1.1 FRUSTRATION

Human behaviour is goal-oriented and is directed by various environmental forces and internal qualities (of the individuals) such as their attitudes, aptitudes, interests, likings and various other personality traits. However, motivated behaviour frequently fail to achieve its object without interruption. Physical or social obstacles intervene, and cause delay or even complete failure and whenever one is unsuccessful to achieve ones goals, one becomes unsatisfied. With the continued experience of such failure and consequent non-satisfaction, one experiences frustration through the thwarting of motivation and the situation is sometimes said to create ‘psychological stress’*. Thwarting may also occur when there is a conflict of motivation; when two or more incompatible types of motivated behaviour exist which cannot be pursued simultaneously. Thus in an individual frustration may occur due to two causes:

1. An inhibitory tendency in opposition to a positively motivating tendency;

* 'Psychological stress' must be distinguished from the physiological stress discussed by Selye, which occurs in situations in which there is difficulty in maintaining homeostasis, and an ‘adaptation syndrome’ takes place, involving various internal physiological changes. For details refer Selye, H. (1957), The Stress of Life, London: Longmans Green.
2. The simultaneous action of two competing tendencies. Frustration has been defined as a psychological state which results from the blocking of a goal-directed activity (Kisker, 1964); thwarting of a need or desire (Coleman, 1974); as a hypothetical construct produced either by some type of inhibitory condition or by an excitatory tendency leading to accumulation of strength (Brown and Farber, 1951). Frustration behaviour lacks goal-orientation, feeling of intensive need deprivation and have a different set of behaviour mechanism, which appears more or less senseless due to compulsive nature (Chouhan and Tewari, 1973).

Frustration is stated to be "a state of emotional tension produced by opposing forces one of which is a restraining force". Some psychologists, such as Drever, Dollard, Doob, Miller and Hovel trace frustration as the source of aggressiveness, whereas to others "the tendency to aggress on frustration is instinctive and exists in adults as well as children whenever techniques are inadequate to achieve goals".

The Yale theory regarding the hypothesis explains that:

1) the strength of frustration is dependent, in part, on the strength of motivation;

2) frustration frequently produces aggression;

3) aggression against others may be inhibited by an atmosphere of social restraint;
4) aggression against others is directed towards those persons who are perceived as interfering agents;
5) social restraint decreases the ratio of direct to indirect aggression;
6) there is some inconclusively evidence that the occurrence of aggressive behaviour has a cathartic effect.

Frustration is revealed in various forms like Regression, Fixation, Resignation and Aggression. Different individuals react to them differently depending upon the circumstances of each individual. Sometimes the individual behaves aggressively and reacts by holding him or herself responsible for failure; at times the individual holds the world responsible for his or her failure; while at certain other occasions, the individual evades the responsibility and tries to bypass it. In this situation of failure, there are some for whom the obstacle predominates, others extend ego-defenses and some emphasize the fulfillment of the need by making appropriate activities.

Another aspect in this line is speaking out oneself to others so as to get the cue that may take one to repeated successful efforts in the direction of goal realization. In case persons do not speak out their grievance to
others and keep them within themselves, the situation may have unpsychological consequences on the mental health of those affected.

Every individual has unlimited wants, desires, goals, ambitions and needs. However, in present times, the entire system is too complex to fulfill all of them. And among these, feelings of love and belongingness are particularly lacking. In fact, love and affectionate feelings are towards decline. This is because of the feeling of lack of belongingness within the individual, on the one hand, and a feeling of decline in the individual’s drive to adjust to the existing environment, on the other. This leads to refrainment type of behaviour and these two opposite poles (the environment and the refrainment) for the individual, who mediates or tries to adjustment in between these two, create frustrating conditions within the individual and change his behaviour patterns and likings. Frustration involves the thwarting or blocking of a person’s dominant motives, needs, desires, drives and purposes.

Psychologists have differentiated between primary frustration and secondary frustration. Primary frustration is stated to involve the sheer existence of an active need, characterized by tension and subjective dissatisfaction due to the absence of end situation necessary for quiescence. Secondary frustration is the result of the existence of a more or less insurmountable obstacle or obstruction in the path of the attainment of certain need or goal.
In general, older and more mature people are better able to tolerate obstruction and failure and adjust to it successfully than are younger, less mature and less stable personalities. The former are more able to postpone immediate satisfaction of their desires and to persevere and mobilize their energies to overcome obstacles. They are more ingenious in discovering ways of circumventing these. And if they finally fail, they can meet the situation with fortitude, and even dismiss it from mind. This will happen especially if they perceive the obstruction as an inevitable consequence of some external situation. Such a ‘task-induced’ stress may, for instance, be produced by distraction or interruption, and it leads to ‘need persistent’ rather than to defensive action\textsuperscript{1}. Many people may have become accustomed to interference, and are therefore less affected by it. Indeed those who had become practised, and adapted in certain tasks actually improved their performance in the stress of distraction; whereas if they had not, performance was impaired\textsuperscript{2}. But if individuals believe that failure can be attributed to some inadequacy in themselves, or that it threatens their security or prestige, they are more likely to experience personal frustration and to resort to some form of more or less maladaptive

\textsuperscript{1} Lazarus, R.S. et al. (1952), The Effects of Psychological Stress Upon Performance, \textit{Psychological Bulletin}, No. 49, p. 293

behaviour, such as the defensive reactions\(^1\). This is likely to occur in those low in achievement motivation, with low self-esteem and a strong fear of failure. But this does not always happen; they may strive harder to attain similar goals, and thus restore their self-esteem\(^2\). Those high in self-esteem are more aware than those with low self-esteem of the discrepancy between the actual and the ideal self, and are better able to tolerate it\(^3\). But they are also more likely to evaluate their performance in terms of their own efforts; whereas those low in self-esteem pay more regard to what they think others expect of them. Younger and less mature people tend more readily to react to failure mal-adaptively. They are less able to think out an appropriate course of action, and indeed to tolerate any delay of immediate action to achieve success, or any state of uncertainty. They may try to avoid a situation in which failure is probable. This naturally occurs more in children and adolescents.

1.2 FRUSTRATION AMONG ADOLESCENTS

Adolescence is characterized by physical, mental and emotional growth and development. Among these, emotional growth is a more sensitive area as the growing child is more confronted with the concepts

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of self-respect, feelings and the like at this stage. Besides, they are not very mature and cannot analyse the things properly and feel frustrated just for a little failure. Therefore, frustration among adolescents is found commonly. Now, we have to see the relationship between frustration, the cognitive and non-cognitive attributes among the adolescents, which are going to prove very significant for this study.

1.3 FRUSTRATION AMONG ADOLESCENTS IN RELATION TO COGNITIVE AND NON-COGNITIVE ATTRIBUTES

Among other factors that cause frustration of adolescents, there are certain attributes – cognitive as well as non-cognitive – that lead to their frustration especially in the school setting. Prominent among these are intelligence, academic achievement, need achievement and all these three have been taken by the investigator for the present study to be tested for their effect on the frustration of the adolescents.

1.3.1 FRUSTRATION IN RELATION TO INTELLIGENCE

Before attempting to establish a relationship between frustration of adolescents and their intelligence, it would be appropriate to first understand the meaning of the terms ‘intelligence’ and ‘measurement of intelligence’.
1.3.1.1 WHAT CONSTITUTES INTELLIGENCE?

Human intelligence is one of the most controversial issues or phenomenon in the realm of behavioural sciences and more particularly in the field of psychology. Intelligence is closely related to thinking. Whereas 'thinking' involves understanding, manipulating, and communicating about information, 'intelligence' is somewhat more broadly thought of as the underlying ability to understand the world and cope with its challenges.

The study of intelligence shows a turbulent history, most evident since the turn of this century, when formal investigations commenced. At that time identical twins were popular research subjects, for when living apart they offered an opportunity to examine the same heredity in different environments. Studies were then extended to all sorts of people and to animals, as well. Among these special mention may be made about the extensive studies conducted by Kohler on animals. In one of his many experiments on apes, a hungry chimpanzee managed, with the help of a stick, to get hold of the bananas placed outside its cage. Later on, this simple activity was further complicated by altering situations in various other subsequent experiments on the same chimpanzee. However, every

time the ape managed to achieve the goal. This food activity of the chimpanzee is an intelligent activity. In this activity some psychological factors may be said to have been involved in (a) a goal-seeking activity – eating bananas being the goal, (b) utilization of a tool which is a means of realizing the goal, that is, the stick being used for pulling the bananas which indicates the manipulation of the stock of his knowledge, (c) an insight into the circumstances – use of the stick to pull the bananas – in this case, (d) his insight indicates a grasp of the total situation however vague it might be, (e) acting according to the situation in hand, (f) use of his previous knowledge, but with due regard to the novelty involved in the new situation, (g) the speed, the time-limit within which the subject finished his task, which indicates his profiting by experience.

The same principles of animal intelligence are also discovered in human intelligence through various tests. Utilization of knowledge and tools either physical or mental are some of the important characteristics of human intelligence. An intelligent activity, though not an intellectual activity, has an intimate relation with intellect. To speak in terms of the psychologist, an intelligent activity is nothing but intellect in use. Intelligence not only requires or depends upon knowledge, but also that the knowledge in question is useful. In the language of Ballard, “It is clear
that intelligence cannot be tested in *vacuo:* it can only be tested in relation to knowledge";

Like most of the other psychological terms, "intelligence" is drawn from the vocabulary of everyday speech. In a general way, everyone is acquainted with intelligence or intelligent behaviour. The extent of efficiency and adaptability in handling a situation that the individual faces and the extent, to which the demands of the situation, in terms of its novelty, complexity and abstractness, are met, is called intelligence.

Three different meanings can be associated with the term "intelligence". First refers to the innate capacity of individuals, their genetic equipment. This meaning reflects the genotypic form of intelligence; it cannot be measured directly. Secondly, it refers to what individuals do, specifically to their behaviours involving learning, thinking, and problem solving. It results from an interaction of genes with the prenatal and postnatal environment, the phenotypic form. These two meanings, however, are not wholly separate or independent of each other, because the genotypic form enters into and is a necessary component of the phenotypic form. A third meaning of intelligence refers to results...
obtained on intelligence tests that sample specialised abilities, such as verbal, non-verbal or mechanical abilities\textsuperscript{1}.

In this connection, Nickerson, Perkins and Smith have laid down the list of abilities that they believe represent human intelligence:

1. \textit{The Ability To Classify Patterns}: All humans with normal intelligence seem able to assign non-identical stimuli to classes. This ability is fundamental to thought and language, since works generally represent categories of information.

2. \textit{The Ability To Modify Behaviour Adaptively – to learn}: Many theorists consider adapting to one’s environment the most important mark of human intelligence.

3. \textit{The Ability To Reason Deductively}: Deductive reasoning involves making logical inferences from stated premises.

4. \textit{The Ability To Reason Inductively – To Generalize}: Inductive reasoning requires that the persons go beyond the information given. It requires the person to discover rules and principles from specific instances.

5. \textit{The Ability To Develop And Use Conceptual Models}: This ability means that we form an impression of the way the world is and how it functions and use that model to understand and interpret

\textsuperscript{1} Sattler, Jerome M. (1982), \textit{Assessment of Children's Intelligence and Special Abilities}, Boston: Allyn and Bacon, p. 3
events. Much of what we know we have never observed directly but we infer from our past experiences with other similar things and events.

6. The Ability To Understand: In general to understand is related to the ability to see relationships in problems and to appreciate the meaning of these relationships in solving a problem. Validation of understanding is one of the most elusive problems in intelligence testing.

1.3.1.2 ENVIRONMENTAL INFLUENCES ON INTELLIGENCE

To know the environmental influences on intelligence, it is required to consider studies of environmental influences, which also employ a variety of research strategies. These include manipulation of the testing situation, observation of the role of the home environment, and evaluation of the effects of educational programmes.

AGE AND SEX DIFFERENCES

The determination of age trends in intelligence is complicated by the difficulty, both practical and theoretical, of identifying comparable groups at different ages. Within this limitation, data suggest that performance on measures of intelligence increases at a rapid and apparently fairly uniform rate during childhood, slows down during adolescence, reaches a maximum, and subsequently declines. However,

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the age at which a maximum is reached and the rate of subsequent decline is a function both of the nature of the test task and of the life history of individual. Tests that depend in large measure upon the accumulation of experience (i.e., vocabulary or general information) continue to show increments in performance through the twenties and perhaps longer, and show a decline only with the approach of senescence. On the other hand, performance on tests that depend upon speed, flexibility, and adaptation to novel and unfamiliar tasks appears to reach a maximum during the teens and declines shortly thereafter. However, the time and rate of decline is a function of education level and pattern of life experience, being slower for those who continue their schooling and who live and work in situations where traffic in ideas and abstractions is a part of their daily living\(^1\). Though there has not been any concrete evidence about the existence of any definite correlation among sex and the level of intelligence, yet some sex differences do appear with respect to specific types of test tasks. Thus for instance girls generally have been found to do better on tasks with a substantial verbal component, and boys have been found to do better on quantitative and concrete types of tasks.

Maccoby and Jacklin performed an extensive survey of sex differences in cognitive abilities. They concluded that there is good evidence that girls have somewhat greater verbal ability than boys and

that boys excel in visual spatial ability and mathematical ability during adolescence. However, there is no evidence that girls are better at rote learning or that boys are better at higher-level cognitive processing tasks. Furthermore, there is no evidence that girls are more affected by heredity or that boys are more affected by the environment.

EMOTIONAL CORRELATES OF INTELLIGENCE

Performance on cognitive tasks is likely to be in part a function of the child’s social-emotional and cognitive functioning. Children most likely to use their cognitive processes in a productive way and to make gains in cognitive achievement are those who are active, curious, task involved, and well organised. Thus a study of preschool children social-emotional functioning and academic and intellectual achievement in the early elementary school grades revealed that children, who showed interest curiosity, and assertiveness as preschoolers obtained higher first and second grade achievement scores than those who showed withdrawal, lack of interest, and failure to elicit cooperation from peers. These findings suggest that curious, alert, and assertive children likely learn more from their environment than those who are passive, apathetic, and uninterested in their surroundings.

1 Ibid, p. 55.
and withdrawn. The findings also are consistent with those of Sontag, Baker, and Nelson (1958) and Kagan, Sontag, Baker, and Nelson (1958), who found that emotional independence from peers and teachers, the ability to operate freely and constructively within a preschool setting, assertiveness, interest, and curiosity were predictive of subsequent gains in intellectual functioning.

Children with high-test anxiety about school-related tasks are likely to have a history of school failure, while those with low-test anxiety probably have had a general history of success in school (Hill, 1972; Hill & Sarason, 1966). There is evidence indicating that anxious children perform poorly on cognitive and ability tests because of motivational difficulties rather than because of learning or ability deficiencies. Highly test-anxious children have been found to perform rapidly and accurately on arithmetic problems when they were allowed to pace themselves without time pressure. In general, situations experienced as highly evaluative are likely to result in lowered scores for highly anxious children. Therefore, ways are needed to optimize the testing procedure in order to arrive at less biased and more useful testing procedures for children with high-test anxiety.

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Members of high socio-economic groups, on the average, have higher IQs than members of low socio-economic groups (Havighurst & Janke, 1944; Janke & Havighurst, 1945). According to Tyler, "The relationship of measured intelligence to socio-economic level is one of the best documented findings in mental-test history"¹. The infant development status interacts with socio-economic status (SES). Low scores on infant developmental scales are more likely to result in poorer intellectual performance at later ages (4 and 10 years) in the context of low socio-economic status than in the context of high socio-economic status (Werner, Honzik, & Smith, 1968; Willerman, Broman, & Fiedler, 1970). Urban children usually perform at a higher level than rural children, although in the WISC-R standardization group the difference between the two groups was slight².

1.3.1.3 PROBLEMS OF MEASUREMENT OF INTELLIGENCE

The worth and value of intelligence tests can be measured by the fact that they have been put to extensive use in various fields after the Second World War. The group tests for selection of candidates are being widely used nowadays all over the world in selecting Army personnel, in civil service examination, in recruiting staff in industrial enterprises with a

view to placing the right person in a right job. These tests have also been found helpful in the schools for segregating the students having low intelligence from those having average and above average intelligence. The tests may also provide useful clinical guidance for tackling the problem children\(^1\). However, all this does not mean that the intelligence tests have been full proof. In fact, the value of intelligence tests has been controversial since Binet's original efforts, for these tests have their limitations.

Intelligence tests sometimes have been criticized as a tool for social control, promoting one kind of intelligence. Some courts on this basis have barred the testing of intelligence in schools; there have been attacks on the Civil Service Examination; and there have been charges of bias in personnel selection.

Secondly, the skill of the administrator of the test is also an important consideration determining the validity of an intelligence test. The Stanford-Binet or Wechsler Scale or for that matter any other test in not more than a tool, and its safe and successful use depends upon the examiner, as is the case with all human instruments.

Moreover, an intelligence test can be useful for predicting school performance and certain other goal-directed activities, especially in

various professions. But is only one of many factors to be considered. Motivation, creativity, and social skills are also important, as well as special ability in art, music, athletics, and other areas.

To add to the complexity, comparative investigations show that results on intelligence tests are partly a function of the examiner’s ethnic or national origin. The subject-examiner match is critical, for the subject performs best with an examiner of his or her own background\(^1\).

1.3.1.4 FRUSTRATION AND INTELLIGENCE

There is significant difference of low and high levels of intelligence on frustration among the male students. Male students having high intelligence are more frustrated in comparison to low intelligent male students. A high degree positive relationship has been found between high intelligence and higher frustration among the female adolescents. Thus the intelligent girls are more frustrated in comparison to the low intelligent adolescent girls.

1.3.2 FRUSTRATION IN RELATION TO NEED ACHIEVEMENT

Motivation is an internal force that arouses, regulates and sustains all individual actions. However, it is clear that motivation is an internal experience that cannot be studied directly. We infer its existence and nature from observation and experience of behaviour. We attribute a

motivation basis particularly to the types of behaviour which are recurrent and persistent, and involve the employment of considerable energy; and which may also be accompanied by feelings of impulsion and desire. But since, especially in man, this behaviour is bewildering in its variety and exceedingly difficult to classify satisfactorily, the underlying motives are correspondingly difficult to define, delimit and classify with any exactitude\(^1\).

1.3.2.1 THE DRIVES

Thorndike, in his 'Law of Effect', postulated that learning took place in so far as produced a 'satisfying effect' or enabled the avoidance of discomfort\(^2\). Hull who constructed and formulated a very detailed and elaborate scheme of postulates as to the nature and causes of learning, included as basic factors 'drives' which energized and activated behaviour aimed at satisfying biological needs\(^3\). Learning was dependent of the reduction of drive strength produced by satisfaction of the need. Thorpe has defined 'drive' as the complex of internal and external states and stimuli leading to a given behaviour, which is always of survival value\(^4\).

Though the concept is thus very general in nature, it is in fact mainly applicable to the type of behaviour aimed at supplying fundamental

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biological needs, and for keeping the body in a state of physiological equilibrium or homeostasis. A distinction is made between the physiological motives also called primary drives, stimulus motives and social motives.

Hunger is one of most basic primary motives. This drive is aroused when the body's need for food is registered in the brain or when cues in the environment trigger hunger. Specific hungers indicate that the body "knows" what foods does it need to maintain itself. The hunger drive and, often, the need for specific foods are unlearned, but how that drive is expressed in behaviour is governed by learning, habit, and culture. Thirst, like hunger, is controlled by delicate biochemical balances in the body, and, has been linked to the level of salt in the bloodstream. Learning also has a large influence on how we act to satisfy the thirst drive. Sleep is also vital to survival. The need to dream appears to be somewhat less basic than the need to sleep. Dream deprivation does not appear to cause many of the serious consequences that were previously believed to result from it. Pain acts as a warning signal that something is wrong with the body and motivates us to escape or avoid the danger. Responses to pain are conditioned by learning and experience.

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Unlike hunger, sex is not necessary for the survival of the individual; but it is necessary for the survival of the species. The role of hormones in the human sex drive is minimal compared with the importance of learning and experience, with regard to both the stimuli that elicit the drive and the behaviours that result\(^1\). The complexity of maternal behaviour makes it difficult to isolate a single 'maternal drive'. Hormonal influence is present in all animals, including humans. But hormones alone cannot account for maternal behaviour, and it seems more likely that much of it is learned\(^2\).

A second set of motives that is largely innate depends much more on external stimuli than on internal physiological states. These stimulus motives, such as activity, curiosity, exploration, manipulation, and contact push us to investigate, and often to alter, our environment. All animals apparently need activity, but scientists have not yet been able to determine whether activity is a motive in itself or a combination of other motives. The motives of exploration and curiosity appear to be activated by the new and unknown and to be directed toward finding out something. Unfamiliar and complex things seem to have greater appeal to animals than the familiar or simple, but sometimes the unknown can be

\(^2\) Morris, Psychology, pp. 360-62.
distressing or even frightening. Manipulation is directed toward a specific object that must be touched, handled, played with, and felt before we are satisfied. It appears to be limited to primates, who fingers and toes. The need for contact with others is much broader and more universal than the need for manipulation. It is not limited to fingertip touching, but can involve the whole body¹.

Another class of learned motives centers around our relationships with other people. Observing everyday behaviour, we see that 'social motives' play a very great part in our lives and that social motives are numerous and complex. Among these motives, mention may be made of affiliation, power, consistency and achievement. The affiliation motive - the desire to be with others - is usually aroused when people feel threatened. Fear and anxiety are closely linked to the affiliation motive. The power motive, on the other hand, is the desire to control or influence other people or groups. The motive for consistency is elicited by the tension of cognitive dissonance, which occurs when we are faced with a fact or event that is not in accord with something we believe or expect. The achievement motive (nAch) can be defined as the general desire to set and achieve high standards of excellence².

1.3.2.2 THE ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVE

The initial impetus for work on achievement motivation came from Henry Murray, who recognized that people vary in their desire or tendency to "overcome obstacles, to exercise power, to strive to do something difficult as well as and as quickly as possible". Murray called this tendency the "need to achieve". Achievement motivation may be associated with a variety of goals, but in general the behaviour adopted will involve activity which is directed towards the attainment of some standard of excellence. It may include competition with others, in which they are surpassed. But on the other hand, the individual may be chiefly concerned to set himself a high standard of performance or level of aspiration, and to reach this through his own efforts, overcoming any obstacles to his success. Thus ambition is frequently involved. But it is probable, as we have seen, that the standard is based more or less directly on the attainments and achievements of others or upon general social standards. Though the individual is not necessarily concerned to surpass any particular persons, and indeed this might not satisfy him if he did not feel that he had reached the standard he had set himself, yet it has been found in some studies that there is a high correlation between attempts to

2 McClelland et. al. (1953), The Achievement Motive, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, p.84.
achieve an aim for its own sake, and to obtain the esteem of others by so doing\(^1\). It is argued that certain persons have a strong persistent desire for achievement, especially of long-term goals, in a variety of situations, and not merely an impulse to achieve through their own independent actions. Independence and achievement are closely related together. But achievement motivation may also be related specifically to particular spheres of interest, whereas in unrelated activities little achievement may be desired.

But it would appear that there are other persons whose positive desire for achievement is counteracted or even outweighed by their anxiety lest they fail. They may, for instance, children of parents who are themselves very distinguished, or who may have set them unduly high standards. The chief desire of these people may be the security of avoiding failure by not hoping for too much. In some of the tests of achievement used by Atkinson and McClelland, these individuals appeared to possess a moderate or medium strength of achievement motivation. Those with little achievement motivation were the unambitious, little concerned with success or failure.

The principal method used to investigate achievement motivation has been to require individuals to carry out tasks with instructions aimed at arousing achievement motivation; stating, for instance, that

performance of these measures intelligence or leadership abilities. Sometimes additionally it was made to appear that the performers were succeeding or failing in these tasks. They then wrote stories about Thematic Appreciation Test (T.A.T.) pictures, were compared with stories written in relatively relaxed conditions. In general, the latter contained fewer episodes than the former related to success, struggle for achievement, overcoming obstacles. After failure experiences, the number of success stories decreased and the number of failure stores increased. However, it was also found that children who had done poorly in their schoolwork produced fewer stories about failure in responses to T.A.T. pictures than did children who had done well\(^1\). Thus it would appear that long-term failure may give rise to the avoidance of such experiences.

It was also possible to distinguish the three adult groups, outlined above with high, medium and low achievement motivation. It should be noted, however, that this differentiation appears more clearly with pictures related to the specific interests or occupations of those who perform the T.A.T. tests. Moreover, although the situations described above aroused desires for success and leadership in male students they had not such effect on women students, who responded only in situations

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in which achievement was related to social acceptability; that is to say they wished to be successful only in achieving social skill and acceptance1.

Performance was also studied in several other tasks related to achievement motivation. In general people with high achievement motivation tended to prefer tasks which required personal initiative and inventiveness, and which presented some difficulty, a challenge rather than the assurance of success. They were willing to postpone immediate reward for the sake of an ultimately greater reward; and to take moderate risks to attain this. During performance, they tended to improve more than others as time went on; for instance in tasks such as the unscrambling of words with letters in random order. They also performed best when achievement was deliberately stimulated, but were relatively unaffected by monetary rewards. Those with moderate achievement motivation might become anxious over possible failure when achievement was emphasized, and perform less well. Those with strong achievement motivation appeared to be stimulated by failure in a task, and to determine more firmly to achieve a goal they had set for themselves; and they tended to over-estimate their probability of succeeding2. Those who were anxious about their ability to succeed and under-estimated their chance of success were discouraged by failure, though they sometimes

improved if the experimenter set a specific goal for them\(^1\). Again, those with moderately high levels of aspiration as to future success showed a considerable fear of failure in T.A.T. stories\(^2\). But those with high and low rather than with moderate levels of aspiration produced more T.A.T. stories relating to the attainment of positive goals\(^3\). Thus again a distinction may be drawn between those who are more concerned with desire for success and those anxious over possible failure. Heckhausen has recently prepared two keys for scoring T.A.T. stories, one relating to hope of success, the other to fear of failure, which differentiate these people\(^4\).

Further studies of these two types of reaction to achievement were carried out by using separate measures of achievement and anxiety. For the former, the T.A.T. or the French test were employed while for the latter, the Test Anxiety questionnaire was applied. Some people showed relatively high positive achievement motivation and low anxiety; others, a high degree of anxiety and low achievement. The former preferred tasks of moderate difficulty to either very difficult or very easy tasks, presumably because these afforded their best means of demonstrating


\(^{2}\) McClelland et. al. (1953), op. cit. p.39.

\(^{3}\) Clark, R.A. et al. (1956), Hope of Success and Fear of Failure as Aspects of Need for Achievement, *J. Ab. Soc. Psychol.*, No. 53, p.182.

achievement. The latter preferred either tasks which were very easy, in which they were unlikely to fail; or very difficult tasks. The latter finding is similar to that obtained in experiments on level of aspiration in which some people who performed badly set themselves a very high level of aspiration. Those whose motivation to achieve was stronger than their fear of failing showed greater persistence in an achievement-related task - time spent in working in an examination - and also were more efficient than those whose fear of failure was stronger than their desire for success.

A later study, however, indicated that although those who demonstrate high achievement motivation in the T.A.T. from a clearly defined group, those who do not do so may not necessarily be potential failures. People who gave relatively few achievement-oriented responses produced either responses related to the performance of tasks, though without much striving for achievement; or responses which were quite different in nature. The former appeared to be individuals who tended to be conservative, to conform socially and to avoid insecurity and risk. But the latter were unconventional, fond of risks, sometimes highly original, and on the whole as able and intelligent in work as those with high

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1 Atkinson, W.J et. al. (1960), The Achievement Motive, Goal Setting and Probability Preferences, J. Ab. Soc. Psychol., No. 60, p.27.
3 Shrable, K. and Stewart (1967), Personality Correlates of Achievement Imagery, Perception of Motor Skills, No. 24, p. 1087.
achievement motivation. This type of independent behaviour appeared less frequently when achievement motivation was deliberately stimulated by the situation, as in Atkinson's original experiment. But it may well indicate the existence of people who are relatively unwilling to exert themselves and strive hard in response to social pressure, though able to do so along the lines of their own interests.

There has been much investigation of the relation of academic attainment to achievement motivation. Naturally such attainment depends also on ability, and intelligence and achievement are not necessarily related. However, the highest attainment appears in those who possess both good intelligence and strong achievement motivation, especially when there is little anxiety as to possible failure; but strong achievement motivation cannot compensate for low intelligence. The more creatively intelligent individuals tend to high levels of aspiration to attain highly valued and desirable goals through determined and persistent goal-directed activity. In general achievement motivation is stronger in adults who have received a university education and are in professional occupations, than in others. However, if fear of academic failure is greater than anticipation of success, there may be an inhibiting effect on attainment and also upon the choice of a career, in students.

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2 Veroff, J. et. al. (1960), The Use of the Thematic Appreciation Test to Assess Motivation in a Nationwide Interview Study, Psychol. Monog., No.74, p.12.
Those shown by a questionnaire to possess a high degree of anxiety aspired to occupations of lower social status than did the less anxious; and with the former there was a greater gap between what they would like to do and what they expected to do. The relationship to anxiety was more noticeable than the relationship to achievement motivation. However, aspirations for upward mobility of occupation in adolescents and adults are associated with high achievement motivation; and also the inclination to seek an occupation which is interesting and likely to lead to success, rather than one easy to obtain, or promising security. People with such aspirations are relatively independent of their families, and are willing to leave them in order to obtain a good job. Long-term achievement is more valued than immediate satisfaction. This Air Force officer candidates high in achievement motivation performed a task better when its importance to their careers was stressed. Those low in achievement motivation performed better when an immediate goal, 'You may leave early', was emphasized.

There may even be a conflict between interest in a subject for its own sake and desire for achievement. One experiment showed that students demonstrated better understanding of a psychological text when

their curiosity as to its significance was stimulated than when achievement in learning was stressed. Though those high in achievement motivation are often willing to engage in tasks which are interesting in themselves, for instance the solution of interesting problems, there is also a danger that they may fail to persevere in them if they do not provide the experience of success.

Experiments have also been carried out distinguishing behaviour in performance of tasks of those high in achievement motivation and those with strong affiliation motivation. The former may show little evidence of affiliation motivation, for instance, in the desire to comply with the experimenter's wishes; and they tend to be low in social popularity. Indeed there may even be an inverse relationship between achievement and affiliation motivation. Those high in achievement motivation showed a higher degree of autonomic reactivity, as measured by the GSR, when tested in conditions in which academic attainment was stressed; and they might decrease their efficiency after apparent intellectual failure. Those high in affiliation motivation reacted physiologically when informed that they were being tested for their warmth and friendliness; and their performance might be impaired if they thought they had failed socially.

They liked to work together cooperatively in groups, and were stimulated by the information that they were cooperating satisfactorily\(^1\). Those relatively higher in achievement motivation preferred individual work. If they were asked to choose a partner to help them perform a task, they chose a competent worker even if they did not like him much. Those high in affiliation motivation chose someone they liked even if he was rather incompetent.

But the appearance and causes of achievement motivation seem to vary considerably as between men and women. Thus marked achievement in women may react with social disapproval, and therefore, they may show achievement-oriented behaviour only in friendly social surroundings. On the other hand, there has been evidence that women of high academic ability are more independent and less socially conforming than are men of high academic ability\(^2\). Again, it has sometimes appeared that maternal warmth in childhood contributes to high achievement motivation in adult women; in other studies that the latter is facilitated by a critical attitude in the mother\(^3\). This was particularly noticeable in the better-educated families, in which a somewhat aggressive interplay


between mother and daughter leads to a masculine type of achievement-oriented behaviour in the latter.

McClelland has made an extensive study of the social consequences of achievement motivation. Such motivation was studied cross-culturally, by investigating the occurrence of achievement ideas and imagery in the T.A.T. stories produced by individuals in a number of civilized and more primitive societies, and also their responses to other tests such as Aronson's. Furthermore, achievement themes were assessed in the folk-tales of primitive societies, and in the popular stories in the reading books of children in literate societies. McClelland reached the conclusion that a large amount of achievement imagery in children's stories was associated with the onset of a period of economic growth developing about thirty years later - that is to say, when these children became adult. A high degree of achievement motivation led to the expansion of 'entrepreneurial' occupations. Entrepreneurs are the business organizers, managers and salesmen who exercise control over the means of economic production and trade. The characteristics of entrepreneurs, as were demonstrated to a considerable extent by experimental investigations, are:

self-advancement; the desire for freedom and individual responsibility; obvious attainment of individual success, usually signaled by the acquisition of wealth. All these characteristics are associated with strong achievement motivation. But the successful entrepreneur must also possess skill in organisation, and the capacity for long-term planning. However, it should be noted that not all those high in achievement motivation necessarily choose such occupation. If they belong to the upper social classes, they are more likely to attempt careers in exploration or scientific research, success in which appears to them more valuable. Moreover, adolescents in the lower social classes may think that success is just as much a matter of luck as of achievement through their own efforts.

High achievement motivation, as we have seen, is unrelated to affiliation motivation, and indeed may be negatively correlated with it. Nevertheless, successful entrepreneurial activities do, according to McClelland, involve 'other-directedness' – the capacity to adapt one's behaviour flexibly to the desires and needs of others, and to treat people as individuals, not merely in accordance with traditional attitudes. This supplies a check on excessive personal motivation. Thus these activities are most successful when strong achievement motivation is accompanied by 'other-directedness'.

In addition to his studies of existing societies, McClelland also investigated the historical rise and decline of earlier civilized societies, with respect particularly to their economic success. He studied the achievement themes to be found in the literature most characteristic of these societies at different eras. Thus the economic growth of Greece, and especially of Athens, as assessed from their trading activities, occurred most obviously during the period 900-475 B.C., to be followed by a climax of success from 475-362 B.C., and a decline from 362-100 B.C. In each era, the rise and fall in frequency of achievement themes in the writings of, for instance, Hesiod, Xenophon and Aristotle, preceded economic growth and decline. A similar study was made of the period of economic growth in England from the Elizabethan era, followed by a decline in the late seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries, and a further expansion at the time of the Industrial Revolution. These changes were preceded by the presence or absence of achievement themes in the poetry of, for instance, Shakespeare; Milton and Addison; and Wordsworth and Shelley.

McClelland considered that the principal psychological factor involved in the occurrence of high achievement motivation was parental treatment. That is to say, mothers expected their sons to capable of self-reliant and independent action at an early age. They placed relatively few restrictions on their actions, except that they strongly discouraged childish dependent behaviour. Fathers also did not seek to dominate over their
sons; and both parents treated the children warmly. On the other hand, children who regarded their mothers rejecting tended to be low in achievement motivation, and were particularly responsive to social disapproval, and even to lack of obvious approval, in that they performed less competently in tasks¹. Over-protected children reacted in a somewhat similar way; they responded particularly readily when they received social approval. According to McClelland, in the third Greek era of economic decline, children were often brought up by slaves who encouraged dependence rather than self-reliance, thereby minimizing achievement motivation. But excessive stress on power and dominance in a society was not associated with economic development, but rather with political authoritarianism, as in totalitarian states.

It is, of course, true that stimulating methods of child rearing are likely to result from a generally liberal climate of opinion at the time of social expansion, and a dependent and conservative atmosphere at the time of consolidation and decline. We cannot therefore, conclude that child-rearing methods are the cause of these changes. They may be the consequence, although they probably have a reinforcing effect. Moreover, it is clear that economic growth and decline are related to a vast complex of political, social and ideological factors that we cannot consider here. It

¹ Heilbrun, A.B. et al. (1967). Perceived Maternal Child-Rearing Patterns and the Effects of Social Non-Reactions upon Achievement Motivation, Child Development, No. 38, p. 267
is impossible to say whether they operate in part through the mediation of changes in achievement motivation; or whether the increase in the latter is simply the result of social and economic expansion.

It is clear that McClelland regards achievement as a long-term goal, which is of great importance to many individuals. Moreover, he and his colleagues suggest that it is a general type of motivation that may affect the performance of a variety of activities by one and the same person; that is to say, anyone who is strongly achievement-oriented is likely to attempt good performance in more or less everything he does. It seems improbable that the majority of people as they grow older tend to concentrate their achievement motivation upon one or two main centres, such as their occupation and their principal leisure interest. Moreover, it is not clear that possession of a high degree of achievement is as relevant to superior attainment in all occupations as it appears to be in entrepreneurial occupations. McClelland himself noted that in another type of occupation, that of the 'bureaucrat', a different form of motivated activity may predominate - conscientious hard work without much hope of reward. Again, in occupations, which necessitate a high degree of intrinsic interest, achievement motivation may be of minor importance; the pursuit and furtherance of the interest is its own reward. Indeed, in so far as achievement motivation tends to focus attention on the self and the
attainment of self-esteem and the esteem of others, it may impair rather then reinforce performance of interest-centered activities.

Finally, it cannot be assumed that a high degree of achievement motivation necessarily leads to long-term goal-directed activity. It could be satisfied by the successful attainment of a series of minor and quite trivial goals, provided that the individual was involved in these. Thus some businessmen may experience achievement only when, through intelligence foresight and perseverance, they have built up a large and powerful concern. But other do so when, without any great foresight or long-term planning, they attain through their own cunning and efforts a continuing series of small successes.

1.3.2.3 FRUSTRATION AND NEED ACHIEVEMENT

In the present study, the results have revealed that that there is significant difference between the level of frustration and need achievement among both the adolescent boys and girls. This implies that both the male and female students having high need achievement are more frustrated in comparison to those who have low need achievement.

1.3.3 FRUSTRATION IN RELATION TO ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

By academic achievement we mean proficiency of performance generally measured by standardised test, for the act of attaining an end or carrying out a purpose. Academic achievement is most commonly applied
to performance in educational tests rather than psychological tests, that is, it implies demonstration of required ability, skill, knowledge or understanding than inherent capacity.

Academic achievement means knowledge, understanding or skills, acquired after instructions and training in courses or subjects of study. It is generally measured by means of total marks of students obtained by them in a particular examination. Subjects on this attribute are comparable because the syllabus for 8th and 9th standards, and for that matter for all the classes of upto 12th standard of the schools situated in Haryana, of all the government schools of Haryana state are prescribed and standardized by the Board of School Education, Haryana located at Bhiwani. Besides, the scheme of examination and weightage given to each unit and chapter in the examination are also duly prescribed. Hence, the marks obtained by the students chosen from different schools can very well be compared and are all, therefore, regarded at par.

Percentage of the pooled examination marks of the previous two years (of 8th class in the case of 9th class students and of 9th class in the case of 10th class students) was considered as Academic Achievement index score of each student.

1.3.3.1 FRUSTRATION AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Frustration and academic achievement are dependent upon each other or are independent of each other is a debatable question. In this
study, it has been found that adolescent male students having low academic achievement are more frustrated in comparison to those who have high academic achievement. The same is also true about the girl adolescent students.

1.4 NEED OF THE PROBLEM

Formation of an individual's personality is a continuous process. Besides being influenced by heredity, it is also shaped by the environment - social, cultural and physical - in which the individual resides. In this connection Allport (1960)\(^1\) states "Every personality develops continually from the stage of infancy until death, and throughout this span, it persists though it changes". Each succeeding stage of development thus emerges, in a very complex way, from the stages existing previously. Each human being thus acquires a personality through contacts with cultural agents viz., close-tied father and mother, age-mates whom we accept or avoid, and the adults such as teachers who represent community institution.

Vernon (1957)\(^2\) writes, "In bringing up children wisely, and guiding them into suitable educational careers and occupations, we have to take account of their personality qualities. The doctor will tell us their physical capacities and defects; school examinations and psychological tests will

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give us at least an approximate indication of their educational abilities, intelligence and aptitudes along special lines. But some children do not fulfill their promise of higher intellectuality while others who are dull according to their tests develop into worthy members of society by owing a sound personality". through lack of perseverance, weak academic interests, or emotional instability. Other children who are dull, according to tests, or in their school work, develop into worthy members of society owing to their sound personalities.”

The first and basic goal of education is to develop a healthy and wholesome personality. To achieve this goal a teacher has to come to the level of the child to understand the reference points from which the child starts. Ignorance of the student’s personality on the part of teacher is bound to lead to disastrous consequences injuring the interest of both in particular and the society in general.

Now by excluding the other considerations, the concept of ‘educating the pupils’ becomes quite easy to handle if two fundamental principles are kept in view by the educators. These are the facts of individual differences and understanding of each student in terms of his own personality background. Moreover, all learning in a school or college takes place within the setting of pupil-pupil relationships and pupil-teacher relationships and hence is more significant for an appropriate teaching-learning situation. It has been commonly experienced by teachers
that good and healthy relationship amongst the students of a class are conducive to efficient learning, only when teacher is well acquainted with personality traits of students. It is due to this fact that now-a-days educators are concerned not only with the students' intellectual growth or class achievement but also with their social and emotional adjustment, defenses, anxiety, neuroticism, introversion, ego-function, self-concept, and other factors involved in personality development.

It has been found that certain students become popular because of their certain behaviour or set of behaviours while others are neglected on account of some different kinds of behaviour displayed and still others are neglected by their peers on the basis of certain types of behaviour. The main emanating forces of behaviour are, in fact, the personality traits or characteristics.

One of the most challenging problems faced by the educational administrators today seems to be that of accurate prediction of cognitive and non-cognitive attributes of frustrated students. This problem has aroused the attention of many educational psychologists and is assuming greater importance, day by day, as our society is advancing industrially and technologically and also as the pattern of education is growing more and more complex. In view of these factors, it is of vital importance for an educator to understand the dynamics and potentialities of personality traits of the present day frustrated students, for they may be helped to
develop healthy personality traits to become productive and creative members of the society. It is also important to know the extent to which a person is well balanced adjusted to his environment as he has to face different kinds of problems in his day-to-day life, to a great extent, depends upon the organization of one's personality structure.

Indian Education Commission¹ observed that education should no longer be taken as concerned primarily with imparting of knowledge or the preparation of the finished product, but with the awakening of the curiosity, the development of the proper interests, attitudes and values and building of such essential skills and independent study and capacity to think and judge for oneself. Viewed from this angle, demands of modern education rests not only upon the high academic achievement and growth of intelligence, but also upon the well knit personality of the students coming out of the educational institutions.

It is a well-known fact that if we know about the cognitive and non-cognitive attributes of the students only then we can create a good and happy relationship amongst the member of the class and maintain their mental health and allow them to think, feel and act jointly. Healthy development of personality gives rise to healthy sentiments, feelings and desirable attitudes. A free and contented mind is able to concentrate and

this enables the person not only to learn more but also efficiently. Bad and unhealthy relations between students create mental tension and gives rise to the feelings of frustration and allow the development of conflicts and complexes which, in turn, spoils the balance of equilibrium of the minds of the students and, thereby, disturbs the whole atmosphere of the class. Such an environment of the classroom is detrimental to appropriate learning, and if learning is not efficiently possible in the classroom, the very purpose of school or college is done away with. So the most important function of education is to bring into focus the personality patterns of the students, which if properly studies, may guide them in the direction proper social, intellectual and emotional development.

In the wake of the rapid advancements in the fields of industry, science and technology, the problem under investigation is getting all the more significance. In the recent part, some such socio-economic changes, as the system of nuclear family vs. extended family, the upward economical mobility, both father and mother going in for jobs, have caused the growth of a different set of social environment in which a child has to live and grow to adulthood. The rapid industrialization and technological development has demanded not only the specific and specialised education, but has also introduced a keen competition for getting jobs and for the transformation of upward mobility. The complexities of the society in the same way have given not only the new
set of social environment, but also contributed to the widening of the school curriculum. The student today has to face a wide variety of subjects, on the one hand, and number of vocational channels, on the other, out of which he has to pick and choose. By the time a child reaches the stage of adolescence, he has already undergone various kinds of experiences: Social, Cultural and Educational that has a marked influence on his personality. Therefore, an investigation into the cognitive and non-cognitive attributes of frustrated children that may lead to an understanding of the factors affecting such individuals as a result of socio-economic changes, is a felt necessity.

The expansion of educational system in the name of democracy has sacrificed efficiency and has resulted in wastage, stagnation and number of drop-outs at every stage of school and college education. The educationists and critics have a logic in their complaints, "that our educational system at present serves the 'mediocres' with their average talents and ignores both the 'tops' and the 'bottoms'. It polishes the pebbles and dims the diamonds. This negligence has led to dissipation of energy and has helped to create problems of personality maladjustment. The fact cannot be denied that classrooms comprising of students of heterogeneous capacities have varying degrees of intelligence, pose challenging problems and present tremendous difficulties in the progress of the class achievement. In such situations, the teacher cannot do justice
to his professional ethics which entails upon him/her the responsibility of shaping healthy individuals and wholesome personalities.

The philosophy of democracy, in which we have pinned our faith, implies that all children are entitled to the committed ideal, that all those, who can profit from educational have right for education regardless of ability, sex, colour or creed. Therefore, as we cannot neglect the normal, we cannot also ignore the frustrated.

Our developing economy calls for a large number of trained and educated persons. Our country investing huge funds of public money for the education of the people. But a significant portion of this is wasted on those who fail, become off the track, delinquent and frustrated. Such students fail to adjust themselves to their future professions. The number of such students is very large to be ignored. This is a great loss and has to be checked. If we do not pay attention to the cognitive and non-cognitive attributes of such students, it will creates a serious problem for them. The educationists and psychologists have, therefore, to give priority to the exploration of the differential traits such type of students.

It is imperative that knowledge of the cognitive and non-cognitive attributes of the students of different sexes and the mental abilities is very much helpful in guiding students into educational and vocational careers. Knowledge of group differences may be useful in providing proper milieu at home and at school to particular group in order to improve their good
personality traits in the areas in which they are found deficient. This is necessary for equalizing educational opportunities by toxing down unhealthy personality traits by appropriate measures and methods in order to meet the goal of democracy and social justice. This knowledge is also likely to be helpful to teacher and educational administrators in their sympathetic understanding of the fact that the unruly behaviour of the students of certain categories is mainly rooted in their unhealthy personality traits and needs proper psychological treatment rather than punitive measures.

Considering the above complications in view, the researcher became interested in finding out the cognitive and non-cognitive attributes of the frustrated adolescent boys and girls. The results of the present study may indicate some of the important features of the core life of “Frustrated Boys and Girls” and thus may lead to the conclusions as to how can we utilize such personalities in the various fields of work in a better way.

1.5 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem undertaken for the present investigation is stated as:

“A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF FRUSTRATION AMONG ADOLESCENT BOYS AND GIRLS IN RELATION TO CERTAIN COGNITIVE AND NON-COGNITIVE ATTRIBUTES”.

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1.6 OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF THE TERMS USED

In this section definitions of the various variables – dependent as well as independent – used in the present study are given. For the purposes of present study, intelligence and academic achievement have been treated as cognitive attributes while frustration and need achievement have been considered as non-cognitive variables. Workable definitions of these four variables used in the study are given here-in-under.

1.6.1 FRUSTRATION

Frustration is a state of hopelessness and disgust. It is a mental condition that is natural consequence of our failure to satisfy some motives and desires. Frustration is an emotion that results when a desired outcome is thwarted or delayed. It is a normal reaction to stress and to hassles of everyday life. Although psychologists once believed that all frustration increase the probability of aggressive behaviour, research has shown that it can also cause depression, guilt, disappointment, apathy, anxiety and other such emotions. Three types of conflict cause feelings of being threatened or frustrated:

a) when needs and motivations are in opposition,
b) when external demands are incompatible, and
c) when an internal need or motive opposes an external demand
A frustrated state of mind exhibits extreme tension, lack of peace, sense of inferiority etc. and in it many kinds of mental mechanisms are involved. Thus frustration has its own system and dynamics. Its multimodal operation speaks the language of the unconscious. Aggression indicates frustration dynamics at war with hostile situation. Regression and fixation relate to a withdrawing frustration where is a condition of fixation. Resignation is the extreme of withdrawal from reality. Frustration affects interests atypically.1

The term frustration used in the present study has a different set of behaviour mechanism. It is expressed in various modes such as aggression, fixation, regression and resignation. Frustration in the present study is considered as what Chauhan and Tiwari’s Frustration Test measures.

1.6.2 INTELLIGENCE

The term ‘intelligence’ is vague and ambiguous in its meaning. It has been defined and explained by psychologists in various ways. They have interpreted the term in different ways and are in disagreement on the meaning of the term ‘intelligence’. It is, therefore, difficult to generate universally acceptable definition of intelligence. According to the dictionary, intelligence is “the capacity to acquire and apply knowledge”.

Alfred Binet’s definition emphasized judgement, whereas Boring defined it, as “Intelligence is what intelligence tests test”. Generally speaking, “alertness” with regard to actual situation of life is an index of intelligence1.

A variety of definitions have been given by psychologists but the most commonly accepted ones as below:

According to Wechsler (1958)2 ‘intelligence is the aggregate or the global capacity of an individual to act purposefully, to think rationally and to deal effectively with the environment.

According to Stoddard (1943)3, intelligence is the ability to undertake activities that are characterized by (i) difficulty, (ii) complexity, (iii) abstraction, (iv) economy, (v) adaptiveness to goal, (vi) social values and activities under conditions that demand a concentration of energy and resistance to emotional forces.

It is apparent from the above definitions that intelligence is not a single or simple faculty, but includes all the mental abilities like abstract thinking, abilities to form possible relation, logical ability to put things in order, reasoning and ability to solve mathematical problems as measured by the tests of general mental ability.

Thus the present author of the test, Dr. Jolota has preferred the term 'general mental ability' in place of 'intelligence'. It is also accepted by the present author that general mental ability is that general capacity of mind which participates in all sorts of mental activities like reasoning, memorizing, verbal ability etc. and which contribute towards success specially in intellectual tasks of our daily life like finding a solution of a problem, scholastic success etc.

1.6.4 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

The operational meaning of academic achievement, adopted for the purpose of present study, is what is described and detailed in Section-1.3.3 of this chapter.

1.7 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The present study has been be carried out with the following objectives:

1. To find out the frustration levels of adolescent boys and girls.
2. To find out the frustration levels of adolescent boys at high and low levels of need achievement.
3. To find out the frustration levels of adolescent girls at high and low levels of need achievement.
4. To find out the frustration levels of adolescent boys and girls at high and low levels of need achievement.
5. To compare the frustration levels of adolescent boys at high and low levels of academic achievement.

6. To compare the frustration levels of adolescent girls at high and low levels of academic achievement.

7. To compare the frustration levels of adolescent boys and girls at high and low levels of academic achievement.

8. To find out and compare the frustration levels of adolescent boys at high and low levels of intelligence.

9. To find out and compare the frustration levels of adolescent girls at high and low levels of intelligence.

10. To find out and compare the frustration levels of adolescent boys and girls at high and low levels of intelligence.

11. To study the interaction effects of intelligence and need achievement on frustration of adolescent boys.

12. To study the interaction effects of intelligence and academic achievement on frustration of adolescent boys.

13. To study the interaction effects of need achievement and academic achievement on frustration of adolescent boys.

14. To study the interaction effects of intelligence, need achievement and academic achievement on frustration of adolescent boys.

15. To study the interaction effects of intelligence and need achievement on frustration of adolescent girls.
16. To study the interaction effects of intelligence and academic achievement on frustration of adolescent girls.

17. To study the interaction effects of need achievement and academic achievement on frustration of adolescent girls.

18. To study the interaction effects of intelligence, need achievement and academic achievement on frustration of adolescent girls.

19. To study the interaction effects of intelligence and need achievement on frustration of adolescent boys and girls.

20. To study the interaction effects of intelligence and academic achievement on frustration of adolescent boys and girls.

21. To study the interaction effects of need achievement and academic achievement on frustration of adolescent boys and girls.

22. To study the interaction effects of intelligence, need achievement and academic achievement on frustration of adolescent boys and girls.

1.8 HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

The present study has been aimed at testing the following hypotheses:

1. There is no significant difference in frustration levels of adolescent boys and girls.
2. There is no significant difference in frustration at different levels of need achievement of adolescent boys.

3. There is no significant difference in frustration at different levels of need achievement of adolescent girls.

4. There is no significant difference in frustration at different levels of need achievement of adolescent boys and girls.

5. There is no significant difference in frustration at different levels of academic achievement of adolescent boys.

6. There is no significant difference in frustration at different levels of academic achievement of adolescent girls.

7. There is no significant difference in frustration at different levels of academic achievement of adolescent boys and girls.

8. There is no significant difference in frustration at different levels of intelligence of adolescent boys.

9. There is no significant difference in frustration at different levels of intelligence of adolescent girls.

10. There is no significant difference in frustration at different levels of intelligence of adolescent boys and girls.

11. There are no interaction effects of intelligence and need achievement on frustration level of adolescent boys.

12. There are no interaction effects of intelligence and academic achievement on frustration level of adolescent boys.
13. There are no interaction effects of need achievement and academic achievement on frustration level of adolescent boys.

14. There are no interaction effects of intelligence, need achievement and academic achievement on frustration level of adolescent boys.

15. There are no interaction effects of intelligence and need achievement on frustration level of adolescent girls.

16. There are no interaction effects of intelligence and academic achievement on frustration level of adolescent girls.

17. There are no interaction effects of need achievement and academic achievement on frustration level of adolescent girls.

18. There are no interaction effects of intelligence, need achievement and academic achievement on frustration level of adolescent girls.

19. There are no interaction effects of intelligence and need achievement on frustration level of adolescent boys and girls.

20. There are no interaction effects of intelligence and academic achievement on frustration level of adolescent boys and girls.

21. There are no interaction effects of need achievement and academic achievement on frustration level of adolescent boys and girls.
22. There are no interaction effects of intelligence, need achievement and academic achievement on frustration level of adolescent boys and girls.

1.9 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1. The present study has been confined to the adolescent boys and girls of 9th and 10th classes of high and senior secondary schools of Haryana state.

2. Only 600 adolescent boys and girls of the age group of above 13 years and below 15 years have been selected on random basis.

3. Out of 600 students an equal number of boys and girls has been taken (300 boys and 300 girls).

4. Only intelligence and academic achievement have been taken as cognitive variables.

5. Need achievement motive has been taken as non-cognitive variables.