CHAPTER 1

THE PROBLEM

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

1.00 Introduction

The educational system of any country is geared with and governed by its political philosophy. Since the dawn of independence, the Indian system of education has introduced and incorporated systematically and sequentially the democratic philosophy of nation into its national philosophy of education. Consequently, the present educational system of the country is epitomized with democratic learning experiences. The educational institutions have, therefore, been converted into a Laboratory for the experimentation of democratic contents and political experiences. It is, thus, the class-room which has become the nucleus of training for politicalization of democracy. Formation of 'Student Union' in the educational institutions in the country is nothing but a training for successful citizenship in their future life; and assimilation and incorporation of desirable socio-democratic values. However, the existing conditions of politicalization hardly ensure to impart such a training from the educational institutions to the pupils. Students, especially student leaders have attained prominence through famous or
infamous means. College unions have become the breeding places for anti-social elements. They have become the hot bed of politics creating turbulence and turmoil in the proper administration of colleges. The problems facing the educational authorities are innumerable and evading proper solutions. They seem to be escalating every academic year.

What urges the students to seek power, popularity among peers, and to achieve something unique by which they would stand distinct among the student community is perhaps, one of the probing questions. Identification and promotion of leadership qualities in the educational institutions has become necessary for practising democratic principles of the institution. Provision has also been made in the educational philosophies to promote leadership qualities through educational institutions. These constitutional provisions operating on the democratic philosophy has made provisions for composition of student unions in the educational institutions at various levels.

The experience and observations of the democratic functioning through the composition of student unions have created numerous problems on one hand whereas on the other hand, it has imparted training for the development of leadership qualities among the future citizens of the country.
The democratic socialist pattern of society aims at designing the children of today into ideal democratic leaders of tomorrow in various walks of life, so that the leadership behaviour displayed by them at later age may reflect their creative talents, matured learning potentialities and high order excellence. Such objectives in the national system of education can be achieved only if the students at the formative period of their life select ideal models in their respective fields of life and set specific goals which they ought to attain.

Bandura's (1973) studies on 'Nurturance' behaviour specifies the significance of social learning and socialisation process in the behavioural outcome of the students in selecting their ideal models in their respective fields of life. Transfer of training of such values and norms in their own life had unique significance in the building up process of our students. Similarly Erikson's (1961) concept of identity formation which the students should have at the formative years of life also has its unique significance. Unfortunately, leadership behaviour in the educational institutions of the country has neither been designed nor developed, nor created on the sound model of Bandura's nurturance behaviour, nor on Erikson's concept of identity formation. Consequently, alienation, goal-less behaviour, identity crisis and other negative behaviour patterns
constitute the significant characteristics of students' behaviour pattern.

Student leaders have been found to refer either political leaders or celluloid celebrity as their models. It is expected on the part of the students to refer to persons of academic excellence as their models. But the choice of inconsistent, inappropriate, and inadequate models has led to the marked deviation in their goal-setting behaviour and norms attainment process. Further, inadequacy in academic achievement and lack of self-confidence compel them to shift their basic interest from academic life to their cultural performance or non-academic fields of life which enable them to focus public attention on them.

Every individual has an instinctive behaviour of self display through which his ego must be satisfied. When student leaders find themselves unable to catch the attention of the public, they resort to such processes by which they could be better exposed to the people. The significance of leadership behaviour lies not only in its initiation, but in the role of activist which carries the concept of initiation accompanied with ebullience which enable them to perform their leadership behaviour successfully. The perceptual phenomena of "figure and ground" according to the Gestalt psychologist very well accounts for the ebullient behaviour or activist role which takes into
consideration the fast movement in the behaviour accompanied with outburst of feeling. Such behaviour of the activist catches the attention of the public and here lies the rationale for the role of the student leaders as activists.

In this respect, it is essential to study the developmental processes of the pupils who have the tendencies, temperament and talents for becoming leaders. One of the important aspects of the developmental studies which govern, regulate and function as driving force is the motivational force. In this context, need motivations constitute a significant part of the developmental process.

Some of the significant need motives like achievement, affiliation and power are conceived as later dispositions which strive for certain goal status; and are engaged in performance of an act when the cues of the situation arouse the expectancy that the performance of an act is instrumental to attaining of the goal motives. The total motivation to perform the act is conceived as a summation of strength of all the motives that have been aroused by appropriate expectancies of goal attainment even by the situation.

Iverson and Render (1956) have subsumed many of these concepts under the rubric of ego involvement. Bartocci (1945) stated that when the ego is involved,
the self's value citadel is in question, its investment in life is at stake. That is why, what is relevant to the ego produces tension in the self. Further, Iverson and Render (1956) have defined ego involvement in terms of the relationship between an individual and a situation which is characterised by the possibility of interference with or deprivation of the need to enhance or to maintain one's feeling of self-esteem.

Mc Echern Lily V. (1976) had conducted an investigation of the relationship between self-esteem, the power motives and democratic authoritarian or laissez faire home atmosphere. Nagpal R.N. and Wig N.N. (1976) studied the non-intellectual factors associated with academic achievement in University students. Whereas Guy, Rebeca F. and Allen Donald (1975) demonstrated the effect of social class on tolerance of defeat. Their experimental results indicate that middle class students spent more time attempting to accomplish a difficult task than working class students.

Numerous studies on various aspects of need motivations have been undertaken and as such much literature is available on this topic. However, the motivational studies of the student activists have not been done so far. Rather, in a democratic country like India where the youth play crucial roles in the national development, the motivational studies of the youth of today and future builders of the country of tomorrow constitute significant
problems of national significance and social relevance. In this perspective, perhaps need achievement, need for power, need for affiliation, and need for approval as four important components of need motivations constitute the essential aspect of the motivational study of the student leaders.

1.10 Theoretical Foundations of the Study:

Leadership behaviour, as a consequence of motivational forces constitutes the core of the present study. However, student leadership behaviour appears to be a function of aggression. Hence the theoretical foundation of the present study deals separately with each of these three psycho-social concepts.

1.11 Psycho-social Dynamics of Leadership Behaviour:

'Leaders are born or made' is a statement that bears the testimony of successful leaders. Born leaders inherit traits accountable on the basis of genetic factors. Whereas 'Made Leaders' can be interpreted on the grounds of traits acquired through socio-cultural environmental interactions.

There appears to be a few traits which tend to distinguish leaders from non-leaders. In addition to being superior on such physical attributes as height and weight, leaders stand to score slightly higher on tests of intelligence, extroversion, adjustment, dominance and self-confidence than followers (Stodgill, 1948; Mann, 1959; Bass, 1960; Gibb, 1959).
Occupying the role of a leader may contribute to better adjustment, self-confidence or dominance rather than having those traits that facilitate chances of being selected as leader.

There is considerable variance across situations in both the magnitude and even the direction of the relationship between most personality attributes and leadership status.

Fiedler (1967) has studied the relationship between the leaders' scores on a personality variable which he calls LPC (least preferred co-worker) and the measured effectiveness of his group or organisation. The variable used by Fiedler to characterise differences among leaders requires asking a leader to think of the person with whom he can work least well on a common task and to describe him by making a mark on an eight point scale for each of a set of bipolar adjectives, such as pleasant, unpleasant, friendly and unfriendly. A high numerical score indicates that the respondent describes the person with whom he is least able to work on a common task in relatively favourable terms, while a low score would indicate that he describes the person in very unfavourable terms. LPC is a component of an earlier measure, called 'Assumed Similarity between Opposites', ASO. Fiedler assumes that high LPC leaders derive their major satisfaction from successful interpersonal relationships, while low LPC leaders derive their major
satisfaction from task performance. He has termed his theory of leadership effectiveness as "The contingency Model". It is a system for predicting which leader will be effective in different situations.

Victor, H. Vroom's (1964) model of leadership behaviour can be accounted in terms of: (1) Situational variables, (ii) Personal attributes and (iii) Organizational Outcomes. The model has been sketched as under:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(1) Situational variables</th>
<th>(4) Organisational Outcomes</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(2) Personal attributes</td>
<td>(3) Leader Behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1a) Situational variables</td>
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It is evident from the model, that the conception of leadership as a personality trait assumed organisational outcomes ( ⊨ 4) as a joint function of personal attributes of the leader ( ⊨ 2) and situational variables ( ⊨ 1a); however, the leadership behaviour ( ⊨ 3) is determined by personal attributes of the leader ( ⊨ 2) as interacted by situational variables ( ⊨ 1). The functional flexibility on the part of the leader is a consequence of his dynamic personal attributes which enable him to effectively handle and mobilize the situational variables regardless of its
complexity. It is further added that the descriptive models view leadership behaviour as a joint function of situational variables (\( \supseteq 1 \)) and personal attributes (\( \supseteq 2 \)), whereas the normative models treat organisational outcomes (\( \supseteq 4 \)) as a function of leader behaviour (\( \supseteq 3 \)) and situational variables (\( \supseteq 1a \)).


Motivation is an essential ingredient of any effective output. Production of creative ideas and high level of productivity depend largely upon the magnitude of the motivation that is generated in the individual at the relevant moment. Some of the primary causes that generate motivation are:

(a) Some environmental determinants that produce a certain type of behaviour.
(b) The internal drive, wish, urge, desire, feeling, need or motive that becomes instrumental in such action.
(c) The incentive, goal or object value that attracts the organism.

The concept of motivation was introduced in the form of instincts (McDougall, 1921). Instincts soon gave way to learning (Lyle E, Bourne Jr. and Bruce R. Ekstrand, 1976). Instead of instinct, the concept of drive was subsequently introduced as the central motivational force. In the concept of drives motivation
was considered as a pushing force. On the basis of these fundamental drives, Freud (1946) built his entire system of motivation. The elaboration of eros and thanatos as the child develops determine his relationship with members of the family and his reactions to the social order into which he is born and to those with whom subsequently develops his interpersonal relations during his adult life. Adler (1927) opined that the goal of man is the goal of security and superiority. The individual is driven towards his objective by the feelings of insecurity and inferiority. From birth to death, the striving for superiority carries the person from one stage of development to the next higher stage and this drive manifests itself in a thousand different ways. Thus, each person has his own concrete mode of achieving or trying to achieve perfection. Jung (1938) has advanced his concept of extroversion and introversion. In the framework of Locus of Control as propounded by Rotter (1955), an introverts motivational forces function as 'intervals' whereas of the extrovert, as 'externals'. According to the drive-energy formulation the motivated organism is aroused or energised, which implies that the motivated organism should be active. Motivation does not directly lead to increased activity but rather to higher arousalability. Under the condition of arousal of the drive,
the organism is pre-disposed to react to certain stimuli sharply but is rather inactive to other non-instrumental stimuli and such a reaction on the part of the organism is toned with the principle of differentiation and automatic operation. The aroused energy constantly backed by drive and feedback mechanism operates in accordance with the principle of 'Energy Mobilization' (Elizabeth Duffy, 1951).

Mc Clelland (1961) has suggested a two factor theory of motivation. He says that there may be two types of motives. One characterised by approach behaviour and the other by avoidance behaviour. He notes that there are behavioural indications that there are men whose achievement motivation is characterised by the hope of success while there are others whose achievement motivation is characterised by the fear of failure. Mc Clelland (1961) According to an extremely safe undertaking at which any one can succeed, the person with high achievement can get little achievement satisfaction out of accomplishing his objective. In an extremely speculative one, on the other hand, he not only is almost certain to frustrate his achievement aspirations, he also may feel that if he should by some outside chance succeed, his success could not be attributed to his own personal efforts but to luck or circumstances beyond his control. Persons with high
achievement do, in fact, tend to like those occupations which involve some risk.

Need Motivations, as such, greatly influence student activists, motivate them to action, enable them to achieve their goal, after arousing and energising a feeling of accomplishment and satisfaction.

Leadership behaviour and motivational factors are the two significant variables of the present study. However, aggression constitutes the very base of student leadership behaviour; and such leadership behaviour is mobilized and regulated by motivational forces. The theoretical foundations of the present study, therefore, takes into consideration the theoretical dynamics of aggression behaviour with motivational forces as its base. More specifically, as this includes:

(1) Motivation in general, and need motivations in particular, as determinants of dynamics of behaviour.

(2) The Psycho-social dynamics of leadership behaviour.

1.13 Psycho-Social Dynamics of Motivation and Aggression:

Children born in a particular socio-cultural setting gradually incorporate and assimilate the social norms and values indoctrinated to them, through socialization process and social learning. However, individuals
being different in their psychological processes, their wishes and desires, aptitudes and potentialities also develop differently. Consequently, in order to satisfy their needs of life, they display individual behavioural characteristics. In the process of satisfying the multiple needs and wants they adopt ways and means and despite that, all of them can hardly be satisfied. The unfulfilled desires and wishes when kept pending for a long time, get frustrated for which the individual constantly persists an outlet or expression.

The emotional blocking or obstacles perceived by the individual in the process of fulfilment of wants and desires also promote frustrative behaviour. The individual has a tendency to avoid the painful events and opt for pleasure seeking desires. Thus, either the Freudian concept of fulfilment of desire by overcoming the emotional or environmental blocks or Festinger's concept of cognitive dissonance behaviour very well explain the emergence of aggression as an expression of the frustrated behaviour of the student leaders.

**Drive Theory:**

Freudian theory epitomises the personality theory approach to the study of human motivation. The dynamics of the Id, the Ego and the Super-Ego explain how all human behaviour might be motivated. The displaced energy produced by blocking the Id forces is capable of motivating
the student leader whose behaviour can be explained in terms of the blocked energy of the Id that must be released in some form of behaviour. Freud (1946) subsequently expanded the role of aggressive behaviour as a consequence of the struggle between the two forces: the Eros (the life instinct) and Thanatos (the death instinct). When blocked by Eros, the Thanatos which was conceptualised as a force toward self destruction was directed outward at the environment and other people in the form of aggressive behaviour.

Murray (1938) proposed an influential theory of personality with an emphasis upon the motivation process. He listed some 20 different psychogenic needs which along with the viscerogenic needs; such as hunger and thirst, are assumed to motivate most of human behaviour. His list of psychogenic needs includes such concepts as the need for achievement, need for affiliation, need for aggression and the need for play. Like Freud, Murray assumed that these higher level human needs motivate our behaviour and are derived from the biological or viscerogenic needs. Murray (1938) recognized that motivation is partly a function of environmental factors, which he called 'Press'. This explains the dynamics of leadership behaviour. The student leaders who have certain inherent potentialities of Leadership are motivated to act as they do, when they see their senior students getting elected to the College Unions and
participating keenly in different activities of the College. Such behaviour of the students can be best explained in terms of principles of identification, group-gratification and internal 'press' functioning for higher need achievement. Freud's influence on Murray is most evident in Murray's assumption that these needs represent a source of energy or tension the individual strives to reduce. The dynamics of tension reduction and the events assumed to transpire when tension is prevailed by an environmental block 'press' in Murray's term are similar to those outlined by Freud. The Hullian drive reduction mechanism (1943) is conceptually very similar to Freud's pleasure principle.

The behaviour that the student leaders display is the consequence of not only frustrations generated by either the unfulfilment of their wants and goals but also of blocking their aspirations, desires, wants and wishes. It goes to the extent even of blocking the expected norms and values which ought to have been properly and smoothly regulated by their seniors and superiors. Shattering of the expected behavioural norms compel them to adopt the measures of aggression and display of hostile behaviour. The activists' roles that the students play are, therefore, shaped and designed on the strength of not only the non-fulfilment of experienced expected and perceived behaviour but also of their
blocking. Tension, anxiety, frustration, depression as a consequence of drive mobility mechanisms, reflected at various times and in different forms among the student leaders are, therefore, the mediating process which culminate either in aggression or in withdrawal mechanisms. Thus, frustration results in aggressive behaviour whereas depression in terms of withdrawal disposition. Frustration functions as the case whereas aggression interacts as the consequence (Dollard et al. 1939) in the frustration-aggression hypothesis. It can be rigorous and undisguised (Miller, 1941). Aggression as a behavioural phenomenon indicates that aggressive behaviour may stem from learned habit of responding as well as from excessive frustration (Bandura, 1965). It may be expressed in terms of irritations, quarrelling and fighting, disregard to elders, negative reactions to traditions and beliefs etc. This explains the non-conforming behaviour of the student who behaves as a non-conformist and who questions the validity and the very sanctity of belief system and values; and under such conditions, such beliefs and values not only fail to yield any fruitful result but also block the achievements of certain goals and desires. Frustration has been defined by Dollard et al. (1939) as the blocking of goal directed behaviour. This drive theory of Dollard (1939) in which the reference to the notion that frustration is assumed to be a drive state
that energises the aggressive behaviour and the actual occurrence of aggressive behaviour assumes to reduce the drive.

The two assumptions of the frustration-aggression hypothesis are:

(a) the blocking of the goal directed behaviour will produce aggression, and

(b) the expression of aggression will reduce the probability of subsequent aggressive behaviour. This latter implication is often referred to as the 'Catharsis' hypothesis because of its assumption that responding aggressively is assumed to be a pleasant Cathartic experience. A variety of frustration operations are sufficient to elicit aggressive behaviour (Cf. Berkowitz, 1958) Fesh Bach (1964, 70, 71) and that under certain conditions, aggression does have a Cathartic effect (Doob, 1970; Doob and Wood, 1972; Konecni and Doob, 1972).

Berkowitz (1962, 1969, 1970) suggests that:

(a) aversive events; such as painful stimulation, are a source of an aggressive derive state that leads to aggressive behaviour,

(b) stimuli associated with aggressive behaviour will acquire, viz. a classical conditioning process, the ability to elicit aggressive behaviour. By suggesting that aversive events are a source of aggressive derive,
the conditions assumed to lead to aggression are extended to include a number of operations beyond the original frustration operation of blocking goal directed behaviour. When the individuals are confronted with situations which are the consequences of certain aversive events precipitated due to the policy directions or actions taken by the peer groups or senior or superior authorities, they become aggressive. Similarly the blocking of roles to be played or the goals to be attained gives to conditioned stimuli that can elicit aggression which is an extension and modification of the original frustration-aggression hypothesis; and this includes the fact that any number of stimuli in our environment can acquire the ability to elicit aggressive behaviour. According to Berkowitz (1970), aggression is the combined result of the appropriate stimuli to elicit and control aggression and the drive state produced by the aversive treatment.

The Incentive Theory of Motivation (Hull, 1943, 1952; Young, 1961; Tolman, 1932) stresses the attracting or pulling power that rewards appear to exert on behaviour. The emphasis is on rewards and the conditions of reinforcement for behaving. Incentive theory rests on the assumption that the behaving organism knows what the consequences of its behaviour will be. Thus, it focusses attention on the circumstances that are attempting to attain pleasurable end (positive incentives) or those we are trying to avoid (negative incentives).
Incentive theory is primarily conceived with the objects, events and states of affairs that people find rewarding or punishing and are thus motivated to achieve or avoid. The emphasis is on the goals of behaviour. People may try to acquire food, drink, love, fame, prestige, money, receiving a promotion, winning an election, feeling satisfied with one's accomplishments, earning the respect of a colleague and so on. What they try to avoid are pain, anxiety, frustration, starvation, poverty and unpleasant association.

1.14 Dynamics of Aggressive Behaviour:

(a) Cognitive Dissonance as the Foundation of Aggression:

Festinger's (1957) Cognitive dissonance theory is based on Heider's basic notion that an individual's thoughts or cognitions either exist in a state of equilibrium or in a state of disequilibrium. When the thought processes are in a state of disequilibrium, an aversive motivational state is assumed to be created, that will persist until the thoughts are somehow brought back into equilibrium. He predicts that dissonance will motivate behaviours that reduce the dissonance. Sometimes we find student leaders changing their loyalties or indulging in certain activities which may be against their norms, principles and belief. Thus, they may be doing something for handsome remuneration paid to them by vested interests which may lure the student leaders...
to deviate from their idealistic path for the attainment of their own ends. This kind of behaviour is supported by Festinger's Forced Compliance Paradigm wherein he says that being forced to comply against one's beliefs is assumed to produce the greatest dissonance where the force for compliance is least powerful.

(b) The Psycho-Social Determinants of Aggression:

Bandura (1973) advocated the 'Social Learning Theory of Aggression' which describes that "human aggression is a learned conduct that, like other forms of behaviour, is under stimulus reinforcement and cognitive control". Zimbardo (1969) placed great emphasis upon the role of cognitive processes and social influence in the development and maintenance of aggressive behaviour. He made three basic assumptions in his analysis of aggressive, antisocial behaviour. They are:

1) There is a need or a drive to behave aggressively which emerges because of either blocking frustration-aggression hypothesis, or the universal need for aggression;

2) the need or drive for aggressive behaviour which runs wild unless checked by inhibitory influence of the rational cognitive processes; and

3) the deindividuation in the cognitive inhibitory processes which is characterized by aggressive, anti-social and destructive behaviour.
According to Zimbardo (1969), "Deindividuation is a complex, hypothesized process in which a series of antecedent social conditions lead to changes in the perception of self and others and thereby to a lowered threshold of normally restrained behaviour. Under appropriate conditions, what results is the "release" of behaviour in violation of established norms of appropriateness". Conditions that promote the loss of individuality and promote feelings of anonymity and conditions that promote a high level of arousal are assumed to produce deindividuation and release from the social and cognitive constraints on aggressive behaviour. Zimbardo (1969) has summarized the various conditions (input variables) assumed to produce deindividuation (subjective changes) and the types of behaviour that result (output behaviour) in tabular form as under: (Philip, J. Lanham, 1977, p. 270).

**Representation of the deindividuation process**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Input variables</th>
<th>Inferred subjective changes</th>
<th>Output behaviour</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. Anonymity</td>
<td>Minimization</td>
<td>a. Emotional, impulsive, irrational, regressive, with high intensity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Philip, J. Lanham, 1977, p. 270)
B. Responsibility

1. Self-observation evaluation
2. Concern for social evaluation

b. Not under the controlling influence of usual external discriminative stimuli.

C. Group size-activity

c. Self-reinforcing and intensified, amplified with repeated expressions.

D. Altered temporal prospective-present expanded, future and past distanced.

Weakening of Controls based upon guilt, shame, fear and commitment.

d. Difficult to terminate.

E. Arousal

e. Possible memory impairments some amnesia for act.

F. Sensory input overload.

f. Perceptual-distortion insensitive to incidental stimuli and to relating actions to other actors.

G. Physical involvement in the act.

Lowered threshold for expressing inhibited behaviour of proximal active others.

g. Hyper-responsiveness "contagious plasticity" to be-

H. Reliance upon non-cognitive interactions.

h. Unresponsiveness to distal reference groups.
According to Zimbardo (1969), the deindividuation process may be an important cognitive process in the instigation and development of aggressive behaviour. On the strength of his experimental evidences, he inferred that "a measure of the average duration of the shocks delivered to the vocally complaining victims revealed that deindividuated subjects held the shock do lever down twice as long as the identifiability subjects. Further more, the aggressive behaviour of the identifiability subject was influenced by the different victims. The 'nice victim' was shocked less severely and the 'obnoxious victim' was shocked more severely" (Philip J. Lunham, 1977, p. 271).

"Under conditions specified as deindividuating, these sweet normally mild mannered college girls' shocked
another girl almost every time they had the opportunity to do so, sometimes for as long as they were allowed, and it did not matter whether or not that fellow student was a nice girl who didn't deserve to be hurt" (Zimbardo, 1969, p. 270).

Bandura's (1973) assumption of the aggressive behaviour does not require a special drive, need, or instinct to explain aggression. Instead of assuming that a unique aggressive drive exists, or that aggression is a predetermined reaction to frustration or aversive treatment, Bandura (1973) argues that aggressive behaviour is just another set of responses which: (a) is a learned response, (b) can be modified by its consequences (reward and punishment), and (c) is influenced by cognitive processes. He assumes that 'modeling or imitation learning' is the most important social learning which can explicitly explain the aggressive behaviour. According to him, one can learn how to be aggressive and when to be aggressive without necessarily performing an aggressive act.

Bandura (1973, p. 68-69), states that modeling influences can produce three kinds of effects upon observers; each of which explains different aspects of aggression. They are:

(1) Observers can acquire new patterns of behaviour through observation.
(2) It strengthens or weakens inhibitions of behaviour that observers have previously learned. Inhibitory or disinhibitory effects are largely determined by the observation of rewarding or punishing consequences accompanying the model's responses.

(3) The actions of others also serve as social prompts that facilitate similar behaviour in observers.

These effects of modeling clearly indicate that the observation of an aggressive model is sufficient to produce aggressive behaviour in the observer. The children who observed the verbal and physical aggressive behaviour of the model revealed more verbal and physical aggressive behaviour subsequently against the 'Bobodoll' than children exposed to a nonaggressive model during the play situation (Bandura, Ross and Ross, 1961). Bandura (1973), further advocates, that 'social facilitation processes' the cue to the instigation of aggressive behaviour as one of the forms of modelling have pronounced effects upon 'already learned aggressive responses'. This social facilitation process in terms of reduction of restraints typically placed upon aggressive behaviour, perhaps, better explain the prevailing anomie and aggression among the student leaders. Similarly, vicarious reward and punishment have their unique significance in decreasing or increasing the probability of aggression.
The Bandura's concept of modeling in the frame of social learning theory of aggression conceptualizes to anticipate the consequences of the aggressive act in the individual; and this 'cognitive expectancy' is a source of motivation sufficient to activate aggressive behaviour or to inhibit it. However, once aggressive behaviour is activated, it can be increased or decreased in frequency or intensity by its consequences. Both tangible rewards and punishments, and cognitive factors such as vicarious reward and punishment can either enhance or inhibit subsequent aggressive performance (Philip J. Dunham, 1977, p. 277).

The fourth factor of Bandura's assumption is that aversive treatment can produce a general state of physiological arousal.

(c) **Physiological control of aggression:**

Hess (1950) reported that stimulation of the medical hypothalamic area of the cat's brain produced a rage reaction that subsided when the stimulus was turned off. Wasman and Flynn (1962) reported that different types of aggressive behaviour are associated with stimulation in different areas of the cat's brain. Number of experiments implicate the septal area and the hippocampus in the control of aggressive behaviour. It has been reported that lesions in the septal area produce an increase in general aggressiveness and emotionality.
1.15 Motivational Models:

Animals as well as human beings are endowed with specific reactions and behavioural discrimination. Identical stimuli need not present corresponding identical responses in all situations even by the same organism. Human beings are characterized by intra- as well as inter-individual variations in their responses even to the same stimuli at different situations. Specificity, selectivity and discrimination as significant attributes of S-O-R paradigm function as defence mechanism in the regulation of human behaviour. However, regulation of effective behaviour essentially needs strong stimuli in terms of affective arousal and potential drive as the foundation of the behavioural dynamics.

According to Fredrik J. Mcdonald (1965), motivation is an energy change within the person and is characterised by affective arousal and anticipatory goal reactions. The only way to study motivation is through performance of an individual. Dunnette (1976) has considered performance as a function of ability and motivation.

Performance = f (ability x motivation)

or Performance = f (aptitude level x skill level

x understanding x choice to expand of the task
effort

x choice of degree of
x choice to persist effort to expand
x facilitating and inhibitory conditions not under the control of the individual)

Performance though has been treated as a function of (Ability x Motivation); however, the motivational level of an individual is estimated or reflected through his performance level. Dunnette (1976) has classified various theories of motivation into two categories; namely, the Process theories, and the Content theories; and presented a differential account of both.

Process theories attempt to provide a generalised explanation of the processes involved which lead to choices among alternative courses of action, varying degrees of effort expenditure, and persistence over time. Process theories first try to define the major variables which are necessary for explaining choice, effort, and persistence. For example, incentive, drive, reinforcement, and expectancy are major variables appearing in various models. Thus, the process-oriented theories attempt to define and explain:

1. Choice ) in terms of ( 1. Incentive
2. Efforts ) ( 2. Drive
3. Persistence ) ( 3. Reinforcement

( 4. Expectancy

The process-oriented theories which could be said to be "The How Theories" include:
1. Drive theory
2. Reinforcement theory
3. Expectancy theory
4. Equity theory

The content theories, on the other hand, are more concerned with trying to specify the substantive identity of the variables that influence behaviour. Such probing questions as mentioned under, constitute the very core of content theories:

(a) What are the specific rewards that people want?
(b) What are the basic needs which they try to satisfy?
(c) What incentives are the most powerful?

The content theories thus could be said to be "The What Theories" which attempt to explain in terms of:

i. Rewards
ii. Salary
iii. Promotion
iv. Job-security
v. Recognition
vi. Job performance etc.

The process oriented theories, therefore, could be discussed and interpreted on the theoretical foundations of the Psychologists like Thorndike, Hull, Spencer, Hebb, Tolmann and Atkinson, whereas the content theories could be analysed on the theoretical base of Freud, Mc Dougall (1908), Murray (1958), Mc Clelland (1951), Maslow (1954).

Reinforcement, drive and incentives, as advocated by Skinner, Hull etc. constitute three motivational
determinants of behaviour that have been used either singly or in combination to form the major motivational models of the twentieth century developed before 1960. Hull (1943) explained behaviour in terms of reinforcement grounds. One could account for an organiser's actions on the basis of its prior history of reinforced (S-R) connections. Eventually Hull realised that S-R associations were not an adequate explanation of how behaviour was energised and his model was expanded to include the drive component. The resulting equation was

\[ S^E_R = f (S^H_R \times D) \]

where

- \( S^H_R \) represents 'Habit Strength'
- \( S^E_R \) represented = 'Reaction Potential', and
- \( D \) stands for 'Drive'.

Still later, Hull (1952) altered his basic model and changed to \( S^E_R = f (S^H_R \times D \times K) \) where \( K \) represents the incentive value of the reward; and changes in \( K \) would be reflected immediately by change in \( S^E_R \).

Lewin (1935) advocated a model based on physiological and psychological needs. Needs create a state of tension which the individual attempts to relieve through appropriate action. They also influence the perceived attractiveness of various actions or outcomes in terms of their ability to relieve tensions. The perceived attractiveness of an activity was referred to as its 'Valence'. Lewin explicitly rejected reinforcement history as a predictor of behaviour and preferred to
know what value the individual expected from certain actions. Thus, an individual could take action directly counter to his reinforcement history if some new influence led him to assign a higher value to it. Skinner (1962) preferred to base his explanation of motivation on the principle of "reinforcement".

1.151 Cognitive Process Theories of Motivation:

Lewin (1938) and Tolman (1932) held that individuals have cognitive expectancies concerning the outcomes that are likely to occur as a result of what they do and they have preferences among outcomes. That is an individual has an idea about the possible consequences of his or her acts and conscious choices are made among consequences according to the perceived probability of their occurrence and their perceived value to the individual. Tolman and Lewin's theoretical notions gave rise to the following motivational theories:

(a) VIE Model of Work Motivation (Vroom, 1964, 1965).
(b) Graen's Model (1969): An extension of VIE Model.
(c) Porter and Lawler (1968) Expectancy Model.
(d) Equity Model (Adam, 1963):

A brief account of each of these four important motivational models has been presented as under:
Vroom's VIE model (1964) attempts to predict:

(i) Choice among task or (ii) Choice among effort level within task. He (1964) has conceptualised that:

\[
\text{Force} = (\text{Expectancy that effort results in attaining outcomes}) \times (\text{the Valence of the outcomes})
\]

Where (i) 'Expectancy' refers to the perceived relationship between a given degree of effort, expenditure, and a given level of performance.

However, the revised model of Vroom's theory (1965) of work motivation contains -

\[
V_M = (\text{Valence} \times \text{Instrumentality} \times \text{Expectancy})
\]

Where (ii) 'Valence' refers to the perceived positive/negative value ascribed by the individual to the possible outcomes of action on the job.

(iii) 'Instrumentality' refers to the perceived contingency that one outcome has for another.

The force on a person to choose to expend a given level of effort is a function of these three variables and is determined by the sum of the products of (expectancy x valence).

The level of efforts a person will choose to expend is that for which force is a maximum. The VIE model thus identifies:
(a) The value an individual anticipates for each outcome in an exhaustive list of outcomes.

(b) The degree to which each outcome is perceived as being contingent on various levels of performance, and

(c) the perceived probability that the individual can attain each of those levels of performance.

(b) Graen's Model (1969):

The extension proposed by Graen (1969) is an attempt to broaden the conceptual base of the VIE model by incorporating theoretical notions from attitude theory, role theory and the interpersonal influence process. His purpose is to make explicit variables that can be grouped under the major headings. Graen (1969) considers the full spectrum of job behaviour in a system of multiple employment roles. The roles of effective versus standard performer are the central role in his model. According to him, the possible outcomes of meeting or not meeting the standards for specific work roles is categorized into three major classes: (i) a class of intrinsic or internally generated consequences; (ii) a class of extrinsic consequences that may be generated due to compliance with the role of expectations emanating from some person(s) power; and (iii) role outcomes that are specified by the organisation or the culture as being attached to that role. The model could be sketched as under:
1. Utility of effort level  
2. Expectancy of effort level leads to performance  
3. Attraction of performance goal.  
4. Instrumentality of performance level for attaining outcomes  
5. Attraction to utility of outcomes e.g.

Superior effort  
Effective performer  
0₁  

Stand and effort  
Standard performer  
0ₙ

1. Path goal utility  

2. External pressures towards superior effort = Perception of effort levels other persons expect him to exert (x) the perceived amount of pressure those persons would apply to influence his compliance.

3. External pressures towards superior effort = Attractions to various intrinsic consequences of superior effort (x) the expectancy that superior effort will lead to these consequences.

Probability of superior effort = (1) + (2) + (3)

= (Path goal ability) + (External pressures towards superior effort) + (Internal pressures towards superior effort).

(c) Porter and Lawler (1968) Expectancy Theory:

Porter and Lawler (1968) make a distinction between intrinsic rewards, such as feeling of accomplishment that the individual grants to himself as a result of his performance and extrinsic rewards that are granted by other
people. One of the major determinants of effort is the individuals perceived value of reward, that is, valence.

A second major determinant is effort reward probability or the perceived contingency between effort expenditure and obtaining certain specific rewards. In sum, the amount of effort an individual will expend toward performing is hypothesised to be a multiplicative function of the perceived value of rewards and the perceived contingency between expending effort and obtaining rewards.

The model also incorporates two feedback notions. One straightforward hypothesis is that over a time the perceived effort reward contingency will change as a result of the actual reward practices that are followed by the organisation (extrinsic) and the individual (intrinsic).

The second feedback loop involves the effect of felt satisfaction with a reward on subsequent anticipated value or satisfaction.

Lawler (1971, 1973) modified his expectancy theory by elaborating the parameters that determine an individual's expectancy that effort will lead to task accomplishment; and thus, the inclusion of "Effort as an instrumental in task accomplishment" was considered as a third feedback loop in his model.

On the strength of the theoretical discussions as described above, a Composite Expectancy Valence model (Dunnette, 1976) has been sketched as under:
Composite Expectancy Valence model based on VIE (Valence x Instrumentality x Expectancy) theory

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>i.</th>
<th>ii.</th>
<th>iii.</th>
<th>iv.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Force to expend specific level of work</td>
<td>Expectancy that specific level of effort will accomplish task</td>
<td>Valence of task goal accomplishment/failure</td>
<td>Instrumentality of accomplishment/failure for job outcomes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>v.</th>
<th>vi.</th>
<th>vii.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valency of job outcomes</td>
<td>Instrumentality of job for need satisfaction</td>
<td>Valence of basic needs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \text{Effort level} \quad \begin{array}{c} 0_1 \\ 0_2 \\ 0_3 \end{array} \quad \text{Task goal} \quad \begin{array}{c} N_1 \\ N_2 \\ N_3 \end{array} \]

Thus, within the organisation itself, effort is a function of three determinants: (i) the expectancy that effort will lead to task accomplishment, (ii) the instrumentality of task accomplishment for obtaining or avoiding task contingent outcomes; and (iii) the valence of the outcomes.

\[ \text{Effort} = (\text{ExV of performance}) \text{ OR} \]
\[ \text{Effort} = (\text{ExI x V of task contingent outcomes}) \]

Thus, VIE model of Vroom (1965) of work motivation resembles to a large extent the Composite Expectancy Valence model of Dunnette (1976) which is represented as

\[ \text{Effort} = (\text{Ex I x V of task contingent outcomes}). \]
(d) **Equity Model:**

Adam (1963) gave out the Equity theory which relates to Exchange theory. It is concerned with each person's feeling of fairness about the rewards received from an organisation. Further, according to it, individuals have a concept of fair payment and departures from fairness changes to the perceived value in terms of Valence of money.

1.52 **Content Theories of Motivation:**

The content theories explain the 'What' aspect of motivation. Some of the representative content theories are:

1. Need theory (Murray, 1938)
2. Need hierarchy theory (Maslow, 1954)
3. ERG model (Alderfer, 1969; 1972)
4. Content models of performance outcomes:
   (a) Two factor theory (Motivation - Maintenance Model) (Herzberg, 1966).
   (b) X Theory and Y theory model (McGregor, 1960).

A brief description of some of the representative content theories has been given as under:

(a) **Murray's Need Theory:**

Murray (1938) hypothesised the existence of relatively a large number of specific needs which human being attempts to satisfy. The exact number in the list varies according to the particular stage in Murray's career, but about twenty basic needs were usually
The following list and abbreviated definitions are abstracted from Hull, and Lindzey's (1957) presentation of Murray's theory.

1. Abasement: To submit passively to external force. To accept injury, blame, criticism, punishment. To surrender. To become resigned to fate.

2. Achievement: To accomplish something difficult. To master, manipulate, or organise physical objects, human beings, or ideas. To do this as rapidly and as independently as possible.

3. Affiliation: To draw near and cooperate or reciprocate with another.

4. Aggression: To overcome opposition forcefully. To fight.

5. Autonomy: To avoid or quit activities prescribed by domineering authorities. To be independent and free to act according to impulse.

6. Counteraction: To master or to make up for a failure by re-striving. To overcome weakness, to repress fear.

7. Defendence: To defend oneself against blame or belittlement, to justify one's action.
8. Dominance : To influence or control others.
9. Deference : To admire and willingly follow a superior.
10. Similance : To initiate; to identify with another. To agree and to believe.
11. Exhibition : To attract attention to one's person.
12. Harmavoidance : To avoid pain, physical injury, illness and death.
13. Infavoidance : To quit embarrassing situation or to avoid conditions which may lead to belittlement the scorn, derision or indifference of others.
14. Nurturance : To give sympathy and gratify the need of a helpless object.
15. Order : To achieve cleanliness arrangement, organisation, balance, neatness, tidiness and precision.
16. Play : To act for 'fun' without further purpose.
17. Rejection : To separate oneself from an aversive object.
18. Sentience : To seek and enjoy sensuous impression.
19. Sex : To form and enjoy sensuous impressions.
20. Succourance: To seek aid, protection or sympathy.
21. Understanding: To ask or answer general questions. To be interested in theory.
22. Inviolacy: To prevent a depreciation of self respect.
23. Acquisition: To gain possession and property.
25. Retention: To retain possession of things.
27. Exposition: To point and demonstrate; to facts.
28. Recognition: To excite praise and commendation.

Murray's list and his accompanying definitions were not based on empirical research. Rather they represent his conceptualisation of what internal states govern human behaviour and were generated from his clinical experience and observation.

(b) Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory:

According to Maslow (1954), human needs form a hierarchy where the lower needs must be satisfied before higher order needs are felt. He assumed that those needs which have the greatest potency at any given time
dominate behaviour and demand satisfaction. The individual feels 'driven' so to say, by a high priority need. When the need is satisfied, higher order motive (or class of motives) makes its appearance and demands satisfaction and so on to the top of the hierarchy. Hierarchical satisfaction of needs is the basic characteristics of Maslow's theoretical postulation.

The hierarchically placed five needs have been broadly classified into two heads; i.e. (i) the deficiency needs; and (ii) the self actualization needs. The first three have been said to be the 'Deficiency' needs whereas the last two as 'Self-Actualization' needs as presented below:

I. Deficiency Needs:
   (i) Physiological needs
   (ii) Safety needs
   (iii) Love and Belongingness needs

II. Self-Actualization Needs:
   (iv) Esteem Needs
   (v) Self-Actualization Needs.

Maslow's concept of hierarchical satisfaction of human needs is not based on any empirical foundation but was derived primarily from Maslow's clinical experience.
Alderfer (1969, 1972) developed his EHC model of need satisfaction in which he has described the three types of needs. They are -

(i) Existence needs
(ii) Relatedness
(iii) Growth needs

He considered existence need as physiological need, relatedness needs as social needs, growth needs as physical needs. He postulated that satisfaction of these needs actualise the relative motives of the individuals whereas need frustration would adversely affect the cognition and psychomotor activities of the individual.

(d) Content Models of performance outcome:

The Content models of performance outcome of motivation covers two theoretical models; namely,

(i) Herzberg's Two Factor Model (1966), and
(ii) McGregor's X-Y theory model (1960) and Likert (1961). A brief account of them is presented as under:

(i) Herzberg's Two-factor theory (1966):

Herzberg (1966) developed a two factor theory incorporating the motivation-maintenance model. Extrinsic and intrinsic factors have been considered as the two aspects of motivation. The model is presented as under:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extrinsic factor</th>
<th>Intrinsic factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Interpersonal Relations.</td>
<td>1. Achievement with respect of complexity possibility of growth and responsibility.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Supervision</td>
<td>2. Advancement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Subordinate interactions.</td>
<td>4. Status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Supervision Technical.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Company policy and Administration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Job security</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Working conditions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Pay and salary increase</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Personal life etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(ii) Content theories of motivation of Mc Gregor (1960) and Likert (1961):

Mc Gregor (1960) advanced X and Y theory of motivation which accounts for differential contents in the person's personality and attitude. The assumptions of X and Y theory are as under:

**Theory X assumptions:**

1. Workers dislike work and try to avoid it.
2. They have little ambition, avoid responsibility prefer direction.
3. They want security.
4. They have to be controlled, threatened to achieve company goal.
Theory Y assumptions:

1. Worker seeks responsibility if the conditions are favourable.
2. They prefer self direction.
3. They want rewards.
4. They want opportunities to contribute significantly to organisational goals.

1.16 Physiological Foundation of Motivation:

Morgan (1952) based his explanation of motivational behaviour on 'Central Motive State', which accounts for the underlying physiological mechanism within the organism. He proposed the concept of central motive state to stress upon the central locus of the drive control mechanism. The properties of central motive state are:

(a) They are persistent - once aroused, central motive states do not require support from stimuli outside the organism or from within.

(b) A central motive state results in selectivity of reaction to stimuli.

(c) The central motive state may be responsible for emitting certain behaviour pattern directly. It is always responsible for the general activity observed in motivated organism and in some instances may be responsible for the specific form of activity which satisfies the need.

(d) Releasers or external stimuli in general may also elicit behaviour that is dependent on central motive states. However, external stimuli are but triggering factors in such instances; the fundamental arousal mechanism is the central motive state.
Gordon W. Allport's functional autonomy of motives:

According to Allport (1937) a motive is any internal condition in the person that induces action or thought. The principle of functional autonomy means that a given activity or a form of behaviour may become an end or goal in itself inspite of the fact that it was originally engaged for some other reason.

He asserted that functional autonomy of motives operates at two levels:
- the perseverative level
- the propriate level

The perseverative level implies the tendency to repeat behaviour which originally satisfied a need that no longer exists. Whereas the propriate level evolves from earlier, more basic drives and ultimately becomes a source of motivation in itself, now distinct from its beginning tensions.

Allport (1941) was conscious of the fact that all motives are not functionally autonomous. Such motives include drive, reflex action, constitutional equipment, habits, primary reinforcement, infantilism and fixations. So any motive may be a compound of all these forces but if a present motive seeks new goals (that is, manifests a different kind of tension from the motives from which it developed) it is functionally autonomous motives and functionally autonomous motives are almost wholly related to the self.
1.20 **Need motivations:**

Murray (1938) has visualised relatively a large number of need motivations, out of which Need for Achievement (n Ach), Need for power (n power), Need for approval (n approval) and need for affiliation (n affiliation) have gained research currency and significance. In the light of the relative relevance and significance of researches on the four need motivations as evaluated in Chapter II, they have been categorically taken up for conceptual clarification and attribution.

1.21 **Need for Achievement:**

According to McClelland (1951), "Achievement motivation is an energising condition of the individual leading him to many situations to seek high standard of performance. It is an external need which pushes an individual to attain a particular goal. The achievement motive is the inclination of an individual to be concerned with, to plan and to endeavour for the successful acquisition of some standard of excellence in circumstances where the performance has to be appraised positively or negatively. A person high in achievement wants to take personal responsibility for his success or failure, likes to take risk and likes situations in which he gets immediately concrete feedback on how well he is doing". Thus, need for achievement motive is mainly divided into two parts. 'Hope of success' and 'fear of Failure' leading to frustration, are important ingredients of
achievement motivation. Persons having high hopes of success aspire for high order of excellence through his careful and calculated risk-taking ability in the process of attainment of rather high level goal setting behaviour and goal attainment process whereas persons with fear of failure develop frustration because of their withdrawal tendencies from the goal attainment process. Success-oriented persons display high hopes of success and make every effort to avoid failure in their goal attainment on the contrary. Failure-oriented persons display tendencies to avoid the tasks assigned to them. Atkinson (1957) also showed that any situation which calls for evaluation against a standard of excellence, gives rise to two dissimilar alternative motives. He labelled them as a motive to achieve success (Ms) and motive to avoid failure (MAF). According to him these two motives give rise to two opposing tendencies. If a person expects a task to result in success, it gives rise to a tendency to act and execute it (Ts) whereas if a person expects a task to result in failure, it gives rise to tendency to avoid it (T-f).

Similarly, any goal a person sets before himself would have two probabilities for him: the probability of success (Ps) and the probability of failure (Pf). The third factor which is also crucial for motivation is the incentive value (I) of the goal for the individual; this may be positive (Is) or negative (If). According to
Atkinson (1964), the incentive to achieve a goal successfully is proportional to the apparent difficulty of the task for the individual or the probability of succeeding at it. If a task is very difficult, the Ps is very low so that its incentive value is being high. This relation between Is and Ps has been expressed by Atkinson (1964) as -

$$Is = I - Ps$$

According to Atkinson, Ts, which signifies the tendency to endeavour for attaining a particular goal is a multiplicative function of three variables: (a) the motive to achieve success (Ms), (b) the individual's estimate of the probability of success (Ps), and (c) the incentive value of that goal for the individual (Is) the Ts = Ms x Ps x Is.

Similarly, the tendency to avoid failure is also a multiplicative of (a) the motive to avoid failure (MAF), (b) the individual's estimate of the probability of failure (Pf), and (c) the negative incentive value of the failure for the individual (If):

$$Tf = MAF \times Pf \times If.$$  

Thus, whether or not, an individual will undertake a task if an additive function of the two tendencies Ts and Tf. This is designated as the resultant tendency and is promulated in the following form:

$$Ts + Tf = (Ms \times Ps \times Is) + (MAF \times Pf \times If).$$
The magnitude of $T_s + T_f$ will depend on the absolute difference between the magnitudes of $M_s$ and $MAF$ and in a situation where $M_s$ is greater than $MAF$ the resultant tendency will assume positive value. It is clear that for any given value of $M_s$ or $MAF$, the highest value of the $T_s$ or $T_f$ will occur when the $Ps$ or $Pf$ is .5 and $Is$ or $If$ is also .5.

**Characteristics of Need for Achievement:**

1. Higher achievement motivation may display greater stress than those in the lower ones because of their competitive base success – orientedness and hence his coping process with the stressful situations of life would also differ.

2. High achievement motivation is the single driving force which promotes ego strength and accelerates vertical mobility among under-achievers with a view to become the members of a developing society.

3. Success in completion with some standard of excellence, unique accomplishment and long term ego-involvement in the work are the three primary key criteria of persons possessing high achievement motivation.

4. High achievement motivation are success-oriented persons of greater ego-strength and sustained ego-involvement in the work in which they initiate with a rare sense of completion, they might display greater amount of stress under the conditions of threat or harm.
5. The person realises hopes of success all the while; consequently he experiences satisfaction.

6. High achievement motivation persons are directed towards certain end-results that are produced by one's own ability; namely to achieve success and to avoid failure.

7. High achievement motivation persons have got the sense of challenge, accomplishment and need for service to others.

8. High achievement motivation is directed towards a particular end results that are produced by one's own ability, to achieve success and avoid failure. He displays goal-directed and result-oriented behaviour.

1.22 Need for approval:

Approval motivation like any other psychological constructs, e.g. social desirability, attitude etc. poses a significant problem. Approval motivation has also remained to be a controversial issue, with socially desirable behaviour which is largely determined by cultural norms of a society. The concept of social desirability refers to the extent to which a person or respondent acquiesces to statements that depict some behaviours, attitudes or dispositions that are in conformity with the norm, values and aspirations of the social spectrum of which the respondent is a member.
Characteristics:

1. High degree of approval motive would agree to greater number and varieties of social desirability.

2. Approval motivation can lead to a consistent overestimation of the positivity of many social attitudes.

3. Approval motivation helps an individual to reflect his or her feelings about the attitude objects rather than a desire for positive self presentation.

4. Approval motive persons are more cautious in getting goals in risk-taking situations.

5. Persons with high need for approval are unable to behave in autonomous, self-assertive way and they avoid talking introspectively about themselves.

1.23 Need for Affiliation:

According to Shipley and Veroff (1952) "Affiliation image" is defined exclusively in terms of separation, anxiety i.e. affective concern over separation from another person.

"Affiliation motive is a friendly relation which helps an individual to keep in contact with others".

According to David McClelland (1961), affiliation motive takes into consideration certain human traits like maintaining friendship, warm, compassionate quality, close interpersonal relationship. Disruption
or disintegration leads to sorrow or grief for restoring the human relationship, affiliative activities, such as parties, gatherings, reunions, visits or relaxed small talk constitute significant platform for emotional relaxation. Grinker and Spiegel (1945) investigated fear, anxiety and insecurity as components of disrupted affiliation. Festinger (1954) viewed that gaining status by identifying oneself with highly prestigious groups, groups whose efforts are directed toward some goal-oriented behaviour help in promoting high affiliation motive.

A manager or an employee is ready to sacrifice his desire to achieve something if his needs for affiliation is stronger than the need for achievement. One may likewise argue for few aspects of affiliation motivation (a) seeking affiliation because of the pleasant stimulus reward value of the affiliative relationship (b) seeking affiliation because of the painful stimulus value of rejection.

**Characteristics:**

1. It is a sociogenic motive and studies the significance of human relations. It provides origins for man's participation in social groups.

2. It is a quest for approval and acceptance by others, concerning of motivation to seek social approval as an autonomous system of goal directed behaviour.
3. Persons have the desire of being liked, accepted, appreciated by other persons and must be surrounded by friends and lovers.

4. Persons with high affiliation motive show fear of being rejected and avoided by his friends or parent.

5. It is an interpersonal attraction, thus relationship can offer reward values or positive reinforcement.

6. It helps an individual to know the behaviour, feelings, and thoughts of other individuals.

7. It is stronger in the arousal condition. Affiliation behaviour expresses the degree by which the painful rejection is aroused by the situational cues.

1.24 Need for Power:

Review of literature on 'Power' reveals that power has been studied as - (1) a characteristics of the individual; (2) an interpersonal construct; (3) a commodity; (4) a causal construct; and (5) a philosophical construct (Mary S. Cavanaugh, 1984 in Power, Politics and Organization: A Behavioural Science View - Edited by Andrew Kakabadse and Christopher Parker).

Power as such is a universal phenomena in human activities and in all social relationships (Bierstedt, 1950, p. 730); and permeates all human action (Clark, 1974, p. 74).
Power as a highly personal attribute emerged as the first conceptual framework of this typology; and the locus of power resides within the individual (Hiilenbrand, 1949; Guardini, 1961; Votaw, 1966). Guardini (1961, p. 3) described power as a 'specifically human phenomenon' whereas Chein (1978) postulated it as the desire inherent to the nature of man. As Berle (1969, p. 70) summarized, "power is an attribute of man. It does not exist without a holder". Adler (1966, p. 170) expanded upon power as a compensatory mechanism. "The objects of individual striving were attempts to overcome insecurity and weakness and the desire for personal power became one of the concretization of the striving for perfection". However, Ogletree (1971, p. 47) maintained that the manifestation of power reflected an ability to 'mobilize your own life resources to levels of peak effectiveness'. In this sense, personal power is linked to self-actualization of one's potential; and which has been referred to as power to be' (May, 1972, p. 140). Minton (1967, p. 229) defined this power perspective as the "ability to cause environmental changes so as to obtain an intended effect. Heider (1958), Kahm (1963), de Charms (1968) and Haley (1969) all equated degrees of individual power with a person's ability to manipulate ones surroundings and establish oneself as either a change agent (de Charms, 1968) or 'as the one who is to determine what is going to happen' (Haley, 1969, p. 36).
The third perspective associated with "power as a personal characteristic focuses on the satisfaction of particular personal wants or desires of an individual, but does not necessarily link the manifestation of power to the manipulation of an external environment". (Mary S. Cavanaugh, 1984).

The concept of power motive has several connotations. Veroff (1957) and Kipnis (1974) described power motivations as either a 'need state' (Kipnis) or as 'a disposition' (Veroff) which could be satisfied only through control or influence over another individual. Later on, Veroff moved away from an emphasis on control to a definition of the power motive as 'a stable affective orientation to power goals' (Veroff and Veroff, 1972, p. 280). This was similar to Minton's (1972) analysis of power motive. However, Minton distinguished between an intrinsic and extrinsic nature to the power motive.

Winter (1973) and McClelland (1970, 1975) expanded the frontiers of concept of power motive. Winter (1973) described power motive as 'a disposition to strive for certain kinds of goals or to be affected by certain kinds of incentives'! For Winter (1973, p. 10), the power motive was found by examining the 'thoughts, images, and themes in the minds of people when power is aroused or made salient to them'. Such a remarkable finding led to the differentiation of 'an approach to or hope of power' and 'an avoidance of or fear of power'.

Mc Clelland (1970) distinguished between 'a personalized face of power' and 'a socialized face of power'.

'Personalized face of power' has been characterized as the negative aspect where power struggles were seen as 'I win, you lose' situations whereas 'the socialized face of power was considered more positive, reflecting a concern for group goals and making members within a group sense their own levels of strength and competence.

Later findings of Mc Clelland (1975) reveal that personalized power was a less mature stage of power development than socialized power. Mc Clelland (1975, p. 7) further broadened the conceptualization of power motive beyond the presence of control of others or the existence of specific goals for the power holder to a discussion of power as 'a thought about someone having impact' which could be manifested in three ways: (1) through strong, direct action involving control or influence; (2) through the production of actions which could produce an emotional response in another individual and (3) as a concern for reputation. Thus, 'power has no reality unless there is human activation and involvement.

Interaction with the environment rather than interaction with other persons becomes pivotal' (Mary, S. Cavanaugh, 1984, p. 7). And, such social power motives emerge from any of the five bases: (1) Reward; (2) Coercive; (3) legitimate; (4) referent; and (5) expert (French and Raven, 1959). Raven (1965) added information power
as the sixth base. Three of these bases of power (reward, coercive and information power) focused on the power holder, and his/her ability to change the behaviour of the target despite resistance by the target, whereas the other three (legitimate, referent and expert) contribute part of the success of the power holder on the perception of the target had about him/her. Since leadership generally conceived as a composite of power functions arising from several origins, the ability of a leader to influence others within his group may be derived from any combination of the kinds of power mentioned above. Different kinds of individual ability may contribute to the attainment of different kinds of power, depending upon the structural and circumstantial characteristics of the particulars group in which the power or leadership relation occurs (Raven and French, 1958; Evan and Zelditch, 1961; Elder, 1963).

1.25 Authoritarianism

Authoritarianism as an ideology emphasises that authority should be recognised and exercised through constraints and compulsions. Generally speaking the word authoritarian is used for those people who express behaviour and attitudes consistent in characteristic ways. Authoritarian attitudes show inequality in viewing human relationships, submissiveness towards individuals possessing higher status, and domineering propensities towards lower status individuals. The other attitudes
consistent with the authoritarian personality are: dogmatism, rigidity, support for traditional values, use of power tactics, toughness in dealing with failure, non-cooperativeness and arbitrariness in decision making.

The pioneer work was done in this field by a group of psychologists from the University of California at Berkeley. It is divided into two categories. One dealing with the study of ideology and the other with personality. The former category included three paper pencil scales: The Anti-Semitism (A-S) scale, the Ethnocentrism (E) scale and the Political-Economic Conservatism (PEC) scale. The second category consisted of a measure of the Implicit Anti-Democratic Trends, popularly called as the Fascist (F) Scale.

This last mentioned F scale is the most popular one among all the four scales and the one most extensively used in psychological research since 1950. The authors claimed that all 38 items of this scale were ideological but did not refer to any particular groups, sex, personal values, etc. With this scale they claimed to have measured at a covert level the implicit authoritarian or anti-democratic trends in a personality. The way in which the items were prepared for this scale was typical: some of the items were borrowed from the writings of Fascists or from the speeches of anti-semitic agitators, others were framed on the basis of
responses in clinical interviews and still others from the material obtained in T.A.T. stories. In all this scale had nine clustered variables, with items sub-classified under each category. The nine variables of this scale, as described by the author, are given below:

1. Conventionalism - A rigid adherence to conventional middle class values.

2. Authoritarian submission - Inability or unwillingness to criticise or rebel.

3. Authoritarian aggression - A tendency to condemn, reject, or punish those who violate norms.

4. Anti-intepression - A tendency to oppose subjective liberal or imaginative approaches.

5. Superstition and stereotyping - A belief in supernatural power and a tendency to think in rigid categories.

6. Power and toughness - A pre-occupation with strong-weak, leader-follower, dominance-submission, etc. categories and exaggerated assertion of strength and toughness.

7. Destructiveness and cynicism - Extreme hostility and degradation of human beings in general.

8. Projectivity - A tendency to generating that most of the activities going on are wild and dangerous.

From the above clusters it is evident that the basic concepts of psycho-analytic theory - the super ego, ego and id are accepted as variables for depicting authoritarian character. However scholars have criticised Adorno’s F scale for its over emphasis on anti-sociation and megalomania.

The study conducted by Hokeach (1960) shows the authoritarian person to be psychologically compartmentalised. The relations among the various levels of his mind are less fluid their boundaries less permeable. His underlying trait in the areas of aggression, sex and dependency are also more ego-alien. There is less sublimation or socially creative modes of impulse expression. Thus the fascist is likely to be moralistic, rigid, unable to express or release his own impulses.

The authoritarian person depends heavily on scapegoating, and stereotypical fluidating which remains his major techniques for canalising his libidinuous and aggressive drives under a strict super-ego system. Particularly all stereotypy becomes highly libidinised in him and acquires a compulsive character. The authority for the authoritarian person is a punitive but poorly internalised super-ego. He therefore has to seek indirect gratification of his institutional drives by conforming to conventional values. He specially fears his own aggressive needs and often tries to satisfy them through ethnocentric or destructive nationalism or by exposing
violent ideological positions. Yet when his aggression breaks out it takes a primitive chaotic form, similarly with his dependency and needs. They are ego-alien because they violate his self-image as a rugged masculine person. He therefore values hard work, seeks power directly or vicariously by submitting to powerful figures and lives on constant fear of looking foolish.

These non-assimilated impulses form the authoritarian person to use extensively the mechanism of projection. He sees on others what he hates in himself. Consequently there is an exaggerated condemnation of real or imaginary weakness in outgroups. Correlated with this is a lesser acceptance of passive pleasures such as companionship, affection, creative acts and soft-minded intellectual pursuit.

In terms of the basic organisation of his personality the authoritarian person is sadomasochistic. He is simultaneously a sadist with regard to the target of his primitive destructiveness and a masochist vis-a-vis authorities (Adorno et al., 1960). However compared to his western counterpart the Indian fascist is a relatively lonely man. The western fascist seeks companionship and validation in collectivities like parties, movements and armies. The Indian fascist idealizes his conclusion and isolation as indication of his normal superiority and piety.

Kool (1975) conducted a study of authoritarian among university students based upon a classification of several items of the F scale; Rokeach's scale and Heiman's measure to four categories: political, social, religious,
and general. Factor analysis of the data based on principal component method revealed two factors - general political and social political. The most noticeable feature was the absence of a significant religious factor. The dominance of political factor indicates the growing impact of political issues on the student population.

Shah (1976) related authoritarianism with the personality development of children and found that children of low authoritarian mothers were more mature, emotionally accepting, trustful, warm and cultured, radical and independent. Children with both parent low in authoritarian attitudes were found to be good natured, ready to cooperate alternative to people, soft hearted kind and adjusting as compared with children whose parents were high on authoritarianism. Several other investigations have been found that non-authoritarianism are characterised by culturally acceptable personality traits, while authoritarianians are rated low on such characteristic trait.

Moreover recent development and researches conducted by Ray (1976, 1979), Heaven (1977), Heaven and Moerdyk (1977), show that authoritarians are found not to be alienated and not to be ethnocentric which is in contrast to the research findings of Ador et al. (1950), Mc Dill (1960), Roberts and Hokeach (1956) and Srole (1956). Their findings are in contrast with previous
research and one should try to understand how they might have arisen. Possibly, many traits which Adorno et al. (1950) thought belonged together have subsequently been shown not to be related in any reliable way at all. These recent studies demonstrate the need to distinguish between authoritarian attitudes and authoritarian behaviours. Personality traits which were once thought to be characteristic of authoritarianism have subsequently been shown not to be so.

1.30 Objectives of the Present Study:

The main objectives of the present study are:

1. To study the inter-relationship that exists between the four kinds of need motivations i.e. need for achievement, need for approval, need for affiliation and need for power.

2. To evaluate the relative interactional effects of the such variables as (a) membership category; namely, President, Vice-President, Secretary and Joint Secretary; (b) sex; (c) Socio-economic status; (d) Territorial variations - on each of the four motivations under study.

3. To study the nature and kind of need for approval, need for achievement, need for affiliation and need for power of the student leaders.

4. To study the differential motivational potentials of the President, Vice-President, Secretary and Joint Secretary of the College Unions, in Chhattisgarh Region.
5. To study the levels of the four need motivations understudy of the President, Vice-President, Secretary and Joint Secretary at various levels of age, educational maturity and home back-ground.

1.40 **Scope and Significance of the Present Study:**

1.41 **Significance of the Present Study:**

The present age of space and sputniks accompanied with the technological sophistication and communicative excellence necessitates persons with great discrimination ability, high sensitivity and superior excellence. Designing and fabricating such persons capable of handling most sophisticated and complex instruments will need educational institutions to provide instructions and learning of high quality, appropriate and suitable for meeting the problems and challenges of modern life. Children are said to be the richest sources of the nation provided they are nurtured with a view to attain the requirements and goals of modern life. Further, the constitutional provisions for providing an optimum opportunity to an individual for his fullest growth of personality ensures the individual on one hand for his optimum growth and development, on the other hand directs the educational institutions to make provisions for the implementation of his fundamental rights.
The political philosophy of a nation which is regulated through the socio-cultural systems of a society has to be reflected in the educational system of a nation. It is how the educational organisations acquire the rights of practising democracy in their institutions. Thus, the complexity of the modern age of Science and Technology, the Constitutional rights for the optimum growth and development, granted to an individual for his fullest development, and practising Democratic principles in all educational institutions are all interwoven in the fabric of the developmental processes of the individuals in the country.

In this perspective, human factors as psychological determinants, particularly need motivations play a vital role. The study of four aspects of need motivations has great significance and social relevance from the point of view that achievement motivation is crucial for academic excellence whereas power motivation is vital from the point of view of mobilising and regulating power system in a democratic set-up, so that power may not be imbalanced, resulting in imbalancing the national harmony. And to that extent, study of authoritarianism as a trait of personality development is equally significant.

An efficient system also regulates effective interpersonal relationship among the members of the organisation. Thus, participation in institutional
decision making process is now-a-days an accepted norm of a democratic system. The affiliation motive explains as to what extent human relation is functioning in the educational institutions. As such, harmonious relationship among the members produces the optimum outcome and is contributory to efficiency and effectiveness of the institution. Approval motive is no less important than the above three in the democratic functioning of an organisation. It provides an opportunity for maintaining effective rank and file relationship on one hand, and granting social approval to the student leaders for their legitimate rights on the other. As such, an integrated interaction of these four types of need motivation facilitate democratic functioning in educational institutions.

Though these four need motivations along with authoritarianism are essentially needed for effective functioning of democratic principles in an educational institution, the present study aims at highlighting their relevance so far as the student leadership behaviour is concerned. There are a few independent studies on each of the four need motivations, but interdependent interrelated and integrated studies on these four kinds of need motivations are rather scanty and scattered. Rather, there exists absolutely no literature which specifically deals with the four need motivations of student leaders in an integrated way; particularly on the
student leaders of relatively an underdeveloped region - like Chhattisgarh of the country. A few researches conducted by Sociologists and Educationists hardly cover such significant psychological areas as have been conceptualized in the present study. The absence of authentic literature and dependable studies, further, enhance the significance of the present study.

Thus, the significance of studying the four need motivations of the student leaders lies -

(a) in the diagnosis and development of the personality of the student leaders;

(b) in designing, elevating and improving the academic excellence, discipline and developmental process;

(c) in toning up and setting new norms and values, and objectives for redesigning the vocational institutions so as to enable them to cope up with the modern process of competitive life and ultimately for the betterment of nation and security.

1.42 Scope of the study:

Though studies on motivations are topics of significance to all individuals, the researches conducted on need motivations have unique significance and great relevance to all those who are in some way or other associated with the educational theory and practice, as well as policy designing, implementation and administration.
Since the present study aims at diagnosing the nature, kind and quality of the four types of need motivations of the student leaders, it would be of great interest to them to check up their motivational processes and to help them in their leadership behaviour and academic excellence. The findings on the study would function as diagnostic measures for correcting their inadequate or imbalanced motivational process. It will, further, help them to set their goal of life and vocational placement. Thus, the findings on the present study could serve as guide for self-correction and self-appraisal in motivational aspects.

The findings of the present study would be of great help to teachers, educational administrators, educational planners and policy-makers, guidance workers and counsellors. The causal factors of need motivations available among the student leaders at various levels would help the teachers, policy-makers and administrators to redesign their course contents and learning activities in accordance with their motivational levels.

The level of motivation, particularly the achievement motivations would provide them an insight to launch academic competitive programmes from which their potentialities could be adjudged and necessary remedial teaching including enrichment programme could be imparted.

The nature and kind of need motivations and degree of authoritarianism available among the student leaders
could provide an insight to the guidance workers and counsellors; and to enhance their motivational levels by implying various techniques and would also help them to design their vocational placement and problems of adjustment in life.

Since the student leaders of today are hopes of tomorrow as future national leaders in various fields of life; particularly as are being designed today to become political leaders of tomorrow, the findings would be helpful to the political leaders, social reformers, planners and other policy-makers. Since many of the student leaders play the role of student activities, and thereby derive their need satisfaction, it is equally useful to all professional personnel who are in some way or other responsible for maintaining law and order and assigning suitable reinforcement system. The knowledge of causal factors and the correlates of need motivations and authoritarianism under-study are helpful to the student leaders, and findings on those would guide the police personnel, judiciary and the members of the Parliament to review their code of conduct, correction techniques and punishment procedures so far as the role of the student leaders as activists, anti-social elements, and such other students with criminal tendencies are concerned.

Thus, by and large the present study of need motivations and authoritarianism of the student leaders
would provide an insight for examining the cause and consequence relationship existing today in the anti-social activist behaviour pattern of the student leaders and would suggest some remedial measures in the present system of the educational practices which has designed the function of democracy to be practised in the national system of education as a consequence of Constitutional directions.

1.50 **Statement of the Problem:**

Numerous studies have been undertaken on achievement motivation; however, relatively the studies on approval, affiliation, and power are inadequate; insignificant and insufficient. Further, there exists very few studies in which all these four need motivations have been undertaken together. So far, no study has come to our notice on the four need motivations, namely, the achievement, approval, affiliation and power which deal integratedly with the four need motivations of the student leaders of an underdeveloped region of the country. In view of these limitations, a serious gap has been found in the current literature on need motivations.

The present problem, therefore, could be pinpointedly stated as under:

"A Study of the Need Motivations of the Student Leaders".
We pose the following problems for the present study:

1. Whether there exists any relationship between the four need motivations, and if so, what type of, to which direction and to what extent?

2. To what extent, the four category of student leaders; namely, the President, Vice-President, Secretary and Joint Secretary, are in possession of the n Achievement, n Approval, n Affiliation and n Power and authoritarianism?

3. Whether their age and educational maturity contribute in any way to their motivational potentiality, and if so, at what level, and to what extent, and in which type of need motivations?

4. Whether the educational maturity, socio-economic status, income status of their parents contribute in any way to their motivational potentiality and if so, at what level and to what extent and in which type of need motivations?

5. Whether the home background of the student leaders contributes in any way to their motivational potentiality; and if so, at what level and to what extent and in which type of need motivations?

6. Whether their social status, home conditions, family background, educational climate, sex and territorial variations have any interactional effect with
each of the four need motivations and authoritarianism; and if so, which of the demographic variables and to what extent?

1.60 Formulation of Hypotheses:

Formulation of hypotheses is an essential aspect of scientific investigation. It makes the problem of study more vivid and meaningful which in turn helps the investigator to design the research so as to arrive at an empirical solutions to the research problems.

Keeping in view the significance of formulation of hypotheses, some testable hypotheses have been formulated. They have been categorised into:

(I) Correlational
(II) Interactional
(III) Differential hypotheses, and
(IV) Developmental.

In addition to the four types of need motivations as well as the authoritarianism as the main dependent variables around which the investigation has been conceptualized, the independent variables are:

a) Membership categories: (i) President
   (ii) Vice-President
   (iii) Secretary
   (iv) Joint-Secretary.

b) Sex variations: (i) Male
   (ii) Female
c) Territorial variations: 
   (i) Rural
   (ii) Urban

d) Educational level: 
   (i) of the student leaders
   (ii) of their parents and siblings.

e) Income Status of their parents.
f) Socio economic status of their parents
g) Home conditions of the student leaders.

These independent variables have been included in the study with a view to know the relative interactional effects upon the need motivations i.e. n achievement, n approval, n affiliation and n power, of some of significant independent variables.

Hypotheses formulated in the present study have been presented as under:

I. Correlational Hypotheses:

H₄: "The relationship between n affiliation and n power of the student leaders would be significantly positive whereas the relationship that exists between:

(i) n achievement and n approval,
(ii) n achievement and n affiliation,
(iii) n achievement and n power,
(iv) n approval and n affiliation,
(v) n approval and n power,
would be insignificant".
$H_2$: "There exists a significant positive relationship between the scores of power and authoritarianism whereas the relationship of the latter with achievement, approval, and affiliation would be insignificant and negative".

II. Interactional Hypotheses:

**Rationale for the Inclusion of Four Independent variables in the Interactional Study:**

There are numerous independent variables affecting the dependent variables understudy. However, in the opinion of the two judges, the following four independent variables alone may contribute most; hence ignoring others, these have been taken up for the present study in formulating the interactional hypotheses:

1. Membership variation (4) : President
   Vice-President
   Secretary, and
   Joint-Secretary

2. Sex variations (2) : Male & Female

3. Territorial variations (2) : Rural & Urban

4. Educational level (2) : (i) Student Leaders
   (ii) Their Parents

5. Socio-economic status of their parents

6. Income level of their parents

7. Home conditions and background

ANOVA for each of the four dependent variables could be computed with a view to know the interactional
effect of each one of the first five independent variables on each of the four dependent variables. Hypotheses formulated for ANOVA has been given as under:

**Interactional Hypotheses: (H₃ to H₇):**

- **H₃:** "Sex would have relatively the most significant effect on n Achievement whereas variations due to membership categories and SES would have relatively less significant effect".

- **H₄:** "Sex would have the most significant effect on n Approval whereas the effect of membership category would be relatively least significant, however, the significant effect of SES would lie in between these two extremes.

- **H₅:** "SES would contribute highly significant effect to n Affiliation whereas moderate degree of significant effect would be observed in case of membership category".

- **H₆:** "Membership category would show the most significant effect on n Power whereas SES would have a moderate degree of significant effect".

- **H₇:** "SES and sex would have the most significant effects whereas membership category would show relatively moderate degree of significant effect on authoritarianism".
III. Differential Hypotheses:

H₈: "The male student leaders would significantly excel the females in n affiliation, n power and authoritarianism whereas the female student leaders would show significantly higher scores in n achievement and n approval".

H₉: "Student leaders who are higher in the membership category hierarchy would show significantly higher mean in n achievement and n approval whereas they would not show any significant differences in n power, n affiliation and authoritarianism".

H₁₀: "There exists no significant difference between the rural and urban student leaders in their n achievement, n approval, n affiliation, n power and authoritarian traits".

H₁₁: "Post-graduate student leaders would show a relatively significant lower mean in n affiliation, n power and authoritarian traits and would show significantly higher mean in n achievement and n approval whereas the undergraduate student leaders would show significantly lower mean in n achievement and n approval and would show significantly higher mean in n affiliation, n power and authoritarian traits".

H₁₂: "Student leaders in Professional Colleges would show significantly higher mean in n achievement and n approval whereas those in the non-professional colleges
would show significantly higher mean in n power, n affiliation and authoritarianism".

H₁₃: "Student leaders belonging to the highly educated family would show significantly higher mean in n achievement and n approval whereas student leaders belonging to the poorly educated families would show significantly higher mean in n affiliation, n power and authoritarianism".

H₁₄: "Student leaders belonging to very rich families would show significantly higher mean in n power, n affiliation and authoritarian traits, whereas the student leaders belonging to poor families would show significantly higher mean in n achievement, n approval and Democratic leadership traits".

H₁₅: "Student leaders belonging to big landlord families would show significantly higher mean in n power and authoritarian traits whereas those whose parents are petty landlords and farmers would show significantly higher mean in n achievement, n approval and n affiliation".

H₁₆: "Student leaders having sympathetic parental back-ground would show significantly higher mean in n affiliation, n approval and n achievement and in democratic leadership traits, whereas the student leaders having authoritarian parental back-ground would display significantly higher mean in n power and authoritarian leadership traits".
H17: "Student leaders subjected to adequate parental control would show significantly higher mean in n achievement, n affiliation, n approval and democratic leadership traits, whereas those who are devoid of any parental control would show higher mean in n power and authoritarianism".

IV. Developmental Hypotheses:

H18: "The student leaders who are below 22 years of age would show significantly higher means on n achievement than those who are above 22 years whereas the latter would score significantly higher on n affiliation, n power, n approval and authoritarianism than the former at all categories of membership groups".

1.70 Delimitation of the study:

The present study has been undertaken to make a differential study in four need motivations and authoritarianism of student leaders of the college unions in the Chhattisgarh region of M.P. From the point of view of the number of colleges in the Chhattisgarh region, the present study has been delimited by the following considerations:

1. In the present study, only the student leaders; namely, the President, Vice-President, Secretary and Joint Secretary of the College Union within the territorial jurisdiction of Ravishankar University, Raipur and
Guru Ghasidas University, Bilaspur have been included. These Universities constitute the universe of the study.

2. Keeping in view the fact that student leaders are elected for a period of one year only, a testable size of samples of the student leaders have been selected.

3. In the present study, only four types of need motivations; i.e. achievement, approval, affiliation and power and authoritarianism have been included.

4. The sample of student leaders have been drawn from the (a) Arts, Science and Commerce Colleges, (b) Law and Education Colleges, (c) Engineering and Medical Colleges.

5. In the present study, for studying the differential potentiality of student leaders, their age, educational maturity, socio-economic status, their home background, the parental income, and the educational level of their parents are taken as the demographic variables.

1.80 Operational definitions:

In order to provide objectivity in the measurement of certain concepts, some operational definitions have been given.
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1.80 Operational definitions:

In order to provide objectivity in the measurement of certain concepts, some operational definitions have been given.
1. **Need for Achievement:**

   Need for achievement has been operationally defined in terms of the total scores obtained by the subjects on the Achievement Motive Inventory (AMI) developed by Prayag Mehta.

2. **Need for Approval:**

   Need for approval has been operationally defined in terms of the total scores obtained by the subjects on the Approval Motive Inventory (AMI) developed by Tripathi and Tripathi.

3. **Need for Affiliation:**

   Need for affiliation motive has been operationally defined as total scores obtained by a subject on the 6TAT, measuring affiliation motives.

4. **Need for Power:**

   Need for power has been operationally defined in terms of the total score obtained by a subject on the 6 TAT, measuring power motive.

5. **Authoritarianism:**

   Authoritarianism has been operationally defined as the total score obtained by a subject on the Indian adaptation of Authoritarian Scale (Indian F Scale) developed by Promila Sarin (1981).

   The Chapter - II deals with "Review of Relevant Literature".