 teacher trainees at one college in India participated. The study involved five phases: preparing the values clarification action plan; planning for values personalization; training for the integrated approach to values education; post-treatment testing; and analysis of the data. Data analysis indicated that the guidance and motivation
provided to teacher trainees to clarify values by identifying them, to prepare action-oriented strategies, and to practice values using the action plan and giving value-integrated lessons created significant positive changes in personalizing values. Their experiences developed in them the ability to see beyond words and images, to find the real depth and meaning in whatever happened in life. The personalization of values provided a strong base and foundation for effective values education and helped teacher trainees have consistency in their teaching and practice.

Gupta (2001) made an attempt to study 200 teachers, 120 student teachers who studied in different colleges of education and 4 office employees on their life values and found that all the subjects gave importance to intellectual, social and moral values, behavioural and religious values are at middle priority level and that male and females were not significantly different.

Sekhar (2002) explored the ethical dimensions of some of the current issues engaging rural India, affecting 600 million people. It used the evolutionary framework of Sri Aurobindo's integral yoga, and also tagged on to it the rights concepts of Amartya Sen's ethics. It attempted to take a balanced view between Ambedkar's perception of the ancient Indian village as a sink of localism, a den of ignorance, narrow-mindedness and communalism, and the more common and traditional, but historically untrue, idealized view of the Vedic times. In this process it also steered clear of the pitfalls in the Marxist writings or positivist research, which has taken a wrong position that there was no rule of law and therefore no ethics as understood in modern times. It then attempted to show the more eternal features of perennial ethics in India, the idiom, institutions and the instruments it has nurtured, and the manner it is getting integrated with and
is supportive of evolving modern values of democracy and social justice in Indian villages.

Andrews reported that Australia finds itself in the mould of the acquisitive Western society, and a transition to the stronger communitarian value system of the East is a distinct possibility. Drawing inspiration from an experiential workshop in India, the author concluded with the hope that ultimately the survival and enrichment of an edifying Australian culture and set of human values will depend on and flow from the hearts, minds and human creativeness of Australians in a continually changing world.

Asthana and Srivastava (2002) tried to study, self-concept and values of adolescents of Hindi and English medium and found that students of English medium are higher on aesthetic and social values in comparison to students of Hindi medium. Students of English medium are lower on political and religious values.

Srivastava (2004) found that there was no significant difference in values of students from similar socio-economic background studying in Hindi medium and English medium schools.

Gupta (2005) found that the type of training imparted in schools does influence one’s values in life among the adolescent girls of non-working mothers.

Mehta M. (2005) stated in a study that just as values are like beacons for an individual, so they are for a profession, especially for HRD—a value-based management profession. Given the sweeping changes taking place in the business environment, it is plausible that the value orientation of Human Resource Development professionals have also changed. In an attempt to understand this, the study identified 11 value orientations, with ethico-moral, customer and quality orientations the three top ranking value orientations of
HRD professionals. The study also discusses respondents’ rating of their organization on the encouragement provided to employees in their job to practice the values they consider as the ones guiding their professional life. It concluded that though: (a) professionals still value strong humanistically–oriented values, business–oriented values seem to have taken priority over the same; (b) organizations encourage practice of all the 11 value orientations, they have come a long way from the traditional welfare approach or paternalistic attitude.

Gates (2006) stated that the importance of motivational beliefs and, more specifically, religion, is identified as central for both citizenship and citizenship education. He inferred that values are not necessarily any more universally agreed, since they too are affected by beliefs.

Rippberger et. al. (2007) illustrated the blending and separation of cultural values in a larger metropolitan border area.

Dovre (2007) made a study in six schools which share the critical elements of a comprehensive program in character education which is guided by set of “core values” or “virtues”.

2.2 STUDIES ON ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Burgess (1953) studied the personality of over-achievers and under-achievers. In her study over-achievers are found to be more intellectually adaptive, more constricted and inhibited, more cautious and realistic in approach to problems and having greater need for achievement and self-improvement.

Holtzmann and Farquhar (1954) obtained a significant relation between study habits and college achievement.
Brown and Holtzmann (1956) observed study habits to be a good predictor of academic achievement both at the school and the college level.

Mathur (1963) noticed the effect of S.E.S. on behavior and achievement of secondary school students. He has noted that S.E.S. is significantly correlated to educational achievement, intelligence and conduct of the student.

Chopra (1964) has examined the relationship between S.E.S., factor and academic achievement keeping the effect of intelligence constant. He has found that nearly ninety six percent of students who discontinued education attribute the reason to poor economic condition of the family. On the basis of parent's education, occupation, family income, type of lodging, size of the family and cultural level of home, students belonging to higher qualitative group show significantly higher achievement.

Jarnuar (1966) noted a positive relation between the scholastic achievement and study habits.

Tamhankar (1968) reported that n-achievement has low positive correlation with academic achievement.

Srivasthava (1968) obtained different patterns of study habits for the over and under achievers. In a stratified society, as that in India, a researcher is apt to start with a hypothesis that S.E.S. contributes to academic performance.

Biggs (1970) found that intrinsic motivation correlated positively with performance in both science and arts, but this reached significant level only in arts.

Sinha (1970) found positive and significant relationship between n-achievement and academic achievement.
Kulkarni (1970) conducted the first major study on achievement survey in mathematics covering the three levels of education, viz., end of primary (grade V), end of middle (grade VIII) and end of secondary stage (grade X.) in 15 states. The number of students in the sample varied from more than 28,000 at primary level to nearly 20,000 at the secondary level. The major findings of the study for the primary level were: boys achieved higher than girls; the socioeconomic conditions of the parents of school type (e.g., government or private management) provided better teaching-learning situations; and no relation was found between school achievement and teacher’s qualifications.

Jones et al. (1972) found significant differences between students in the single sex schools and students of the same sex in the co-educational school in all broad areas of scholarship, prestige, popularity, peer influences on behavior and personal goals. Results suggest that co-education may be inimical to both academic achievement and social adjustment.

Sharma and Singh (1973) observed that academic marks and academic motivation are moderately positively related. Sinha and Sharma (1975) concluded that academic motivation score of high achieving group was higher than the low achieving group.

Pandya (1975) has examined the effect of increased level aspiration on academic achievement on a sample of 22 female students. He used a Group Intelligence Test in Gujarati by Desai-Bhatt, and a teacher-made test of attainment in Hindi, in Surat (Gujarat). His conclusions are that increased level of aspiration results in a significant increase in academic achievement, and that the effect of interaction between intelligence and level of aspiration is quite significant.
Shrivastava (1976) found that academic motivation has significant influence on the achievement even if SES and intelligence are held constant. High achievers and low achievers are found to differ significantly in their academic motivation difference being in favor of high achievers.

Rajamohan (1978) reported that a positive and high significant relationship was found, between academic motivation and examination grades.

Mehta (1981) has found that academic motivation was unrelated to academic achievement of high school students.

Sharma (1981) has reported that poor academic motivation contributed to underachievement amongst girls.

Shrivastava (1981) has looked into achievement, motivation and self-concept in the two settings, by administering a measure of self-concept and the TAT to 25 rural and 25 urban boys. The researcher finds that achievement and high self-concept are found frequently among urban students.

Watking (1982) has found that intrinsic motivation is related to grades in arts but not in science.

Shanmugasundaram (1983) has found that high achievers have higher level of achievement motivation than low achievers.

Verma (1984) investigated relationship between anxiety and school achievement. Verma (1984) has administered an anxiety scale to 50 students of 11th standard. He assessed their scores in relation to their achievement in the 10th standard. From analysis, he confirms that there is a positive correlation between anxiety and school achievement.
**Lambertson (1985)** has compared the amount of agreement existing between elementary teachers, secondary teachers, school based administrators and country based administrators concerning effective teaching behaviors. Factor analysis of the data gathered by the Q-sort instrument provided four significant factors. Teachers has important differences in attitude when compared to administrators, to school based administrators and to country based administrators whereas the other two groups has similar attitudes concerning effective teaching behaviors.

**Ray (1986)** has examined the relationship between academic achievement and home, health, social and emotional adjustment in 101 female college students through a battery of tests, including 16 PF, and a questionnaire. He concluded that adjustment factors have some impact on academic achievement of the students.

**Patel (1987)** found that total achievement was positively related with achievement motivation in S.C. students. In case of S.T. candidate’s achievement motivation contributed significantly toward achievement in school subject and total achievement but in case of advantaged students it was related to achievement in certain subject.

**Dave (1988)** and his colleagues conducted an evaluation of achievement of primary school children studying in classes I to IV in 22 states union territories in India. Although the main objective of the study was to compare the impact of inputs of the special project, Primary Education Curriculum Renewal, it also had samples of pupils from non-project schools varying from 1800 in class I to less than 200 in class IV. Large differences between states were observed in this study as well.
Sharma (1989) found that achievement motivation has positive and significant relationship with academic performance.

Verma and Swain (1990) reported students of high achievement motivation group of pre-adolescents obtained significantly higher achievement in Oriya, English, Maths, Social Studies and on the whole all subjects than their counterparts with low academic motivation.

Verma (1990) found that high achievers have significantly greater academic motivation as compared to their low achiever counterparts.

Sood (1990) did a study to know the academic achievement of Pre-engineering students at different levels. Researcher found no significant difference in academic achievement of students at different levels.

Lohani and Mohit (1990) conducted and investigated under the topic “Link between selected demographic factors, home environment and academic performance” and found that the academic achievement is related to family environment just as family environment is related to economic condition of family.

Deb et al. (1990) found positive relationship between study habits & achievement of under graduate home science final year students.

Miller et. al. (1990) reported that grades for both men & women are affected by their learning styles.

Leiden et. al. (1990) reported insignificant correlation between learning styles on deep & surface level and academic performance.

Tadlock (1990) found that there was significant difference between under achieving and achieving groups of 8th grade on teaching games, drill & recitation learning style dimensions.
Yeh (1991) found results of the study supporting the relation of academic achievements to the variables of achievement, motivation, study habits and intellectual development.

Matt et al. (1991) examined the influence of better study habits on achievements but no significant relation was found with study habits.

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

Kaushik (1991) conducted a study on 300 students of Meerut region studying in schools of English medium and found that the education of Parents and size of family influences academic achievement of students significantly.

Lewis (1991) ascertained the relationship between learning styles, achievement motivation and academic performance of higher education students. The results showed that deep processing style was best discriminator between high and low achievers.

Panda (1992) in a study of advantaged & disadvantaged students noticed that high achieving adolescent students has better study habits than counterparts.

Gupta (1992) has found that religious and academic values are positively related while economic value is negatively related with the academic satisfaction of male students. Social, aesthetic, academic, economic and there is no relationship of physical values with academic satisfaction for the total sample.

Ames (1992) observed that intrinsic motivation which involves focus on learning and mastery, not on grades and performance, has been linked to better strategy use and academic performance.
Dave and Murthy (1993) The Fourth Survey of Researches in Education in India, 1983-88 (Buch, 1991) reported a few studies addressed to the achievement at the primary stage. Most of these (83 per cent) were doctoral studies. Besides, all were based on small samples and confined to a limited geographical area. The same pattern of researches continued as indicated in Fifth Survey of Educational Researches.

Rechardson (1993) found that there was better performance of students of high achieving group in deep processing, fact retention and methodical study when compared with their counterparts low achieving group.

Alabili (1993) reported there is a significant correlation between deep and elaborative processing styles and student’s GPA’s indicating that those two styles of learning are moderately predictive of academic performance.

Shukla (1994) conducted another study to find out the level of attainment of primary school children in various states in India. A sample of about 66,000 students (studied up to grade IV) was covered for 25 states and the union territory of Delhi. These students were administered an Arithmetic Test and a reading Comprehension Test. The study revealed that over the states, the difference between the mean achievement of boys and girls did not have the same direction. In some states boys did better than girls whereas in some other states girls did better than boys. For the entire country the SC/ST pupils performed lower than the non-SC/ST ones. Further, the pupil's achievement was found to be positively related with father's education, facility for learning and educational environment at home. The variables related to schools and teachers indicated somewhat weak relationship with achievement.
Jangira (1994), while synthesizing the results of BAS of the eight DPEP states, found that students performed low in reading as well in mathematics. There was a marked difference in achievement across schools as well across states. With the help of regression analysis, a few individual and group level variables were found as significant predictors. The individual level, predictors for language achievement were: educational and occupational aspiration; teacher coming to class regularly; TV-watching; receiving dictation and feedback on tests; opportunity to read material other than textbooks; language of instruction and difficulty in understanding teacher's language in the classroom; availability of language textbook. For prediction of mathematics achievement, the individual level variables were: father's education, reading other material, correcting homework regularly, educational and occupational aspirations, and understanding teacher's language. The group level predictors, viz., asking children to read from textbook on their own and reading from the textbook and explaining were predictors for language achievement. For mathematics achievement, class size and teacher's expectations were found to be the significant predictors. The variables identified at individual as well as at group level for mathematics and language did not indicate any consistent behavior.

Owyer (1995) found that learning style preferences measured through Kolb’s LSI are correlated with GPA.

Vander et al. (1996) did not find any significant difference in mean scores of intrinsic motivation between high, average and low achieving students in Natural Science, Social Science and Humanities.

Verma (1996) found that study habits had significant main effects on academic achievements in Hindi, English and Social Studies. Students with better study habits had higher level of academic performance than their counterparts with poor study habits.
Patel (1996) reported that pupils who had good study habits do get significantly more achievement scores than those of poor study habits.

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

Solomon (1996) found that there was a weak relationship between learning style measured by Kolb’s LSI & educational achievements of African- American entry college freshmen.

Verma (1997) studied relationship between academic achievement and learning styles of B.Ed students. The results indicated that high and low achievers differ significantly on deep processing, elaborate processing and fact retention. High achievers had higher mean scores on these learning styles than the low achievers.

Gadzella et al. (1998) concluded that deep processing style, methodical style and critical thinking in combined form are found to predict academic performance in forms of grades.

Verma and Rajkumar (1999) found that achievement in English, Hindi, Mathematics, General Science and Social Studies was found to be positively and significantly related with study habits of the students. Overall achievement also appeared to be significantly & positively related to the study habits of the students.

Carter (1999) observed that there was significant positive relationship between academic success and auditory learning style.
King (1999) reported that significant relationship existed between learning style & academic success. There was a positive relationship between academic success and auditory language learning style.

Lipkowitz, Susan S. (2000) has done a study to measure the relationship between sensory disabilities and student adjustment levels for self-determination, self-esteem, cultural/disability identification, inclusion preferences, and academic achievement. The four disability groups that participated were students who were deaf, hard of hearing, blind or visually impaired. Results indicated that there were significant differences between the sensory groups on self-determination, self-esteem, and academic achievement, and significant placement differences on academic achievement, disability identity, and student preferences for inclusive education.

Upadhayay and Vikrant (2004) found that boys are significantly emotionally stable than girls and there was no significant difference in academic achievements.

Panigrahi (2005) found significant correlation between academic achievement and intelligence. The relationship between academic achievement and socio economic status was not found significant.

Panda (2005) reported little significant relationship between academic achievement and intelligence.

2.3 STUDIES ON SPECIAL AND INCLUSIVE SCHOOL

Basu, (1969) the Delhi School of Social Work undertook a study to prepare a plan for the welfare of the blind in Delhi. In this a survey of all the institutions for the blind was done and a plan was drawn up and submitted to the Bind Relief Association.
Ramachandran and Pandiarajan, (1971) made an attempt to conduct a feasibility survey for the employment of the blinds as physiotherapists. He concludes that the blind can successfully undertake this profession.

Nagpal, Urmil (1971), a very small research study was undertake by, Delhi University, regarding adjustment of the blind in the society, as part of her M.Ed. thesis. Her conclusions cannot be said to be scientific quantatively as they are based only on 10 respondents. But quantatively, it is worth noting when she concludes that there exists a gap between blind and sighted which is due to existing misconceptions.

The study undertaken by the Blind Relief Association in (1975) to know the attitudes of the employers towards employability of the blind employees within their organization concludes that the blind either work equally or even more efficiently than their sighted colleagues. Yet, the employers are reluctant to employ them.

The Workshop for the Blind, Bombay, (1975) conducted a study to assess the employability of blind persons. It interviewed the employees as well as their employers and concludes that purely sheltered form of employment should be discouraged except for the blind with multiple handicaps. It also identified ‘Accommodation’ as one of the major problems being faced by the blinds.

Vadhyar, (1976) assessed the awareness among the blind and utilization of the facilities available to the blind studying in colleges. She interviewed about 54 beneficiaries and 25 college authorities. She concludes that a majority of the blind had their education in special schools for the blind and hardly any services were provided by their colleges.
Berla and Butterfiels (1977) have studied the effect of training on blind students in shape-recognition, accuracy and speed, and accuracy of locating shapes on a tactile map by using a distinctive feature analysis-strategy and line-tracing. Performance of shape-recognition by a group of 25 trained Braille readers improved in comparison to a 25 matched group of untrained Braille-readers. In another experiment, the performance of shape location by 21 trained students showed significant improvement as compared with the control group, and significant decreases in the average time to locate a shape on a tactile map. For proper development of perceptual-conceptual abilities of the visually handicapped, according to them, their systematic training in handling and exploring of tactile materials, is of critical importance.

Matani, (1979) of the National Institute of Public Cooperation and Child Development carried out a study regarding educational and vocational facilities. This study aimed at assessing all educational and Vocational facilities for the blind in Delhi.

The Blind Relief Association, (1979) carried out a study on the adjustment of the blind in society.

Kang and Masoodi (1979) have examined attitudes towards blindness among theology and education graduate students, by taking samples both from conservative and liberal groups. For this, the Disability Factor Scales-Blindness and selected items from the Polyphasic Value Inventory have been used. A similarity of attitudes in both the group is reported. Although education students reacted more unfavorably to ‘Rejection of Intimacy’ dimension, theology students reacted more unfavorably to blindness. Female students showed more favourable reaction to blindness than do male students.
Hoben (1980) has looked into the purpose of educating handicapped students in the mainstream and observed that the intention should be to make them an integral part of this environment rather than to be simply present in the regular classes. Realising that integration is the result of the mainstreaming, particularly with reference to student inter-action; he suggests that interaction with other students must be encouraged.

Batra (1981) has done a study in Delhi to find out the Social integration of the blind. The significant conclusion of the study is:

a) Blind persons have to study more in order to achieve a status equivalent to their sighted counterparts; b) With the increase in educational status, the attitude of the sighted as well as the of blind changes significantly from a belief that blindness is a result of karma to a belief that is a ‘natural calamity’ and both start thinking that the blind can become relatively independent. c) The communication between the blind and sighted studying or working within the same institution is significantly low. d) The factory workers and students who have received training in orientation and mobility are more successful in independent travel as compared in other groups. e) Even with the increase in the educational and economic status of the blind and the sighted, significantly for brining social integration between them.

Gresham (1982) provides an incisive analysis on mainstreaming that it is based on three wrong assumptions:

(a) Placement in regular school could lead to increased social interaction with normal children, (b) could increase their social acceptance by non handicapped peers and (c) interaction would even change the behaviour of non handicapped. According to him, these assumptions are incorrect. Instead, he suggests imparting of social skills to handicapped children for better social interaction and peer acceptance.
Ainsa (1982) has conducted a 10-year post-study of parents’ perspective of early education of their handicapped children, mostly aged 13 years, who has undergone mainstreaming in public schools. Students are enrolled in the programme at age 3 and entered public school at age 6. In response to an open ended questionnaire, parents reported positive experience about early intervention of their children and also felt that this helped in the acceptance of their children. Mother also played a significant role at home in continuation of the activities at school.

Battle (1982) undertakes a comparative study of the self-esteem of students in regular and special education classes and administers Culture-Free Self-Esteem Inventory for Children and the Perception of Ability Scale to a selected group in regular and special classes. His conclusions are that students in special classes experience greater gains in self-esteem and perception of ability scores than those in regular classes.

Blacher-Dixon (1982) has examined the perspectives of mainstreaming at the early childhood level in the following three areas for future research: effects of preschool mainstreaming on more severely handicapped children, parental involvement activities and the impact of mainstreaming on the public school system.

The Council for Social Development (1982) has critically evaluated the Centrally-sponsored scheme of Integrated Education for Handicapped Children in Delhi. It examines classroom achievement as perceived by children, parents and teachers and analyses suggestions for proper implementation of the scheme.

Jaysree (1982) has studied manneristic behaviour of visually handicapped and sighted children and reports that manneristic behaviour among visually handicapped children is sometimes considered to be a device
for releasing tension arising from anxiety and frustration. Using a test based on 17 mannerisms, she infers that even sighted children also exhibit such behaviour in certain situations and that manneristic behaviour varies in different situations. Certain mannerisms tend to be more with visually handicapped children, yet there does not exist significant difference in this respect between sighted and visually handicapped children. From this follows that mannerism can be corrected through persuasion and guidance.

Sato (1982) has studied the speed of Braille-reading among blind children through an author-developed Braille-reading test given to 572 blind children in grades 1-9. He reported that over the grades from 1 to 4, Braille-reading speed tends to go up significantly, and after the fourth grade, the speed is gradually reduced. Accuracy in reading also follows this pattern, and after the fourth grade, it often levels off.

Rane, A.J. (1983) “Integrated Education Of Disabled Children” An evaluation of the scheme of Integrated Education for handicapped children based on a study of the working of the scheme in Maharashtra; TISS, Bombay (1983) has found:

a) A large majority of parents and guardians found integrated education useful for their child.

b) The disabled children under study had no problem of social relationship in the school and they had happy school experiences.

Odom (1983) has examined the problem of mainstream vs. integrated special education. Through variables, he finds discrimination in the types of programmes, and suggests that programmes containing high proportion of handicapped children be termed as “integrated special education” and those containing low proportion of such children be called ‘mainstreamed’. He
also highlights differences between the two types and problems associated with them.

Hudson and Clunies-Ross (1984) reported positive benefits from functional integration. No improvement was found in academic performance, but there was a significant improvement in social behaviour of pupils with learning difficulties.

Ridgeway (1985) carried out a study to find out if pupils were benefiting from mainstream programmes. For this purpose, 86 subjects, consisting of administrators, regular classroom teachers and parents of the visually impaired were selected. Even though teachers of the visually impaired were the most negative among the respondents, mainstreaming of the visually impaired children was found to be successful.

Ray (1985) reported there is an accumulating body of data indicating that handicapped mainstreamed students are not socially acceptable to their nonhandicapped peers. However, this determination was typically been based on data derived from sociometric techniques (p. 57).

De Noronha (1985) compares integration with segregation and concludes that, apart from exorbitant cost of mainstreaming residential schools, students in integrated programme achieve more academically, physically and socially.

McConnell (1985) has studied the problem of integration of visually handicapped students’ in industrial education classes and suggests that for a successful placement, certain issues have to be settled such as curriculum modification, adoptive equipment, safety provisions, attitudes of teachers and students, orientation and mobility, etc.
Gresham (1985) has studied social skills and self-efficacy for exceptional children and considers mainstreaming efforts in special education as unsuccessful since the assumptions are based on academic attainment only without a proper consideration of social development of handicapped children. He concluded that mainstreaming as practiced today “does not consider the level, strength, or magnitude of self-efficacy expectations of handicapped children”; it should be judged from the point of view of social acceptance in various spheres.

Teare (1985) has examined behavioural adjustment of 23 partially sighted or blind students through (CBC) Child Behaviour Checklist and observed that behavioural problems in blind students are as much influenced by cognitive ability as by visual functioning.

Zigler (1985) has looked into mainstreaming and suggests a careful monitoring so as to understand which handicapped child will benefit from the programme and to recommend adequate teacher training arrangements accordingly.

Obiakor et. al. (1987) compared the self-concepts of visually impaired (N=61) students, and normally sighted (N=229), all in grades 6 through 8. Self-concept was assessed with the Student Self-Assessment Inventory: General and Visually Impaired Forms. Visually impaired students and 76 of the sighted students were tested with the inventory's oral format (with slight additional modifications for the visually impaired) while the remaining sighted students received the written format. Visually impaired students were all residents at special schools for the visually impaired. The measure evaluates student self-knowledge, self-esteem, and self-ideal in the areas of physical maturity, peer relations, academic success, and school adaptiveness. Results indicated that differences in self-concept scores for normally sighted and visually impaired students were small and not
influenced significantly by such factors as grade level, test format, or testing procedure and provided little support for the notion that visually impaired students have lower self-concepts than sighted peers. On some measures (e.g., physical maturity self-ideal) scores favored the visually impaired students. The differences that did exist between groups showed the area-specific nature of self-concept. (DB)

Khan (1988) has covered 246 students’ in special schools for the blind in Orissa for his study and has concluded that Visually Impaired children are less achievement oriented, self-reliant. They were found to be more self-centered, neurotic and withdrawing.

Sharma (1988) has found that loss of sight does not produce any special behavior among the Visually Impaired. Unsuitable school setting is one of the most prominent factors which lead to academic retardation of the visually handicapped. He has concluded that after completing pre primary or primary education at special institutions, emphasis should be laid on placing the visually handicapped in integrated educational settings.

Jangira, Mukhopadhyay, Sudesh and Reth (1988) described

(i) On the visually handicapped, 45 Studies have been conducted, only 13 studies has been conducted up to 1980 while 32 studies have conducted during 1981 and onwards. This indicates the concern for research education during the 1980s.

(ii) A large number of variables have been covered but the studies for variables are not enough to warranty generalization. Psychological variable like personality traits, attitudes and behavioral problems were the variables that were studied most.
Murganandam (1990) has found that the visually impaired children learned more science concepts when they are taught through the specially prepared teaching-learning materials.

Pandey (1991) has found in his study that

a) The 16% of the total disable sample is completely (totally) blind.

b) The educational level of the disabled is low as they are not having proper financial support from their parents.

Mandravalli (1991) has discovered developmental lag in Visually Handicapped children on cognitive development task. They, however, followed the piagetian development stages.

Lal (1992) has reported difference in Visually Impaired and Sighted students on acceptance, worthiness, anxiety and participation scales.

Jangira (1994) has reported that the majority of locations in rural area have one school. If it does not cater to the needs of all children, including those with special needs, it contradicts the supply side of the constitutional obligation in respect of universal elementary education. It also results in heavy wastage by way of low retention of children and underachievement as revealed in baseline studies.

Van et al. (1994). - This article addressed teaching students with visual impairments metacognitive learning strategies to improve their academic performance. Topics discussed include intrinsic motivation and self-concept; structuring and activating schemata; using cognitive modeling and verbal self-instructional procedures; teaching self-regulatory procedures; and promoting strategy acquisition, proficiency, maintenance, and generalization. (DB)
Beaty (1995) did the assessment of psychosocial and academic adjustment of 30 undergraduates with visual impairments and 43 non-disabled undergraduates revealed no inter group differences on psychosocial adjustment. The mean grade point average of subjects with visual impairments was higher than that of non-disabled subjects. Blind/low vision students scored higher than sighted students on self-esteem.

Jangira, (1995) has reported that the school system must be changed to enable it to respond to the educational needs of all children, including those with special needs. Each school has to accept that it must cater to all the children in its community. This fundamental shift in school policy is to be accompanied by: curriculum reform ensuring it accessibility to all children; teacher education reform to equip mainstream teachers with appropriate knowledge and skills; and the building of a support system.

Dunkerton (1995) has analyzed the GCSE (General Certificate of Secondary Education) and A / AS – level examination results for 295 U.K. students with blindness / visual impairments – GCSE data showed no difference between visually impaired and sighted students, whereas visually impaired students performed better than sighted students on A / AS – level examinations. Results were examined for gender, school setting and severity of disability.

Carr and Others (1983), Spina Bifida children (N=22) in regular schools were matched for IQ and their academic achievement compared. Data from tests revealed that students from Special Schools were behind their peers in mathematics with no significances in reading.

Soodak et al. (1998) found that teachers are more receptive to those with physical disabilities because the disabilities are seen as involuntary. In
contrast, students with cognitive and behavior disorders may be viewed as “blamable.”

Flexible grouping allows students to work in a variety of configurations to best meet their current needs and promotes socially constructed knowledge opportunities. The more teachers feel overworked and overwhelmed with trying to meet students’ individual needs, the more resistant they become to inclusion.

King-Sears *et al.* (1996) (1997) recommend using assessment data to form four groups of students within a classroom (HALO): “H” for high achievers, “A” for average or typical students, “L” for low achievers and “O” for other students or students with disabilities. Scores across HALO should indicate that all students are progressing, differentiated instruction, which includes accommodation, adaptation, parallel instruction, and overlapping instruction; has been shown to be effective for this purpose.

Meister (1998) interviewed students with motor, visual, or auditory impairments at 15 German universities with regard to acceptance of the impairment by their families, social integration, compensatory behavior, motivating or discouraging factors in the course of study, and social support from other students. The results showed that depending on the type and severity of the impairment, these students required two to five times as much time to learn the syllabus and to prepare and revise lectures than did their peers without impairments. Because of this extra effort, they also reported requiring more breaks and having less time for leisure activities.

Brantlinger (1996) has analyzed the written documents and discussions of 182 undergraduate special education majors and minors and found numerous instances of beliefs that were determined to be detrimental to effective inclusive education.
Jenkinson (1998) investigated the factors influencing 193 Australian parents in choosing either an integrated setting or a special school for their children with disabilities. Mainstream parents gave high rating to normalization and academic aspects, while special-school parents emphasized special programs, teacher-students ratios, and the child’s self-esteem.

Farrell et al. (1999) assessed the educational attainments of pupils, ages 7 to 16, at a special school for children with emotional and / or behavior disorders (EBD) in England. Results support previous research indicating that children with EBD have major problems in literacy and numeracy. Implications for teaching approaches in special schools, for early intervention, and staff training were noted.

Shukla (2000) made an attempt to assess the efficacy of Special School and Integrated Educational system for the Visually Impaired in India by using a sample of 1200 Visually Impaired school children drawn from 4 Zones covering 8 States. The variables in the study are academic achievement, social maturity, self-esteem, communication skills, prevocational skills and competencies in Braille, mobility, daily living skills as well as use of assistive devices using appropriately developed measures.

The finding suggest effectiveness of special school system in the areas of competencies and academic achievement, where are mixed trends were found on others.

Routh made an attempt to examine the various communicative experiences, which the visually impaired encounter in their daily life. The interview method adopted for the study. A sample of five visually impaired students, who were associated with a non-governmental organization, based in Kolkata, called ‘Society for the Visually Handicapped’ which worked for
visually impaired persons were chosen. The age group of the sample was between 20-26 years. Results of the study were:

I. Absence of eyesight did not prevent the visually impaired from communicating although they faced various problems while communicating with sighted people.

II. Auditory and tactile senses assisted them in communication.

III. Visually impaired individuals primarily engaged in verbal communication to express themselves.

IV. They possessed deep-rooted yearning to merge with the mainstream.

V. The need for constant feedback to denote acceptance from non-disabled people was crucial for their self-assurance.

VI. They used different communication strategies to facilitate communication between themselves and people without disability as they observed a certain level of reluctance initially in dealing with them.

VII. They were aware of their capabilities as well as limitations in the way they used walking sticks or wore dark glasses or asked others for help without hesitation. For all this, they were confident of their ability and their future in terms of making an independent living.

VIII. The visually impaired felt that they could communicate better with their own kind than sighted people because similar experiences formed a kind of commonness amongst them.

IX. They considered their visual impairment as a weakness; but were resigned to their condition and wanted to progress forward in their lives.
X. The visually impaired confronted various problems in terms of accessibility, education, employment and interaction with sighted people.

XI. The visually impaired felt that people without disability lacked adequate information about them, which led to misconceptions about visually impaired amongst non-disabled people.

**Jayachandran (2000)** who is a pioneer in introducing successful integrated education in the State of Kerala, India reported that Inclusive Education is an integral part of general education. Training regular classroom teachers in the area of integrated education, curriculum modification, parent education, appropriate technology and modification, awareness of parents and modification of positive attitude towards disability are the key points of successful integrated education. They formed a state level and district level Resource Group to develop the manpower required in special education and it has become the back bone of the scheme. Preparation in the early stage is the major factor that makes our special schools become the pilot Resource Centers for training of teachers, peers and volunteers.

**Nanjurdaiah, (2000)** Seva-in-Action, a voluntary organization in India has made an attempt to understand the needs of people in rural areas and its relation to the community strengths in developing an appropriate Community Based Rehabilitation (CBR) and Inclusive Education (IE) models. Seva-in-Action has developed a cost-effective, socio-culturally appropriate, comprehensive, sustainable and holistic Community Based Rehabilitation (CBR) program and Inclusive Schools aiming at total rehabilitation of all children and persons with disabilities in rural areas of Karnataka, South India.
Farrell (2000) has suggested that “mainstream inclusion” be replaced by “educational inclusion” in order to avoid the implication that venues other than mainstream schools are inferior. It argues that placement of pupils with disabilities should be informed by a consideration of the effectiveness of the venue in raising academic and social standards.

Shapiro (2000) stated that according to Henderson and Bryan (1997) five most common forms of prejudice and beliefs toward people with disabilities include that they (1) are inferior, (2) are totally impaired, (3) are less intelligent, (4) need charity and (5) prefer the company of others with disabilities.

Jain (2000) explained in her paper, the process of change from a secluded to inclusive program at the Enabling Centre, Department of Child Development, Lady Irwin College, Delhi University, the center is experimenting since 1988 the integration of disabled and non-disabled students in a successful manner. This experiment has change the attitude, thinking and the views of the teachers, parents as well the students. This was for the followed up and the concept of inclusion introduced in 1994 at the World Congress in Mental Retardation at New Delhi. In 1996, the Centre started Inclusive Education Programme as a project- a new and a separate experiment for three years. The results are encouraging which can be gauged from the fact the feeling of the discrimination is not experienced by non-disabled students and the culture of participation developed, last but not least communication gap between the parents, teachers and the students (disabled, non-disabled) increased a satisfactory level.

Yuen and Westwood (2001) assessed the attitudes towards integration exhibited by teachers in a sample of typical Hong Kong secondary schools. The participants comprised of 345 teachers from 39 secondary schools. Results suggested that the teachers did not hold
particularly favourable or supportive attitudes towards the policy of integration. While the majority supported the underlying principle that it is every child’s right to learn in a regular classroom, most were uncertain about the actual practicalities of such placement. In particular, negative attitudes were expressed concerning the feasibility of integrating students with behavioural problems, and those with severe visual or hearing difficulties or with mental handicaps. More positive attitudes were expressed towards integrating students with physical disabilities and those with mild health or speech problems. When teachers with guidance training were compared with those without it, the results showed that teachers with guidance training generally held more positive attitudes towards integration.

**Manju (2001)** has found in a comparative study of attitude of teachers towards Visually Impaired Children studying in Integrated, Special and General Schools that:

1. Favorable attitude lead to good academic achievement in special school, which is gradually decreasing from special to integrated school

2. The school functioning is designed for a major group of sighted children with keeping the need of this dominating group

3. Secondary importance is giving to integrated population so it affects the adjustment and academic achievement of learners.

4. Teachers who are teaching the non disabled population are normally unaware of the needs and problems of the disabled.

**Moody et al. (2000)** reported that the homogenous grouping can support academic success for the students in diverse classroom when instructional materials are varied to meet the needs of different groups of
students. The focus needs to be on intensive, direct and special instruction. The large caseloads carried by teachers in diverse classroom settings prevent them from individualizing instruction.

**Huber et al. (2001)** investigated the effect that inclusion and inclusionary school practices have on the achievement scores of low, average, and high academically achieving general education students. Inclusive school practices have a differential effect, as low achieving general education students appeared to benefit academically, while higher achieving students lost ground.

**Anne L. Corn and Robert S. Wall. (2002)** Their survey of the use of technology and multimedia presentations by 410 teachers of students with visual impairments found that the teachers were more at ease with general technology than with technology designed specifically for students with visual impairments. When adapting traditional materials, the teachers tended to use simpler, less technological solutions even when they were not entirely appropriate.

**Sharma & Desai (2002)** investigated the Measuring Concerns about Integrated Education in India. The results indicated that school principals were significantly more concerned than classroom teachers about implementing integrated education in India.

**María (2003)** explored mainstream education teacher’s perceptions of instructional adaptations in inclusive classrooms and its feasibility, effectiveness, and desirability of implementation. It was of particular interest to know how teachers of different grade levels would respond to such adaptations. Kindergarten (n = 16), elementary (n = 34), secondary (n = 26) and high school (n = 13) teachers rated the feasibility, effectiveness and desirability of 29 items on the Teaching Adaptation Scale. Results indicated
a moderate teacher acceptance of instructional adaptations. Additionally, statistically significant differences between grade grouping (high school vs. compulsory grades) surfaced. Findings are discussed in the light of needs of professional practice and significant reforms to improve curriculum preparation programmes.

**Benjamin (2003)** concluded that a politically literate understanding of the processes of inclusion and exclusion is necessary to highlight the continuing reproduction of educational inequality, and to produce the necessary conditions for egalitarian change.

**Koay et al. (2003)** examined the attitudes and perceptions of Learning Assistance Teachers (LATs) and Regular Teachers (RTs) towards inclusive education. The study was initiated in the year 2000, with the specific intention of recommending possible improvements to policy and practice regarding inclusive education in Brunei Darussalam. The dependent variables included; teachers’ perceived self-efficacy, their perceived desirability, feasibility and frequency of use of instructional adaptations for inclusive classrooms; and their perceived actual and ideal collaborative roles of LATs and RTs as well as their perceived barriers to collaboration. The independent variables included: (a) Gender, (b) Age, (c) Qualification, (d) Level of teaching, (e) Position, (f) Teacher types, (g) Teaching experience, (h) Attendance of Special Education course during pre-service teacher education, (i) Years of experience in teaching special needs students, (j) Number of special needs students taught, (k) preferred Venue of teaching special needs students, (l) preferred Placement of special needs students, (m) perceived Knowledge and (n) perceived Skills in teaching special needs students. The major findings of the study were:

i. Both male and female teachers were equally predisposed towards inclusive education.
ii. In terms of age groups, those in their thirties tended generally to be more favourable than their older or younger counterparts, with some of the differences being statistically significant.

iii. Those with at least four years’ experience in teaching children with special needs were clearly most positive, especially in comparison with those who had no, or just one year’s, experience.

iv. There were far fewer significant differences between those who agreed and those who disagreed that attendance in pre-service special education courses was beneficial.

v. With very few exceptions, those who agreed that special needs children (SNCs) should be placed in regular classes were significantly more positive than those who disagreed.

vi. Teachers should perceive their levels of knowledge and skills to be good and not insufficient. However, besides equipping them with appropriate and adequate knowledge and skills, it is important, from time to time, to ascertain their perceived level of confidence or competence in teaching Special Needs Children.

Rao (2003) has concluded that Inclusive education must respond to all pupils as individuals, recognizing individuality as something to be appreciated and respected. Inclusive education responding to special needs will thus have positive returns for all pupils.” All children and young people of the world, with their individual strengths and weaknesses, with their hopes and expectations, have the right to education. It is not our education systems that have a right to a certain type of children. Therefore, it is the school system of a country that must be adjusted to meet the needs of all its children."
Sultana et al. (2003) The aspect of education for all including disabled has been adopted in Bangladesh. A study was launched to evaluate the overall situation of all the seven pilot schools of Inclusive Education. The Bangladesh Protibondhi Foundation has been experimented an active role of Inclusive Schools in furtherance to obtain maximum uplift-ment and the result in the pilot scheme to put the disabled along with the non disabled. It has shown the positive result and all encouraging, as the results obtain in the nutshell is herein under:

1. Most of the non-disabled students of inclusive schools expressed positive attitude towards the disabled peers.

2. The results of Evaluation of Academic Performance administered to all the children (disabled and non-disabled) revealed satisfactory performance of both two groups of students.

3. Teachers expressed that the inclusive schools made the disabled children gain independence and become socially relaxed with the environment. Their observation was that both the disabled and non-disabled students were improving satisfactorily

4. The responses from the non-disabled classmates showed that they were happy to have disabled peers in the classroom.

5. Inclusive schools are having a positive impact on changing the attitude of the society at large

6. The parents of disabled students are able to start a new looking for the abilities rather than disabilities of their children more realistically.

Banerjee (2003) director, Seva-in-Action, Bangalore, presented a paper on Teacher Training Strategies in IED 1998. It was found that teachers
had a positive approach towards Integrated Education, but lacked knowledge and practical skills for teaching special children.

Sinha (2003) found that deprivation of education is also due to the rigidity of the formal system of education in terms of fixed time, fixed curricula, evaluation system and learning pace.

Shivagami (2003) observed that in regular schools, a Child with Special Needs would face other problems such as access, attitudes, teacher’s apprehension and peer acceptance, rigid curriculum and extra curricular activities. Inclusive education would be considered a success if mainstream schools developed a positive attitude towards the educational needs of disabled children and increase access through simple adaptations. Apart from a general awareness in society, what needs to be done is teacher preparation and peer acceptance. Only thus can the diversity of the human condition be celebrated.

Pauline (2003) Title Research studies have shown consistently the benefits of increasing access to opportunities for social interaction and learning for children with visual impairment (VI). Teaching children in mainstream schools carries inherent benefits of participation and learning within an environment of non-segregation, thus promoting the child’s educational and social inclusion.

Kiarie (2004) reported that until the nineteen hundreds, people with disabilities did not receive formal educational services in Kenya. The paper discussed available educational services for individuals with visual impairments in terms of their forms, materials provided, and educational placements. Areas of most progress were discussed along with obstacles that stand in the way of efficient services for this population. The researcher concluded that educational services for individuals with visual impairments
in Kenya continue to expand and to improve. From their early beginnings as charitable acts these services were considered as a right for every individual who demonstrates need. Unfortunately, due to lack of human and material resources, only a small percentage (about 5) of this population can receive services.

Heiman (2004) was designed a study to examine and compare British and Israeli teachers' perceptions, expectations, and needs regarding the inclusion process. The sample consisted of 116 Israeli teachers and 140 British teachers in mainstream classes. The teachers' questionnaire consisted of seven open-ended questions dealing with the theoretical concept of inclusion, the advantages and disadvantages of the ideal model of inclusion, and indicators of the teachers’ current situation in their classrooms.

The results pointed to similarities and differences in the teachers' assessments of the factors that facilitate and hamper the inclusion process. While British teachers focused on non-disabled students, teachers and the educational system as facilitating inclusion, Israeli teachers emphasized the role of included students and of teachers, as those who impede the process. Most teachers in both countries preferred that students receive academic support outside of their classrooms. British teachers emphasized the advantages of inclusion for the entire class, and disadvantages to the students with LD; Israeli teachers focused on advantages to teachers and noted more disadvantages for non-disabled students and for teachers. The findings suggested that although the teachers evaluated the inclusion process in different ways and tended to implement it differently, most of the teachers, in both countries, support inclusion.

Dupoux et al. (2005) compared the attitudes of teachers toward integration of students with disabilities in Haiti and the United States. A sample of 152 high school teachers in Haiti and 216 high school teachers in
the United States was asked to complete a background questionnaire and the Opinions Relative to the Integration of Students with Disabilities scale (Antonak & Larrivee, 1995). Results showed that teachers in both countries had similar attitudes toward the integration of students with disabilities. Years of experience was individually correlated with attitudes, but it was not a significant predictor when other variables were included in a multiple regression. Three variables predicted attitudes toward integration of students with disabilities. Teachers' attitudes explained the largest variance, followed by advanced degree, and range of effective accommodation of different categories of disabilities.

Alghazo (2005) examined special education teacher's perceptions of their effective instruction practices in teaching students with disabilities in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). Participants included 107 prospective teachers who teach in special education classrooms, and 107 prospective teachers who teach in centers. They responded to 63 items of the modified version of the Model off Effective Instruction (Ysseldyke and Algozzine, 1995). Finding revealed that teachers in general were ineffective in teaching students with disabilities. However, female teachers were more effective than male teachers; special education classroom teachers were more effective than their counterparts who teach in centers; teachers who had 1-5 years of experience were more effective than those with more than six years of experience, and teachers who had in-service training once were more effective than those who had in-service training more than once.

Dyson (2005) investigated the nature of kindergarten children's understanding about and attitudes toward disabilities. Interviews with 77 Canadian children enrolled in inclusive classrooms showed that kindergarten children (a) conceptualize disabilities chiefly according to physical appearances and (b) possess a fairly accurate understanding of some aspects
of disabilities. Kindergarten children also hold generally positive attitudes toward persons with disabilities. These attitudes, however, do not reflect their reported friendships with persons with disabilities. Only half of the non-disabled children reported having friends who have disabilities. Possibilities for future research and the need to further enhance the social inclusion of children with disabilities are suggested.

Hamot et al. (2005) reported that increasing numbers of students with disabilities receive a majority of their formal education in general education settings where they must be taught the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to lead fully equitable and participatory lives in a democratic society. Given the need for all students to acquire civic understanding, the purpose of this study was to explore and describe knowledge of selected civic competencies as found in students of inclusive social studies classes and how they acquired this knowledge. Quantitative methods were used to explore whether or not the level of understanding these competencies was significantly similar between students with disabilities and general education students in inclusive classrooms, thus supporting or questioning the philosophical underpinnings of inclusion in a democratic society. Additionally, qualitative methods were used to describe the sources responsible for student understanding of selected civic competencies with the goal of determining similarities and differences in these students' knowledge bases.

Engelbrecht et al. (2005) stated that the parental involvement was a driving and decisive factor in the development of inclusive education worldwide. In South Africa parents also became the advocates of the inclusive education movement in the 1990s, paving the way for parents to be involved in the decision-making process regarding the school placement of their children with disabilities. The purpose of this article is to focus on the
way in which equity, individual rights and freedom of choice manifest itself in the implementation of inclusive education with specific reference to the way in which parents experience it. Results indicate that the inclusion of a child into mainstream education is a challenging and dynamic process that starts with the parents' decision to place their child in a mainstream setting. In spite of legislation and the desires of parents, the development of inclusive educational practices in South Africa does not always reflect the values of equity and individual rights. Failure to establish collaborative and trusting relationships between teachers, parents and professionals poses a major challenge and can have a serious impact on the outcomes of inclusive education.

Mulholland And Cepello (2006) designed a model assignment and tested to enhance special education teacher candidate’s skills and understanding in order to improve student learning. The model included university and school-site activities that develop teacher candidate’s awareness of the relationship between on-task learning time and student achievement. Teacher candidates (N=90) systematically gathered data on their own teaching behaviors and the learning behaviors of their students to measure the level of engaged teaching and learning. In addition to research articles, the instructors provided a checklist adapted from the Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study (Scandoval, 1976), for the teachers to use when analyzing their tapes and documenting specific teacher, class and targeted student behaviors. The teachers used their own video cameras and tapes. Research concluded that teacher training programs are mandated to produce highly qualified teacher candidates who will translate textbook knowledge into learning environments that support their student’s academic success. The results of this study suggested the teacher’s heightened awareness of the correlation between teacher behaviors and student on task behaviors, which impact achievement.
Rouse, Florian, (2006). This paper reports on a multi method study that examined the effects of including higher and lower proportions of students designated as having special educational needs on student achievement in secondary schools. It explores some of the issues involved in conducting such research and considers the extent to which newly available national data in England can be helpful in answering questions about inclusion and achievement. Questions pertaining to the effects of provision on achievement are discussed within a school reform agenda that emphasizes high academic standards, competition between schools and the identification of pupils with special educational needs.

Singal (2006) examined education of children belonging to marginalized groups, with particular reference to children with disabilities, within the Indian context. Based on an analysis of post-independence Government documents, various educational provisions made available for children with disabilities are discussed. The article explored the Indian Government's focus on the development of special schools, its efforts towards integration, and the more recent emphasis on inclusive education. Furthermore, it attempted to elucidate "inclusive education" as understood in various official documents. The article concluded by arguing for a need to develop a contextual understanding of inclusive education that is reflective of current educational concerns in India.

Elhoweris and Alsheikh (2006) made an attempt to find out the teacher’s attitudes toward inclusion. The majority of teachers in the study indicated positive perceptions of inclusion of student with disabilities in the general education classroom. A second conclusion concerning the difference in the attitudes of general education teachers and special education teachers indicated that all special education teachers identified with the Legalism and the Environmentalism viewpoint, which implies that they are highly
supportive of inclusion. While more general education teachers identified with the Conservatism point of view, which indicate that general educators are not highly supportive of inclusion, and have strong reservations toward including students with severe disabilities. The quantitative and qualitative results of this study were consistent with the findings of the previous studies that proposed that the amount of training or experience the teachers had in teaching students with disabilities is related to teacher’s attitude toward inclusion.

Villa and Colker 2006 believed that Inclusion is an oft-used buzzword in education. To reach all students author truly wanted a classroom in which all children have access. The author handles a program that targets children who are considered at risk for possible school failure because of low family income. However the program was not specifically intended to children with special needs, despite of the initial screening that identifies one or more children who qualifies for a special education services. To ensure that all children received the support they need in order to develop and learn, the author and Denise Suhr whom teaches preschool children with disabilities, used The Creative Curriculum for Preschool (2002), a program that focuses on building the abilities of an individual children while encouraging them to try new things. They combined their classrooms and offer one program in which they could teach both groups. The author believes that the diverse environment of their inclusive classroom gave all the children a setting in which to grow. As a result the children came to see themselves as a community of learners, no longer as two separate groups.

Farrell et al. (2007) Inclusion and Achievement in Mainstream Schools. This paper considers the key findings of a DfES-funded study that explored the relationship between achievement and inclusion in mainstream
schools in England. The methodology involved a statistical analysis of nationally held data on all pupils at the end of key stages 1-4, together with a series of site visits to "inclusive" mainstream schools. These were carried out in order to explore school processes that might explain how some schools can manage to be both highly achieving and inclusive. Findings indicate that there is a small, but for all practical purposes, insubstantial relationship between inclusion and academic achievement at the school level although there is also a large degree of variation suggesting strongly there are other factors within a school's make up, rather than its degree of inclusivity, that impact on the average academic achievements of its pupils. This was confirmed from the analysis of the school site visits. The overall conclusion, therefore, is that mainstream schools need not be concerned about the potentially negative impact on the overall academic achievements of their pupils of including pupils with SEN in their schools.

Marom et al. (2007) This quasi-experimental study investigated how direct contact between students with and without disabilities impacted disability-related attitudes and specific self-efficacy of study participants. Study participants (N = 170) were students without disabilities who attended general education schools. Students in an experimental group (N = 77) participated in a "Partners to Inclusion Program." This 1-year program provided direct contact with students with disabilities, via weekly or bi-weekly joint activities that lasted 30-90 min. Participants in a no-treatment control group (N = 93) did not participate in the program. We found that disability-related attitudes and specific self-efficacy improved over time for participants in the experimental group, but not for participants in the control group. These results extend research findings and practical implications on how to change disability-related attitudes and biases.
Begeny and Martens (2007) Since the 1970s, Italy has had a national policy of integrating nearly all students with disabilities into the general education classroom. As a result, many advocates of inclusion in the United States have identified Italy as an excellent example of how wide-range inclusion can be accomplished. However, some U.S. and Italian educators have expressed concern that very little research has directly examined Italy's inclusion practices and outcomes. In this article, all of the available literature in English in a 20-year period that pertained to Italy's inclusion outcomes and classroom practices was reviewed. Of the studies directly addressing Italy's inclusion practices, survey studies were the most common, and very few studies used experimental methodology. Furthermore, survey studies generally found outcomes considered to be favorable toward inclusion practices, whereas the results from experimental studies called the benefits of full inclusion into question. Of the studies that described interventions for students with disabilities, only a small percentage was conducted in a general education setting. Implications, limitations, and future research directions are discussed.

Anderson et al. (2007) examined the inclusion-related beliefs and perceived needs of primary teachers in Australia, and proposes ways that school psychologists can help meet these needs. Forced-choice and open-ended survey questions provided quantitative and qualitative data from 162 primary school teachers who were in the midst of implementing an inclusive education program in a large urban/suburban education district in Western Australia. Survey questions focused on beliefs about inclusion, confidence about implementing inclusive practices and attitudes about current and necessary support structures. The majority of teachers perceive benefits (85 percent) as well as drawbacks (95 percent) to teaching in inclusive classrooms. Only 10 percent of teachers noted school psychologists as part of structures that successfully support inclusive practices and only 4 percent
of teachers requested additional school psychology time as a support structure needed to boost confidence to teach more inclusively. Qualitative data showed that teachers want more training in specific disabilities as well as additional aide time. Researchers concluded that school psychologists need to be more proactive and involved in providing training, disseminating research, developing behavior and learning plans and advocating for teachers.

**Obeng (2007)** demonstrated that a majority of the students with disabilities in Ghanaian classrooms (in Accra and some rural areas in Eastern Region) did not have their disabilities detected or identified by professionals. The paper also showed that vision impairment is the most common problem reported by the teachers in the schools, especially in Accra. Also, most of the teachers did not have any training in teaching children with disabilities. This situation limits their capability of helping the children with disabilities meaningfully toward achieving their educational goals. It was recommended that the Ghana Education Service makes Special Education courses a major component in the teacher-training curriculum in Ghana for teachers in order to increase teacher effectiveness in dealing with children with disabilities.

**Zyoudi (2007)** aimed to investigate whether there were differences in self-concept among adolescents with low vision due to gender. The sample population consisted of (23) adolescents, 12 (10 males and 13 females) aged 12-17 years in the first year of secondary school. The researcher used the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) for the evaluation of Self-Concept. The results of this study showed that there were some differences in the adolescents' self-concept and self-behavior due to gender. Female students scored lower on social self-concept, family self-behavior, and moral self-behavior dimensions than male students, but higher on physical self-concept.
Crisp (2007) looked into the efficacy of intelligence testing in children with physical disabilities, visual impairments and/or the inability to speak and to propose some alternative testing methods to make testing more appropriate for these children in United States. The researcher reported that (i) current methods of standardized testing, particularly methods of obtaining IQ measurements, are ineffective in accurately assessing cognitive levels in children with physical disabilities, visual impairments, and/or the inability to speak. (ii) Even though provisions are made for accommodations, these accommodations do not meet the needs of those children with significant differences in abilities from their typically developing peers. (iii) It is imperative that psychologists, educators, and medical professionals work together to develop more effective measures to assess cognitive development in children with significant disabilities affecting the child’s ability to successfully participate in current standardized tests.

Malakpa (2007) analysed the problems and prospects in employment and job retention of the Blind and Visually Impaired in the United Stated: a future concern of special education. The researcher concluded that (i) the employment of people with severe vision impairments is impeded generally by multiple personal and social problems. Nonetheless, there is a need to empower such persons to gain and retain employment. (ii) Beyond the fact that, like others in society, they have a constitutional and legal right to the pursuit of a meaningful livelihood, their employment yields multifarious personal and social benefits. (iii) The possibility of effective and efficient job performance is enhanced by the proliferation of assistive technology. This technological break-through juxtaposes legal rights, fuels personal ambition, and silences employers’ excuses. (iv) Failure to empower and employ the blind and visually impaired is not only inexcusable but also an indefensible violation of their constitutional and human rights.
World Conference on Education for All (1990), the Salamanca Conference (1994) and World Education Forum (2000) where UNESCO, UNDP, UNICEF, UNFPA, World Bank, etc. and agencies and representatives from all over the world gathered to review and analyze their efforts towards the goal of Education for All. Consequently, Inclusive education is regarded as the only means to achieve the goal of Education for All.

2.4 CONCLUSION

Analysis of review of related research on value pattern, academic achievement, special school and inclusive school results in the following inference:-

(i) Forty four studies have been reported on Values covering different aspects. [Makhija (1973), Ghosh (1977), Shanker and Asthana (1979), Gupta (1992), Verma et. al. (1995), Vajpayee (1997), Shrivastava (2004), Gates (2006), Pal, Rippberger et. al. (2007), Dovre (2007)] have been studied Values in relation to type of institution, scholastic achievements, modernity, in a large metropolitan border area, vocational preferences, perception, interest, intelligence level of education environmental problems, need, medium of education, caste, gender, socio-economic background, value education and subjects, origin, correlation among different values, character education and core values, citizenship education, hierarchal system of values, etc. Sharma (1987), Sharma (1992), Asthana and Shrivastava (2002) have investigated the impact of school environment, medium of instruction on Values. The studies of Woodruff (1942), Charrels (1945), Kinnana and Suziedails (1962), Irey (1963), Hellond (1963), Mehta and Khane (1967) and Entwistle (1972), Rawat (1993), Singh and Soni (1999) reveals that the different individuals of different institutions have different patterns of Value.
(ii) 63 studies have been done on Academic Achievement. Achievement have been studied in relation to study habits, motivation, demographic factors, home environment, learning styles, critical thinking, gender, intelligence, anxiety self esteem, teacher’s qualification, teachers’ attitude, parents’ attitude, class size, economic statue etc. Most of the studies on Academic Achievement have been done with the variables like study habits and Motivation, intelligence. In 22 studies academic achievement of the students has been seen with Motivation. Most of the researchers find Academic Achievement and motivation are positively related while. In ten studies researchers related to academic achievement studies with learning study and 9 reveal Academic Achievement is positively related with learning style rest not found it. Eleven researchers have related the academic achievement [Holtzman and Farquhar (1954), Brown and Holsman (1956), Jarnuar (1966)Srivastave (1968), Dave (1988), Yeh (1991), Panda (1992), Jegede, (1992), Verma and Rajkumar (1999) ] with Study Habits. Nine researchers found that academic achievement is positively related with study habits, high achiever have better study habits whereas two researchers have (Patnayak, Matt et al.(1991)) not found it. Tamhankar (1968), Sinha (1970), found n-achievement is positively related with academic achievement. Sharma and Singh (1973), Shrivastava (1976) found that academic motivation and the achievement are positively related. Khane (1988) has concluded that blind children are less achievement oriented.

al. (2003), Crisp (2007)] have done studies on Visually Impaired Students, a large number of variables have been covered like manneristic behavior, problem of mainstream vs. integrated special education, social skills and self-efficacy, speed of Braille-reading, behavioral adjustment, self-concepts, behavioral adjustment, integrated educational settings, developmental lag, personality traits, attitude, learning strategies, academic performance, communication, beliefs, Problem of integration etc. computer equipment and cognitive ability, efficacy of intelligence testing, teachers' perceptions of instructional adaptations in inclusive classrooms etc. Most of the studies on inclusion of disabled children [Blacher and Dixon (1982), Gresham (1982), Ainsa (1982), Council for Social Development (1982), Rane (1983), Rane, A.J. (1983), Gresham (1985), Gresham (1985), Zigler (1985), Jangira (1988), Jangira (1994), Brantlinger (1996) Ferrell (2000), Sharma and Desai () Shapiro (2000) Jaychandran (2000) NanJurdaiah (2000) Jain (2000), Rao (2003), Banergee (2003), Sinha (2003), Benjamin et al. (2003), Shivagami (2003), Farrell (2007)] consider mainstreaming or integration or Inclusion of disabled including Visually Impaired useful for the welfare of the students, parents and society.. These researchers also mentioned different reasons Jayshree (1982), Battle (1982), Lal (1992), found they differ on many aspects. De Noronah (1985) students achieve more academically, physically socially in inclusive setting, Carr and Others (1983), Khan (1988) found special schools as less achievement oriented, Dunkonton (1995) has analyzed and found that Visually Impaired students performed better than sighted students, Batra (1981) and Meister (1998) have found that Visually Impaired persons have to study more, two to five times as much time to learn the syllabus and to prepare and revise lectures in order to achieve a status equivalent to their sighted counterparts whereas Van et al. (1994), Moody et al. (2000) examined the strategies to improve academic
performance of Visually Impaired. **Huber (2001)** found inclusive schools have differential effects on Sighted students academically.

It is quite clear from the screened literature that few researches on Visually Impaired students have been conducted, but the researcher regrets to state that she could not found any study involving variables included in the present problem. However, it is quite important and timely to take up such an in-depth study, which will help educationists, parents, teachers and society. This urged the investigator to attempt an objective study of value pattern, Academic Achievement of Sighted and Visually Impaired students studying in Special Schools and Inclusive School.