Chapter – One

Study on tolerance of deprivation

INTRODUCTION

The main objective of the present study is to study tolerance of deprivation. The present study focuses at the understanding of the tolerance of deprivation (TOD) of backward and forward people belonging to upper caste (UC), lower caste (LC) and schedule caste (SC). Weaker section people (WSP) and stronger section people (SSP) are highly deprived people (HDP) and low deprived people (LDP), respectively. An attempt was made for assessing cognitive-motivational strength of deprived people. Low tolerance of deprivation (LTOD) and high tolerance of deprivation (HTOD) groups were selected on various measuring instruments. Measuring instruments were developed for assessing TOD. Measuring instruments were also developed and standardized in the form of stories. Performances shown by LTOD and HTOD were showing tolerance of deprivation of highly and poorly deprived people.

The objective of the present study is to focus at the underlying mechanism of vivid tolerance of the derivational experiences (VTODE) as reported by youths, adults men and women, who are different in the strength of deprivation measured on the various measuring instruments as developed by Tripathi and Tripathi (1978) and Misra and Tripathi (1978). Tripathi and Singh (2010) developed various stories regarding
tolerance of deprivation which are showing the strength of derivational experiences. High tolerance of deprivation (HTOD) and low tolerance of deprivation (LTOD) groups were selected on various measuring instruments. People are fail in everyday live due to various crisis. They attribute success and failure within internal and external control of reinforcements. Life events play important role in determining tolerance of deprivation. The prolonged deprivation (PD) is a determinant of personality and cognitive – motivation (Tripathi, 2013).

The growth of the innate potentiality of the individual may be obstructed and limited due to certain physical deformities and mental diseases on the one hand and also die to socio-economic circumstances of his life, on the other hand. The former may be called genetic disadvantage whereas the latter may be termed as social disadvantage. The genetic disadvantage is inside the individual where as the social disadvantage is outside in the society (Singh, 1977).

In psychological literature social disadvantage has reference to the disadvantages suffered by the individual for being the member of certain social groups such also were socio-economic class (Gorden, 1968), racial group such as Negro (Green and William, 1965; Wilcox, 1971) and aboriginal tribe (Nurcombe, 1970). Thus in general social disadvantage may be conceived as lack of opportunities in the development of self due to certain constraints in the social environment of the individual.
The strength of social motives differs from individual to individual depending upon several factors. Social disadvantage important among them. In India society there are some indicators of social disadvantage. Among them sex, residential area and caste status are important ones. Personality development in Indian society suffers due to differentiation among individuals on the basis of these factors. Some studies have highlighted the effects of social disadvantage on these human motives. For example, Veroff et al (1960) found lower level of achievement motivation in persons having low education and lower status occupations. Similarly lower level of achievement motivation has been witnessed in students of lower socio-economic status (De and Priya, 1972, Ojha and Jha 1979). Deci et al (1991) found self-determination (SD) research and theory in terms of motivation and educational outcomes, social-contextual influences on students, and influences on teaches. SD theory distinguishes between self determined and controlled types of international regulation, and it focuses on 23 inherent human needs: Competence, relatedness, and power. Research links self-determined motivation to various educational outcomes across the age span such that students who re intrinsically motivated for doing school work are more likely to stay in school, to behave, to evidence conceptual understanding, and to be well-adjusted than other students. Supports of competence (E.g. optimal challenges and performance feedback) and for relatedness (e.g., parental involvement and peer acceptance) facilitate
motivation. The degree to which teachers are autonomy supportive vs. controlling also affects students-motivation and self-determination. Stipek and Ryan (1977) got cognitive competencies and motivation assessed in 233 pre school and kindergarten children in the fall and again in the spring. Cognitive assessments were given again in the spring of the following year (Kindergarten or 1st grade) to a such sample of 88 children. The results revealed much poorer preference among the economically disadvantaged children compared with advantaged children on all 8 of the cognitive tests. For most cognitive measures, gains were roughly equal and the socio-economic status (SES) differences at he end of 1 or 2 years in school were similar to the differences at the beginning of the year. Only a few SES differences were found on the motivational measures assessing children’s self confidence, attitude toward school, expectations for success, dependency, and preference for challenge; they did not systemically favour either disadvantaged or advantaged children. Classroom observations revealed some differences in disadvantaged and advantaged children’s class-room behavior.

Thus, in general, social disadvantage has been found to after the levels of human motivations among the individuals. But here we are concerned with only three specific indicators of social disadvantage viz; sex, area of residence and caste and therefore, we must have an overview of some previous related research.
Sex and Human Motives:

Males and females and human beings first and members of the sex group second. Still all over the world the children of the two sexes are not treated equally. From the beginning they are treated to adapt to the sex roles prevalent in society. There is difference not only in their physique but also in the dress behavior and even parental treatment meted to them. Some of their differential traits of personality are biologically determined and some socially determined. Hence, a difference in their motivational structure may also appear.

However, studies regarding sex difference in achievement motivation reported from several societies and cultures do not clear picture. There are studies (Bruckman, 1966; Crew, 1982; Lunneberg and Rosenwood, 1972) which have fond no sex difference in achievement motivation. But there are studies which repeat definite sex difference. However, such studies also present contrary conclusions. Some have reported males to be higher in achievement motivation than females. (Bruckman, 1966; Crew, 1982; Lunneberg and Risebwood, 1972) which have found no sex difference in achievement motivation. But there are studies which report definite sex difference. However, such studies also present contrary conclusions. Some have reported males to be higher in achievement motivation than females. (Bhattacharya and Bhardwaj, 1983; Castenell, 1983; Panda and Mishra 1985; Ramirej and Price Williams, 1976; Tohinid, 1984), while others have reported females to
be higher in n-Achievement than males (Bringnardello, 1978; Callard, 1968; Chandler, et al, 1979; Dixit and Pareek, 1977; Gikulnathan, 1970; Gokulnathan and Mehta, 1972). So the picture about sex difference is quite confusing. Sid and Lindgren (1981) in a study of sex difference in Achievement among undergraduates majoring in different academic fields found that males generally scored higher in n Ach if they were business majors but lower if they were psychology majors, while females scores higher in n Ach if they were psychology majors but lower if they were business majors. Schorth and Andrew (1987) in a study of achievement motivation among Hawaina college students set up norms for both sexes on there subscales of achievement motivation. Men scored higher on competitiveness scale whereas women had higher work dimension scores. But no difference was found on the mastery scale. Gaeddert (1985) found the accuracy and redundancy of several models of gender differences in achievement. Self reports of successes and failure of 22 female and 22 male undergraduates in a pilot study and 57 female and 66 male undergraduates in the main study were content analyzed. The 8 dimensions postulated by Bakan (1966, agenticcommunal), Stein and Bailey (1973, task-social), Kipnis (1974, other-directed-inner-directed), and Veroff et al (1975, impact-process) were collapsed into 2 dimensions using factor analysis. Two main dimensions were used to consider the task (agentic) Vs social (communal) nature of the achievement activities that were undertaken. A
performance evaluation dimension reflected extrinsic factors in evaluating their performance. Analyses using measures of sex role identification and the stereotype masculinity/feminity of Ss’ achievements (Personal attributes questionnaire and work and Family of Orientation questionnaire) suggested that (1) ‘Sex role stereotypes are intimately related to the domains of achievement goals; however, women and men did not differ in the kinds of activities (domains) that they reported; and (2) women (intrinsic) and men (Extrinsic) differed in how they defined success and failure, but these performance evaluation styles were not strongly related to sex role identification. Jegede (1994) examined the influence of achievement motivation and gender on 160 Nigerian Secondary School students’ performance in English. Two multiple regression analyses indicate that gender was not a significant predictor of achievement motivation. However, Ss’ English language performance could be reliably inferred from their level of achievement motivation. A review of the literature on achievement and gender difference among African-American students and 2 empirical studies conducts by Pollard (1993) are presented. The results of the 1st study which focuses on achievement, indicated that successful achievement reported more positive self-perceptions, more interpersonal support and more active problem-solving strategies. The result of the 2nd study (1990). Which focused on gender differences, indicated differences in support favouring females and suggested that these students must obtain
interpersonal support from outside. Differences were found in this sample that differed from those found in white students. Differences were found in the sample that differed from those found in white stunts. Castsbris (1994) showed the development of gender differences in learning opportunities, achievement, and choice in mathematics among 5,659 White (2,862 males), 1,1222 African-American (552 male), and 1,145 Latino (582 male) 8th graders who were resurveyed in Grade 10. Female and male students had similar test scores and grades, and white female students were exposed to more learning opportunities in math than were male students. However, all female students tended to have less interest in math and less confidence in their math abilities. Gender differences were the largest among Lations and the smallest among African-Americans. The major barriers to math achievement for white female students were their attitudes and their early career choices for minority students of both sexes. The barriers were limited learning opportunities and lower level of achievement. Boyle and Hondoulesi (1993) administered the School motivation. Analysis Test (SMAT) to 63 female and 46 male Australian high school students studding Greek. Sten scores on the SMAT dynamic sources traits were used to predict achievement for each of 5 subgroups of SMAT variables (Integrated, Unintetegrated, Total, Conglict and Derivative components, respectively), SMAT dynamics accounted for up to 34% of the achievement variance among males and 26% among females. Integrated superego and
assertiveness sentiments were significant predictors of learning. For the Total (U+1) stens, self-sentiment was a significant predictors. Gender was a major determinant of achievement outcomes, with females exhibiting greater motivational investment.

Power motive is an important determinant of sex behavior which is seen in our day to day social interaction. It has enormous significance for the working of the society. It has both positive and negative effects on the group or society. Male and Female both are responsible for the development of the needs, attitude, values and motives but for reasons of economy, religion, political structure, education, demography and perhaps psychology women and men appear to differ in their styles of expressing power motive research literature suggests that per-motivated women and power motivated men both seek responsible social power. The early training in responsible task that in involve family welfare might direct the power motives of both women and men into responsible, socially useful channels. Men high in n Power tend to be assertive in one way or another and emotional. This kind of emotional assertiveness apparently also reflects itself in their tendency to dream a lot or to be able to recall their dreams. The male high in n power has an emotionally assertive approach to life, whereas the female high in n Power focuses on building up the self which may be the object of that assertiveness. He kinds strength in action, she in being a strong resource.
Sex differences also appear at various stages of social-emotional development.

Sex role turns tout to be one of the most important determinants of human behavior, psychologists have found sex differences in their studies from the moment they started doing empirical research. The difficulty in drawing conclusions from this mass of data is that they have tended to regard male behavior as the ‘norm’ and female behavior as some kind of deviation from that norm. Men are more assertive than women. Many studies show that boys are stronger, more assertive than women. Many studies show boys are stronger, more active, more aggressive or ‘Pushing’ Practically from birth on (Terman and Tyler, 1946). The characteristics appear to have some physiological basis in the dominance of the male sex hormone but nearly all cultures (roughly 85 percent) strengthen it by training boys more than girls in self-reliance and achievement (Barry, Bacon, and child, 1957), Males get into more trouble in school (Williams, 1933) in college and in later life (male crime rates are higher; Tyler, 1956). Even three, four and five-year old bys play more violently with dolls than girls do Boys prefer rough games, physically strenuous adventurous activities (and stories about them) e.g. selling activities, driving and racing cars hunting etc. They report more often that girls that they feel “entirely self-confident” or like picking a fast fight with someone. The more often enter occupations expressive of their assertive interest like selling, soldiering, engineering
(adventurous activities). The female concern of interdependencies most striking in the social fields where interrelationship with people are concerned. Women recognize more readily that men scenes of interdependence flashes quickly on the screen of a child clinging to an adult’s knee (Kagan and Moss. 1962).

Findings like this are sometimes interpreted as indicating dependence in women, but interdependence is a better word and for an obvious reasons it is not clear, Whether the female observer identifies with both sides of an interdependent relationship. They are more highly trained in nurturance (child care liking after people) in 82 percent of the cultures on which data area available (Barry, Cacon, and Child, 1957) and they are also more dependent on others in the sense of being more easily persuaded by other to change their minds (Jains and Fiels, 1959).

No doubt the idea that men differ in power motivation is reinforced by history and culture. Many people believe that men are interested in Power and getting power while women are not. Others hold that men and women differ in the ways that establish, maintain and express power. For example, men’s power actions are said to be ‘instrumental’ while women’s power-behavior is “interdependent” or “nurturnant” (McCleland, 1975; Miller, 1976, 1982). In an pioneer study Veroof et al (1975) found females in general to be lower in n-power than males. Falbo (1977) who studied the separate effects of sex and sex-role on choice of influence strategy finds significant effects mostly for sex role.
Stewart and Chester (1982) found few sex differences in what can be termed “socially appropriate” behavior correlates of the power motive, such as resting and leadership.

There are several apparent major and striking differences in actions related to the power motive in men and women, most involving an internally consistent and coherent cluster of behaviours that can be called the “expansive, profligate impulse” (Winter and Stewart, 1978). Thus among men need for power usually predicts drinking, drug use, physical and verbal aggression, gambling precocious and exploitative sexuality and reading vicarious or substitutable oriented magazines. Further, as would be expected from these results, power motivated men also have difficult and less stable intimate relationships with women and tend to oppress women both psychologically and economically (Stewart and Rubin, 1976; Winter, Stewart and McClelland, 1977). In almost all studies done with women, however, none of these behaviours have ever been associated with n Power. Mason and Blankenship (1987), for example, found in a study of college undergraduates that high n Power was significantly associated with the infliction of physical abuse on their intimate partners by men, but not by women. In a study on male on male and female college freshmen, Both (1972) tried to explain the relationship between social power motive and gender. Their findings do not support the previous research of Goode and Goode (1972) that males express greater drive for social power than females. They found that
mean sore for the social power motive of men and women show no
significant differences. They suggest the sex role stereotyping is
diminishing as women derive power from the fulfillment of personal
work related expectations.

One of the fundamental human is to establish and maintain
relationships with others. In general, affiliation motivation seems to have
the strongest relationship with expresses wishes for being with others,
Whereas gender appears to affect what actually happens in every day
life: the time on spends with different companions and the time on
engages in different activities. Moreover, affiliation and gender.
Respondents with a high affiliative orientation had a higher percentage
of thoughts about social interaction that those who were less affiliative.
Girls reported approximately twice as many interpersonal thought as did
boys. Considering there relationship between affiliation and gender on
the one hand and wishes, companions and activities on the other, this
result was not surprising. What one thinks about is usually related to
who that one wishes to do, who one is with and what one is actually
doing. Both male and female adolescents with high affiliative orientation
whised to be with friends more than their peers with low affiliative
orientation. The latter more often preferred to be alone than did the
former. However, gender, not affiliative orientation, predicted the
amount of time respondents actually spent with friends or spent alone.
Regardless of their affiliative orientation, female student spent
significantly more time with friends and less time alone than did male students. Respondents’ activities revealed an interesting difference between highly affiliative boys and girls. Highly affiliative girls, McAdmas and Constantian (1983) found no significant sex difference in the level of affiliation and intimacy motivation. Other studies provided conflicting results as to whether there are sex differences in the strength of the Psychological Screening, inventory (Maffitt, Spence and Godney, 1986), which might have led to more internal conflict for the wives. Hill (1987), using his newly developed interpersonal Orientation Scale, observed a small but significant sex difference in two of the four dimensions (emotional support and positive stimulation) of affiliation motivation. Some studies using projective measures reported higher affiliation motivation among females (e.g. Agrawal and Upadhyay, 1983), but others did no (e.g. Chusmir, 1985 Hyland and Mancini, 1985). Stewart and Chester (1982), after extensively reviewing affiliation studies using the TAT, argued there was no conclusive evidence about sex differences in the strength of the affiliation motive. However, in a review of gender differences in affiliative orientation, Minton and Schneider (1980) contended that women scored higher on both projective and questionnaire measures of affiliation. Schorth (1985) also found significantly higher affiliative scores on both the TAT and the EPPS for female subjects. McAdams, Lester, Brand, Mc Namara and Lensky (1988) found that among a sample of over 1,500 college
students, women had significantly higher intimacy motivation than did men. The on consistencies of findings, therefore, do not appear to be related solely to the differences in measurement techniques. A negative relationship between need for affiliation and popularity for college men a was reported (Atkinson et al, 1954; Shipley and Veroof, 1952). However, among college women, a significant positive correlation between need of affiliation and how much one was liked by one’s group members was observed after an experimental task (Fishman, 1966). Still another study found a negative relationship between the affiliation motive and popularity among girls but not among boys (Ratliff, 1980).

Many studies have observed gender differences establishing close relationship (McAdams, 1989, Perlman and Fehr, 1987). For instance, when compared with men, women stressed emotional sharing in their friendships, but men emphasized common activities (Caldwell and Peplau, 1982). Women seemed to develop earlier competence at establishing intimate relationships (Fischer, 1981) and appeared to be more capable of experiencing intimacy in their relationships than did men (Hodgson and Fischer, 1979). Older women were more likely to have confidants when compared with older men (Lowenthal and Haven. 1968). However, because these studies did not explicitly measure affiliation motivation with questionnaires or the TAT, it id difficult to know whether such behavioural differences are indeed due to a
difference in motive strength. Males and females with equally strong affiliative motivation may still act quite differently.

**Residence and Human motives:**

Roddy and Nagarathanamma (1993) investigated certain mental health status (MHS) components among rural and urban high school students to identify students at risk for developing mental health problems. Ss comprised of 400 high school students (200 girls and 200 boys) whose SES was taken in to consideration. MHS was measured by using the mental Health Analysis Questionnaire for high school students. Results real no difference between urban and rural Ss regarding their MHS. Boys and girls slightly differed from each other, but SES did not contribute to Ss’ MHS. Chithprabha and Kanekar (1995) investigated differences of the effect of paretnal pressure and related variable on urban and rural students’ choice to pursuer a course of science. Ss were 200, 12th graders (aged 17-19 yrs) in rural and urban India. The questionnaire elected information on Ss’s 10th and 11 grade examinations and assessed parental pressure and motive. Ss also completed measures of parental pressure, employment motive and knowledge motive. Rosenberg’s Self-Esteem Scale and Raven’s Standard progressive Matrices were also administered. Rural and Urban students differed on all dependent measures including parental pressure, suggestion that differences in family background and students
intelligence may have been attributable to the selective migration of competent people from rural to urban areas.

Mowaiye (1993) investigated whether girls with a nontraditional role and perception of women’s roles have a higher achievement orientation in school, compared with their counterparts with a “traditional” role perception. A stratified random sample of 69 rural female students and 79 urban female students from Nigeria completed a 25 item roles of women questionnaire to differentiate between girls with traditional and nontraditional role perceptions. Results reveal no difference in the achievement orientation as perceived by black adolescent students in an urban school district and how these perceptions affected students’ attitudes, beliefs and values about schooling. Ss were 144 Black, 1 hispanic, and 3 biracial students (aged 9-14 yrs) of low SES. Ss’ responses to the Self-perception Profile for Adolescents were recorded into a questionnaire, measuring the amount the sample relative to the social, psychological, and cultural issues perceived to promote or hinder achievement. Family demographic variable contributed little on Ss’ achievement orientation. Such variables as parent’s level of education, occupation, employment status and primary caregiver had little influence on level of support for the social, cultural, and psychological variables held by the Ss. Family or parent achievement orientation had a greater influence on Ss’ achievement orientation. Goode now and Grady (1993) found among 158 males and 130 females
schools, questionnaire responses indicated that many had a poor sense of school belonging and low school motivation. School belonging was significantly associated with motivation related measures, including expectancy of success, valuing schoolwork, general school motivation and self-reported effort. Ss’ beliefs about their friends’ academic values were more weakly related to these outcomes. There correlations between school belonging and the motivation related measures remained positive and significant even after the effects of friends’ academic values were partial led out. School belonging was more highly associated with expectancy for success among Hispanic than among Black Ss, and among females than males.

**Caste status and human motives:**

Hindu society has a unique social structure, namely the caste systems. The caste system has the dominating influence in Indian’s social life. Caste status is wholly predetermined, so that men are born to their lot in life without hope of changing it. Caste is a complete barrier to the mobility of class. In principles it involves an absolute and permanent stratification of the community. The main characteristics of a caste are the belief in a common origin held by all the members and the possession of the traditional occupation. It may be defined as an endogamous group or collection of such groups bearing a common name, having the same traditional occupation, claiming decent form the
same source, and commonly regarded as forming a single homogenous community. Caste system has a four-fold hierarchy of Vernas- (i) Brahman, (2) Kshtriya, (3) Vaisya nd (4) Sudra, Brahman at he top and Sudras at the bottom. This is a highly simplified model of social divisions which in reality were and are enormously more elaborate Caste in the operative sense are not four, but many. There are so many that it is virtually impossible to determine heir exact number.

There exist three conventional caste status in our society. These are Forward caste, Backward caste and Scheduled caste. The principle basis of Indiana caste system is occupation. The forward and the backward caste are not much different in respect of education and occupation. The two caste classes have many similarities with respect to these variables. But the forward caste is differentiated from the backward caste in respect of the possession of wealth and lineage. The scheduled caste differ remarkably from forward and backward caste people in respect of education and income. They have a lower level of educational attainment and are economically hard pressed. As a result of difference in conditions of life, values, attitude and norms which in turn create differences in their motivational dispositions.

Fortain (1985) in a study of young Portugeeses adolescents reported that subjects from middle and upper classes generally wee more motivated than subjects from lower classes. Yang and Liang (1973) found that among Chinese high school boys n Ach was inverted u
function of father’s socio-economic status i.e. children from middle SES possessed higher n Ach level than those from upper and lower SES. Srivastav and Tiwari (1967) in an Indian study on 17-23 year old students of Sagar University noted that highest n Ach was present in the middle class, second higher in upper class and the lowest in the lower class.

Mittal and Bhargave (1989) found the self concept and scholastic achievement of 40 scheduled and non-scheduled caste male adolescents. Significant between group differences were found in feelings of inferiority, emotional inability, and scholastic achievement with scheduled caste Ss showing worse adjustment and scholastic performance.

Ojha (1991) found the interactional effects of 3 factors of deprivation (caste, residential area, and economic condition) on achievement motivation of women. Using 2 x 2 x 3 factorial design, 120 post graduate females (aged 19-22 yrs) completed D.R. Bhatia’s (1974) Achievement Motivation Test. Residential area and economic condition contributed significant variances for achievement motivation scores. The only significant 2-way interaction effect was residence income. The interaction variance of the 3 factros taken together was significant. Findings reveal that the most favorable condition for the growth of achievement motivation is upper caste membership, urban residence and
high income. The most unfavorable condition is lower caste membership, rural residence, and low income.

Chitra Thiagarajan and Krishnan (1994) tested 6 Psychosocial factors that could argument the educational achievement, prestige and socio economic status (SES) among scheduled caste (SC) communities. The factors studies were: Personality, intelligence, occupational aspiration, SES, social distance, and awareness of facilities. The personality traits of 104 scheduled caste girls students and 100 nonscheduled caste girls students pursuing a higher secondary course were assessed. SC Ss differed from the NSC group only in their SES, and all 6 psycho-social factors were equally responsible for the academic achievement in both the groups. It was concluded that education causes a positive change in personality, intelligence, and occupational aspiration by narrowing down the gap between 2 groups.

Suri and Husain (19900 compared the strength of ethnic identity and its contribution factors among 320 youths (aged 14-17 yrs) from 3 minority groups (Muslims, Sikhs, and Scheduled caste) and controls from the majority caste Hindu. SS completed scale measuring levels of deprivation and different dimensions of identity (e.g. religious, linguistic, cultural, national). Ethnic group status, environmental setting (advantaged or disadvantaged), and minority group had higher religious, cultural, and linguistic identity than did the majority group had higher religious, cultural, and linguistic identity than did the majority group.
National identity was a salient dimension for Hindu and scheduled caste. Halle, Kurtz-costes and Mahoney (1997) found the achievement related belief and behaviours of parents of economically disadvantaged African-American youth and the relations among parental factors and children’s academic self-concept and achievement. Forty one children and their primary caregivers were interviewed. Parents reported on their academic related beliefs and behaviours. Children completed measures of academic self concept and 2 standardized achievement tests; (1) during the summer and (2) at the end of the following school year. Significant and positive relations were found between parental belief and behavior measures within the domains of read were found between parental belief and behavior measures within the domains of reading and math. However, parents’ achievement oriented behaviours. He relation between parental beliefs and child outcomes was not mediated by children’s academic self-concepts.

Power motive has been found to be the characteristic of lower class people in a recent study by Alka Jha (1992). Wikstrom (1991) investigated whether housing in child-hood has a independent effect on offending in childhood and youth, controlling for social class. The data were taken from a study of 51,117 males and females living in Stockholm, Sweden, Residence were classified as owned-occupied or rented. Three measures of social class were used: (1) income (2) Education, and (3) Occupational Social marginalism were measured by a
family’s having received social welfare assistance at any time from a S’s birth until he/she was 6 yrs of age. Crimes of theft dominated. Within every type of housing, the aggregate crime rate (Crimes per 1,000 short members in a group) were higher for the lower social classes than the higher ones. For families receiving social welfare, those living in rented housing had the highest offending rates. The length of time a family had received welfare had the strongest influence on offending followed by class.

Therefore, lack of affiliation should constitute were deprivation and cause a variety of ill effects. Gibson, Westwood, Lshyama, Borgen et al (economic environments (advantaged/ disadvantaged) in nations to determine what type perceived to be their most pressing problems and what they did to cope. Family, schooling, and personal identity/self-concept were the most frequently cited problem classes for all groups of Ss, accounting for 69.1% of the responses. Individual problem solving was the most frequently reported class of coping strategy, regardless of socio-economic status (SES) grouping, cited in 46.1% of the responses. Trying harder and planning a solution ranked 1st or 2nd in all groups. Females reported school problems less than did males. Reported problem related to identity/self-concept, interpersonal/socialization, courtship/doing and emotions/feeling decreases with socio-concept, interpersonal/socialization, courtship/ doing an demotions/feeling decreases with socio-economic status (SES) grouping. Ahsan and
Khursheed (1990) assessed 480 adult Hindus Tribal, Christians, Tribal Hindus and Muslims as samples for the purpose of studying extent of modernity with respect to socio-economic stratification. The study indicates that there were differences between ethnicities with respect to socio-cultural modernity, these variations are also related to socio-economic components, such as education, occupation and income, Religions was an ally of modernity. Socio cultural modernity was strongly influenced by socio-economic status (SES). Age did not influence modernity.

India is a country where exists wide spread economic, social and cultural disparity. Some people enjoy privileges because of their heritage, social position (based on casts and creed) and residential locality while others remain unprivileged and disadvantaged for several reasons. Therefore, the most relevant topic of research today is obviously social disadvantage. The main component of disadvantage id poverty which has arrested the attention of our national leaders. The great Indian Prime Minster Mrs. Gandhi gave the slogan of “Garibi Hatao” (eradicate poverty) Realizing poverty as an impediment in national development. Our national leaders have been trying relentlessly towards that end since then. But besides political leaders the problems of poverty and disadvantage should also engage the attention of social scientists. Traditionally economists have been concerned with the study of poverty. But economists have not been concerned with what poverty
does to man. Poverty has its disastrous psychological consequences for the man and this obviously is the concern of psychologists. By analyzing into psychological concomitants and consequences psychologists can help in evolving intervention strategies for its solution. But psychologists, by and large, have not shown much interest in the study of this aspect of disadvantage. The neglect of the study of poverty by the psychologists has been described as the ‘poverty of psychology’ by Pearl (1970).

However, since the beginning of the seventh decade of this century psychologists started taking interest in the area of socio-economic and cultural deprivation and there was tremendous spurt in psychological research on cultural and socially disadvantaged and impoverished communities in the United states (Deutsch 1960; Hess & Shipman, 1965; Keller; 1963), Israel (Smilansky, 1964), England (Bernstein, 1960), Latin American countries (Lewis, 1966; Matejct & langmier, 1965) and Mexico (Lewis 1961). These studies were initiated as a consequence of growing awareness that there is a pressing need for improving the lot of disadvantaged people on the one hand, and as an outcome of growing curiosity among social scientists for understanding the effects of derivational environment on behavioural and social process, on the other. The development of social psychology as an important branch of psychology gave impetus of this growing interest. It was increasingly being realized that human behaviour has to be studies
in the total socio-economic milieu considering the interaction of various socio-psychological factors. Another reason for the interests in the study of deprivation was the realization of the political importance of underdeveloped and poor countries. So long the world is divided between privileged and unprivileged blocks there cannot be a permanent peace. The impaired psychological states of the people of the poor counties bare bound to create tension, conflict and ultimately war. Therefore, the unrest and the discontenting the disadvantaged sections of the society in developing as well as the developed countries have forced the attention of psychologists to study the human cost of deprivation.

The Indian social scientist, however, may get some intelligent guide from the studies dons on social disadvantage in the West. But while doing so they must bear in mind that there are important differences in the history, culture and social structure of India and the western countries. Any study made in India, therefore, must consider the Indian context. May of the variables studied in the western countries assume a different context in the Indian society. Colour and physical appearance, for example, sharply and clearly differentiate advantaged and disadvantaged groups in the United States and Britain but we can not distinguish disadvantaged people from privileged ones on the basis of skin, colour and physical appearance in India. Here it is not uncommon to find dark-skinned Brahmins and fair-skinned Harijans. Similarly the political contest of Negros in the west and Harijan and
Advasi in India are also different. Negraos in the west have not been
given any constitutional protection. But the Scheduled Castes and
Scheduled tribes and other backward sections of the society in India
have been assured representation in the state assemblies and national
parliament and also in government jobs. The has given them greater
voice and share in the society as compared to the disadvantaged groups
of the west. Similarly rural-urban distinction which assumes less
importance in U.S.A. and Britain acquires much importance in India
because in the west there is narrow gap between the rural and urban
people with regard to civic, cultural and educational amenities but in
India there is wide gap between them with regard to these amenities. The
rural population in India is living in such hazardous condition that
gradually and regularly the economically well of among them are
moving towards towns and cities. The position of woman in India is also
different from the position of women in the eastern countries. In India
they are more handicapped. They do to enjoy as much social freedom
and equality with man as in the western world.

Deprivation or disadvantage has been used and considered in
different ways. Some social scientists have preferred the term social
deprivation. Whiteman and Deutsch (1968) have considered social
deprivation as are relative term referring exclusively to specific type of
environmental factors. Any environmental factor according to them,
may be considered derivational if that factor is associated with certain
social group in such as socio-economic status and race; and when the environmental variable under consideration is associated with impaired performance. Tannenbaum (1969) concluded that ‘social’ deprivation may be characterized as a condition in which particular internal and external factors merge to narrow a person’s behavioural alternatives for achieving self fulfillment’ (p.28). David Bores (cited by Spurlock, 1970) has viewed social deprivation’s experience where in an individual is deprived of the opportunity to develop his capacities to work, to provide for his needs and enjoy the dignities of life’ (p.626).

Some other social scientists have used the term cultural deprivation. According to hunt (1964) cultural deprivation is ‘failure to provide and opportunity to have the experiences required for adequate development of the semiautonomous, central processes demanded for acquiring skill in cognitive processes; (p.236). Das (1973) has proposed that cultural deprivation is a complex set of conditions which favour intellectual sub-normality. In the Dictionary of Behavioral Sciences Wolman (1973) defines cultural deprivation as “substandard living conditions and/or discrimination which prevent certain individuals from participation in the cultural achievements of their society” (p.85).

Some psychologists have used social disadvantage to denote deprivation. This has references to the disadvantages suffered by the individual for being the member of certain social groups such as low socio-economic class (Gorden, 1968), racial group such as Nego
(Wilcox, 1971), a particular casts such as Scheduled caste (Das, Jachuk & Panda, 1970; Rath & Dash, 1972).

From the foregoing definitions of deprivation it is apparent that the term has been used in several ways and with different meanings. Usually all the terms which denote deprivation have been used in the context of racial, social, cultural and caste groups. But confining ‘deprivation’ to membership of a particular social or racial groups not only leads to misconception of the term but also to some erroneous conclusions. The notion that what the individual is, is only due to the incident that he is born in particular class or caste or race denies the fundamental assumption of organismic functioning that man’s phonotypical manifestations are the result of his experiences derived from his environment. It is undeniable fact that differences in social group membership are frequently reflected in psychological functioning of the individuals. But such differences can not be adequately explained as functions of these variables. Man’s environment is not so narrow to be confined to his class or caste or ethnic membership. Of course, it constitutes a small portion of his broad environment in which he functions. Caste and class become significant only because they are linked with special vacations. Life activities, entertainment pattern, family relationships to a class or caste or race acquire specific type of experiences in their formative years which vary in width, breath and depth. These experimental variations may be considered as the direct
determinants of the extent to which an individual comes to acquire psychological efficiency. Therefore, while defining deprivation one should be concerned much with the experiential aspect. With this line of thinking, the concept of social disadvantage has been proposed. It aims at characterizing the variation in psychological functioning of an individual in terms of his total experimental background. But here it may be pointed out that all authors do not include identical referents of deprivation although there are enormous overlap interims. Therefore, it is desirable to create deprivation globally and it should include all aspects of life in a specifyable natural setting for determining its level.

Though psychologists have given varying emphasis on different dimensions of deprivation but there seems to be a fairly sufficient agreement on the major themes, which make up the profile of a deprived or disadvantaged child. Coleman and Boren (1972, pp. 162-63) have identified five conditions in the families of socially disadvantaged children on the basis of the review of several previous researches made in this area. These five conditions are: (i) Lack of cultural artifacts such as books magazines. Toys, etc. and lack of cultural experiences such as visits to library, museum, zoo, (ii) Limited parent-child interaction and the inhibiting nature of interaction, (iii) physical and arbitrary punishment without any explanations: (iv) noise, over crowding and disorganizations; and (v) ineffective models of parents as teachers. These main characteristics of the disadvantaged children have been
mentioned in one way or another by various scholars Deutsch (1967) opines that the disadvantaged child lives in over crowded house, has low parental aspirations or suffers from absence of father. Whitman and Deutsch (1968, p.100) included six characteristics of disadvantage. These are housing dilapidation, low parental educational aspirations for the child, large number of children under ten years, absence of dinner conversation, less number of cultural experiences anticipated by children in the coming week end, for example, visiting museum, zoo, etc., and thin attendance of child in the Kindergarten. For Keller (1963), the social world of the slum child is characterized by uniformed parents, lack of parent-child interaction and identification and low self-esteem. Fore Riessman (1962) the family of the culturally deprived child is traditional, patriarchal, superstitious and alienated. McDonald (19650 has described the socially disadvantaged group as characterized by malnutrition, irregular dietary habits, infant mortality, premature births and birth defects. Miller (1970) has listed the following characteristics of social disadvantaged children; economic deprivation, court intervention, negative parental attitude to the child, Inadequate and overcrowded housing, malnutrition, low parental education, poor household management and social deprivation. Munsey (1971) in his ‘Cultural Deprivation Index’ included three criteria of deprivation; low income, low education and rural area of residence. For Rath and Samant (1975) the socially disadvantaged children come from families with low
income, low parental education, low caste affiliation and resided in rural area, while the socially advantaged children come from families with high income, highly educated father, high caste affiliation and resided in urban areas.

The context of above mentioned facts we come to the conclusion that out of several factors of deprivation or disadvantage in the Indian conditions caste, sex and area of residence constitute the most important indices. Hence, in trying to understand the consequences of deprivation we have planned to see the main as well as interactional effects of these three factors and we have accordingly formulated hypotheses about the same for empirical verifications. In fact in the vast country like India with regional variations a series of studies on the cost of social disadvantage and intervention strategies for the amelioration of affected people is the need of the hour. The present study is a modest attempt in that direction.

The concept of motivation includes those factors that energize bahaviour and give it direction. Motivation refers to states within a person or animal that drive behaviour towards come goal. Thus motivation has three aspect : (a) The driving state, (b) the behaviour aroused and directed, by the driving state, and (c) the goal toward which the behaviour is directed. Motives are never observed directly; they are inferred from behaviour. Motives are powerful tools for the explanation of behaviour, and they enable us to make predictions about what an
organism will do in future. Motivation is often considered to be cyclical. The first stage of the motivational cycle is the drive state; the second stage is the behaviour triggered by the drive state which may lead to a goal - the third stage of the motivation cycle. Reaching an appropriate goal may decrease the drive state which began the cycle.

Motives can be broadly classified as biological motives and social motives. The social motives are so called because (a) they are learned in the interactions human beings have with one another, and (b) they often involve other people. Since the social motives depend upon learning, their strength varies from person to person. Social motives are important components of personality.

There are different types of social motives. However in the present research only achievement, affiliation and power motives are under consideration.

ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVE

Need for achievement is a motive to accomplish things and to be successful in performing tasks. People with a high need to achieve, work hard and seek to improve their performance; they take moderate, instead of high or low risks A high need to achieve is related to demands by parents that their children be independent. The level of achievement need in a society correlates with its economic grow. Achievement motive is defined as disposition to strive for success and or the capacity
to experience, pleasure, contingent upon success (Atkison, 1957). It involves a concern for competition with some standard of excellence, an interest in maintaining high quality of performance and a drive to work with energy and persistence towards a goal (MCClelland, 1958).

Almost everyone has achievement motive to some extent, but some people are consistently more oriented toward achievement than others. Scored and Backman (1964) hold that need achievement is the degree to which an individual sets high standards, strives to achieve them, and responds with feeling of failures or successes in such efforts. Thus it appears that hope of success and fear of failure are the two important dimension of n-achievement. Individuals with high need achievement are likely to suppose all others in their enthusiasm to improve their performances particularly when they are challenged to do so. They demand more of themselves and consequently they accomplish more. It has been found that the stronger the achievement motive, the greater the probability that the individual will demand more of himself. The most outstanding aspect of the achievement motive is that it seems to make accomplishment an end in itself. That is why the achievement motivated person does not always work for rewards only, because he finds special joy in accomplishment. In fact it means more to him than monetary reward. He derives great delight in doing things and so he does not need to be bribed to do them.
Atkinson and Feather (1996) in their book "theory of achievement Motivation" have distinguished two aspects of personality- achievement-oriented and failure-threatened. An achievement-oriented person is generally attracted to activities which require the successful experience of skill, while failure threatened person, in contrast, is one in whom the motive to avoid failure greatly exceeds the motive to achieve. He is dominated by the threat of failure, and so resists activities in which his competence might be evaluated against a standard of competence of others.

**Behavioral manifestation of n-Achievement:**

Researches in the area of achievement motivation have amply demonstrated that this motive plays a crucial role in various individual and group behaviours in wide variety of situations. Some important behavioural manifestations are briefly described below

**Risk-taking**

Several studies have demonstrated that subjects with high n-Achievement prefer to work under conditions of moderate uncertainty or risk more often than the subjects with low n-Achievement. For example, in a study of five and-six year old children playing a game of ring-toss from a distance. MCCLelland (1958) found that children with high n-Achievement chose to stand predominantly at a moderate distance from the peg whereas children with low n-Achievement did not show any
marked preference. Some later studies have also reported similar results. Roberts (1975) asked university students to perform a modified shuffle board motor task and found that both male and female Motive to Achieve to Avoid Failure (MAF) subjects avoided intermediate risk. Further it was found that females were more cautious in their risk preference than males supporting the cultural stereotype of female conservatism. In a study of vocational choices of 14 to 15 yr. Old boys through the use of questionnaire Inkson (1971) also reported similar results. He has suggested that persons with high n Ach (TAT) are relatively more attracted to moderate than to high or low probability occupations and evaluate perspective occupations relatively more in terms of intrinsic work content than extrinsic rewards.

Thus persons with high n Ach are most likely to take calculated risk. The reason for the preference of moderate risk in that they get more achievement satisfaction in such a situation.

**Perceived probability of success**

Litwin (1958) in an experiment purporting to measure extra sensory perception found that subjects with high n Achievement in unstructured achievement s situation tended to circle the word "Win" more often than the subjects with low a n Achievement. Atkinson et al (1960) in a similar study reported that about two-thirds of the subjects with high n Achievement felt that they would do better than the average,
whereas only one-third of the subjects with low n-Achievements felt that they would do better than the average. On he basis of the above and the experimental evidence of his own McClelland came to the conclusion that subjects with high n Achievement tend to perceive probability of success as greater particularly when there are no facts to justify their estimates, but in situations where they have pretty good knowledge of their past performance they do not overestimate their sub-situation which demands achievement, The subjects with high n-Achievement are more confident as compared to he subjects with low n-Achievement are more confident as compared to the subjects with low n Achievement, but as reality cues become available they tend to base their judgments on chances of success on these success (McClell and, 1967, pp. 220-223). Ray (1982) found that subjective probability of success was not related to achievement motivation score.

However, in a recent study by Lens and Decruyenaere (1991) find that. de-motivated and well motivated groups of pupils could be identified in terms of their scores on several traditional motivational predictor measures that are firmly rooted in cognitive theories of motivation, achievement motivation test-anxiety, intrinsic vs extrinsic orientation, causal attributions of successes and failures, and expectancy-value theo-des. High, medium, and low motivated subgroups were formed on the basis of students' self ratings and teachers' ratings.
Personal responsibility :

McClelland (1967) has shown that people with high n Achievement like to assume personal responsibility for solving problems. The reason for this is that by assuming individual responsibility they get a sense of achievement satisfaction for completing a task. But on the other hand, when success depends upon luck or circumstances beyond their control, or when they are working exclusively on some one else's problems, they do not get achieve-ment satisfaction. Their achievement satisfaction arises from having invited the action that is successful rather than from public recognition for an individual accomplishment. Besides, some studies have provided direct or indirect evidence that people with high in Ach do not respond positively to suggestions from others as to what they should do, or think or believe (McClelland et al, 1953; de charms et al, 1955).

Miyamoto (1889) in a similar study examined the concept of achievement motive among 74 male and 1000 female Japanese college students Ss rated the behaviour characteristics of targets whom they judged as high or low in responsibility) as well as challenge seeking were important components of achievement motive; this tendency was more pronounced for females.

Persistence :

McClelland (1967) found that people with higher n Achievement generally show more initiative and exploratory behaviour. They work
harder and show persistence only when there is a challenge that personal
efforts will make a difference in the outcome, when there is some
challenge in the situation and some chance of losing, when they require
some degree of mental manipulation, originality of a new style of
approach for successful solution, but not at the routine tasks. In a later
study Hermans et al (1972) has shown that high achievement motivated
subjects show more goal striving, personal responsibility and
persistence.

Feedback:

Further the subjects with high nAch are more interested in concrete
feedback or the knowledge of the results of their action than the subjects
with low n-Ach (Frenc, 1958; Moss and Kagan, 1961). They more or
less display the behaviours of a person engaged in entrepreneurial
activity who cannot avoid knowing in concrete terms how well he has
done. Definite knowledge of correct methods of solving he problem
facilitates the subsequent performance of people with high n Ach
whereas knowledge that they are behaving nicely and properly according
to the set rules of co-operative interaction does not.

Bradl (1995) investigated the influence of level of achievement
and difficulty of task on 21 low-achievement (LA) and high-
achievement (HA) German language college students' preferences for
feedback options in computerized grammar exercises. Ss were as-signed
2 different sets of material consisting of 12 sentences, of which 6 were the same for both the groups, while 6 were different. The feedback options were: right or wrong answer (RW), p error location (SE), grammatical description of correct response (F), and correct answer (A.). On line record and interview methods were used to collect data. Achievement and difficulty of tasks had no significant impact, and all Ss preferred RW over SE, F and A. HA Ss chose the RW option more often as a follow-up selection to RW, SE, F and A than did LA SS. Results indicate that deficiencies in the LA learners' language skills may contribute to lowering their engagement in cognitive and motivational processing.

**Geographical and upward social mobility:**

Rosen (1959) and strodbeck (1958b) in their studies on subjects from different races found that subjects with light {
Ach} show more geographical and upward social mobility. Gurin and Veroff (1959) reported that upwardly mobile subjects from low prestige backgrounds show higher n achievement score than those who are not upwardly mobiles. Littig and Yearacaris (1965) report that persons of blue collar origin who achieve white collar status are found to have higher n Achievement than those who remain in blue collar occupations. Some other later studies have reported similar results (Veroff, 1965; Litwin, 1966; Stacy, 1969).
Cassidy and Lynn (1991) have shown that social and familiar back-ground intelligence, and personality of children and adolescents contribute to their status in society, education attainment, and social competence as adults. This study considers how these factors are translated into behaviour through the mediation of achievement motivation. Achievement factors that predicted education attainment and socio-economic status (SES) in 199 males and 252 females were examined stage 16 yrs. and 23 yrs, approximately. Measures included the Abstract Reasoning scale from the differential Aptitude Tests and the Junior Eysenck Personality Questionnaire. It was found that school type, 1.Q, and home background were important predictors of educational attainment. The achievement motivation dimensions of acquisitiveness, dominance, and world ethic were also important.

Task tension: -

n Ach has been found to be related to the recall and resumption of uncompleted task. Atkinson (1953) found that in ego-involving situations Subjects with high n Ach recall more incomplete task than subjects with low n Ach. Weiner (1965) in another study noted that subjects with high n Ach tended to resume the interrupted task following failure experience while subjects with low n Ach tended to resume the tasks following success experiences. It may be recalled that Zeigrik (1927), found that interrupted task are better recalled than completed task. Lewin and his associates (1944) found that the effect of the
persistence of tension during the period of interruption can be observed in various ways; (1) The tension would sustain the memory of the interrupted task and hence unfinished task would be better remembered when tested than completed tasks; (2) the tension would lead to the tendency to revert to the unfinished task.

**Time perception:**

A study, by Knapp and Garbutt (1958) has shown that high n Ach subjects perceive time as more dynamic while subjects low in n Ach perceive time as more static. High n Ach subjects perceive time as "a dashing waterfall" " A galloping horseman", "bird in flight", etc. while low n Ach subjects perceive time as a " a quiet motion less ocean", a vast expanse sky".

**People orientation:**

People with high n Achievement are more future oriented than people with low n Achievement. They "think ahead" more often. For example, they tell stories that deal more often with the remote future (Ricks and Epley, 1960); think more in terms of anticipatory tenses (Zatzkis, 1949 & McClelland et al, 1953, p, 250); and tend to anticipate a future event before it occurs (Green and Knapp, 1959). In one study Gatzl ( in heckhausen, 1967) has shown that high n Ach subjects had better memory for tasks that were to be recalled later as compared with the tasks that were to be reported after intervals in contrast with failure
motivated subjects. Agrwal (1975) also noted that n-Achievement is associated with future time perspective. In another study of Agrwal and Tripathi (1979) it has been noted that subjects who are more concerned with future and attach grater importance to it are achievement oriented.

**Partner choice:**

High n Ach subject prefer experts over friends as working rather. Frech (1956) had subjects choose between a partner who was perceived as competent but unsympathetic and a partner who is incompetent but sympathetic. Subjects with high n Ach chose the competent but unsympathetic more often than did subjects with low n Ach.

**Recognition behaviour:**

High n ach subjects show more striving for recognition than low n Ach subjects. Several studies indicate that high n Ach subjects work harder and perform more competently in school work as well as in standard performance task given in the psychological laboratory. They are not influenced much by money rewards, father they are interested in achievements.

**Power motivation:**

Power motive is one of the psycho-social needs of the individual. The need for power is an important social motive which is expressed by (a) identifying with powerful people, (b) gaining control over one's
body, (c) seeking to have personal influence over other people, or (d) influencing others through the organizations to which one belongs. Power motive may be defined as the desire to control other persons or objects, to obtain their obedience, to compel their acts and to determine their fate. Power motive is, thus, a quest for power, drive for power or desire to have impact on others. It directs behaviour towards satisfaction contingent upon the control of the means of influencing the other persons (Veroff, 1957; Winter, 1973). According to Collins and Raven (1969), power is an attribute of certain roles and even occupation of certain key locations in a communication network. Yet the role related power is not the same thing as the power motive. From the psychological point of view people differ in their feelings of being powerful and desiring the controls of behaviours. They may value power as something good or as something bad although this value may or may not coincide with acting (Minton, 1667). Yearks-Dodons law suggests that power motivation should have an inverted U-shaped relationship to power. The power motive does not refer to particular actions or behaviours, rather it refers to the general class of goals. Thus power motive is broadly defined by these psychologist as the need to have impact over others and the concern over controlling or influencing other persons or groups.

Power motive is a key personal variable that is important for understanding power behaviour. Psychologists have suggested a number
of other personality variables that are related to per. For example there are perceived locus of control of reinforcement (Rotter, 1966, Minton, 1967), authoritarianism (Adorn° et al, 1950), and Machiavellianism (Christie and Geis, 1970) which are empirically measured distinct personality variables. All of these concepts can be distinguished from power motive at the level of psychological theory.

Both Machiavellianism and authoritarianism appear to be sentiments about the nature of power as an aspect of man's nature rather than deposition to strive for power. The Machiavellian has certain belief about people "Barnum was probably right when he said that there is at least one sucker born every minute" and certain beliefs about operating tactics which follow from his belief about people, "It is wise to flatter important people". In his behaviour he is likely to be an "operator", a manipulator and successful in detached aggressive bargaining (Christie and Geis, 1970). All of this suggests a particular style of exercising power, a style that may be successful in certain contexts.

For McClelland the attainment and maintenance of Persian intrinsic value in which people differ in the same sense that they differ in need for achievement. His definition of per motivation is, however, a little different in that he sees two kinds of power motivation. First, there is the desire for personal domination over other. McClelland views this face as somewhat negative. On the other end of the continuum is the type of per motivation which involves influencing others toward goal and task
achievement. This latter type of intrinsic value develops. McClelland suggests, a function of the controls that society normally puts on unbridled power motivation. This value, McClelland proposes, is a good one that we need to encourage, at least for some people, since people who score high on this value are marked by such work relevant concerns as developing and formulating goals, inspiring others toward goals attainment, and being willing to influence others toward work achievement, on the other hand, people exhibiting the bad face of per motivation tend to be exploitative in interpersonal behaviour and are more willing than others to use aggressive means to control others. McClelland feels that at least some people in an organization need to have the good face of power motivation or else little task oriented effort will take place.

**Behavioural manifestation of n Power:**

Power motive is manifested in different activities of the individual so that persons with high power motivation are different from those who have normal or lower level of per motivation. I shall discuss in the following paragraphs some of the actions in which power motive is apparently manifested.
Formal Social Position:

Persons with high n Power more of tern seek and occupy positions of formal social power. For example Winter (1973) in his extensive research on Wesleyan university students reported that he students who had been officers in the university organizations were significantly higher in it Power than those who were not, students who had been resident advisors (i.e. those who served as academic and personal counselor for students, specially freshmen) were higher in n Power than those who were not; students who reported that they were (or had been) on the newspaper or radio station staff were higher in hope of power than the overall average. Hope of power among college students was found to be related with the number of votes received in the election. Fear of power was significantly negatively correlated with votes received. Pfeffer and Konad (1991) survey in a large national sample of College and University students it was found that individual earnings were affected by individual-level power, controlling for other individual, departmental academic field, and organization level determinants of salaries. Specifically, having an outside job offer, having more extensive communication with individuation other institution, bringing in out-side research grants and being active and influential in departmental and institutional governance had direct affection salaries and increased the return o individual productivity, experience, and credentials. Individual influence was substantively important in affecting salaries and offers a
theoretically coherent interpretation of many results in the literature on the structure of earning inequality.

**Leadership**

The leaders of a group or organization emerge early in the life of the group or organization. The emergence of leaders is facilitated by a number of factors: increase in the size and complexity of the group; blockage to the achievement of group goals; external and internal threats that confront the group with a crisis; failure of the official head; the availability of members strongly motivated to attempt leadership. The complexity of the leadership role is clearly brought out by analysis of the numerous functions which all leaders, in varying degrees, must serve. These various functions - the leaders executive, planner, relations, purveyor of rewards and punishments, arbitrator and mediator, exemplar, symbol of the group, substitute for individual responsibility, ideologist, father figure, scapegoat may be classified into primary and accessory functions. There are some indication of relationship between n Power and political activity, In a study of Donely and Winter (1970) it was found that the level of motive affects the work of persons in the office. They coded power and achievement motive imagery in the inaugural addresses of American presidents (1905 thought 1969). There were large variations in power imagery levels among the presidents. Donely and Winter found that it was related to the ways in which the
president performed in office and used opportunities to expand his power.

In an Indian study Kureshi and Fatima (1984) have studied the power motive among student leaders and non-leaders than non-leaders. There was neither any significant difference in the strength of the power motive between male and female leaders nor between male and female non-leaders. To understand leadership effectiveness it is necessary to examine power motivation in relation to both activity inhibition and affiliation motivation, called the inhibited power motivation syndrome or the leadership motive syndrome. Longitudinal studies indicate that people who exhibit greater evidence of this combination of high power motivation, low affiliation motivation, and high activity inhibition are more likely to rise to leadership positions in the large organizations (McClelland, 1975; McClelland and Boyatizes, 1982; McClelland and Burnham 1976; Winter, 1979).

**Athletic and sports:**

Athletic is another form of social power in at least two different ways. First, Competitive sports inherently give a sense of power. Competitive sports are sometimes suggested as a substitute forward and other direct forms of power competition among humans and secondly power involves the relation of sports to the rest of society. Success in sports is often the most important basis of popularity, reputation,
prestige, and hence power among young people (Lippitt, Ploansky, Redl, and Rosen, 1952). Successful athletes are often celebrities and a focus of dilating and deference for many adults (Beisser, 1967), Athletic success in even one way of entering the political system. Hence it seems clear that their ought to be a close connection between n Power and sports, although of course such factors as physical size and sill are also important.

**Career choice:**

Now the question is which occupations attract men who are high in Power. Wesleyan students were asked to specify the career or careers that they intended to have after college. Students high in n Power reported that they would like to be teachers, like to be teachers, psychologists and clergymen. There is also a tendency for them to choose business. It is interesting to note that students high inn Power are not specially drawn to law, medicines or government and politics. The hypotheses derived from Wesleyan data were all confirmed with the longitudinal Harvard data (where n Power of students and their subsequent career information were known). It was found that teachers, business managers, psychologists and Cleggymen were significantly higher than average in n Power. McClelland (1961) has demonstrated that business men tended to be high in n Achievement, although, of course they can be high in both motive. Actually McClelland found entrepreneurs and innovators as being high in achievement and
distinguished them from the more general categories of businessmen or manager (See McClelland, 1965 for the specific coding definition used). Compared to entrepreneurs, managers probably concern themselves less with innovation or improvement and more with coordination and overall control.

All of the careers associated with n Power involve considerable scope for influence and power, although in most cases this power has been rationalized in theory and practice, as "good" or "helpful" power (cf, Guggenbuhl, 1971). In teaching Psychology and business management a person has considerable scope to define his role, select his actions and advice, help, control, and evaluate the behaviours of his clients or subordinates. Such characteristics seem to explain why high n Power people are drawn to such positions. While law and politics may be more explicitly concerned with power and power structures, in many uses the actual lawyer or politician functions in a very routine and circumscribed role. He applies rules and procedures to specific cases, often at the request of a superior the while he is involved with power, he has little scope for the expression of his own personal power needs. Tanaka (1989) presents a formulation of power based on the rational choice behaviour of actors, such that each actor tries to choice behaviour of actor tries to choose the best means among the alternatives available under a set given conditions to achieve his or her end. It is argued that it
is actor B's essential data that actor A must manipulate. The condition for the stable equilibrium is related to the law of comparative advantage.

**Prestige Possessions:**

Man's immense symbolic ability and memory capacity set him apart from the animals. In complex human societies the symbolic forms of potential power are so elaborated that under most conditions they have almost completely replaced direct physical force. Symbolic, potential power is usually called "Prestige" or "reputation". 'Hobbes (1961, p.70) says, "Reputation of power is power; because it dwearth with it the adherence of those that need protection also. What quality soever maketh a man be-loved, or feared of many or the reputation of such a quality, is power; because it is a means to have the assistance, and service of many."

In the classic analysis of the concept, Necolosn (1938) suggested that prestige was a capacity to evoke extraordinary and powerful reactions with overtones of dazzlement and magic,- in short,, to put on an intimidating show. Max Weber (1948) suggested that "The sentiment of prestige is able to strengthen the ardent belief in the actual existence of one's own might, for this belief is important for positive self-assurance in case of conflict" Thus prestige functions as power. N Power is correlated with owing "Prestige Possessions" such as cars wine glasses, television set, tape recorder, electric typewriter etc.
Among the students of Harvard University and Wesleyan University n Power has also been found to be correlated with the number of credit cards that a person carries in a small sample of business executives of a large manufacturing company (Winter, 1973).

It has been found that n Power is associated with prestige or putting on a good show. High n Power people try to control information bout themselves; they flow fashions; they own prestige possessions; they prefer prestigious foreign cars. Prestige is valued because it is associated with power and can stand for power. Since the power structures of any complex human society are largely built on such signs and symbols. Davus (1969), Green and Winter (1971) also found n Power related with number of office holding among black male college students. Of course, in a crisis of legitimacy, the prestige of symbols collapses, and power returns to its original basis of force and domination.

**Interpersonal styles:**

Haley (1969) discuss two tactics of power. These are becoming known and building organizations. These have been found true in case of American college students with high n Power. Among Wesleyan students n Power was significantly correlated with the reported number of hours per week in formal discussion. Similarly Western students who had written letter to the college news papers during their college career had significantly higher n Power than those who had not written letter.
Thus there seems to be tendency for students high in n Power to be more 'Visible' and to participate more in the discussion and definition of significant issues.

The second tactics forgetting power is building an organization i.e. making and keeping alliance with other persons and groups especially with the poor, weak and forgotten. Among the Esleyan students people high in n Power tended to pick up as close friends those students who were less well known and relatively unrecognized by other students. To a power motivated person such friends are attractive because they are presumably not a threat, since they do not compete for power and prestige. Being less well known, such friends are also more disposed to form strong ties of friendship, regard and support for the power motivated "leader". In this respect they are like the poor and the disinherited and they have relatively less to lose. They constitute the loyal nuclear of an alliance.

Further Wesleyan students who were high in a Power replied to several questions concerned with holding alliance together. The analysis of their responses indicated that they are concerned with maintaining relationship with their close associates. However, they are also concerned with directing their competitive drives outward from the close inner group of associates and upward at higher status "targets". Such externalization of hostility can further unify the alliance or power base as Freud (1921) and haley (1969) point out.
Taking all of these results together, it appears that n Power is related to having smooth relationship with those who make up one's inner circle or power base, but having a competitive hostile instance toward those of higher status or who are outside of the immediate group. This attitude is specially manifested in a verbal style that is distinctive and, to followers surely impressive. Thus n Power seems to facilitate the fulfillment of both functions of a leader: achieving solidarity within the group, and directing he group toward external goal, through the sharp differentiation of those to whom the leader is friendly and conforming and those to whom he is competitive and challenging. In haley's terms, high n Power people attack established leaders of high status and fulfill the desire of people of low recognition and status. In psychoanalytic terms this combination of complementary actions is very similar to narcissism, and Freud's analysis of the concept sounds like the present formulation (1924)" it seems very evident that one person's narcissism has a great attraction for those others who have renounced part of their own. In literature, indeed even the great criminal and the humorist compel our interest by the narcissistic self importance with which they manage to keep at arm's length everything which could diminish the importance of their ego".

Thus n Power is associated with a distinctive interpersonal style: visibility, the capacity to form alliances, and a competitive approach toward outside powers. Such a combination should lead to being
influential in small groups overtime. This influence should lead to positions of formal social power.

**Helping behavior:**

One of the important characteristics associated with n Power is helping behaviour. Kolb and Boyastis (1970) studied helping relationship in T-groups where effective help was largely dependent on information exchange that is giving useful interpersonal "feedback" to other groups, each made up of about 15 M.A. Students in Industrial management. The task of the group was to help members achieve various personal goals. Kolb and Boyatsis distinguished there different kinds of group members on the basis of peer nominations; effective helpers, those seen by others as giving significant and important help; ineffective helpers, seen as giving help which was not important; and non-helpers, who did not attempt to help. They found that ineffective helpers scored higher in an Power and lower in a Affiliation than either the affective helpers or the non helpers. Using Veroff n power MC Clelland et al (1969) found that this same pattern often coincided with totalitarian forms of government in modern nation states. In other words excessive power motivation especially without concern for affiliation any lead people to become too highly organized, superior, outspoken and impatient, that i, dictatorial in the long run persons with very high n Power (without concern for affiliation with the people) any create the seeds of their own destruction or loss of power because their followers
see them as not effective in promoting their own goals. The leaders any
then be driven to an ever-increasing cycle of intensified attempts to
control and increasing dissatisfaction of their followers.

**Building Alliance:**

Building alliance is a crucial factor associated with n power
motive. Winter (1973) found power motivated college students doing
just that they choose friends who were relatively not well known by
other students and who have the same tastes. They want to establish
smooth relationships and avoid disruption with friends. They want to
establish the social network with people (Winter and Stewart, 1978).
Power motivation makes a marked difference in friendship patterns for
men in that high power men tend to structure their friendship episodes
along the large group lines that other researchers (Waldrop and
Halverson. 1975) have shown as characteristic of elementary school and
teen-aged boys. McAdams. Healog and Krause (1958) found that power
motivation was associated with more large group interactions. In the
interpersonal realm, high power motivation has been associated with
problems in maintaining martial and dating relationships for men but not
for Women (Stewart and Chester, 1952).
Aggression:

Winter (1973), Boysatsis (1973), both found that working class n Power was related to the frequency of carrying out aggressive acts such as yelling in traffic, destroying furniture or galssware, and insulting clerk in stores. Although all these findings are consistent with the manifestations of power motive, the evidence is rather slim. Sinha and Shah (1980) have found that there is a positive relationship of need for power with need for aggression scores. It has also positive relations with political and economic values, however, there was a negative correlation between n power and social values. McAdams (1982) has found that subjects scoring high in Power motivation describe autobiographical memories of peak experiences, and to a lesser extent satisfying experiences, that concern feelings of personal strength, increase in knowledge or virtue, having an impact on others, increase in prestige or recognition and physically vigorous or powerful activity. No relationship was found between the power motive and themes of power and powerlessness or failure in neutral and unpleasant experiences, but a moderately significant and positive correlation was obtained between higher power motive scores and themes of anger in unpleasant experiences reported by young men. This last finding is consistent with that reported (Winter, 1973; McClelland, 1975) in which impulsive aggressive acts appears to be an outlet for working classmen with high power motivation. It can also be speculated that unpleasant situations of
various kinds might more likely elicit anger in subjects high in Power motivation that might, in accordance with situational and persona logical constraints precipitate impulsive and aggressive reactions.

**Exploitation of Women :**

To sharpen the point, let us consider the findings of just one psycho-logical study in which men and women in many countries were asked to rate adjective pairs, like large vs. small, according to how well they described man, woman, male, female, husband, wife, father, mother (Osgood, 1964). Around the world, the male image is generally characterized by both sexes as strong, large, hard and heavy. The female image is characterized as small, weak, soft and light. The power motives affect the actual behaviour of men in direct relationships with Women? Winter drew together several findings that suggested" Power motivated men did indeed act like minor league Don Juans. "Such men have a relatively more precocious and extensive sexual experience, and they prefer wife who is dependent. McClelland (1975, p.45) found that power motivated men also disclose the details of their sex life more readily. They act like the literary Don Juan in other ways too, although these actions may be related to sex only indirectly if at all. They are relatively resistant to perceptual illusions and do not like to be confirmed. There is even some evidence that they prefer red and black the two colurs that are cross-culturally associated with power (Adams and Osgood, 1973).
Vicarious and substitute power actions:

n Power is related to a variety of vicarious actions that can serve as substitute for objective social power. Among these vicarious cautions are drinking, gambling and watching competitive sports, reading sports magazines etc. McClelland, Davis, Kahn and Wanner (1972) showed that there is a somewhat complicated relationship between the power motive and the consumption of liquor, on the basis of studies of individuals, arousal experiments using liquor, and the coding of cultural documents and folk tales. They found that liquor consumption is predicted by high n Power and low inhibition (which combination they call "personalized power"), Winter (1973) data from the Wesleyan sample of students and from a small sample of middle calls executives confirmed these results. Among the students liquor and beer consumption is positively associated with hope of power which correlates with "personalized power" (See chapter 3 of Winter, 1973) and negatively associated with fear of power. Among the executives the same trends exist for liquor, but beer consumption is positively related to fear of per. McClelland et al (1972 P. 136) also suggest that among adult males n power (on which the fear of power measure is based) is related to beer consumption while n Power is associate with preference for hard liquor. McClelland (1974) further found that power themes are facilitated by alcohol.
Result from Wesleyan University student's sample show that persons with high n Power are more inclined towards gambling. Those students who reported that they had played games for money or those who generally enjoyed gambling scored significantly higher in n Power than those who said that they did not gamble (Winter, 1973). Gambling is an activity that offers a chance for inner feelings of power; both thrombi the possibility of creating a great effect on others (bluffing, making a dramatic bet or a reckless gesture) and also through the sense holding battle against a strong opponent. In the long run, of course, the gambler is almost certain to lose high resources and hence, his power but for the immediate moment, he may be a competing figure who exerts a great and mysterious power of attraction over other players and the audience.

Relationship between n Power and watching sports and also between n Power and reading vicarious power magazines such as" play boy" and "sports illustrated have been noted (Winter, 1968, 1972). With the sample of Wesleyan students the same findings have been replicated (Winter, 1973). Watching sports and reading sports magazines involve experiencing power vicariously. The sports watcher or the magazine reader can imagine himself as the actual participant and through identification perhaps achieves what the believes to be the inner feelings of power. This behaviour would be particularly likely among the otherwise powerless- the very young, the old or physically
undistinguished and the man who has few chances for power in his occupation and his life (Beisser, 1967).

**Affiliation Motive**

Affiliation motivation is the fundamental human motives to establish and maintain relationships with others. Affiliation motivation has been described as the tendency to "form friendship and association; to greet, join, and live with others; to co-operate and converse sociably with others; to love; to join groups" (Murry, 1938 p.83), as a preference in both thoughts and behavior for "establishing, maintaining and restoring positive affective relationship" (Atkinson, teal, 1954), and as an inclination to "enjoy being with finds and people in general; to accept people readily; to make efforts to win friendships and maintain associations with people" (Jackson, 1984,p. 6) Recently the construct has also been conceived as having four different dimensions: Social comparison, emotional support, positive stimulation and attention (Hill, 1987).

Gifford (1981), using the personality Research Form (PRF), demonstrated that affiliation was related to the frequency of verbal participation in small groups, It was also observed the people who were distressed by social interaction tended to exhibit lower affiliative need on the adjective check list (Geist and Hamrick, 1983). Using the same measure, Switzer and Taylor (1983) found that college men with strong
affiliative needs were more likely to choose a living arrangement that offered more potential social interaction and less potential privacy. O'Malley and Schubarth (1984) found that college students with high affiliative orientation, as measured by the Edwards personal Preference Scheduled (EPPS), had a tendency to distribute rewards according to their partner's behaviours. They divided the rewards equitably with an equitable partner, equally with an equalitarian partner and self-interestedly with a self serving partner.

A number of studies using projective techniques to measure affiliation orientation also showed that highly affiliated people make special efforts to develop social contact with others. To cite a few examples, men with high affiliation motivation, as measured by Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), communicate more often with colleagues and call and visit their friends more frequently (Lansing and Heyns, 1959). Women who give highly affiliative responses to the TAT are more likely to be involved in romantic relationship with men (Morrison, 1954). Affiliative people, regardless of sex, are more anxious when their friends rated their likability (Byrne, 1961) and prefer to work with people who have equal need for affiliation.

Donne (1975) has been widely quoted for the line" No (Person) is an island. In psychology, The need for interpersonal contact was asserted in several ways by Freud (1930), although he tended to see the motive so derived from the sex drive and from the filial bond. Maslow
(1968) ranked "love and belongingness needs" in the middle of his motivational hierarchy; That is belongingness needs do not emerge until food, hunger, safety, and other basic needs are satisfied, but they take precedence over esteem and self-actualization Bowlby's (1969; 1973) attachment theory also posited the need to form and maintain relationships His early thinking followed the Freudian pattern of deriving attachment needs from the relationships to one's mother; he regarded the adults' need for attachments an effort to recapture the intimate contact that he individual had, as an infant, with his or her mother. In this later view, he treated the relationship to one's mother as simply in influential prototype of attachment. Hogan (1983), Epstein (19992), Ryan (1991), Gusinger and Blatt (1984) and others have made similar suggestions.

It is likely that intrinsic interest in being around and interacting with others is a major influence contributing to willingness to solicit emotional support (Heller and Swindle, 1983). For example, the personality characteristic of expressiveness (Spence and Heliireich, 1978), a construct related to affiliation motivation (Hill, 1987a) has been shown to account for a substantial portion of the variance in requesting help during a personal crisis (Butler, Giordano and the valiance in requesting help during a personal crisis (Butler, Giordano and Neren, 1985). Comfort, sympathy and nurturance belong to a specific subclass of social incentives ( Buss, 1986; Foa and Foa, 1974; Hill, 1987a; Veroff and Veroff, 1980), emotional support is predicted to be highly rewarding
to and intensely sought after by individual with strong affiliative needs. For these reasons, persons with strong affiliative needs. For these reasons, persons with strong affiliative motives are expected to be more likely to engage in direct action aimed at attaining available emotional support (e.g. actively encouraging and facilitating positive interaction with mother individual), compared with persons with little or no preference for the incentives. At the same time, because of their hypothesized sensitively to social cues, those with strong affiliation motives are particularly likely to retreat from situations that are perceived to offer primarily negative affiliative and emotional responses from others. Such situations tend to be especially punishing and aversive to strong affiliative need individual (Mehrabian and Ksionzky, 1974; Terhune 1968).

**Behavioural Manifestation of n Affiliation:**

Human affiliative tendencies in one form or another, the broad applicability of the need to belong, is a fundamental human motivation and to propose that the need to belong can provide a point of departure for understanding and integrating a great deal of the existing literature regarding human interpersonal behaviour. More precisely, the belongingness (affiliative tendencies) hypothesis is that human beings have a pervasive drive to form and maintain at least a minimum quantity of lasting, positive, and significant interpersonal relationships. Satisfying this drive involves two criteria. First, there is a need for frequent,
effectively pleasant interactions with a few other people and second, these interactions must take place in the context of a temporally stable and enduring frame work of affective concern for each other's welfare. Interactions with a constantly changing sequence of partners will be less satisfactory than repeated interactions with the same person (s) and relatedness without frequent contact will also be unsatisfactory. A lack of belongingness should constitute several deprivation and cause a variety of ill effects. Furthermore, a great deal of human behaviour, emotion and thought is ill effects. Furthermore, a great deal of human behaviour, emotion and thought is caused by this fundamental interpersonal motive. These are as under.

**Forming Social Bonds:**

The social bonds should form relatively easily, without requiring specially conductive circumstances. Such evidence not only would attest to the presence and power of-the need to belong but would suggest that the need is not a derivative of other needs,. People in every society on earth belong to small primary groups that involve face to face, personal interactions (Mann 1980). The anthropologist Coon (1946) asserted that natural groups are characteristic of all human beings. Societies differ in the type, number, and permanence of the groups that people join, but, people of all cultures quite naturally form groups.
The classic ‘Robbers Cave Study' conducted by Sherif, Harvey, Whit, hood, and Sheirf (1961, 1988) showed that when previous unacquainted body were randomly assigned to newly created groups, strong loyalty and groups identification ties ensured rapidly. In fact, later in that study, the two strongly opposed groups were recombined into a single group with cooperative goals, and emotional and behavioural patterns quickly accommodated to the new group. Several other studies suggest how little time it takes to create social attachments Bowlby (1969) noted that infants form attachments to caregivers very early in life, long before babies are able to calculate benefits or even speak. Festinger, Schchter and Back (1950) found that more proximity was a potent factor in relationship formation; people seemed to develop social bonds with each other simply because they lived near each other. Nahemow and Lawton (1975) replicated those findings and also showed that pairs of the best friends who differed by age or race were particularly likely to have lived very close together, suggesting that extreme proximity any overcome tendencies to bond with similar others. Tambor and Leary (1993) showed that people seem to form favorable view toward whomever they spend time with, even if these others are members of a previously disliked or stereotyped out-group. In their study, inter-group biases decreased as contact with members of the out groups increased.
We noted that the formation of social attachments under adverse circumstances would be especially compelling evidence because it avoids the alternative explanations based on classical conditioning (i.e., that positive associations breed attraction). Latane, Eckman, and Joy (1996) found that participants who experienced electric shock together tended to like each other more than control participants who did not experience shock, although the effect was significant only among firstborns. Kenrick and Johnson (1979) found that participants rated each other more positively in the presence of aversive than non-aversive noise. Elder and Clipp (1988) compared the persistence of attachments among military veterans and found that the greatest persistence of occurred among groups that had undergone heavy combat resulting in the deaths of some friends and comrades. Although it would be rash to suggest that all shared negative experiences increase attraction, it does appear that positive bonding will occur even under adverse circumstances. The development of interpersonal attraction under fearful circumstances has been explained in terms of both misattribution (i.e. people may misinterpret their anxious arousal as attraction of another people) and reinforcement theory (i.e. when the presence of some other person reduces one's distress, a positive emotional response becomes associated with that person. Kenrick and Cialdini, 1977). The misattribution explanation is largely irrelevant to the belongingness hypothesis, but the reinforcement explanation is germane. Specifically,
Although others may reduce one's distress thorny various ruts (such as distraction, humor, or reassurance), evidence suggests strongly that the more presence of other people can be contorting (Schechter, 1959). Such effects may well be conditioned through years of experience with supportive others, but they also may indicate that threatening events stimulate the need for affiliation, the fact that people sometimes form attachments with former rivals or opponents is itself a meaningful indicator of a general inclination to form bonds. Cognitive consistency resumes and affective memoires would militate against forming positive social bonds with people who have been rivals or opponents. People move toward a communal orientation when there is a chance to form a relationship. When participants were confronted with a person who seemingly would not be amenable to relationship formation, they interacted with her on the basis of norms of equitable exchange and individuality; when they believed she would be a possible relationship partner, however, they interacted with her on a communal basis.

The main limitation would be that people do not always form relation-ships with all available or proximal others, which could mean that satiation processes limit the number of relationships people seek and which also indicates that other factors and processes affect the formation of relationships. Some patterns (e.g., in-group favoritism in minimal groups) have been well replicated with craftily efforts to rule out alternative explanations.
In brief, we can say, that people seem widely and strongly inclined to form social relationship quite easily in the absence of any special et of eliciting circumstances or ulterior motives. Friendships and group allegiance seem to arise spontaneous and readily, without needing evidence of material advantage of inferred similarity, not only do relationships emerge quite naturally, but people invest a great deal of time and effort in fostering supportive relationship with others. External threat seems to increases the tendency to form strong, bonds. Again and again, we find evidence of a basic desire to form social attachments. People form social bonds readily, even under seemingly adverse conditions. People who have anything in common, who share common (even unpleasant) experiences, or who simply are exposed to each other frequently tend to form friendship or other attachments. Moreover, people resist losing attachments and breaking social bonds, even if there is no material or pragmatic reason to maintain the bond and even if maintaining it would be difficult.

**Not Breaking Bonds :**

The tendency for human beings to respond with distress and protest to the end of relationship is nearly universal, even across different cultures and across the age span (1-lazan and Shaver, 1944a, p.14).
More generally, many social institutions and behaviour patterns are seen to serve a need to preserve at least the appearance of social attachment in the absence of actual, continued interaction. Reunions constitute an occasion for people to see former acquaintances. The massive exchange of greeting cards during the Christians holding season includes may cases in which the card is the sole contact that two people have had during the entire year, but people still resist dropping each other's name and signifies a final dissolution of the social bond. Likewise, social rituals involving greetings and farewell serve to assure others of the continuation of one's relationships with them. Many greetings, particularly those directed at family members and close friends, seem designed to indicate that one's relationship has remained interact since the last contact, and farewells often include some hints that the relation-ship will be maintained until the people see one another again (Goffman. 1971).

**Cognitive clarity:**

We have need of the information which association with others can provide, it provides us the cognitive clarity. Out minds become clearer. Kirkpatirck and Shaver (1988) have noted that when people are in a stressful situation they look for someone to help them cope with stress: either a competent intelligent person who will help them assess the situation clearly or somebody warm and supportive. Intelligence though is generally recognized as the most impotent adaptive trait among
human beings, and so it seems reasonable to assume that issues of fundamental concern and importance are likely to be the focus of cognitive activity. The belongingness hypothesis therefore would predict that people will devote considerable cognitive processing to interpersonal interactions and relationships.

Basic patterns of thought appear to elect a fundamental concern with social relationships. Sedikides. Olsen and Reis (1993) showed that relationships are natural categories, that is, people spontaneously classify incoming information is terms of social relationship. Participants stored information about relationship partner together, and they did this more for strong, close relationship (marriage) than for weak or distant ones (e.g., acquaintanceship). Ostrom, Carpenter, Sedikides and Li (1993) provided evidence that information about out-group members tends to be stored and organized on the basis of attribute categories (such as traits, preferences and duties), whereas in group information is processed on the basis of person categories. Thus, social bonds create a pattern in cognitive processing that gives priority to organizing information on the basis of the person with whom one has some sort of connection. Aron, Tudor, and nelson ( 1991) showed that close relationship partners, unlike strangers, have cognitive effects similar to those of the self. Thus, when people form an image of themselves or their mothers interacting with some object, they have more difficulty recalling that object than if they imagined a famous but
personally unacquainted person interacting with that same object. In another study, participants and more difficulty in making me-not me judgments about traits on which they differed from their spouse than in making judgments about traits anon which they resembled the spouse. These results suggest that cognitive processes tend to blur the boundaries between relationship partners and the self, in the form of "including [the] other in the self". In short, these studies confirm that information about relationship partners is singled out for special processing, and they raise the possibility that the need to belong lead to a cognitive merging of self with particular other people. Such patterns of subsuming the individual in the interpersonal unit indicate the importance of these relationships.

Concern with belongingness appears to be a powerful factor shaping human thought. People interpret situations and events with regard to their implications for relationships, and they think more thoroughly about relationship (and interaction) partners than about other people. Moreover, the social patterns of processing information about the self are sometimes used for information about relationship partners as well. Thus, both actual and potential bonds exert substantial effects on how people think.
Emotional Responses:

The main emotional implication of affiliative need is that real, potential, or imagined changes in one's belongingness status will produce emotional responses, with positive affect linked to increases in belongingness and negative affect linked to decreases in it. Also, stable or chronic conditions of high affiliated (belongingness) should produce a general abundance of positive affect, whereas chronic deprivation should produce a tendency toward abundant negative affect.

(a) Positive affect In general, the formation of social bonds is associated with positive emotions. Perhaps the prototype of relationship formation is the experience of falling in love, which is typically make by periods of intense bliss and joy, at least, if the love is mutual (Sternberg, 1986). When love arises without belongingness, as in unrequited love, the result is typically distress and disappointment (Baumeister and Wotman, 1992).

Like wise occasions such as new employment, childbirth, fraternity or sorority pledging, new religious conversion, all of which are based on the entry into new relationships and the formation of new social bonds, are typically marked by positive emotions and are celebrated as joyous.

More generally, happiness in life is strongly correlated with having some close personal relationships. People with high levels of intimacy motivation tend to enjoy higher levels of happiness and subjective well-
being which is likely a result of their tendency to form and maintain a rich network of friendships and other social bonds (McAdams and Bryant, 1987) Having some intimate bond appears to be important and perhaps even necessary for happiness.

(b) Negative affect Threat to social attachments, specially the dissolution of social bonds, are a primary source of negative affect. People feel anxious at the prospect of losing important relationship, fell depressed of grief stricken when their connections with certain other people are severed and feel lonely when they lack important relationships (Leary, 1990; Leary and Downs; Tambor and Leary, 1993).

Anxiety is often regarded as the extreme of prototype of negative affect, and it is clearly linked to damaged, lost, or treated social bonds. In fact, social exclusion may well be the most common and important cause of anxiety (Baumeister and Tice, 1990). Homey (1945) identified the source of "Basic anxiety" as the feeling of "being isolated and helpless in a potentially hostile world" (P.41). Of cause, the formula mixes two different sources, insofar as isolation is a function of the belongingness need, whereas helplessness is a frustration of control.

Jealousy is another negative affective state that is a common response to threats to one's relationships. Reiss (1986), who concluded that jealousy is cross-culturally universal Reiss carefully investigated
that, in certain cultures, people are able to exchange sexual partners and intimate partners without any possessiveness or jealousy, and in every case the claim turned out to be unwarranted. Cultures may indeed vary as to which particular actions or signs of affection are regarded as justifying jealous reactions and they may differ in how people express their jealousy, but sexual jealousy is found in all cultures.

Another negative assertive state is loneliness which is an individual's subjective perception of deficiencies in his or her social relationships (Russell, Cutrona, rose and Yurko, 1984, p.1313). In other words, people feel lonely when their belongingness needs are being insufficiently met moreover, it appears that belongings, rather than more social contact, is the crucial factor. Mere social contact does not, by itself, buffer people against loneliness, Lonely and non—lonely people do not differ markedly in the amount of time they spend with other people. However, lonely people spend less time with friends and family those who are mot likely to fulfill their needs to belong-than non-lonely people (Jones, 1981). Generally, loneliness seems to be a matter more of a lack of intimate connections.

Yet another highly aversive emotional state is guilt. De-spite a long tradition of analyzing guilt in terms of self-evaluation according to abstract moral standards, recent work has increasingly emphasized the interpersonal structure of guilt (Baummeister, Stillwell, and Elealtherton

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1994; Jones, Kugler and Adams, 1995). Guilt can thus be understood as responses to disturbances or threats to interpersonal attachments.

Two specific events that thwart people's need to belong are divorce is not generally recognized as an occasion for joyful celebration, even if the divorce was desired more fervently than the wedding had been. Divorce produces varied forms of distress, including anger, depression, desolation, and loneliness, in nearly everyone. Spanier and Cast (1979) found the emotional turmoil after divorcees mixed. Price and Mc Kenry (1988) summarized the common emotional reactions to divorcee as Extreme stress". Including feelings of rejection, depression, hostility, bitterness, loneliness ambivalence, guilt, failure, confusion, disorganization and some times relief. It is clear that plenty of negative affect accompanies divorce.

Anxiety about death, whether of one self or others, can be regarded as stemming (at least in part) form a threat to belongingness (Baumeister and Tice, 1990). As Lofland (1982) pointed out, when people die, relationships end. The like between death anxiety and separation anxiety may explain why most positive depictions of life after death have emphasized togetherness with family and loved ones, with a broad community of link-minded believers, with a loving deity, or with all of the above (e.g. Baumeister, 1991). If death anxiety is rooted in threats to belongingness and social inclusion, then fears of death can best be
soothes by emphasizing that death will involve a continuation or even an improvement in one's belongingness status.

Many of the strongest emotions people experience, both positive and negative, are linked to belongingness. Evidence suggests a general conclusion that being accepted included, or welcomed leads to a variety of positive emotions (e.g., happiness, elation, contentment, and calm), whereas being rejected excluded, or ignored leads to potent negative feelings (e.g. anxiety, depression, grief, jealousy and loneliness). Thus, we can say, that one of the basic functions of emotion is to regulate behaviour so as to form and maintain social bonds.

**Social support:**

Social support is based on relationships and positive interactions with others, and so any benefits of such support would constitute further confirmation of the affiliative need. The benefits of social support appear to be well established. Thus, for example, Cohen, Sherrod and Clardk (1986) found that the availability of social support—which can be restated as the existence of social bonds-buffers people against the ill effects of stress. Older adults who have a close intimate friend (i.e. a "Confidant") maintain higher moral in the face life stresses such as retirement and spousal death than individuals who lack such a relationship.
Rook (1978) distinguished between social support and companionship. Social support was in this case, rather narrowly interpreted in terms of direct help, whereas companionship meant the expressive aspects of social interaction. Both were found to be important and beneficial, but companionship may be the more important of the two, especially for psychological wellbeing, social satisfaction, and coping with minor stress.

Perhaps most generally, general well-being and happiness in life depend on having some close social ties. Social isolation is strongly related to various patterns of unhappiness. Happiness also appears to be fairly stable across time and circumstances, leading many to conclude that it is linked to personality factors. The broad range of extraversion appears to be strongly related to happiness and positive affectivity, and extraversion encompasses several factors, such as sociability, gregariousness, warmth, and social involvement, that seem likely to enhance the tendency to form and maintain social ties. Moreover, affiliation appears to be sufficient to overcome the relative deficit in happiness that introverts suffer.

A more serious limitation is that several of the findings are correlation. That higher rates of mental and physical illness among loners could reflect tendency for people to reject deviants potential relationship partners. By the same token, the higher levels of life satisfaction found among happily married people could be partly due to a tendency for
chronically unhappy people to be rejected as marriage partners. Still, those studies that have provided evidence about the direction of causality have consistently identified belongingness as the causal factor.

Deprivation of stable, good relationships has been linked to a large array of aversive and pathological consequences. People who lack belongingness suffer higher levels of mental and physical illness and are relatively highly prone to a broad range of behavioral problems.

**Political Responses :**

Morgenthau (1962) argued that the pursuit of power can be understood as the counterpart to the pursuit of love in that both involve an attempt to escape from loneliness. In Morgenthau's analysis, the human condition suffers from the threat of isolation, and by breaking down the barriers between one another, people hope to achieve a sense of togetherness. The main difference between love and power is that love aspires to a mutual dissolving of personal boundaries, leading to an egalitarian merging into a new whole, whereas power seeks a unilateral overcoming of boundaries, by which the will of the more powerful persons becomes the will of both. Morgenthau noted that the pursuit of power often fails to overcome loneliness, so that, ironically, the most powerful individual end up feeling still isolated and lonely. Therefore we can say that the need to affiliate may be regarded as a major source of the desire for power.
Cultural Responses:

We have proposed that many aspects of human culture are directly and functionally linked to enabling people to satisfy the psychological need of affiliation. If this is correct, then some historical and sociological changes in the structures of society should be linked to changes in the bases for affiliation. For example, membership in many organizations (including corporate employment) has largely ceased to depend on family connections the way it once did, with corresponding changes in the definition and power balance in families; the educational system (which provides credentials), and other placement systems (Fass, 1977).

Religious Responses:

The Role of affiliation is also apparent in religion. Although ideological belief and acceptance of metaphysical doctrines are often regarded as the essence of religious participation, Stark and Bainbridge (1985) reviewed considerable evidence suggesting that the need to affiliate may be a more compelling factor that the need to believe. They noted that movement into and out of religious groups (including cults, sects, and mainstreams denominations) depends much more heavily on social ties than an ideological belief. Indeed, many people do not fully grasp or understand the theological belief, structure of their own religion (e.g. the subtle difference between the many protestant denominations),
they are well are of what sort of people on their community belong to which religion. Cults mainly attract people who are socially isolated or lonely, and these individuals are often attracts particularly by the promise of becoming part of a community, of gaining a sense of belonging. Those who Corm social attachments to other members of the cult tend to remain, where as those who do not form social bond tend to leave soon. By the same token, Kirkpatrick and Shaver (1992) have shown multiple links between religious beliefs and adult attachment styles or relationship patterns.

At present, it seems fair to conclude that human beings are fundamentally and pervasively motivated by a need for n-Ach, n-Power and n-Affiliation, that is, by a strong desire to form and maintain enduring interpersonal attachments. People seek frequent, affectively positive interactions within the context of long-term relationships. The need for affiliation is not a new idea. Indeed, we noted a variety of previous psychological theorists who have proposed it in one form or another. This review has shown multiple links between the need to affiliate and cognitive processes, emotional patterns, behavioural responses, and health and well-being. The desire for interpersonal attachment, may well be one of the most far-reaching and integrative constructs currently available to understand human nature.
Following Hypotheses were formulated -

1. Sex will create significant difference in n Achievement scores of Ss and male Ss will obtain significantly higher n Achievement scores than females.

2. Area of residence will create significant in N Achievement scores of Ss and urban Ss will show greater n achievement than rural Ss.

3. Caste status will create significant difference in n achievement scores of Ss and Forward caste Ss will obtain the highest score while Scheduled caste Ss will show the lowest score.

4. Interaction of sex and area of residence will create significant difference in achievement motive scores of Ss and that the male Ss of urban areas will obtain the highest score and the female Ss or rural area would get the lowest scores on achievement motivation scale.

5. Interaction of sex and caste will create significant difference in n Achievement scores of subjects and that male Forward caste Ss will obtain the highest score, while in female Scheduled caste Ss will secure the lower score.

6. Interaction of area of residence and caste will create significant difference in n Achievement score of Ss and that urban Forward
caste Ss will get the highest score and rural Scheduled caste Ss will show the lowest score.

7. There way interaction of sex, area of residence and caste status will create significant difference in n Achievement scores and that male urban Forward caste Ss will obtain the highest n Achievement score while the female rural Scheduled caste Ss will secure the lowest score.

8. Sex will create significant variation in Power motive scores of Ss and males will show higher level of power motivation than females.

9. Area of residence will create significant variation in Power motive scores and Ss from urban area will show higher level of power motivation than Ss from rural areas.

10. Caste status will create significant difference in Power motivation scores and that Forward caste Ss would demonstrate the highest power motivation score and scheduled caste Ss will exhibit the lowest score.

11. Interaction of sex and area of residence will create significant variation in Power motivation scores of Ss and that urban male Ss would demonstrate the highest level of power motivation, while the rural females will exhibit the lowest level of power motivation.
12. Interaction of area of residence and caste status would create significant variation in Power motive scores of Ss and that urban Forward caste Ss will obtain the highest scores, while rural Scheduled caste Ss will get the lowest score.

13. Interaction of area of residence and caste status would create significant variation in power motive scores of Ss and that urban Forward caste Ss will obtain the highest score, while rural Scheduled caste Ss will get the lowest score.

14. Three-way interaction of sex, area of residence and caste status will create significant variation in Power motive scores of Ss and that the highest score will be obtained by male urban Forward caste Ss, while the lowest score will be secured by male rural scheduled caste Ss.

15. Sex will create significant difference in affiliation motive scores of Ss and females will exhibit more affiliative tendencies than males.

16. Area of residence will create significant variation in n Affiliation scores of Ss and rural Ss will show greater affiliative tendencies than urban Ss

17. Caste status will affect n Affiliation cores of Ss significantly and lower caste Ss will exhibit greater affiliative tendencies than upper caste Ss.
18. Interaction of sex and area of residence will create significant difference in n Affiliation scores of Ss and that females of rural area will show the greatest affiliative tendencies, while the males of urban area will demonstrate the lowest affiliative tendencies.

19. Interaction of sex and caste status will create significant difference in an affiliation scores of Ss and that female Ss of scheduled castes will display the greatest affiliative tendencies while male Ss of Forward castes will show the lowest affiliative tendencies.

20. International are of residence and caste status will create significant difference in n Affiliation scores of Ss and that scheduled caste Ss from rural area will show the highest level of affiliation motivation while Forward caste Ss from urban areas will show the lowest level of affiliation motive.

21. Three-way interaction of sex, area of residence and caste status will crate significant variation in n Affiliation scores of Ss and that rural Scheduled caste females will exhibit the highest level of affiliative tendencies while urban Forward caste males will display the lowest level of affiliative tendencies.