CHAPTER NO. I

INTRODUCTION
Research can be defined as the search for knowledge, or as any systematic investigation, with an open mind, to establish novel facts, solve new or existing problems, prove new ideas, or develop new theories. The primary purposes of basic research (as opposed to applied research) are documentation, discovery, interpretation, or the research and development of methods and systems for the advancement of human knowledge. Approaches to research depend on epistemologies, which vary considerably both within and between humanities and sciences. Research and its conclusions are responsible for the development of society and higher educational development.

According to scientist, philosophers, educational thinkers and psychologist, especially higher education is very important factor in human life. Because the higher education has been develop to personality traits, Self-concept, adjustment & achievement motivation. When every student realizes their self-concept, their adjustment capacity and achievement motivation increase then they should be develop their educational progress and personality.

**What is the Self-concept?**

Self-concept is more of a collection of selves rather than a static thing. It includes hundreds of self-perceptions in varying degrees of clarity and intensity that we have acquired in our experience mostly with others. Because these self-perceptions exhibit of
certain consistency or organizing pattern as a whole, we refer them collectively as self-concept.

It is somewhat arbitrary how many different selves we care to distinguish. If they wanted to make an exhaustive list of myself, I might start off by naming my sensual self, my loving self, my impish self and so forth at a more general level some of the more common distinctions include, the self I see myself to be (subjective self) the awareness of my body (body image) the self I would like to be (ideal self) and the way I feel others see we (social self).

Definitions of Self-Concept:

Self concept has been defined by several authors.

**Combs, Soper, and Courson (1963)**

“The self-concept is what an individual believes about himself, the totality of his ways of seeing himself.”

**Hilgard, Atkinson and Atkinson (1975)**

“Self-concept is the composite of ideas, feelings and attitudes a person has about himself.”

‘**Rebecca Fraser-Thill**’

“Self concept refers to the way a person thinks about their abilities in a variety of facets of life, including academics, athletics and social interactions”.

‘**Stedman’s Medical Dictionary**’

“An Individual’s assessment of his or her status on a single trait or personal norms as criteria”

“The composite of ideas, feelings, and attitudes that a person has about his or her own identity, worth, capabilities, and limitations”
Origins and Nature of Self-Concept:

The self-concept is a very interesting aspect of human psychology. It shapes how the individual views his relations with the world and reflects his overall quality of being. The self-concept is basically a set of ideas about oneself: who you are as a person, and your place in the world, society, and the lives of people around you. One's self-concept can be a positive force that leads the individual to activities that he is likely to be successful in. But it can also be a restraining force that guides him to repeated failures. Most often self-concept contains a combination of the positive and negative.

The self-concept is a conglomeration that forms and evolves without people's conscious involvement. You cannot willfully add to or modify your self-concept through mental effort. The self-concept consists of self-descriptions that are the result of deeply felt experiences repeated over an extended period of time. Hence, the only way to change self-concept seems to be to experience new life circumstances that produce a qualitatively different set of deeply felt experiences.

In youth and early adulthood qualitative changes in life circumstances occur frequently as one moves out of the home, goes to college, lives with many different people, tries new jobs, etc. However, as soon as people settle down at a long-term job, get married, have children, and take out long-term loans, the rigidity of one's life circumstances skyrockets. As I see it, this is why psychologist Eric Berne considers youth a time of "rehearsing" our scripts - or life scenarios built around a self-concept - and adulthood and maturity the time when we play out our scripts “for real.”

Late is always better than never, but obviously the best time to iron out a healthy and positive self-concept is in one's youth, so that the "big decisions" that determine so much of the rest of adult life are made under the influence of that self-concept. Serious
changes in one's life circumstances and self-concept can occur at any age; the probability of them just goes down year by year.

To talk about self-concept and how it evolves, we need to introduce a sense of the time scale of the experiences that shape it. Short-range experiences describe the individual's relationships with the world over the past few days or weeks as he satisfies his immediate needs, completes work or study assignments, and participates in one-time activities. Medium-range experiences describe stable relationships with the world over the individual's current stage of life - usually defined by one's work situation, living situation, and intimate relationships. Long-range experiences form over the span of years and describe the ways things "always seem to happen" - in other words, one's attitudes to work relationships, love, and life in general.

Obviously, it is long-range experiences that shape self-concept. People can have very good or very bad short-range experiences that do not influence their self-concept at all, and even medium-range experiences do not create a lasting effect. Only when the individual senses deep down that his relationships with the world have changed permanently does his self-concept shift.

In the formation of self-concept, extra weight is attached to long-range experiences from one's childhood and one's relationships with one's parents. It takes a great deal of qualitatively different life experience to override that baggage (whether it is positive or negative). Unfortunately, the quality of one's long-range childhood experiences is, in essence, a matter of luck, which means that a good part of one's self-concept is the result of chance. Not all of self-concept, of course, since it is the result of the interaction between the person and his environment, and many of the person's traits are inborn and tend to produce similar interaction with different environment.
It wouldn’t be wrong if we say that we all are psychologists i.e. each individual is a psychologist. Since psychology is a science of positive behavior and behavior is the outcome of our experiences. Even a child learns to behave in particular manner only on account of his experiences. Each individual begins his/her life is a tabula rasa or blank stone which is shaped and reshaped by the experiences and on the basis of his experiences begins to realize his own needs, starts perceiving others in relation to his own self in his own way and as he move from infancy to childhood, he reaches some sort of understanding of himself and others and this perception of the reflected attitudes and judgment of significant others serve as the foundation for the formulation of self. According to Ames, L.B. (1952), it is some time during the first year of life that the child “discovers himself” and finds a place in, yet apart from the “outside world.” Since the young child is egocentric, he forms concepts about himself before he forms concepts about others. What he thinks of himself colors what he thinks of others and thus he develops, what is called by psychologists, the “self-concept.”

The term ‘self’ has been used by psychologists in different senses and defined differently’. According to Hall and lindzey (1957), the term ‘self’ has two distinct meaning:

(1) Self as object may be defined as the total aggregate of attitudes, judgments and values which an individual holds with respect to his behavior, his body, and his worth as a person-in short, how he perceives and evaluates himself.

(2) Self as a process is defined in terms of activities such as thinking and perceiving and copying with the environment, ego is another term to describe the same construct. A large number of psychologists have made an extensive use of the term “self” in the same sense which include Mead (1934), Angval
Among others, Freud (1912), considered ‘Self’ and ‘Sex’ as the basic motives of human behavior. For him, ‘Self’ consisted of three levels id, ego and super-ego. According to Mead (1949), ‘Self’ comprises of ‘me’ (the observed and conceptualized self) and ‘I’ (the self, the creator.) By knowing the attitude of others towards himself, the individual becomes aware of himself as an object – as ‘me’ whereby the ‘I’ that our most important values are located. Ruth Strong (1957) believes that ‘Self’ as the person perceives, has four dimensions: First there is the self-concept which has been defined as the individual’s perception of his abilities and his status and roles in the outer world. It is influenced by his physical self, his personal appearance, dress and grooming; by his abilities and dispositions, by his beliefs, values and aspirations. Second, there is self-perception which the individual holds at the present time. This view may be lacking in perspective and may be influenced by the mood of the moment or by some recent experience. It is a transitory attitude. Third dimension, the social self, is the “self” as the person thinks others see it. This concept does not correspond with other people’s perception of him; nevertheless it has an important effect on his behavior. The last dimension the ideal-self or the self-ideal refers to the kind of person the individual hopes to be or would like to be. This may be realistic, too low or too high depending on the individual’s level of aspiration in relation to his ability and opportunities for self-realizations. All these dimension of the ‘self’ are of great importance because they guide and in man determine the individual’s behavior. Allport (1961), described “self-concept” as something of which we are immediately aware. We think of it as the warm, central private region of our life. It plays a crucial part in our consciousness (a concept broader than self), in our organism (a concept broader
than personality). Thus it is a kind of core in our being. According to Purkey (1970), the ‘self’ is ‘a complex and dynamic system of beliefs which an individual holds true about himself, each belief with a corresponding value. Coleman (1971), view ‘self’ ‘as a complex psychological process which has a developmental course, is influenced by learning, is subject to change and can be studied by scientific procedures’. According to Hilgard, Atkinson and Atkinson (1975), self-concept is the “composite of ideas, feelings and attitudes a person has about himself.” Spencer and Jeffrey (1980), views self as an abstraction which cannot be felt or measured in physical sense. It is a concept that reserves as a short-hand for clusters of perception, attitudes, feelings, thoughts and all those interior parts of ourselves that can be experienced by us alone. We can try to explain to other people what is taking place in ourselves but no one else can directly experience ourselves we think of the self as that portion of our experiencing that attempts to organize our own private world and to give as direction. The self asks many questions: Who am I? Where am I headed? Should I look for a job or go into Business for myself? And so on.

No doubt, some psychologists are reluctant to talk about the concept of self because the current trend in the behavioral science is to talk about things that can somehow be measured or quantified and preferably be touched directly by some instrument. Yet any discussion on human behavior and experiences excluding self is incomplete for self is the essence of being human. The self concept as viewed by Rogers (1947), “the sum total of all the characteristics, a person attributes to himself, and the positive and negative values he attaches of these characteristics.” Cobb (1961) suggest that, “The self-concept refers to the image we have of our own person, the way we think of ourselves with all the characteristics we acknowledge (and those we deny), and the quality of esteem which we attach to ourselves and our particular attributes.”
According to Combs, Soper, and Courson (1963), “The self-concept is what an individual believes about himself, the totality of his ways of seeing himself.” Calhoun, Jr. and Morse (1977) summarized the definitions of self-concept and pointed out that, “The self-concept is viewed as the way an individual perceives himself and his behavior, and is strongly influenced by the way others perceive him. This suggests that self-concept is developed earlier than self-esteem, since self-esteem arises out of the child’s ability to estimate his own strengths and weakness.”

As Lecky (1945) pointed out, “Preserving one’s perception of one’s self intact is the prime motive in all behavior.” Much of an individual’s behavior becomes an attempt to maintain the consistency of the self-concept which he has formed about himself in relation to others. As such the self-concept is dynamic in its efforts to maintain its individualist and is as well persistent and predictable in nature. It is persistent in the sense that often a person twists and turns new experience in accordance with his preconceived idea of himself. It is dynamic since it arises out of the complex of the person’s interpersonal relations and is determined by the way he organizes his experience to avoid or diminish anxiety. Like other concepts, the concept of self develops in a predictable pattern. Changes in the individuals ‘self-concept’ may occur at any time during his life but specially they occur at the beginning of each developmental phase. According to Hurlock (1972) the concepts of self are hierarchical in nature. The most basic the primary self-concept is acquired first. It is formed on the experience the individual has and is made up of several individual concepts resulting from the experiences. As the individual interacts with the environment and the self i.e., each of us become aware of a part of our experience that we recognize as ‘I’ or ‘me’ Rogers believed that all the experiences of a person including self-experiences are evaluated as positive or negative, for example a child evaluates the experiences of ice
cream positively because of its taste and partly through the influence of others as when a young child evaluates the experience of talking rubbish even though he “feels good” because her mother told her that the behavior was “bad”. Thus the self or self-concept emerges not merely as a set of experiences and the positive or negative value assigned to these experiences is influenced by the combination of direct evaluations and evaluations given by other individuals. Rogers considers that the uncomfortable discrepancy (or incongruity) between organism experiences is caused due to the conditions of worth-feelings that one can receive positive regard from others (and ultimately from the self) only on a conditional basis i.e., when one behaves in certain prescribed ways. According to Richard J. Shavelson and Roger Bolus (1982) “self-concept, broadly defined, is a person’s perceptions of him-or-herself. These perceptions are formed through one’s experience with and interpretations of one’s environments, evaluations by significant others, and one’s attributions for one’s own behavior.”

So, far we have been discussing the nature of self and the different viewpoints of the psychologists but in order to have a clear understanding of the self, it is essential to go through the three aspects of self.

**The Physical Self:**

The physical self refers to “the physical person that is part of the individual, physical features such of height, weight, and complexion and so on” (Spencer and Jaffrey, 1980) play a positive and significant role in the development of self-concept. We look at others while others may look at us and simile or pretend that they have not seen us. The book entitled Our Bodies, We written by the Boston Women’s Health Book Collective (1976) also emphasized that physical features and structures are
intertwined with the identity of an individual in males as well as females and contribute in the development of their self-concept. As for example when our physical self is healthy and attractive or our physical self is not good due to illness or accident, we develop negative self-appraisal. While some of our physical self aspects such as weight, performance, hair style etc. may change from time to time but our sex and race are determined at birth and are considered permanent aspects of our physical identity though there are only some rare instances of exception in these.

**The Social Self:**

The social-self refers to “the various masks or social roles refers we play in various situations-suitor, student, worker, husband, wife, mother, father, citizen, leader, follower” (Spencer and Jeffry, 1980). Since we are all social being as such playing social roles and wearing masks is quite natural and as well an adaptive response to the social world we live in social self-concept depends on the way the individual feels others perceive him. The foundation of early social self concepts are laid first in the home and is based on the relationship with the mother and then after with other family members. Gradually as the child grows up, he comes in contact with the peers. As pointed out by Wylie (1962), “By the time a child has reached adolescence, he has formed a more or less precise image of what he and his culture expect of him as an adult.” Thus, different people develop a different kind of social self-concept which depends on the kinds of social groups, home, peers or community in which they spend most of their time.

**The Personal Self:**

The personal self refers to the information one has about one’s self or as one perceives oneself. It is one’s day to day experience, of experiencing a changing
display of sights and sounds and feelings i.e. the inner experience of being oneself. It includes the individuals attitudes toward his abilities and disabilities, his special aptitudes, his roles in life, responsibilities, hopes, aspiration etc. This self is developed later than the physical self-concept and has the image of one’s physical characteristics, wants and needs etc. The personal self, also known as psychological self and is the inner identity of an individual and displays one’s own value system, one’s personal sense of priorities of what is important.

So far we have been discussing on the idea of “self” or “self-concept” which included self-knowledge, self-worth and an understanding, of one’s place in the social world.

**The Development of the Self-Concept:**

Self is a process, not a structure. "The idea of self can only develop if the individual can get outside himself in such a way as to become an object to himself." (Mead, 1934 in Gross: 1992:6 10); using the mirror of God's grace.

Developing a self-concept is an important task in early childhood the baby has to recognize and realize that he is a separate being. This can best be shown by looking at a baby's perception of himself in a mirror. Initially they give no sign that they perceive themselves as independent or as causal agents, but gradually they understand how their actions affect their reflected images, and that their own and other people's actions are separate. Gradually they are able to distinguish between themselves and others. An internal and an external image of self develop. By age two they know they are distinct from other people but they still do not see themselves as others see them, because the self-concept is based on fleeting, sometimes inaccurate perceptions.
At school age children start seeing themselves as having unique and defining personal qualities. They gain a strong sense of their gender roles. Although they start middle school with a relatively shallow self-concept, they start selecting and integrating new discoveries about themselves, using their cognitive powers to bring into focus a picture of self that is sharp and unique.

The adolescent self-concept is influenced by psychological and social relationships. They are conscious of their self-awareness, know that people can think about their own experiences and this leads to increased self-consciousness and a sense of control. However, the boundaries of self-awareness and self-control need to be realized. In middle adolescence they recognize self-described inconsistencies and in late adolescence they reconcile the discrepancies in their descriptions and images of themselves. They start thinking in terms of stable, abstract, unifying characteristics. (Clarke-Stewart, Friedman & Koch: 1985:605-607) "When this conception of a stable personality combines with a conception of stable beliefs, the mature adolescent has a complex, self-aware, and systematic understanding of self." (Damon & Hart, 1982 in Clarke-Stewart, Friedman & Koch" 1985:607)

Thus children's self-concepts are formed from private reactions to themselves and the reactions from others who play significant roles in their lives. The crucial role that the teacher plays in the formation of the child's self-concept is evident. Teachers have a daily, direct influence on the socialization of the child. The mastery of developmental tasks and competence affects every part of the self. The sobering thought is that it is fairly resistant to change the self once it is established. The "looking-glass self“ reflects everything. "We derive our picture of ourselves through the picture we have of other people's picture of us... We build up a continuous and changing picture of ourselves out of our interaction with others." (Gross: 1992:611)
The teacher is firmly at the center of all four factors influencing the development of the self-concept:

1. Reaction of others;
2. Comparison with others;
3. Social roles;

"He who cooperates with the divine purpose in imparting to the youth a knowledge of God, and moldings the character into harmony with His does a high and noble work." (White: 1952:19) Every Christian teacher should realize and take full responsibility for the influence they have on their students' lives. They, in partnership with the parents, should execute firm but reasoned control, while giving positive encouragement to independence in a warm and loving atmosphere. (See: 1978:326) In an attempt to understand the self and ideas about the self-concept better let us trace some ideas about the self and the self-concept.

**Critical Features of Self-Concept Constructs:**

Shavelson, Hubner and Stanton (1976) defined the concept construct by seven critical features:

1. ‘It is organized or structured, in that people categorize the vast, amount of information’s they have about themselves and relate the categories to one another.
2. ‘It is multifaceted, and the particular facets reflect the category system adopted by a particular individual and/or shared by a group.’
3. ‘It is hierarchical, with perceptions of behavior at the base moving to inferences about self in sub areas (e.g., academic English, History), then to
inference about self in academic and nonacademic areas, and then to inferences about self in general.’

4. ‘General self-concept is stable, but as one descends the hierarchy self-concept becomes increasingly situation specific and as a consequence less stable.’

5. ‘Self-Concept becomes increasingly multifaceted as the individual develops from infancy to adulthood.’

6. ‘It has both a descriptive and an evaluative dimension such that individuals may describe themselves (e.g., I do well in school).

7. ‘It can be differentiated from other constructs such as academic achievement.’

Factors influencing Self-Concept:

Hurlock, E.B. (1985) pointed the following factor influencing adolescent’s self-concept:

- **Age and Maturity:** Adolescents who mature an early age are treated as near-adults and develop favorable self-concept and make good adjustment whereby those who mature late are treated like children and feel misunderstood and martyred and are predisposed to maladjusted behavior.

- **Appearance:** Adolescents different appearance makes them feel inferior even if the difference adds to physical attractiveness. Any physical defect is a source of embarrassment which leads to feelings of inferiority and physical attractiveness by contrast leads to favorable judgments about personality characteristics and this aids social acceptance.

- **Sex Appropriateness:** Sex appropriate appearance, interest and behavior help adolescents to achieve favorable and positive self-concept whereby sex-conscious and influences the behavior unfavorably.
- **Names and Nicknames:** When members of the peer groups judge the names unfavorably or if they have nick-names that imply ridicule, adolescents become sensitive and embarrassed.

- **Family Relations:** Adolescents having close family relations with the family members identify with them and also wish to develop a similar personality pattern. If the member is of the same sex then the adolescents get help in developing a sex-appropriate self-concept.

- **Peers:** Adolescents personality pattern is also influenced by his peers in two ways. Firstly, adolescents self-concept are reflections of what they believe their peers concepts are about them are, Secondly they develop their personality traits approved by the group and under peer pressure.

- **Creativity:** Adolescents on being encouraged to be creative in their play and academic work, develop a feeling of individuality and identity that significantly and positively affect their self-concept whereby adolescents on being forced to conform to an approved pattern since early childhood, lack the feeling of identity and individuality.

- **Level of Aspiration:** Adolescents having unrealistically high level of aspiration, experience failure which leads to the development of feelings of inadequacy and defensive reactions whereby adolescents being realistic about their abilities, experience more success than failure which leads to greater self-confidence and self-satisfaction and develop better self-concept.

**Carl Rogers Theory of Self-Concept:**

Carl Rogers’s theory was that people do things out of free will. His theory is called Self Theory. He also stated that the self is concerned with distinguishing ones values and
understanding their association to other people. Rogers said the self is the brain of the person. It shows who and what one person is. Rogers believes that the solution to pleasure and vigorous modification is the reliability between one’s self-concept and ones knowledge. Rogers understood that we all build up a need for self esteem. He alleged that we harm others or do something in rebellious ways only when we are irritated in our efforts to build up our potential. Rogers said that children in a lot of families feel it’s bad to have ideas and thoughts of their own about numerous things like political, religious, or sexual matters. When their parents disapprove of their thoughts they consider themselves rebels and think their feelings were wrong. If they want to have a consistent self-esteem, they may have to forget about their real feelings and forget about themselves. According to Rogers the path to self-actualization involves getting in touch with our real feelings and acting on them. This is the main goal of person-centered therapy. Theory of Personality Development Rogers' therapy was an extension of his theory of personality development and was known as client-centered therapy, since the basis of the therapy was designed around the client. According to Rogers each person has within them the natural tendency to continue to grow and develop. As a result of this the individual's self-esteem and self-actualization is continually influenced. This development can only be achieved through what Rogers refers to as "unconditional positive regard." In order for an individual to experience total self-actualization the therapist must express complete acceptance of the patient. Roger's found that this was best achieved through the method of "reflection", in which the therapist continually restates what the "patient" has said in an attempt to show complete acceptance and to allow the patient to recognize any negative feelings that they may be feeling. Throughout the counseling session the therapist may make small interruptive comments in order to help recognize certain issues. For the most part the
"patient" is allowed to direct the course of the session. Rogers began to use the expression "client" instead of "patient" due to the fact that the individuals that he was counseling did need help but not within the same regard that a medically ill person does. These persons do not need to totally give in to themselves to a medical expert although they do need help. Today throughout the field of psychology it is a worldwide performance to address the individual as a client instead of a patient. Eventually throughout its development Rogers’s theory began to be known as "people-centered" due to its expansion beyond psychotherapy to such areas as education, marriage, leadership, parent-child relationships, and the development of professional standards. Within each limb that Rogers conjecture extended to there were several basic elements that were applied to each. They were as follows: 1. the individual comes for help. This is the most significant step within the steps of therapy. The individual has taken it upon himself to take the first step for help even if he does not recognize this as the reason he's there. 2. The helping situation is defined. The client is made aware that the counselor does not have the answers, but that with assistance he can, work out his own solutions to his problems. 3. The counselor encourages free expression of feelings in regard to the problem. The counselor provides the client with a friendly, interested, and receptive attitude which helps to bring about free expression. 4. The counselor accepts, recognizes, and clarifies negative feelings. Whatever the negative feelings are the counselor must say and do things which helps the client recognize the negative feelings at hand. 5. When the individual's negative feelings have been expressed they are followed by expressions of positive impulses which make for growth. 6. The counselor accepts and recognizes the positive feelings in the same manner as the negative feelings. 7. There is insight, understanding of the self, and acceptance of the self along with possible courses of actions. This is the next important aspect because it allows for
new levels. Then comes the step of positive action along with the decreasing the need for help. To say in other words Carl Rogers’s theory was that people do things out of free will. His theory is called Self Theory. He also stated that the self is concerned with recognizing ones values and understanding their relationship to other people. Rogers said the self is the brain of the person. It shows who and what one person is.

**The self-concept includes three components:**

**Self worth (or self-esteem):** What we think about ourselves. Rogers believed feelings of self-worth developed in early childhood and were formed from the interaction of the child with the mother and father.

**Self-image:** How we see ourselves, which is important to good psychological health. Self-image includes the influence of our body image on inner personality. At a simple level, we might perceive ourselves as a good or bad person, beautiful or ugly. Self-image has an effect on how a person thinks feels and behaves in the world.

**Ideal self:** This is the person who we would like to be. It consists of our goals and ambitions in life, and is dynamic – i.e. forever changing. The ideal self in childhood is not the ideal self in our teens or late twenties etc.

**Positive regard from other people and self-worth:**

How we think about ourselves, our feelings of self-worth are of fundamental importance both to psychological health and to the likelihood that we can achieve goals and ambitions in life and achieve self-actualization.

Self-worth may be seen as a continuum from very high to very low. For Carl Rogers (1959) a person who has high self-worth, that is, has confidence and positive feelings about him or she, faces challenges in life, accepts failure and unhappiness at
times, and is open with people. A person with low self-worth may avoid challenges in life, not accept that life can be painful and unhappy at times, and will be defensive and guarded with other people.

Rogers believed feelings of self-worth developed in early childhood and were formed from the interaction of the child with the mother and father. As a child grows older, interactions with significant others will affect feelings of self-worth. Rogers believed that we need to be regarded positively by others; we need to feel valued, respected, treated with affection and loved.

Positive regard is to do with how other people evaluate and judge us in social interaction. Rogers made a distinction between unconditional positive regard and conditional positive regard.

Unconditional positive regard is where parents, significant others (and the humanist therapist) accepts and loves the person for what he or she is. Positive regard is not withdrawn if the person does something wrong or makes a mistake. The consequences of unconditional positive regard are that the person feels free to try things out and make mistakes, even though this may lead to getting it worse at times. People who are able to self-actualize are more likely to have received unconditional positive regard from others, especially their parents in childhood.

Conditional positive regard is where positive regard, praise and approval, depend upon the child, for example, behaving in ways that the parents think correct. Hence the child is not loved for the person he or she is, but on condition that he or she behaves only in ways approved by the parent(s). At the extreme, a person who constantly seeks approval from other people is likely only to have experienced conditional positive regard as a child.
A person’s ideal self may not be consistent with what actually happens in life and experiences of the person. Hence, a difference may exist between a person’s ideal self and actual experience. This is called incongruence. Where a person’s ideal self and actual experience are consistent or very similar, a state of congruence exists. Rarely, if ever does a total state of congruence exist; all people experience a certain amount of incongruence. The development of congruence is dependent on unconditional positive regard. Carl Roger’s believed that for a person to achieve self-actualization they must be in a state of congruence. According to Rogers, we want to feel experience and behave in ways which are consistent with our self-image and which reflect what we would like to be like, our ideal-self. The closer our self-image and ideal-self are to each other, the more consistent or congruent we are and the higher our sense of self-worth. A person is said to be in a state of
incongruence if some of the totality of their experience is unacceptable to them and is denied or distorted in the self-image.

Incongruence is "a discrepancy between the actual experience of the organism and the self-picture of the individual insofar as it represents that experience."

As we prefer to see ourselves in ways that are consistent with our self-image, we may use defense mechanisms like denial or repression in order to feel less threatened by some of what we consider to be our undesirable feelings. A person whose self-concept is incongruent with her or his real feelings and experiences will defend because the truth hurts.

**Adjustment:**

Every one alive has troubles and problems, the most important consideration in determining personal effectiveness is not the amount of trouble or misfortune (within limits) a person encounters but how he responds or adjust to the challenges of life.

Horney suggested a major level of effort which men employ to bring into his life integration of all of the opposing forces he meets in dealing with people. These major levels of efforts; major adjustment techniques are moving toward people, moving against people and moving away from people.

Our understanding of adjustment has also changed. Until recently, the emphasis was on changing ourselves to fit in to our surrounding, and it implied a great deal of social conformity. The well-adjusted person always more of an ideal than a reality was highly stable and more inhibited with his or her desires and feelings, than people are now. Today we sometimes feel it necessary to change our surrounding as
a way of satisfying our needs. Consequently, peoples are busy improving their skill in assertiveness and stress management.

**Definition of adjustment:**

**Warren (1934)**

“Adjustment refers to any operation whereby on organism or organ becomes more favorably related to the environment or to the entire situation, environmental and internal”.

**James Drever (1952)**

“Adjustment means the modification to compensate for or meet special conditions”.

**Palsane (1965)**

“Adjustment is necessarily determined with reference to norms of the total society or of some more restricted community within the society, According, one may conceptually define adjustment as adherence to social norms. the relation between an individual and his environment’.

**Nature of Adjustment:**

Need for adjustment: Life is an on-going process. The developmental stages in it begin with infancy, and end with death. At every stage of this process, the individual has certain needs. Since life is ever changing, the needs too keep changing.

The needs of an individual cannot be satisfied in a vacuum. They are satisfied within the condition that involves his physical and social environment. Also, his capabilities will determine whether, and to what extent, his needs are satisfied. This shows that the satisfaction of a person’s needs is subject to certain barriers.
The barriers may be internal or external. Internal barriers are the conditions within the person. Two examples of these are the lack of requisite capabilities and the lack of self-confidence. The external barriers are produced by physical and social environment but the environment does not erect barriers alone. It also provides opportunities for effective living. To live effectively, a person must be able to live securely with others, form meaningful interpersonal relationships and emotionally satisfying attachments, and become a productive member of society.

Effective living requires that an individual bring about balance among his needs, his capabilities, and his opportunities. This involves adjustment. Thus, following Lawrence Shaffer, we may define adjustment as the process by which an individual maintains a balance between his needs and the circumstances that influence the satisfaction of these needs.

**Characteristics of adjustment:**

There are four characteristics of adjustment. These are

- 1. Adjustment helps us to keep balance between our needs and the capacity to meet these needs.
- 2. Adjustment implies changes in our thinking and way of life to the demands of the situation.
- 3. Adjustment gives us the ability and strength to bring desirable changes in our environment.
- 4. Adjustment is physiological and psychological (physiological aspects of adjustment are revealed by physical wellness of an individual.)
The Quality of Adjustment:

The quality of a person’s adjustment can be judged by getting answers to these questions: Is he successful in finding companionship, friendship, love, and a sense of fulfillment? Does he feel sufficiently secure in the world? Is he showing courage, skill, and persistence, where necessary?

The effect of good Adjustment:

The effect of good adjustment is that the individual gets as much real satisfaction out of his interaction with his environment as can be had without getting unfairly in the way of other people’s attempts to do the same. However, adjustment does not ensure complete happiness. Still it is the best means for achieving happiness.

Kinds of Adjustment:

Adjustment may be considered from the point of view of the individual himself (called personal adjustment), the social groups with which he interacts, his family, his school, his peer group, and his interpersonal relationships. These are sometimes called the kinds of adjustment.

1. Personal adjustment:

Every individual has some psychological handicaps. This is the case even if a person enjoys good health and is intelligent. This is because barriers to adjustment may not be related to health; or intelligence.

The above point of view is brought out when we study the lives of famous men and women. Beethoven was deaf; and yet he wrote some of the world’s great music. Demosthenes was a stutterer; still he becomes a famous orator. What makes a person
successful in personal adjustment is his attitude to barriers. Persons who adjust well consider barriers as challenges. They overcome the barriers by putting extra effort. For most people, personal adjustment comes through knowledge. For example, to solve problems effectively, a person must consider his personality, the strength of his achievement motivation, and the capacity for tolerating uncertainty. Thus, to adjust well, the individual must know his strengths and shortcomings.

2. Social adjustment:

No human being is a Robinson Crueso; none of us lives on a deserted island. Every one of us lives in society; and society includes several groups—some large, some small. In his everyday life, a man interacts with several groups. In some cases, his interactions are on person-to-person basis. In other cases, they are on person-to-group basis. In case, his needs, desires, goals and aspirations are bound to conflict with those of his fellowmen, at least on some occasions. Conflicts create a “hot house” atmosphere; they keep the individual under a state of stress. Ultimately, the stress must be resolved. Either the individual had to give up some of his goals but a better choice is adjustment. That is the individual will have to satisfy his desires in ways which the social situations permit.

Social adjustments are required in all areas of our life. Let us state the main ones. Adjustments are required within the family, the play group of early childhood, the school, the peer group, the interpersonal heterosexual relationships, the marital situation, the occupation, and so on. Further, no one’s needs remain static. So, the adjustable patterns must continuously undergo changes. Healthy adjustment neither requires “mule-like” stubbornness nor “whatever you say” attitude (complete social conformity). It requires a balanced combination of
firmness and flexibility. When the individual believes that his needs and demands are justified, he has to maintain his standpoint firmly. On the other hand, when he realizes that the others' viewpoints are worth considering, he has even to sacrifice his needs for the greater good of his social group.

An important step in deciding when to be firm and when to be flexible is to develop empathy. Involve looking at matters from the other person’s point of view. An empathic approach will most often lead to healthy adjustment.

3. Family adjustment:

The importance of family relationships in human adjustment has always been recognized. Let us consider the main aspects of the family that affect the individual’s adjustment. Satisfied and dissatisfied families: Satisfied families are those in which there are harmonious relationships among the family members. On the other hand, in unsatisfied families there is lack of harmony.

Studies have compared these two types of families with regard to (a) parent-child communication and (b) the family’s decision-making process. The results showed that satisfied families have a better communication process than the dissatisfied ones. That is, there is greater sharing of opinions between parents and adolescents. As a result, the decision-making process is based mostly on sharing of views.

Emotional attachment between the parents and the child: In emotionally warm homes, there are intense and long-lasting bonds of affection among family members. Cassidy (1988) found that such bonds have positive effects on self-esteem. The study by Sroufe and his co-workers (1983) showed that emotional adjustment of children brought up in such atmosphere is superior. Further, the positive effects of such adjustment persisted during adolescence.
Mental health of parents and children’s adjustment: Research has shown that parents who suffer from mental health problems transmit them to children. Of course, this does not involve heredity. Rather, the mother’s and the father’s abilities to bring up children suffer; and this is the threat to their children’s adjustment.

Broken homes: Loss of a parent by death or divorce affects the healthy development of a child’s personality. In the case of divorced parents, the child may not know which parent he loves more. Further, comparative studies on children from normal homes and broken homes show that there are more juvenile delinquents and adult criminals from broken homes than from normal homes.

A broken family affects the psychological well being of the remaining parent. And the harmful effects are greater in the case of widows, particularly in India. A study of Manju Mehta and others (2006) showed that the loss of the husband has a severe impact on the personal and social adjustment, health and life satisfaction of widows.

Father’s role in promoting child-adjustment: Studies have established that, in the vast majority of cases, the father’s presence in the home is essential for child adjustment. The three main ways are: (a) the father influences the mother’s attitude towards child management. (b) The father serves as a role for a boy. (c) In most homes, decisions about disciplining the child are taken by the father.

Faulty family patterns: During infancy and early childhood, the family is the main guiding influence on the child’s personality development. In the family, the child interacts with his parents and with his siblings. Of the two, the parent-child relationships are of greater importance.

4. Adjustment to school:
When a child joins school he faces problems in adjustment. Difficulties in adjustment to school arise due to the following causes:
Problems due to personal qualities:

Overindulged children are selfish. Rejected children wish to take revenge on society. Immature children do not realize consequences of their behavior. Such children may find it difficult to adjust to school discipline.

Problems due to social causes:

Children from lower-class families do not attach much value to education. If they cannot get attention in desirable ways, they may do so through mischief. Such “showing off” behavior is particularly common in rejected children and in children from antisocial families.

Children’s attitude to the school:

For some children school is a necessary evil; one has to join it. This is the attitude with which many lower-class children join school. On the other hand, middle-class and upper-class children expect school to prepare a person for earning a good living and for developing social skills. So it is more difficult for lower-class children to adjust well to the school situation.

Problems due to the school situation:

When a child joins school he has to get accustomed to a new way of life. Adjustment is required in four main areas. These are (1) school environment, (2) the child’s attitude to the teacher, (3) the personality of the teacher, and (4) the teacher’s attitude towards pupils.
School environment:

School environment is made up of many rules. These rules relate to the fixed timings for doing things, expected behavior in the classroom, Homework. Etc. Investigations by Stendler and Young show that most children get the feeling of being “grown-up” and self-important when they join school. However, children who have been over indulged at home find the school environment as restrictive. So as a relief from boredom of school life, they may engage in delinquent behavior.

The child’s attitude to the teacher:

When a child joins school, his teacher becomes the substitute for his mother. If the mother has been affectionate towards her child, the child is likely to have positive feelings for his teacher. The personality of the teacher: The child’s attitude towards the child is affected by the personality of the teacher too. Jersild found that children liked those teachers who had the following qualities:

- Human qualities – kind, cheerful, and good-tempered.
- Disciplinarian qualities- fair, consistent, impartial and respected.
- Physical qualities – neatly dressed, nice voice, and generally attractive.
- Teaching qualities- helpful, democratic (allows children a say in class affairs), interesting and enthusiastic.

Of these, democratic outlook of the teacher and his impartiality are the most important.

The teacher’s attitude towards pupils:

The “social climate” in the classroom depends upon the teacher’s behavior. The teacher’s attitudes, prejudices, and personal social values affect his behavior.
Investigations on teacher-pupil interactions show that the teacher’s response to a particular pupil can make the child feel “good” or “bad”.

**Adjustment and the peer group:**

For a majority of people being accepted as, “one of the gang” is highly important. This is so not only for young children’s adjustment to school but also for their long-term development. Peer group relationships provide opportunities for companionship, and are important sources of information about the self and others. Research has shown that children who are socially isolated from their peers are at risk of later maladjustment. The evidence shows that children who do not establish good relations with their school peers are more likely to show psychological problems throughout their school career and suffer from poor school performance.

**Adjustment during adolescence:**

During adolescence People begin to form more intimate relationships with peers than during childhood (Furman & Buhrmester, 1992). Some of the peers may become new sources of trust. Adolescents need these new relationships because information or supports from a parent are no more of much importance. (Cotterell 1992)

Several psychologists have attempted to understand the characteristics of adolescent-peer relationships. Chess (1992) found that adolescent females and males had similar numbers of peer relationships. However, females had stronger attachment to peers. Cotterel (1992) found that, in boys, there is a connection between peer attachment and self-image, particularly with regard to academic
adjustments. Lempers (1992) found that the impact of peer relations on adjustment is greater than that of parents.

**Interpersonal relations and adjustment:**

Late adolescence and young adulthood are the periods when interpersonal relationships become important for a person.

When children enter adolescence, they begin to form more long-lasting relationships with peers than during childhood. This is because adolescents have greater opportunities for independence from parents. According to Youniss (1980), relationships and interactions with others are the means through which people develop their own opinions and values. Attachment relationships based on long-lasting bonds of affection, have positive effects on self-esteem (Cassidy, 1988) and emotional adjustment (Sroufe & others, 1983).

**Characteristics of well-adjusted person:**

Maslow focused his research on extremely well-adjusted persons. He called such persons as self-actualizing individuals. In fact, such persons are very rare. However, these unusual men and women can serve as models for us.

A well-adjusted person is fairly successful in dealing with frustrations. The following are the characteristics of well-adjusted people:

1. **Practical and realistic attitude towards self, others and the world:**

Well-adjusted persons have a practical and realistic attitude towards themselves most of the time. They have fairly clear idea of their capacities and weaknesses. They accept themselves with all their limitations. Due to this, they have a positive self-concept. That is, they think of themselves as good and capable.
2. Ability to accept people and the world:

Well-adjusted persons feel good about themselves. So, they can accept other people even if they are different from them. This ability is seen in children who experience life as it is. The comparison to children is merely meant to indicate that well-adjusted people do not approach others with a prejudiced mind. They have basic trust in them.

3. Feeling of psychological security:

Due to their positive self-concept, well-adjusted persons feel psychologically secure. They are not over-anxious. So they can accept unpleasant emotions, such as anger and fear, in themselves. War-time studies showed that when a person is in danger and admits that he is afraid, fear does not become intolerable to him.

4. More efficient perception of reality:

Well-adjusted persons perceive people and situations in a realistic way. They see things as they are, and not as they wish them to be. So, when a problem arises, they can solve it more efficiently.

5. Able to give and receive affection:

Well-adjusted people are able to develop intimate relationships with others. Because of their self-confidence, they express their feelings freely.

6. Empathy:

Well-adjusted persons can understand others, because they have a capacity for empathy. Due to empathy, a well-adjusted person’s relationships with others are fairly harmonious. Their dealings with other people so not generate unnecessary tension.
7. **Ability to be productive:**

Well-adjusted persons are aware of their capacities. They use these capacities to a fuller extent. They attempt to solve problems, and not avoid them.

Further, they are success-oriented. That is, they approach work in a much more optimistic manner. So, they can attempt new jobs or take additional responsibilities without being afraid of failure.

8. **Creative:**

Mentally healthy persons are creative. This creativeness need not be in the usual forms of writing books, composing music, or producing artistic works. It can be more humble. The creativeness of mentally healthy persons means that they tend to approach their work in their own special way. For example, while doing a job, they explore new ideas or new approaches to it. As a result, the job generates excitement and appreciation for life. So, in this special sense of creativeness, there can be creative shoemakers, carpenters, or clerks.

9. **Ability to control one’s environment:**

Well-adjusted people try to change the circumstances in their favors. They have the courage to face the consequences of their actions and decisions.

10. **Flexibility:**

Mentally healthy persons have the ability to change themselves when the situation so demands. They can modify their behavior in line with the circumstances.
11. Independence from culture and environment:

Mentally healthy people rely on their own judgments about what should be done in a given situation. They are able to be independent of group pressures, including the climate of opinion generated by the mass media such as newspapers and television.

12. Democratic character:

Maslow maintained that mentally healthy persons are democratic. They practice democracy by recognizing the rights of others and by willingly listening to their viewpoints.

Often mentally healthy people are people who speak out when they see inequalities. That is why such men as Mahatma Gandhi are always included in the list of mentally healthy persons.

13. Knowing when to worry and when not to worry:

A mentally healthy person is realistic. He judges the situation to determine whether he has something to worry about. However, if he worries, it is effective worrying. For him, worrying is a means of finding a solution to the problem.

The above characteristics of well-adjusted personality are based on the Human potential Movement. The main psychologists who are leaders of this movement are Abraham Maslow and Karl Rogers.

Maladjustment:

When a person’s behavior does not possess the characteristics of a well-adjusted person, he is said to be maladjusted or poorly adjusted. Maladjusted person’s have certain characteristics. Before stating these, we may say that maladjusted behavior is learned.
**Failure in problem-solving techniques:**

Due to a general lack of self-confidence, a maladjusted person has poor capacity for dealing with everyday life situations.

**Excessive behavior:**

Maladjusted persons do not react to situations realistically. Their reactions are excessive. These make them indulge in such activities as excessive drinking, over-irritability, and over-anxiety.

Excessive behavior mainly occurs, because maladjusted people are unable to tolerate situations which often occur in real life. Examples of such situation are delay in the gratification of needs, competition, and failure in meeting the demands of parents, friends, and society.

**Disturbance of thought:**

Thought disturbances affect the perceptions and beliefs of maladjusted persons. The main features of these are the occurrence of hallucinations and delusions. (Hallucinations are perceptions for which there are no appropriate stimuli. Delusions are strong beliefs opposed to reality.) A person may see or hear things when there is nothing to be seen or heard. Or he may have beliefs which go against evidence. When thought disturbances become serious, a person becomes a neurotic or a psychotic. We shall deal with neuroses and psychoses.

**Emotional disturbances:**

Emotional reactions of a maladjusted person are extreme. They may involve apathy (almost complete lack of emotional feeling), excessive cheerfulness, or long-lasting depression.
Rigidity of behavior:

Maladjusted persons find it difficult to change their behavior. Hershey and Lugo report that a student with long hair came to them, very depressed. He said that he found it difficult to live at home, and he couldn’t get a job because of his long hair. The student was not prepared to cut his hair, even thought it would have solved his problem.

Psychosomatic disturbances:

These are bodily reactions which occur due to mental causes. Common examples of these are stomach ulcers, tension headaches and heart diseases caused by tension.

Interpersonal factors and developmental adjustment:

A fair number of studies have concluded that family and peers are important factors closely related to youth’s adjustment in school and career planning (Kenny, Blustein, Chaves, Grossman, Gallagher, 2003; Felsman & Blustein, 1999).

1. Family Factors:

Secondary school youths’ career development has a close tie to their families. Direct-admitted students face the decision to apply for direct admission at later stage of junior high school, and the process of that decision-making is highly heeded to. Past studies show that in the process of career decision-making, influences from families, especially attitudes hold by parents, play as a key factor (O’Brien & Fassinger, 1993). How does the decision of direct admission come about in the first place? What roles do their families play in such process? Does attitudes hold by
families favor students’ adjustment when entering schools? These are the questions this research attempts to answer.

### 2. Peers and Teachers Factors:

Developmental Psychologists believe that peers and friends greatly affect individual’s development and adjustment. Having good friends not only helps youths feel more satisfied with schools and influence positively on academics (Epstein, 1983), but also facilitates youths to better perceive and understand themselves. Furthermore, having close friends enhances youths’ sense of safety when facing career decision and planning as well. By the same token, gaining supports from teachers influences positively on their sense of self-determination and efficacy (Guay, Boggiano, & Vallerand, 2001).

Since each school accepted a fixed ratio of direct-admitted students, it is highly probable that they know some of their schoolmates back from junior high schools when they enter senior high departments. Many of them already know who will be their future schoolmates even before they start senior high schools. Besides, running into teachers back from junior high departments is also not an uncommon scenario. All these factors might work upon their school adjustment one way or the other, and this research aims to investigate into the potential influences the above factors bring.

With the above-mentioned, the author recognizes the imperative and value of understanding direct-admitted students’ life adjustment issues, particularly among those are the perceived obstacles in the adjustment process, potential protective factors in which process, and the coping strategies direct-admitted students develop accordingly. There is a rationale behind the direct admission design in combined high schools, and probing into students’ adjustment issues after entering senior high
departments set evaluative indicators for the recruiting ratio as policy-implementation references to school and educational authorities. Investigating into direct-admitted students’ career and life adjustment not only lays ground for a life adjustment model for direct-admitted students, but also provides an orientation for future comers and a practical base for teachers and guidance counselors.

In conclusion, by taking students who were direct-admitted and have graduated from senior high schools as subjects and explore their experiences in their adjustment processes.

**Relation between Sex and Adjustment:**

Adjustment problems that occur during adolescence are the result of a combination of biological changes and personality development. Adolescents seek to separate themselves psychologically from their parents and to establish their own identity and they become physically and sexually mature.

Research has show that such ambivalence is not necessarily accompanied by unhappiness or emotional troubles that adolescents generally like and respect their parents, and that serious adolescent rebellion is rare (Offer, Ostrov, and Howard, 1981)

**Work Adjustment Theory:**

Recent application of work adjustment theory on school settings and the exploration of students’ adjustment issues is gaining attention. Proposed by Dawis and Lofquist (1984), they hold that if individual’s values and needs can maintain correspondence with work environment, individual could gain satisfaction with their job, and work environment in turn can find satisfactoriness with the worker. If work adjustment is
to be achieved, a fit between individual’s work values, needs and ability requirements and work environment must be achieved. Fits between the two parties modulate flexibly as work environment varies.

According to the theory of work adjustment, adjustment style refers to the way individual respond to professional environment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). Adjustment style consists of four variables which account for the relationships between individual and work: flexibility, activeness, re-activeness and perseverance. Maximovich (1998) points out that in terms of activeness and re-activeness, if individual is able to identify that changes could be made within individual or environment, and moderate actively or tolerate reactively, both situations favor work adjustment. In recent years, the work adjustment theory is applied to educational settings. Achter and Lubinski (2003) found out that the concept of satisfaction and satisfactoriness can be applied to 13-year-old gifted youths to approach school adjustment issues of gifted youths.

In which case, satisfaction comes from the youth’s performance, which is supported by values and needs, while satisfactoriness represents ability, which refers to results of academic assessment and aptitude tests.

Along the same line, we could expect if satisfaction of direct-admitted students corresponds to satisfactoriness of academic ability, a well-adjusted state can be identified. Discrepancies between satisfaction and satisfactoriness predict difficulties in adjustment, and further lay ground for ill adjustment and pressures. The aim of this research is to explore direct-admitted students’ adjustment difficulties, and to seek proper guidance intervention strategies.
Achievement motivation:

One of the important needs present to some degree in all human beings is the “need for achievement” or the need to attain excellence and higher level of performance. People in whom the need for achievement is strong seek difficult work and improve their task performance. They are future oriented, aspire for higher goals and persist on the task chosen. They are task oriented and prefer to work on tasks that are challenging and on which their performance can be evaluated in some way. It may be by comparing it with other person’s performance in terms of some standard. Achievement motivation can be seen in many areas of human Endeavour such as job, school or sports competition. The differences in early life experiences are found to be related to the strength of achievement motivation in later stage. The expectations parents have from their Children also play an important role in the development of achievement motivation. Parents, who expect their children to work hard, encourage and praise them for their performance do so as to promote achievement oriented behavior. The degree of achievement oriented behavior depends on many factors. One of these is “fear of failure”. It inhibits the expression of achievement behavior. When someone is successful in school, sports and other activities, we say that achievement motivation is very strong in him or her.

Definition of achievement motivation:

“Achievement motivation is defined as a need for success or the attainment of excellence”.

“The social motive to accomplish something of value or importance, to meet standard of excellence in what one does”.
“Achievement motivation is based on reaching success and achieving all of our aspirations in life,”

Need for achievement (n-ach) was one of the first social motives to be studied in detail (McClelland et al., 1953) and research into this motive continues today (Spence, 1983). As a result, we know quite a bit about it. People in whom the need for achievement is strong seek to become accomplished and to improve their task performance. They are task oriented and prefer to work on tasks that are challenging and on which their performance can be evaluated in some way, either by comparing it with other people’s performance or in terms of some other standard. More formally, “achievement is task-oriented behavior that allows the individual’s performance to be evaluated according to some internally or externally imposed criterion, that involves the individual in competing with others, or that otherwise involves some standard of excellence” (Smith, 1969; Spence & Helmreich, 1983, p.12) Achievement motivation can be seen in many areas of human endeavor on the job, in school, in home making, or in athletic competition.

The Source of Achievement Motivation:

Why are some people high in the need for achievement? Since the social motives including the need for achievement are largely learned, the general answer must be that differences in early life experiences lead to variations in the amount of achievement motivation (and other social motives, as well). More specifically, children learn by copying the behavior of their parents and other important people who serve as models. Through such observational learning (Bandura & Walters, 1963) Children take on, or adopt, many characteristics of the model, including the
need for achievement if the model possesses this motive to a marked degree (Eccles (Parsons), 1983).

The expectations parents have for their children are also said to be important in the development of achievement motivation (Eccles (Parsons), 1983). Parents who expect their children to work hard and to strive for success will encourage them to do so and praise them for achievement directed behavior. A specific set of parental expectations related to achievement motivation concerns ideas about when children should become independent in skills such as “standing up for one’s rights.” “Knowing one’s way around town.” Playing with minimal supervision, and, in general, doing things for one self.

**Achievement Motivation and Behavior:**

The degree to which people with strong underlying achievement motivation show achievement oriented behavior depends on many factors. One of these is another motive fear of failure which is said to inhibit the expression of achievement behavior (Atkinson, 1964; Atkinson & Birch, 1978). For people in whom fear of failure is low relative to the need for achievement, achievement motivation expresses itself in many ways (McClelland & Winter, 1969; Hoyenga & Hoyenga, 1984).

1) High n-achievement people prefer to work on moderately challenging tasks which promise success. They do not like to work on very easy tasks, where there is no challenge and so no satisfaction of their achievement needs; nor do they like very difficult tasks, where the likelihood of their success is low. Thus people high in n-achievement are likely to be realistic in the tasks, jobs, and vocations
they select; that is they are likely to make a good match between their abilities and what will be demanded of them.

2) High n-achievement people like tasks in which their performance can be compared with that of others; they like feedback on “how they are doing.”

3) High n-achievement people tend to be persistent in working on tasks they perceive as career-related or as reflecting those personal characteristics (such as intelligence) which are involved in “getting ahead.”

4) When High n-achievement people are successful, they tend to raise their levels of aspiration in a realistic way so that they will move on to slightly more challenging and difficult tasks.

5) High n-achievement people like to work in situations in which they have some control over the outcome; they are not gamblers.

These achievements related behaviors tend to be present in many men and some women who are successful in business and in certain professions.

In business, in school, and in many professions, one would expect achievement motivation to be an important predictor of success, and, indeed, it often is. Common sense would also predict that the most successful people would be those who coupled strong achievement motivation with strong competitive motivation. Some interesting current research, however, seems to question this common sense idea.

The most successful people identified in this research scored high on achievement motivation, or work orientation, but low on competitive motivation (Spence & Helmreich, 1983). More and more factors which modify the expression of this important social motive achievement motivation are being discovered.

Motivation is important because it contributes to and predicts, along with other variables, more visible outcomes such as achievement. Achievement motivation
research has been developed in four stages. In stage one during the 1940s, the experimental study of motivation was initially concerned with the search for the motors of behavior and was linked with concepts such as instinct, desire, arousal and need (Spence, 1958). In stage two during the 1960s, there was the more general shift in motivational psychology away from mechanism toward cognition (Weiner, 1972). It was gradually believed that if reward was perceived as controlling, then it undermined future effort, whereas reward perceived as positive feedback was motivating (Deci, 1975). Furthermore, reward for easy task was a cue to low ability, a belief that inhibits motivation, whereas reward for difficult task communicated that hard work was expended in conjunction with high ability, a belief that augments motivation. As cognitive approach was initially accepted, researchers began to concentrate on human rather than infra human behavior with studies associated with expectancy, anxiety about failure, locus of control and achievement needs. Motivation determined by what one expected to get and the likelihood of getting it was the central conception in expectancy-value theories (Atkinson, 1964; Rotter, 1966). In stage three during the 1980s, there was a greater focus on self-esteem, curiosity, attribution theory, and particularly achievement strivings (Ball, 1982). In addition, the beginnings of attention paid to the self were observed in studies of self-ascription for success and failure, self-concept and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977; Shavelson, Hubner, & Stanton, 1976), finally in stage four during the 1990s, there are voluminous number of studies on motivation from a cognitive perspective.

**Effect of Achievement Motivation on Behavior:**

Motivation can be defined as the driving force behind all the actions of an individual. The influence of an individual's needs and desires both have a strong
Motivation is the basic drive for all of our actions. Motivation refers to the dynamics of our behavior, which involves our needs, desires, and ambitions in life. Achievement motivation is based on reaching success and achieving all of our aspirations in life. Achievement goals can affect the way a person performs a task and represent a desire to show competence (Harackiewicz, Barron, Carter, Lento, & Elliot, 1997). These basic physiological motivational drives affect our natural behavior in different environments. Most of our goals are incentive-based and can vary from basic hunger to the need for love and the establishment of mature sexual relationships. Our motives for achievement can range from biological needs to satisfying creative desires or realizing success in competitive ventures. Motivation is important because it affects our lives every day. All of our behaviors, actions, thoughts, and beliefs are influenced by our inner drive to succeed.

**Implicit and Self-Attributed Motives:**

Motivational researchers share the view that achievement behavior is an interaction between situational variables and the individual subject's motivation to achieve. Two motives are directly involved in the prediction of behavior, implicit and explicit. Implicit motives are spontaneous impulses to act, also known as task performances,
and are aroused through incentives inherent to the task. Explicit motives are expressed through deliberate choices and more often stimulated for extrinsic reasons. Also, individuals with strong implicit needs to achieve goals set higher internal standards, whereas others tend to adhere to the societal norms. These two motives often work together to determine the behavior of the individual in direction and passion (Brunstein & Maier, 2005).

Explicit and implicit motivations have a compelling impact on behavior. Task behaviors are accelerated in the face of a challenge through implicit motivation, making performing a task in the most effective manner the primary goal. A person with a strong implicit drive will feel pleasure from achieving a goal in the most efficient way. The increase in effort and overcoming the challenge by mastering the task satisfies the individual. However, the explicit motives are built around a person's self-image. This type of motivation shapes a person's behavior based on their own self-view and can influence their choices and responses from outside cues. The primary agent for this type of motivation is perception or perceived ability. Many theorists still cannot agree whether achievement is based on mastering one's skills or striving to promote a better self-image (Brunstein & Maier, 2005). Most research is still unable to determine whether these different types of motivation would result in different behaviors in the same environment.

**The Hierarchal Model of Achievement Motivation:**

Achievement motivation has been conceptualized in many different ways. Our understanding of achievement-relevant effects, cognition, and behavior has improved. Despite being similar in nature, many achievement motivation approaches have been developed separately, suggesting that most achievement
motivation theories are in concordance with one another instead of competing. Motivational researchers have sought to promote a hierarchal model of approach and avoidance achievement motivation by incorporating the two prominent theories: the achievement motive approach and the achievement goal approach. Achievement motives include the need for achievement and the fear of failure. These are the more predominant motives that direct our behavior toward positive and negative outcomes. Achievement goals are viewed as more solid cognitive representations pointing individuals toward a specific end. There are three types of these achievement goals: a performance-approach goal, a performance-avoidance goal, and a mastery goal. A performance-approach goal is focused on attaining competence relative to others, a performance-avoidance goal is focused on avoiding incompetence relative to others, and a mastery goal is focused on the development of competence itself and of task mystery. Achievement motives can be seen as direct predictors of achievement-relevant circumstances. Thus, achievement motives are said to have an indirect or distal influence, and achievement goals are said to have a direct or proximal influence on achievement-relevant outcomes (Elliot & McGregor, 1999).

These motives and goals are viewed as working together to regulate achievement behavior. The hierarchal model presents achievement goals as predictors for performance outcomes. The model is being further conceptualized to include more approaches to achievement motivation. One weakness of the model is that it does not provide an account of the processes responsible for the link between achievement goals and performance. As this model is enhanced, it becomes more useful in predicting the outcomes of achievement-based behaviors (Elliot & McGregor, 1999).
Achievement Goals and Information Seeking:

Theorists have proposed that people's achievement goals affect their achievement-related attitudes and behaviors. Two different types of achievement-related attitudes include task-involvement and ego-involvement. Task-involvement is a motivational state in which a person's main goal is to acquire skills and understanding whereas the main goal in ego-involvement is to demonstrate superior abilities (Butler, 1999). One example of an activity where someone strives to attain mastery and demonstrate superior ability is schoolwork. However situational cues, such as the person's environment or surroundings, can affect the success of achieving a goal at any time. Studies confirm that a task-involvement activity more often results in challenging attributions and increasing effort (typically in activities providing an opportunity to learn and develop competence) than in an ego-involvement activity. Intrinsic motivation, which is defined as striving to engage in activity because of self-satisfaction, is more prevalent when a person is engaged in task-involved activities. When people are more ego-involved, they tend to take on a different conception of their ability, where differences in ability limit the effectiveness of effort. Ego-involved individuals are driven to succeed by outperforming others, and their feelings of success depend on maintaining self-worth and avoiding failure. On the other hand, task-involved individuals tend to adopt their conception of ability as learning through applied effort (Butler, 1999). Therefore less able individuals will feel more successful as long as they can satisfy an effort to learn and improve. Ego-invoking conditions tend to produce less favorable responses to failure and difficulty.

Competence moderated attitudes and behaviors are more prevalent in ego-involved activities than task-involved. Achievement does not moderate intrinsic motivation in
task-involving conditions, in which people of all levels of ability could learn to improve. In ego-involving conditions, intrinsic motivation was higher among higher achievers who demonstrated superior ability than in low achievers who could not demonstrate such ability (Butler, 1999). These different attitudes toward achievement can also be compared in information seeking.

Task- and ego-involving settings bring about different goals, conceptions of ability, and responses to difficulty. They also promote different patterns of information seeking. People of all levels of ability will seek information relevant to attaining their goal of improving mastery in task-involving conditions. However they need to seek information regarding self-appraisal to gain a better understanding of their self-capacity (Butler, 1999). On the other hand people in ego-involving settings are more interested in information about social comparisons, assessing their ability relative to others.

**Self-Worth Theory in Achievement Motivation:**

Self-worth theory states that in certain situations students stand to gain by not trying and deliberately withholding effort. If poor performance is a threat to a person's sense of self-esteem, this lack of effort is likely to occur. This most often occurs after an experience of failure. Failure threatens self-estimates of ability and creates uncertainty about an individual's capability to perform well on a subsequent basis. If the following performance turns out to be poor, then doubts concerning ability are confirmed. Self-worth theory states that one way to avoid threat to self-esteem is by withdrawing effort. Withdrawing effort allows failure to be attributed to lack of effort rather than low ability which reduces overall risk to the value of one's self-esteem. When poor performance is likely to reflect poor ability, a situation of high
threat is created to the individual's intellect. On the other hand, if an excuse allows poor performance to be attributed to a factor unrelated to ability, the threat to self-esteem and one's intellect is much lower (Thompson, Davidson, & Barber, 1995). A study was conducted on students involving unsolvable problems to test some assumptions of the self-worth theory regarding motivation and effort. The results showed that there was no evidence of reported reduction of effort despite poorer performance when the tasks were described as moderately difficult as compared with tasks much higher in difficulty. The possibility was raised that low effort may not be responsible for the poor performance of students in situations which create threats to self-esteem. Two suggestions were made, one being that students might unconsciously withdraw effort, and the other stating that students may reduce effort as a result of withdrawing commitment from the problem. Regardless of which suggestion is true, self-worth theory assumes that individuals have a reduced tendency to take personal responsibility for failure (Thompson, Davidson, & Barber, 1995).

**Avoidance Achievement Motivation:**

In everyday life, individuals strive to be competent in their activities. In the past decade, many theorists have utilized a social-cognitive achievement goal approach in accounting for individuals striving for competence. An achievement goal is commonly defined as the purpose for engaging in a task, and the specific type of goal taken on creates a framework for how individuals experience their achievement pursuits. Achievement goal theorists commonly identify two distinct ideas toward competence: a performance goal focused on demonstrating ability when compared to others, and a mastery goal focused on the development of competence and task
mystery. Performance goals are hypothesized to produce vulnerability to certain response patterns in achievement settings such as preferences for easy tasks, withdrawal of effort in the face of failure, and decreased task enjoyment. Mastery goals can lead to a motivational pattern that creates a preference for moderately challenging tasks, persistence in the face of failure, and increased enjoyment of tasks (Elliot & Church, 1997).

Most achievement goal theorists conceptualize both performance and mastery goals as the "approach" forms of motivation. Existing classical achievement motivation theorists claimed that activities are emphasized and oriented toward attaining success or avoiding failure, while the achievement goal theorists focused on their approach aspect. More recently, an integrated achievement goal conceptualization was proposed that includes both modern performance and mastery theories with the standard approach and avoidance features. In this basis for motivation, the performance goal is separated into an independent approach component and avoidance component, and three achievement orientations are conceived: a mastery goal focused on the development of competence and task mystery, a performance-approach goal directed toward the attainment of favorable judgments of competence, and a performance-avoidance goal centered on avoiding unfavorable judgments of competence. The mastery and performance-approach goals are characterized as self-regulating to promote potential positive outcomes and processes to absorb an individual in their task or to create excitement leading to a mastery pattern of achievement results. Performance-avoidance goals, however, are characterized as promoting negative circumstances. This avoidance orientation creates anxiety, task distraction, and a pattern of helpless achievement outcomes. Intrinsic motivation, which is the enjoyment of an interest in an activity for its own sake, plays a role in
achievement outcomes as well. Performance-avoidance goals undermined intrinsic motivation while both mastery and performance-approach goals helped to increase it (Elliot & Church, 1997).

Most achievement theorists and philosophers also identify task-specific competence expectancies as an important variable in achievement settings. Achievement goals are created in order to obtain competence and avoid failure. These goals are viewed as implicit (non-conscious) or self-attributed (conscious) and direct achievement behavior. Competence expectancies were considered an important variable in classical achievement motivation theories, but now appear to only be moderately emphasized in contemporary perspectives (Elliot & Church, 1997).

**Approach and Avoidance Goals:**

Achievement motivation theorists focus their research attention on behaviors involving competence. Individuals aspire to attain competence or may strive to avoid incompetence, based on the earlier approach-avoidance research and theories. The desire for success and the desire to avoid failure were identified as critical determinants of aspiration and behavior by a theorist named Lewin. In his achievement motivation theory, McClelland proposed that there are two kinds of achievement motivation, one oriented around avoiding failure and the other around the more positive goal of attaining success. Atkinson, another motivational theorist, drew from the work of Lewin and McClelland in forming his need-achievement theory, a mathematical framework that assigned the desire to succeed and the desire to avoid failure as important determinants in achievement behavior (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996).
Theorists introduced an achievement goal approach to achievement motivation more recently. These theorists defined achievement goals as the reason for activities related to competence. Initially, these theorists followed in the footsteps of Lewin, McClelland, and Atkinson by including the distinction between approach and avoidance motivation into the structure of their assumptions. Three types of achievement goals were created, two of which being approach orientations and the third and avoidance type. One approach type was a task involvement goal focused on the development of competence and task mystery, and the other being a performance or ego involvement goal directed toward attaining favorable judgments of competence. The avoidance orientation involved an ego or performance goal aimed at avoiding unfavorable judgments of competence. These new theories received little attention at first and some theorists bypassed them with little regard. Motivational theorists shifted away and devised other conceptualizations such as Dweck's performance-learning goal dichotomy with approach and avoidance components or Nicholls' ego and task orientations, which he characterized as two forms of approach motivation (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996).

Presently, achievement goal theory is the predominant approach to the analysis of achievement motivation. Most contemporary theorists use the frameworks of Dweck's and Nicholls' revised models in two important ways. First, most theorists institute primary orientations toward competence, by either differentiating between mastery and ability goals or contrasting task and ego involvement. A contention was raised toward the achievement goal frameworks on whether or not they are conceptually similar enough to justify a convergence of the mastery goal form (learning, task involvement and mastery) with the performance goal form (ability and performance, ego involvement, competition). Secondly, most modern theorists
characterized both mastery and performance goals as approach forms of motivation, or they failed to consider approach and avoidance as independent motivational tendencies within the performance goal orientation (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996). The type of orientation adopted at the outset of an activity creates a context for how individuals interpret, evaluate, and act on information and experiences in an achievement setting. Adoption of a mastery goal is hypothesized to produce a mastery motivational pattern characterized by a preference for moderately challenging tasks, persistence in the face of failure, a positive stance toward learning, and enhanced task enjoyment. A helpless motivational response, however, is the result of the adoption of a performance goal orientation. This includes a preference for easy or difficult tasks, effort withdrawal in the face of failure, shifting the blame of failure to lack of ability, and decreased enjoyment of tasks. Some theorists include the concept of perceived competence as an important agent in their assumptions. Mastery goals are expected to have a uniform effect across all levels of perceived competence, leading to a mastery pattern. Performance goals can lead to mastery in individuals with a high perceived competence and a helpless motivational pattern in those with low competence (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996).

Three motivational goal theories have recently been proposed based on the tri-variant framework by achievement goal theorists: mastery, performance-approach, and performance-avoidance. Performance-approach and mastery goals both represent approach orientations according to potential positive outcomes, such as the attainment of competence and task mystery. These forms of behavior and self-regulation commonly produce a variety of affective and perceptual-cognitive processes that facilitate optimal task engagement. They challenge sensitivity to information relevant to success and effective concentration in the activity, leading to
Intrinsic Motivation and Achievement Goals:

Intrinsic motivation is defined as the enjoyment of an interest in an activity for its own sake. Fundamentally viewed as an approach form of motivation, intrinsic motivation is identified as an important component of achievement goal theory. Most achievement goal and intrinsic motivational theorists argue that mastery goals are facilitative of intrinsic motivation and related mental processes and performance goals create negative effects. Mastery goals are said to promote intrinsic motivation by fostering perceptions of challenge, encouraging task involvement, generating excitement, and supporting self-determination while performance goals are the opposite. Performance goals are portrayed as undermining intrinsic motivation by instilling perceptions of threat, disrupting task involvement, and creating anxiety and pressure (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996).

An alternative set of predictions may be derived from the approach-avoidance framework. Both performance-approach and mastery goals are focused on attaining
competence and foster intrinsic motivation. More specifically, in performance-approach or mastery orientations, individuals perceive the achievement setting as a challenge, and this likely will create excitement, encourage cognitive functioning, increase concentration and task absorption, and direct the person toward success and mastery of information which facilitates intrinsic motivation. The performance-avoidance goal is focused on avoiding incompetence, where individuals see the achievement setting as a threat and seek to escape it (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996). This orientation is likely to elicit anxiety and withdrawal of effort and cognitive resources while disrupting concentration and motivation.

**Personal Goals Analysis:**

In recent years, theorists have increasingly relied on various goal constructs to account for action in achievement settings. Four levels of goal representation have been introduced: task-specific guidelines for performance, such as performing a certain action, situation-specific orientations that represent the purpose of achievement activity, such as demonstrating competence relative to others in a situation, personal goals that symbolize achievement pursuits, such as getting good grades, and self-standards and future self-images, including planning for future goals and successes. These goal-based achievement motivation theories have focused almost exclusively on approach forms behavior but in recent years have shifted more toward avoidance (Elliot & Sheldon, 1997).

Motivation is an important factor in everyday life. Our basic behaviors and feelings are affected by our inner drive to succeed over life's challenges while we set goals for ourselves. Our motivation also promotes our feelings of competence and self-worth as we achieve our goals. It provides us with means to compete with others in order to better ourselves and to seek out new information to learn and absorb.
Individuals experience motivation in different ways, whether it is task- or ego-based in nature. Some people strive to achieve their goals for personal satisfaction and self-improvement while others compete with their surroundings in achievement settings to simply be classified as the best. Motivation and the resulting behavior are both affected by the many different models of achievement motivation. These models, although separate, are very similar in nature and theory. The mastery and performance achievement settings each have a considerable effect on how an individual is motivated. Each theorist has made a contribution to the existing theories in today's achievement studies. More often than not, theorists build off of each other's work to expand old ideas and create new ones. Achievement motivation is an intriguing field, and I find myself more interested after reviewing similar theories from different perspectives.

**David e McClelland's motivational needs theory:**

American David Clarence McClelland (1917-98) achieved his doctorate in psychology at Yale in 1941 and became professor at Wesleyan University. He then taught and lectured, including a spell at Harvard from 1956, where with colleagues for twenty years he studied particularly motivation and the achievement need. He began his McBer consultancy in 1963, helping industry assess and train staff, and later taught at Boston University, from 1987 until his death. McClelland is chiefly known for his work on achievement motivation, but his research interests extended to personality and consciousness. David McClelland pioneered workplace motivational thinking, developing achievement-based motivational theory and models, and promoted improvements in employee assessment methods, advocating competency-based assessments and tests, arguing them to be better than traditional
IQ and personality-based tests. His ideas have since been widely adopted in many organizations, and relate closely to the theory of Frederick Herzberg.

David McClelland is most noted for describing three types of motivational need, which he identified in his 1961 book, The Achieving Society:

*Achievement motivation (n-ach)*

*Authority/power motivation (n-pow)*

*Affiliation motivation (n-aff)*

**David McClelland’s needs-based motivational model:**

These needs are found to varying degrees in all workers and managers, and this mix of motivational needs characterizes a person's or manager's style and behavior, both in terms of being motivated and in the management and motivation others.

**Achievement Need (n-ach):**

Achievement is reflected in stories about attaining challenging goals, setting new records, successful completion of difficult tasks, and doing something not done before.

High need achievers prefer a job in which success depends on effort and ability rather than on chance and factors beyond their control (locus of control). They prefer tasks that enable them to exercise their skills and initiation in problem solving. They want frequent and specific feedback about performance so they can enjoy the experience of making progress toward objectives. People scoring high are often found in jobs such as sales representative, real estate agent, producer of entertainment events, and owner-manager of small business. For managers in large organizations, moderate to high achievement is secondary to higher power needs. If
achievement is dominant, the manager may try to achieve objectives alone rather than through team development.

**Power Needs (n-pow):**

A high need for power may be expressed as "personalized power" or "socialized power." People with high personalized power may have little inhibition or self control, and they exercise power impulsively. Correlated with this are tendencies to be rude, excessive use of alcohol, sexual harassment, and collecting symbols of power (e.g., big offices, desks, fancy cars, etc.). When they give advice or support, it is with strategic intent to further bolster their own status. They demand loyalty to their leadership rather than to the organization. When the leader leaves the organization there is likely disorder and breakdown of team morale and direction.

Socialized power need is most often associated with effective leadership. These leaders direct their power in socially positive ways that benefit others and the organization rather than only contributing to the leader's status and gain. They seek power because it is through power that tasks are accomplished. They are more hesitant to use power in a manipulative manner, are less narcissistic and defensive, accumulate fewer material possessions or symbols of power or status, have a longer range perspective, and are more willing to receive consultation and advice. They realize that power must be distributed and shared, and that everyone must have a sense of influence over their own jobs. Effective leaders empower others who use that power to enact and further the leader's vision for the organization. For technical managers, need for achievement was predictive of advancement through lower levels of management, but power was predictive of higher levels of attainment.
Affiliation Need (n-aff):

Affiliation themes are revealed in stories about establishing or restoring close and friendly relationships, joining groups, participating in pleasant social activities, and enjoying shared activities with family or friends. It reflects behaviors toward others that are cooperative, supportive, and friendly and which value belonging and conformity to the group. They obtain great satisfaction from being liked and accepted by others, and prefer to work with others who prefer group harmony and cohesion.

A person low in affiliation tends to be a loner who is uncomfortable socializing with others except for a few close friends or family (introversion?). They may lack motivation or energy to maintain high social contacts in networking, group presentations, public relations, and building close personal relations with peers and subordinates so necessary for most managers.

Those with strong n-aff are reluctant to let work interfere with harmonious relationships. Moderate n-aff is related to effective management, since strong needs often lead to avoidance of unpopular decisions, permitting exceptions to rules, and showing favoritism to friends. This often leads to subordinates feeling confused about rules, playing to the manager's likes, and becoming anxious about what might happen next (inequity).

McClelland said that most people possess and exhibit a combination of these characteristics. Some people exhibit a strong bias to a particular motivational need and this motivational or needs 'mix' consequently affects their behavior and working/managing style. McClelland suggested that a strong n-affil 'affiliation-motivation' undermines a manager's objectivity, because of their need to be liked, and that this affects a manager's decision-making capability. A strong n-pow
'authority-motivation' will produce a determined work ethic and commitment to the organization, and while n-pow people are attracted to the leadership role; they may not possess the required flexibility and people-centered skills. McClelland argues that n-ach people with strong 'achievement motivation' make the best leaders, although there can be a tendency to demand too much of their staff in the belief that they are all similarly and highly achievement-focused and results driven, which of course most people are not.

McClelland's particular fascination was for achievement motivation, and this laboratory experiment illustrates one aspect of his theory about the affect of achievement on people's motivation. McClelland asserted via this experiment that while most people do not possess a strong achievement-based motivation, those who do, display a consistent behavior in setting goals:

Volunteers were asked to throw rings over pegs rather like the fairground game; no distance was stipulated, and most people seemed to throw from arbitrary, random distances, sometimes close, sometimes farther away. However a small group of volunteers, whom McClelland suggested were strongly achievement-motivated, took some care to measure and test distances to produce an ideal challenge - not too easy, and not impossible. Interestingly a parallel exists in biology, known as the 'overload principle', which is commonly applied to fitness and exercising, i.e., in order to develop fitness and/or strength the exercise must be sufficiently demanding to increase existing levels, but not so demanding as to cause damage or strain. McClelland identified the same need for a 'balanced challenge' in the approach of achievement-motivated people.

McClelland contrasted achievement-motivated people with gamblers, and dispelled a common pre-conception that n-ach 'achievement-motivated' people are big risk
takers. On the contrary - typically, achievement-motivated individuals set goals which they can influence with their effort and ability, and as such the goal is considered to be achievable. This determined results-driven approach is almost invariably present in the character make-up of all successful business people and entrepreneurs.

McClelland suggested other characteristics and attitudes of achievement-motivated people:

- Achievement is more important than material or financial reward.
- Achieving the aim or task gives greater personal satisfaction than receiving praise or recognition.
- Financial reward is regarded as a measurement of success, not an end in itself.
- Security is not prime motivator, nor is status.
- Feedback is essential, because it enables measurement of success, not for reasons of praise or recognition (the implication here is that feedback must be reliable, quantifiable and factual).
- Achievement-motivated people constantly seek improvements and ways of doing things better.
- Achievement-motivated people will logically favors jobs and responsibilities that naturally satisfy their needs, i.e. offer flexibility and opportunity to set and achieve goals, e.g., sales and business management, and entrepreneurial roles.

McClelland firmly believed that achievement-motivated people are generally the ones who make things happen and get results, and that this extends to getting results through the organization of other people and resources, although as stated earlier,
they often demand too much of their staff because they priorities achieving the goal above the many varied interests and needs of their people.

Interesting comparisons and relationships can be drawn between McClelland's motivation types, and the characteristics defined in other behavioral models, eg:

**Atkinson's Achievement Motivation Theory:**

John Atkinson studied the psychology of motivation in the 1960s, building upon the work of two other authors. Atkinson's achievement motivation theory took into account fear of failure in avoidance of achievement activity.

Recognizing the complexity of motivation, Atkinson (1975, 1964) has extended the theory of achievement motivation to include the kinds of variables stressed by Tolman and Lewin, among others. Behavior is thus seen to be a goal relating process, involving a motive and the person’s expectancies regarding the goal. Atkinson analyzes goal situations in which the person will be evaluated with reference to some standard of excellence. He distinguishes a tendency to achieve success from a fear of failure (a tendency to avoid failure). Individuals that is high in the achievement motive is characterized by the former tendency more than the latter, whereas the opposite is true for individuals low in the achievement motive. The net intensity of the motive, as manifested in behavior, depends on the difficulty of the task. On the one hand, if the goal is perceived as easy to attain, then the person will have a high expectancy of succeeding that is, the probability of success will be great; the opposite would be the case with a difficult task. On the other hand, the easier the task, the less incentive it offers for attaining the goal. These considerations apply in reverse fashion for persons high in the motive to avoid failure, in contrast.
with those high in the motive to achieve success. That is, an easy task is low in the probability of failure, and high in the incentive value of avoiding failure.

When we work through the rest of the calculations, it is evident that there is a curvilinear relation between task difficulty and resultant motivation level. Both easy and difficult tasks elicit low tendencies, whereas tasks of intermediate difficulty bring about the strongest motivation.

A simple test of the theory would be to expose subjects to varying task conditions in order to determine choice or liking for different degrees of risk, or difficulty. For example, Atkinson and Litwin (1960) had their subjects play a ring toss game in which shots could be taken from various distances and thus with different degrees of risk. The results confirmed the hypothesis that subjects high in achievement to a much greater degree prefer intermediate distances, compared to those low in achievement.

There is evidence, also that person high in achievement will work longer at a task and make higher scores than persons low in achievement (Atkinson and Litwin, 1960). These tendencies, however, depend on other variables, such as the difficulty of the task (Feather, 1961). Thus subjects who are high in achievement are more persistent in an easy than in a difficult task; on the other hand, subjects low in achievement are more persistent in difficult tasks.

**Anticipation Factors:**

Building on their research, Atkinson theorized that people with a high need for achievement anticipate success more than they do failure, in contrast to people who seem to have a low need for achievement.
High Achievement Challenge Level:

Atkinson discovered that those with a high need for achievement typically chose moderately challenging tasks over easy or difficult ones.

Low Achievement Challenge Level:

In contrast, people with a fear of failure not only avoided moderately challenging tasks in favor of very easy ones; they also chose very difficult tasks.

Rationalization:

Atkinson theorized that the very difficult task choices by people with low achievement motivation were their chance to explain away failure because the task was too hard for most people to accomplish.

Characteristics of High Achievement Motivation:

Characteristics of individuals with high achievement motivation include an orientation toward problem-solving and moderate challenges, according to theorists like John Murray, David C. McClelland and John Atkinson. These individuals also place a high emphasis on accomplishment and success.

People with high achievement motivation are often strong problem solvers.

Moderate Challenge:

Individuals with high achievement motivation prefer tasks and problems that involve moderate levels of difficulty. Usually, these individuals gravitate toward challenging but achievable goals where their abilities and efforts can affect the outcome.
**Personal Rewards:**
Instead of deriving motivation from the potential for rewards, individuals with high achievement motivation use rewards, such as professional recognition and financial gain, as a way to measure their accomplishments. These individuals place a higher value on a personal sense of achievement.

**Relevant Feedback:**
Another characteristic of individuals with high achievement motivation is the desire for feedback. These individuals do not seek feedback about their own personal qualities but instead about the success of their efforts. Feedback serves as way to measure the effectiveness of their work.

**Problem-Solving:**
Individuals with high achievement motivation also have a strong orientation toward problem-solving. They spend extensive time thinking about potential solutions to current problems, as well as actively considering and analyzing additional possibilities for improvement.

**Interpersonal Skills:**
Due to their focus on achievement and accomplishment, individuals with high achievement motivation are often characterized by poor interpersonal skills as well. These individuals have a tendency to overemphasize results and have difficulty managing people effectively.

**Nature of Rural Area:**
“Rural people are very frank, open-minded, and genuine; the score the artificiality of many phases of city urban life” (Bogardus 1929)
“Rural area is a place where human relationship is primarily in the rural impact and environment” (Bertain Alvin L. 1958)

“The prime objective of rural sociology should be to make a scientific, systematic and comprehensive study of the rural social organization of its structure, functions and objective tendencies of development and on the basis of such study to discover the laws of its development.” (Desai A.R. 1973)

The village communities are republics, having nearly everything they can within themselves and at most independent of any foreign relations”. (Charles Metcalf)

According to Bertain Alvin L. 1958 rural area is a place where human relationships are primarily on the basis & rural impact and environment. The people in rural areas are very frank, open, minded, genuine, and simple; they scorn the artificiality, found in city life. They immediately depend on agriculture. Their need and desires are limited, resulting in having more adjustment. Desai A.R. 1973 they indicate that village people are very peaceful, secure, and co-operative; that is why adjustment level more in those people.

Agriculture and the collecting enterprises are the bases of the rural economy farmer and countrymen are almost synonymous terms. Besides these characteristics, the people of the village also exhibit a homogeneity of population due to which they do not frequently come into conflict with each other and maintain mutual intimacy and harmony characteristics of village as follows. The village satisfies all their needs in the villages.

Elements influencing village community in less population village in establishment of markets increase in the number of shops, where new commodities are available, the
opening of school and college, increase in the number of those belonging to the middle class, and the arrangement of police and other security measures. The social and economic life of a village inhabited by weavers. Their economic life is more static. Their social life is more organized and they attach much importance to religion in India. In Indian villages where social organization is based upon the caste system are easily distinguishable from the villages inhabited by tribes whose social organization is based on the joint family system. Dormitories are a special feature of the tribal villages based on joint family is the ruler of the village.

Basically we have seen that there are mostly joint families and boys and girls at their center in rural areas. People there are naturally adjusted. They are highly religious, spiritual and hospitable those affect adjustment among them. Despite this, their honesty discipline, and pride of realm also affect adjustment. Moreover, family is the most important part of rural culture. Normally eldest person is the head of the family, and who controls the whole family.

**Nature of Urban Area:**

“The city encourages impersonal rather than personal relationship.” (Gist & Helbert).

Life of urban people is artificial, secondary and heterogeneous. Because of increasing industrialization, there is so much heat in environment, which affects their adjustment. “Cities as a place which has become so large that people no longer know each other” (Sombart 1958)

“Cities are people, churches, banks, politics, building, traffic and sewage. There are everything we are the newest cities are old in human experience and oldest are constantly renewed”. (Robert B. Mitchell 1965)
There is diversity within two groups, rich and poor. Poor people try to achieve many and higher status like rich people. Because of their endear ours, people become having adjustment.

Urban community is different from rural community by the help of rural community we consider the urban community some of the traits of urban community’s bellows:

**More population:**

It is the most important trait of urban community. Urban population is more and so large than rural one. In cities, people are not in touch to each other and so they cannot make relations. It results in lack of residency increasing number of dirty areas, lack of good health, and child-crime etc.

**Social heterogeneity:**

It is another important trait of urban community, social heterogeneity means that there are people of different castes, religions, colors, and sects, with many views, approaches, and customs and traditions. It results in differentiation among those urban people.

Secondary Relationship: Because of the vastness of population urban people give importance to secondary relation. They have less familiarity.

**Individualism:**

Urban people are more individualistic than are more individualistic than rural people since they give importance to individual or personal values, needs, and desires.

**Competition:**

Due to increasing population, urban people face the problem of competition in every sphere of life. So they become less adjustable.
Control of Secondary Groups: Urban people cannot be controlled by family, school or such groups, such as police, courts, and prisons.

**Social Mobility:**

It is another important trait of urban community. Urban people have an extreme social mobility due to their attachment and devotion to work they do rather than to their religion, cast, color.

**Voluntary Association:**

People in urban areas are largely of voluntary nature. They participate in about all the social programmers, and are ready to do something better for their societies. So there develops voluntary association among them, and they become more less adjustable than rural people.

**Complexity of life:**

Their life is very complex because of differentiation in their casts, religions and sets. There is no any impact of these factors on them. These we find only complexities in their life.

**Artificiality:**

Life of urban people is largely artificial, unlike rural people. They lack natural surrounding and environment, which result in artificiality of everyday life.

**Psychic conflicts:**

In city areas, there is availability of everything but with differentiation. In this case, poor people become more jealous and aggressive towards rich people because rich people possess these facilities, which they (poor) don’t. It results in psychic conflicts
and rebellion among poor people, especially slum-area people. Thus poor people are less adjustable than rich people. So such people are unstable.

**Nuclear family:**

In cities, mostly nuclear or divided families are found. Boys and girls in such families don’t have any kind of control by their elders. So they become less adjustable.

Urban areas find maladjustment and unrest in each and every field of life. The family, community, school, college are badly disturbed due to maladjustment.

**Significance and importance of Rationale study:**

Urban and Rural students differ from each other in many ways, such as their lifestyle in their perception and personality. In the present study Urban and Rural students were included. The present study aims to examine the effect of area of residence and gender on self-concept, adjustment, and Achievement motivation of senior college students.

Adolescence is a crucial period in the life span; adolescence represents the culmination of childhood and an intimation of the adult. It is also important to note the role that adolescents, notably the older ones, play in the origin and maintenance of patterns of cultural change. As the expressed by adolescence as a distinct developmental stage is critical in terms of its impact on a changing society as well as the effect it has on the development of the individual.