INTRODUCTION

Anxiety seems to be the dominant fact... and is threatening to become a dominant cliche ... of modern life. It shouts in the headlines, laughs nervously at cocktail parties, speaks suavely in the board room, jokes with fake youthfulness on the golf course and whispers in privacy each day before the shaving mirror and the dressing table. Not merely the black statistics of murder, suicide, alcoholism and divorce betray anxiety, but almost any innocent, everyday act: the limp or overhearty handshake, the second pack of cigarettes, the forgotten appointment, the stammer in mid-sentence, the wasted hour before the T.V. set; all display the shade of anxiety as it introduces itself in daily life.

Time and again, psychologists & philosophers have emphasized on the role of anxiety in our day to day life. "We are not aware of any systematic conception of personality, particularly with regard to its development, which does not give the concept of anxiety a role of great, if not central, significance" (Sarason et al., 1960).
It is not easy to counter the contention that anxiety is a "pervasive psychological phenomenon" of modern society. The word seems literally to drip with it. It begins in infancy with a fear of unknown and yet inexperienced of life, winds its way painfully through countless occurrences, large and small, and concludes with a fear of that unknown which is death. It is not that the emotion itself is of recent origin, or that it is somehow of greater significance today than it has been in the past. Surely, anxiety is as old as human existence and belongs to no particular era or culture.

Anxiety as such has no single operational definition. When it is said that a person is anxious, the statement may be interpreted in either of two ways. It may mean that the individual is anxious at the moment, or it may mean that he is an anxious person. The two interpretations are quite different. The former refers to an immediate and probably ephemeral state, whereas the latter is a constant condition without a time limitation.

The anxiety-prone individual is one who has a noticeable upsurge of feelings of anxiety on a
relatively large number of occasions, under more circumstances and in a large numbers of different situations than do his or her peers.

Situational anxiety is a transitory state which is ephemeral, occurs in response to a stimulus and is likely to vary in intensity as a function of the stimulus, and is characterized by a variety of associated physiological reaction. In contrast, anxiety proneness is a relatively unfluctuating condition of the individual which exerts a constant influence on his/her behavior.

Theories of the origin of anxiety in the human organism are in a relatively rudimentary state because the available core of definitely established facts is quite small. Theories of the origin of anxiety have come primarily from two sources: the psychoanalyst and the learning theorists.

Psychoanalysis was a brain product of the renowned psychologist Sigmund Freud, who was a keen observer and a vastly imaginative thinker. Freud's concept of anxiety is centered around his psychoanalytic notions of "the pleasure principle" and "the reality principle."
Freud believed that the pleasure principle is dominant in the early years, where as the reality principle gains ascendance in the adult. Within this theoretical frame work, Freud developed his doctrines of emotions. However, he did not attempt to formulate a systematic view of all the emotions but concentrated on the problem of anxiety, the emotion that has the greatest relevance for psychoanalytic theory.

He distinguishes three main types of anxiety: *objective anxiety*, *neurotic anxiety*, and *moral anxiety*. All three types represent weakness on the part of the ego to demands made on the individual by reality, the id, and the superego. Objective anxiety is the consequence of weakness toward the external world, neurotic anxiety terms from weakness toward the id, and moral anxiety from weakness toward the superego.

The individual confronted by heavy demands arising from the environment becomes anxious. This first occurred at birth when the infant is suddenly overwhelmed by massive stimulation from the environment. The "birth-trauma", as Freud referred to primary anxiety, is the prototype for the recurrence of secondary anxiety.
reactions later in the individual's life. Thus, whenever the individual is confronted by the likelihood of a traumatic experience, there is a reinstatement of the feelings associated with the original trauma of birth.

By relating primary and secondary anxiety, Freud sought to explain the symptoms characteristic of adult anxiety. The tense, restricted breathing, the trembling resulting from massive motor nerve discharge, the rapid heartbeat, and so on, which are found in typical anxiety attacks, mimic the emotional conditions exhibited by the infant shortly after birth.

Neurotic anxiety may be truly considered as a special form of objective anxiety. In neurotic anxiety the individual fears the possible repercussions of giving in to the demands of the libido. The real basis of fear, however, is apprehension about the objective consequences of his or her own behavior. Specifically, he or she is afraid of the social consequences of engaging in forbidden sexual behavior.

Neurotic anxiety may take one of two forms. The first is "free-floating anxiety," in which the individual continually anticipates the worst possible outcomes, is
inclined to misinterpret chance happiness as evil omens, and is especially fearful of ambiguous situations, from which the worst consequences are foreseen. The second is more circumscribed form in which the anxiety is aroused by specific objects and situations. The second type is most clearly exemplified in the various phobias, where in the individual may be afraid of such objects or situations as snakes, open spaces, thunder, and diseases. Indeed, almost any stimulus-object or situation can become the condition for a phobic reaction.

The third form of anxiety, moral anxiety, is also based on objective anxiety. Because the superego is developed as a result of interjected moral prohibitions and restrictions from the parents, the original source of all moral anxiety or guilt is environmental and, consequently, objective. More particularly, moral anxiety may be understood as a derivative of the original childhood fear of losing the love and goodwill of the parents, and possibly of being punished.

Neo-Freudianism was a movement that sprang up during the 1930s and 1940s. It was pioneered by the
psychiatrist Harry Stack Sullivan, the analyst Karen Horney, and Erich Fromm, a social psychologist. The neo-Freudians changed the orientation of psychoanalysis from the biological and instinctual to cultural and environmental. They do not credit Freudian concept of primary anxiety. Anxiety can not arise before the ego has reached a minimum stage of development. The growth of anxiety is a consequence of restriction, threat and punishment which is used to control the behavior of the young organism. Finally, the neo-Freudians suggest that most of adult anxiety is secondary, that is, a consequence of threat against the defenses the adaptive behaviors which keep primary anxiety from coming to consciousness.

Psychoanalytic theory, despite the looseness of its formulation and the absence of empirical foundation, has served as the primary function of all theories. It has given rise to a testable hypothesis. A considerable amount of scientific research has been done in an effort to investigate various components of psychoanalytic theory. A significant progress in this direction has been made by the learning theorists. The learning
Theorists regard anxiety as a motivating force or drive. The primary characteristic of a drive is that it energizes the organism to seek some method to reduce the degree or intensity of the drive. The "Iowa theory" which stems from the experimental work of Kenneth W. Spence, a former chairman of the department of psychology at the University of Iowa, deal with such effects of anxiety.

Spence (1960) conceives of anxiety as an acquired drive which has the capacity to generally energize the organism. Anxiety ought thereby facilitate performance and increase the speed of learning. Spence's theory is straightforward when applied to learning situations in which only one response is possible and occurs invariably, as is the case with the conditioning of a reflex, like the eyelid reflex. However, the one-response learning situation does not occur frequently in human life. In most learning circumstances, a variety of possible response is available to the individual. Each of these response tendencies or "habits" has a certain strength or probability of occurrence, depending upon the
individual's past experience. These responses could, theoretically, be arranged in a hierarchy of habit strength.

Spence's theory holds that anxiety will energize or strengthen each of the habits in the hierarchy in proportion to the initial strength of the habit. The relationship is multiplicative. A simple mathematical formula describes the effect of anxiety on any one response tendency:

\[ R \text{ (Response)} = D \text{ (Drive)} \times H \text{ (Habit Strength)} \]

But Spence has never been able to proceed to the point of formulating an equation to predict the effect of anxiety in a learning situation involving more than one habit. The reason is that it is difficult to establish hierarchies for learning tasks. The habit hierarchy is likely to be a function of the individual's past experience; for each task and within each group of people of the effects of anxiety as a drive on complex learning would thus be an exceedingly complex task itself.

In the Iowa theory anxiety is evidently used in the sense of a constant characteristic or trait of the
individual. An opposing view has been advanced by psychologists at Yale led by Mandler and Sarson (Mandler and Sarson, 1952; Sarson et al., 1960). The essence of Yale position is that anxiety is a strong learned drive which is situationally evoked. Individuals learn or develop characteristic responses to anxiety. These reactions may be task-irrelevant, i.e. tending to disrupt performance, or they may be task-relevant, i.e. facilitative of performance. They are of the view that the effect of anxiety is also a function of such aspects of the situation as the attitude of the teacher or the experimenter and the meaning of the task as perceived by the individual.

According to the Yale theory, the study of anxiety should begin with examination in depth of particular stressful situations. In selecting a stressful situation to study in depth, the Yale researchers were guided by the implicit reasoning that we live in an achievement oriented society, in which great emphasis is placed on successful performance from an early age. Not achieving - not accomplishing, not performing upto a standard - is
regarded as highly undesirable. Anxiety about failing becomes a pervasive phenomenon. We might call such a fear as achievement anxiety.

Many specific situations might evoke achievement anxiety, depending upon the individual's personal goals and values. Achievement anxiety, although narrower in scope than general anxiety, was still too broad a concept for Yale theorists.

Inspite of all these theories and experimentations, little are the concrete facts available for them to be compiled in form of a law or principle. Anyhow, one of the closest approximations to a true scientific principle is the so called Yerkes Dodson Law (Yerkes and Dodson, 1908). It is one of the earliest, experimentally-based statements of relationship between drive and learning, at least for infrahuman mammals. Essentially, the Yerkes-Dodson Law holds that the relationship between fear, conceptualized as a drive, and learning is curvilinear. A low level of drive facilitates learning only slightly or not at all, presumably because the motivation it provides is inadequate to affect performance. A high drive level
integrates with the learning process so that performance is similar to, or worse than, that obtained with low drive level. The level of drive which stimulates optimal performance lies somewhere in the middle range of drive intensity.

The law states further that the relationship between drive and performance is a function of task complexity. The optimal drive level is higher when the task is simple than when it is complex; a drive level that facilitates performance on a simple task may disrupt it when the task is more difficult. The Yerkes-Dodson Law calls for transient or situational anxiety as a drive. It is not clear whether the principle ought to hold, in theory, for anxiety-proneness as well.

Besides anxiety, there are some other factors like motivation which have a profound effect on the behavior of all human beings. Motivation theorists, in contrast to learning theorists, have been concerned mainly with the question of what arouses and energizes behavior. Because the factors that arouse and energizes behavior often give direction to behavior, motivation theorists frequently deal with the question of direction as well.
Some of the first formal attempts to explain the nature of human motivation were undertaken by the Greek philosophers. Epicurus set forth the proposition that we are motivated to seek pleasure and avoid pain. He believed that pleasure was the only thing worth striving for. However, many of the Greek philosophers realized that immediate pleasure could, in the long run, bring pain. It might also be necessary to endure pain in order to obtain a greater pleasure. The problem for the individual would be to weigh the various alternatives in order to maximize pleasure.

The position of hedonism has persisted in psychology and philosophy. It reached its peak in the thinking of Jeremy Bentham and John Stuart Mill and today is the cornerstone of several theories of motivation. But somewhat away from this age-old principle of hedonism lies the motive to achieve; to achieve something not for the mere sake of avoiding pain, to gain approval or for any other kind of external reward, but "for its own sake"—a basic incentive to "do something better."
The initial impetus for work on achievement motivation came from Henry Murray, who recognized that people vary in their desire or tendency to "overcome obstacles, to exercise power, to strive to do something difficult as well as and as quickly as possible" (Murray, 1938). Murray called this tendency the "need to achieve."

For over four decades David McClelland has been doing research related to the achievement motive. His book Human Motivation (McClelland, 1985) provides an excellent summary of his work. In order to measure the achievement motive with more precision, McClelland and his colleagues (1953) adopted the TAT and developed a precise method for scoring the achievement motive. A number of studies have been done to assess the validity of the TAT measures they devised. Such studies show that a generalized motive does exist and that it can predict behavior in a wide variety of situations (for example, Atkinson, 1953; French, 1956; Lowell, 1952; Mischel, 1961).

In some recent work on the question of the origins of the achievement motive, McClelland and Pilon (1983)
found that parents who put their children on a feeding schedule, demanded early toilet training, and had high standards of neatness were more likely to produce children with strong achievement motivation. Parents of children high in achievement motivation tend to construct environments that are both strict and permissive. In such environments the child has limits, but within those limits the child has many opportunities to make his own choices. It has been suggested that such environments allow the child to develop a sense of mastery or control without being overwhelmed by unlimited freedom. Too much freedom, it has been argued, can so overwhelm a child that he or she becomes anxious and insecure; such conditions are likely to undermine the tendency to develop mastery.

Atkinson perceived the motive to achieve in a different line of thought. He suggested that the need to achieve is always tempered by another fundamental need, the need to avoid failure. Atkinson's theory recognizes that people may differ on the two important factors or quantities of the need achievement motivation, that is, hope of success and fear of failure. But in the final
analysis, goal directed behavior is determined by the joint action of the two motives. If the motive to succeed is greater than the motive to avoid failure, it is assumed, the person will strive to attain a particular goal. If the motive to avoid failure is greater than the motive to succeed, it is assumed, the person will select goals that minimize the chance of failure. Whereas success can lead to feelings of pride and satisfaction, failure can lead to feelings of shame. The expectations of success and failure, acting together, lead a person to undertake a given task.

McClelland has recently extended the theory of achievement motivation into the area of society as a whole (McClelland, D.C. The achieving Society, 1961). The achieving society, he suggests, is not one especially favoured by population growth, favorable economic conditions or natural resources but one that is high in achievement motivations. The entrepreneurial spirit, the presence of executives with high level of drive, and social orientation that emphasizes achievement in the training of children are factors which are necessary for high levels of social
achievement.

McClelland has utilized such indices of economic development as the consumption of electric power, the importation of coal, and general trade as objective measures of the extent to which a society is achieving. Because it is not practical or, in the case of past societies, is impossible to obtain the achievement indices of executives and other leaders by means of fantasy, McClelland has utilized the nation's popular literature—poems, songs, plays, funeral orations, and books for education of children—as indices of achievement motivation.

By use of such methods, McClelland has been able to demonstrate that the destruction of the Golden Age of Greece was not the result of Peloponnerian wars but was caused by a loss in achievement motivation. A nation of low achievers is not strongly motivated to protect what they have.

Besides this historical resume, McClelland has made a number of interesting comparisons between modern European nations and the United States and between capitalist and communist nations. In each case he
presents evidence to show that it is not the economic system, political considerations, or geographical factors which are responsible for economic success but the presence or absence of achievement motivation.

Seeing such prominent effect of anxiety and need-achievement motivation on the performance of individuals, the present study is aimed at exhibiting the combined effect of these two variables on the performance in their real life as measured by their academic performance.