CHAPTER – I

INTRODUCTION
1.1. Introduction:

Indian society is a traditional one which is highly stratified and suffers from wide socio-economic disparities and cultural diversities. According to the report of the Education Commission (1964-1966), “The Indian society is hierarchical, stratified and deficient in vertical mobility.” This society of ours has many social divisions, which have been persisting through the centuries. These divisions consist of poor and rich people on the one hand, touchable and non-touchable on the other. Nevertheless, our society is also divided into tribals and non-tribals. The tribals in India have suffered from environmental deficiencies for ages. They have confined themselves to their own bounds, cutting themselves off from civilized societies.

In order to bring about a social transformation in our society education has been regarded as a vital instrument. But this instrument has not yet been handed to the tribes fully. That is why the tribes have not yet been brought in to the mainstream of our country in spite of all the efforts made in this direction.

The educational status of the tribes is very poor. According to the 1981 census, the literacy rate of scheduled Tribes was quite low and according to the 1971 census, the literacy percentage for tribal’s is not very encouraging.

The tribals are an intrinsic part of our national life and with their rich cultural heritage. They have been contributing a lot the complex amalgam. The tribals settled down in India in pre-historic times, inhabiting mostly in the sparsely populated parts of hills and forests of sub-Himalaya and north
eastern regions in the mountain belt of central India between, Narmada and Godawari rivers, and in the southern part of the Western Ghats.

The tribals are primitive and prefer living in isolation i.e. in dense forests or remote areas which are generally cut–off from civilized area. Hence tribals have limited contact with other societies. The habit of isolation helps them to preserve their social customs, traditions and beliefs to a large extent. The territorial distribution of tribes overlaps the political boundaries of the state and territory.

Tribals in India are classified into four racial groups viz. Nigeria, proto-Australoid, Mongloid and Nordic, Gonds, Bhils, Oraons, Mundas and Santhals belong to proto- Asustroloid group. The tribes of North –East viz. Garo, Khasi mizo, Naga etc. having mongolid feature. Today of Nilgiri Hills are of Nordic racial group. Their very existence has depended during centuries on forest and mountains. The tigrours of climate do not compel them from their nests i.e. home lands nor obliged their way of life.

The tribal majority are as in the country are broadly divided in three categories viz (i) predominantly tribal state or union territories (ii) scheduled area, and (iii) Non- scheduled areas in the states. All the tribal-majority states and union territories are placed in a special category for the allocation of funds. The development and administration of tribal areas in accepted as a responsibility of the central Government even they are integral parts of the concerned states.

According to 1951 census, the scheduled tribes population in India was 1,91,47,054 which constituted 5.3% of the total population of the country. After the scheduled tribes lists modification order, 1956 tribal population rose to 2,25,11,845 or 6.23%. This increase of 34 lakhs in population of tribals was due to inclusion of certain groups. According to 1961 census, the tribal population was 2,98,79,249 i.e. 6.86% of the population of the country. As per 1971 census the scheduled tribe population was 3.64 million, while the total population was 54.8 million. These
constitute 6.94% of the total population. The above census figures indicate the regular progressive increase in tribal population.

According to 1981 census 5,16,28,638 person were enumerated in the country excluding Assam where his census was not held due to unavoidable conditions. Out of the total population scheduled tribes constitute 2,60,38,535 males and 2,55,90,103 females. The scheduled tribe population constitutes only 7.76% of the total population of country.

According to 1991 census the tribal population of India constitute 6,77,58,380 persons (6,27,51,026 rural and 5,0007,354) i.e. 8.01 percent of the total population which reveals that the tribal’s were enumerated throughout the country, except in the state of Haryana, Jammu and Kashmir, Punjab, Chandigarh, Delhi and Pondicherry where the tribal’s are not Pondicherry scheduled, the North eastern region is highly concentrated with tribals.

Tribal’s can be seen throughout the earth. In each part they are called by the person by different names, viz. Jippsy, Aboriginals, Adivasi’s and other synonymous names. The tribals have their own identity; cultural traits even than every tribal group have their own identity. In this way each tribal group can be distinguished there own existence or identity. The isolation problem has deprived them by the developed part of the nations. The isolation problem is not in India, but it can be seen thought the world. The highest concentration of tribals can be seen in Africa and second stands in India. In India on 1/5 part (19 percent) of the country and having more than 500 different groups. They speak over 150 languages and about 225 subsidiary languages.

1.2. **Delineation of the Concept :**

The so called “Tribals” of India are the indigenous people of the land, in the sense that they have been long settled in different parts of the country, before the Aryan speaking people penetrated India to settle down first in Kabul and Indus valleys and then within a millennium and a half, to spread
out over large parts of the country along the plains and river valleys. At a much later stage of history they have came to this land as civilized foreigners in small numbers like the Achaemenians the Hellenistic, Greek the parthans and the Romans, nomadic-pastoral tribes in very large numbers and a wave after wave from the steppes of central Asia, and this over a period of more than a millennium and a half, beginning with the sakas and closing with the trunks and Mongols and finally, again in several waves, rural and semi-agricultural Tibeto- Burmano from across the north and north- eastern borders of the country. In between the later there were small influxes from time to time of the Arab’s, Iranians and Abysinians from East Africa and Tibeto- Burmans from Burma and Arkan region. (Mehata 2004)

The term “tribe” refers to cultural and historical concept. It is used in terms of the folk urban continuum along which different groups are classified, given a certain order of material culture and a stage of technological growth and classified as tribes.

The definition of ‘tribe’ as it has emerged that “a social group usually with a definite area, dialect, cultural homogeneity and unifying social organization having several subgroups, such as clams or sibs”.

The term ‘tribe’ has been defined by various writers in their own specific views. Anthropologists, Sociologists, Economists and administrators have different approach to problem of defining the term.

According to oxford Dictionary “tribe is group of people in primitive or barbarous stage of development acknowledging the authority of a chief and usually regarding them as having a common ancestor.”

The tribe is “social groups of simple kind, the members of which speak a common dialect, have a single government, etc. together for common purposes, and have a common name, a contiguous territory, a relatively uniform culture or way of life and tradition of common descent”.
Bardhan, A. B. (1960) define “the tribe as a course of socio-cultural entity at a definite historical stage of development. It is a Single, endogamous community, with a cultural and psychological make up going back into a distinct historical past.”

Mujumdar D.N. (1961) defines “the tribe as a collection of families or common groups bearing a common name, the members of which occupy the same territory, speak the same language and observe certain taboos, regarding marriage, profession, or occupation and have developed a well assured system of reciprocity and mutuality of obligation”.

Chatopadhyaya Kamla Devi (1978) explained “the term tribe as a tribe ordinarily has an ancestor or a patron deity. The families or groups composing the larger units are linked through religious social and socio-economic functions.”

Elwin Verrier (1963) further explained this term as “but let me turn to the history of the term and concept ‘tribe’. Derived from a Latin root, the Middle English term ‘Tribuz’ meaning the three divisions into which the early Romans were grouped, came to evolve into the modern English ‘tribe’. With the Romans, the ‘tribe’ was a political division which Greeks seems to have equated it some what with their ‘fraternities’ at time with the geographical divisions at others. In Irish history, however, the tern meant families or communities of persons having the same surname. In certain other areas of western world and certain period of history, it stood for division of territory allotted to a family or community.

The term ‘Adivasi’ (Adi=original) and ‘vasi’= inhabitant) has become current among certain people. The International Labour Organization has classified such people as “Indigenous”. According to I.L.O. convention 107(1957) the aborigionals or tribals have been defined as the tribals or semi-tribals groups of the Independent countries deprived socially or economically and having their own customs, traditions and traits or they have their own special customary laws/ conventions
1.3. **ANXIETY**:

Freud sees the ego as “a poor creature owing service to three harsh masters and consequently menenced by three dangers from the external world, from the libido of the id, and from the severity of the superego.” When there is a threat from either within or without when there is an expectation of an increase in “unpleaseare”, the ego produce and feels Anxiety a conscious emotional experience.

Anxiety is seen as serving the purpose of self preservation by signaling the presence of some potential danger. Events are anticipated to be dangerous when they are reminiscent of certain prototypic situations in which the individual was overwhelmed. In these so called “traumatic” situations the individual was incapable of tension reducing; functioning in accordance with the pleasure principle became paralyzed, the first of the traumatic situations is thought to be that of birth. The neonate is bombarded by varied and heavy doses of external stimulation with which it totally unprepared to deal. Freud also sow the threat of being castrated as traumatic while this events is not real as is the process of birth, “what is decisive is that the danger (of castrations) in one that threatens from the outside and that the child believes in it.”

The child may then remain reliant upon the love, care and respect of others and any movement toward independence is experienced with unsettling anxiety, even as an adult.

Anxiety is a physiological and psychological state characterized by cognitive, somatic, emotional, and behavioural components. These components combine to create an unpleasant feeling that is typically associated with uneasiness, apprehension, or worry.

Anxiety is a normal reaction to stress. It may help a person to deal with difficult situations, for example at work or at school, by promoting one to cope with it. When anxiety becomes excessive, it may fall under the classification of an anxiety disorder.
Anxiety is a generalized mood state that occurs without an identifiable triggering stimuli. As such, it is distinguished from fear, which occurs in the presence of an external threat. Additionally, fear is related to the specific behaviors of escape and avoidance, whereas anxiety is the result of threats that are perceived to be uncontrollable or unavoidable.

a) Symptoms:

Anxiety can be accompanied by physical effects such as heart palpitations, nausea, and chest pain. Shortness of breath, stomach aches, or headaches. Physically, the body prepares the organisms to deal with a treat. Blood pressure and heart rate are increased, sweating is increased, blood-flow to the major muscle groups is increased, and immune and digestive system functions are inhibited (the fight or flight response). External signs of anxiety may include pale skin, sweating, trembling, and papillary dilation. Someone suffering from anxiety might also experience it as a sense of dread of panic.

Although panic attacks are not experienced by every anxiety sufferer, they are a common symptom. Panic attacks usually, come without warning, and although the fear is generally irrational, the perception of danger is very real. A person experiencing a panic attack will often feel as if he or she is about to die or pass out. Panic attacks may be confused with heart attacks.

b) Biological basis:

Neural circuitry involving the amygdala and hippocampus is thought to underline anxiety. When confronted with unpleasant and potentially harmful stimuli such as foul odors or tester, PET-scans show increased blood flow in the amygdala. In these studies, the participants also reported moderate anxiety. This might indicate that anxiety is a protective mechanism designed to prevent the organism from engaging in potentially harmful behaviors.
Theologian Paul Tillich characterized existential anxiety as “the state in which a being is aware of its possible nonbeing” and he listed three categories for the nonbeing and resulting anxiety: notice (fate and death), moral (guilt and condemnation), and spiritual (emptiness and meaninglessness). According to Tillich, the last of these three types of existential anxiety is predominant in modern times while the others were predominant in earlier periods. Tillich argues that this anxiety can be accepted as part of the human condition or it can be resisted but with negative consequences. In its pathological form, spiritual anxiety may tend to “drive the person toward the creation of certitude in systems of meanings which are supported by tradition and authority” even though such “undoubted certitude is not built on the rock of reality”.

According to Viktor Frankl, author of Man’s Search for Meaning, when faced with extreme mortal dangers the very basic of all human wishes is to find a meaning of life to combat this “trauma of nonbeing” as death is near and succumbing to it (even by suicide) seems attractive. The “father” of existentialism, Soren Kierkegaard, regarded all humans to be born into despair by default (in The Sickness Unto Death). Such despair was created by having a false conception of the self. He regarded the mortal self which can exist relatively, and therefore be born or die, as the false self. The true self was the relationship of self to God, rather than to any relative object.

c) Test Anxiety:

Test Anxiety is the uneasiness, apprehension, or nervousness felt by students who have a fear of failing an exam. Student suffering from test anxiety may experience any of the following: the association of grades with personal worth, fear of embarrassment by a teacher, fear of alienation from parent of friends, time pressures, of feeling a loss of control. Emotional, cognitive, behavioral, and physical components can all be present in test anxiety. Sweating, dizziness, headaches, racing heartbeats, nauseas, fidgeting and drumming on a desk are all common. An optimal level of
arousal is necessary to best complete a task such as an exam; however, when the anxiety or level of a arousal exceeds that optimum, it results in a decline in performance. Because test anxiety hinges on fear of negative evaluation, debate exists as to whether test anxiety is itself a unique anxiety disorder or whether it is a specified type of social phobia. In 2006, approximately 49% of high school students were reportedly experiencing this condition. While the term “test anxiety” refers specifically to students, many adults share the same experience with regard to their career or profession. The fear of failing a task and being negatively evaluated for it can have a similarly negative effect on the adult.

d) **Stranger and Social Anxiety:**

Anxiety when meeting or interacting with unknown people is a common stage of development in young people. For others, it may persist into adulthood and become social anxiety or social phobia. “Stranger anxiety” in small children is not a phobia. Rather it is a development appropriate fear by toddlers and preschool children of those who are not parents or family members. In adults, an excessive fear or other people are not a developmentally common stage; it is called social anxiety.

e) **Trait Anxiety:**

Anxiety can be either a short term “state” or a long term “trait”. Trait anxiety reflects a stable tendency to respond with state anxiety in the anticipation of threatening situations. It is closely related to the personality trait of neuroticism.

1.3.1 **The Concept of Anxiety:**

The concept of anxiety enjoys central position in the theories of human behaviour and is regarded as a basic condition of human existence by many thinkers. However, despite the prevailing consensus at to its significance, agreement about the nature of the phenomenon it still lacking. As one ploughs across the various views, he is reminded of the blind men’s
description of the proverbial elephant, with every theorist depicting the nature of anxiety, according to his own constricted vision of this phenomenon. The definitions of the concept are based on observations or introspective reports by subjects normal or pathological. Some definition have only a conceptual basis while others are rooted in the physiological or behavioral changes observed in an experimental situation. A distinction has been made by between ‘stimulus-oriented’ and ‘response-oriented’ definition of the term. In the former case anxiety is defined in terms of the circumstances-external situations or internal thoughts-that arouse anxiety. In contrast, response-oriented definitions emphasize the nature and types of response that constitute the anxiety reaction. Given below are some common definitions of anxiety.

Anxiety as defined by English and English in their Dictionary of Psychology is “an unpleasant emotional state in which a present and continuing desire: or drive seems likely to miss its goal; a fusion of with the anticipation of future evil, marked and continuous fear of low intensity; a feeling of threat, especially of a fearsome threat without the person’s beings able to say what he thinks threatens”.

The American Psychological Association (1952) defines it as, “a danger single felt and perceived by the conscious portion of the personality. It is produced by a threat from within the personality-with or without stimulus from-external situation.” In his Dictionary of Psychology, James Drever has defined anxiety as “a chronic complex emotional state with apprehension or dread as its most prominent component, characteristic of various nervous and mental disorders”.

In the words of May, anxiety is “the apprehension cued of by a threat to some value which the individual holds, essential to his existence as a personality” (1950, p. 191).
Conceive anxiety as “the conscious and report-able experience of intense dread and foreboding, conceptualized as internally derived and unrelated to external threat” (1955).

Cattell and Scheirer (1961) define anxiety in the following terms:

Anxiety differs from fear, introspectively and presumably physiologically by being a response to precursory signals of perception of the true fear objects. It is a tentative alerting by cause and symbols rather than by concrete, present danger. Consequently, it has the associated qualities of uncertainty, and of lasting longer.”

In the opinion of Moir Gross, “Anxiety reactions carry an unpleasant emotional tone which, may perhaps have survival value in predisposing the individual to avoid circumstances which evoke the reaction.”

Martin and Sroufe (1971) conceive of anxiety as a “neuro-physiological response that has specially strong manifestations in the hypothalamic-sympathetic-adrenal medullary system, and in the reticular system”.

Roubicek (1970) defines anxiety as a, “state involving both somatic and psychological participation… aroused by any condition which threatens the integrity of the organism and is conceived and is conceived as an extension of irritability and vigilance.”

James Kritzeek (1955) observed that anxiety was a central concern in the writing of the Medieval Arab Philosopher Ala Ibm Hazm of Cordov. In his book “A Philosophy of Character and Conduct” written in the eleventh century, Hazm expressed the view that anxiety was fundamental to human nature and that one of the basic aims of all human actions was escaping anxiety. In his survey of evidence concerning the importance of anxiety in literature, religion, psychiatry, psychology, politics and philosophical thought, May (1950) has examined the views of philosophers like Spinoza, Pascal, Schelling, Nietzsche, Schopenhauer and Kierkegaard and has
expressed the view that the thinking of all these philosophers has significant influence on letters' theory of anxiety. In view of the ever-increasing stress of life in modern society, theories of anxiety have proliferated during the present century. Sigmund Freud (1936) is undoubtedly the first psychological who brought the significance of anxiety to the foreground of psychologist research. Following this lead, many psychologists got interested in the study of this phenomenon, and research on anxiety got another impetus from the studies of experimental neurosis by Pavlov (1927). With the development of psychological assessment techniques, empirical studies of anxiety increased in number and as a consequence, a host of theories regarding its nature were put forward. This is not an easy task to classify these approaches under broad heads. Though such classification is possible in case of some theorists, it fails when one comes across the view of a theorist who stands by himself. One fruitful scheme of review shall, therefore, be to put some theorists under one category wherever it is possible and to examine at least one representative from that group, and in addition to these categories, to consider the idea of those individual workers as well as who betray categorization.

1.3.2 The Approaches of Anxiety:

1.3.2.1 The Psychoanalytic Approach: Freud:

Sigmund Freud, the originator of the theory and method of psychoanalysis, attempted to explicit the nature and meaning of anxiety within the context of psychological theory. He was concerned with the persons suffering from psychopathology and tried to find out the causes of neurosis. In this attempt, he explained the symptoms on the basis of this theory of anxiety. In his view, the experience of anxiety was an everyday phenomenon and as such needed no introduction. The main problem before the psychoanalyst was to understand while some persons appear to be more vulnerable to it and show a high degree of intensity in their feeling of this emotion. In his earlier writings, he solved this problem by positing two types
of anxiety. The first of these two was realistic anxiety that is anxiety that has reference to real objects in a person’s and environment. The second, the neurotic or non-realistic anxiety has reference to some particular object or situation. Neurotic anxiety is thought to be a consequence and direct manifestation of unemployed libido. This means that when the sexual energy is not permitted to express itself, it is directed and converted into anxiety. This blocking of libido takes place when the sexual impulse is too threatening to the person’s ego. The ego defends itself through the mechanism of repression. In Freud’s words, “repression, corresponds to an attempt at flight by the ego from libido which is felt as danger” (1917, p. 410). However, repression was believed to inhibit only the idea component of the sexual impulse and not the energy component of it. This energy, therefore, was discharged by its conversion into an anxiety.

Freud regarded anxiety as an affective state which was characterized by, “all that is covered by the word ‘nervousness’, apprehension or anxious expectations, and efferent discharge phenomena” (1924). The efferent discharge phenomenon included heart palpitation, disturbances of respiration, sweating, tremor, and shuddering, vertigo, and a number of other physiological and behavioral manifestations. Freud laid more emphasis on the subjective and phenomenological qualities of anxiety while the efferent discharge phenomenon was paid less attention. He tried to identify the sources of stimulation which precipitated anxiety and did not attempt to analyze the properties of this state. It was his belief that the sources of anxiety were embedded in the past experience of the individual, “the historical element… which binds the afferent and efferent elements of anxiety firmly together”.

In his later and final conception of anxiety, Freud defined anxiety as a, “special state of unpleasure with act of discharge along particular path” (1926 p. J. 33). According to him, “analyses of anxiety state, therefore, reveals existence of (1) a specific character of unpleasure, (2) acts of
discharge, and (3) perceptions of these acts”. Freud also modified his view regarding anxiety as a consequence of repressed libido. A more general conceptualization of anxiety was offered in which its functional utility to the ego was emphasized. Freud now proposed that anxiety worked as a signal indicating the presence of danger situation. He distinguished between realistic anxiety and neurotic anxiety on the basis of the source of danger. If the source was in the external world, realistic anxiety was the result. Realistic anxiety was regarded as synonymous with fear. Neurotic anxiety, on the other hand, had its sours in the internal impulses and this source was not consciously perceived for the reason that it was repressed.

Freud has described two stages in the development of anxiety: primary anxiety and subsequent anxiety. The essence of primary anxiety is the “traumatic state”. In traumatic state, “the organism is flooded by amounts of excitation beyond its capacity to master” (1945, p. 42). The process of birth is an example of such a state and Freud believes that, “anxiety is modeled upon the process of birth (1959, p. J 34).

As has been pointed out by Fisher, primary anxiety has four constitutive factors:

1. The flooding and overwhelming of the mental apparatus with excitation;
2. The passivity and helplessness of the organism;
3. Existence of separation fears that correspond to the actual physical separation of the foetus from the mothers;
4. The automatic quality of the organism’s affective experiencing”.

The onset of subsequent anxiety is correlated with the differentiation of mental apparatus into ego, superego and id processes. With the development of ego the individual beings to show increased sensitivity to the outer world and becomes capable for coping with internal and external danger. The ego has the difficult takes of obeying three harsh masters; the external world, the superego, and id. As a consequence, three forms of
anxiety may develop corresponding to these three sources of peril. These forms: reality anxiety—a reaction to threat by the external world; moral anxiety—a reaction threat from the superego; and neurotic anxiety—a reaction to treat from the instinctual impulses of the id. A person can evade reality-anxiety through flight but it cannot avoid moral anxiety because the source of moral anxiety is intra-psychic. Neurotic anxiety may take three forms: free floating anxiety, phobic anxiety is an intense, more than needed fear of some object, or situation. Panic state of anxiety is the anxiety without any justification as to its cause.

Rapaport (1960) has systematized Freud’s theory of subsequent anxiety. According to him, when an instinctual impulse becomes so strong that the ego comes to know of it, the ego performs four function before taking an action:

1. It ascertains whether a suitable object is present in the external world to satisfy the impulse.
2. It consults the superego to determine whether the attainment of the objects is morally permissible.
3. It determines whether other interests are in conflict with the present impulse or not.
4. It determines if the object can be obtained safely.

The resolution of these issues determines the form of anxiety that will eventually occur. If the object is not present, or if it is unsafe to procure the object, reality, anxiety is the result. If the object is present, and can be safely procured but the superego does not permit this attainment, moral anxiety emerges. If the object is present, can be safely procured and this attainment is moral but the action is in conflict with other interests of ego, then neurotic anxiety result. Only when the object is present and can be safely procured without any conflict or guilt feeling, will the possibility of instinctual satisfaction without anxiety exist.
1.3.2.2 The Neo-Freudian Approach:

The neo-Freudian approach is adequately expressed in the development theory of Sullivan (1953), which deals with the development of person-necessary environment processes. According to him, these processes have twin objective of pursuit of bodily needs, and pursuit of security i.e. avoidance of anxiety. The person-necessary environment complex is like a filed and, as such, can have different degrees of equilibrium or disequilibrium. The causes of disequilibrium are: tension originating from bodily needs, and tensions associated with anxiety. Tensions associated with anxiety result from disapproval by a significant other person. Since at different stages of development there are different modes of acting and feeling there are different degrees of being anxious. Sullivan has, however, emphasized only two points along this continuum; mild anxiety and severe anxiety. Of these, the former is an every day phenomenon while the latter occurs during infancy and in pathological states. The degree of anxiety experienced by individual depends upon the significance of the disapproving person, and the severity with which the disapproval is expressed. To explain the induction of anxiety, Sullivan makes use of concept of ‘empathy’ which means ‘seeing’ ourselves as others ‘see’ us and ‘feeling’ about ourselves as others feel about us.

1.3.2.3 The Ego-Psychological Approach:

Of the many ego-psychologists, Jacobson has been specially interested in the dynamics of effective growth and expression in the course of ego differentiation and diversification. In her view, anxiety is both a signal and an adaptive phenomenon. When the ego in unprepared to meet the instinctual urges, anxiety works as a single and the ego uses it to mobilize its defenses against these urges. Anxiety is adaptive in the sense that its emergence facilitates the development of new discharge pathways and new means of ego control. According to this theory, anxiety develops in
the ego and is a state of unpleasure arising from inter-systemic tension between the ego and the id.

1.3.2.4. Physiological Approach:

The principles that underly the physiological approach to anxiety have been summarized by Fischer in the following terms:

1) The emotional state, in this case anxiety, is conceptualized as a psychological construct i.e. it belongs to the experiential realm and its scientific existence must be grounded in physical, quantitative phenomenon.

2) As a construct anxiety is understood to be an affect, the ultimate cause of which is to be found in the stimulus conditions of the environment, the external world. Mediating between cause-effect relationship and essentially fundamental to it are the various physiological processes and mechanisms of the body.

3) Finally, it is the natural scientist’s task to delineate those causally conceived psychological relations that constitute the scientific meaning of anxiety. This means that he is concerned with clarifying the sequence of correlations between external stimulation, physiological processes and affective experience” (1970, p. 52.)

Early formulations regarding the above sequence and correlations were advanced by James and Lange, and Cannon and Bard. James-Lange theory argued that, “the bodily changes follow directly the perceptions of exciting facts and… on feeling of the same changes as they occur in the emotion”.

After demonstrating the shortcomings of the James-Lange theory Cannon and Bard (1932) advocated that affective experience and autonomic reactivity both arise concurrently and both are mediated by lower brain centers, particularly the hypothalamus and thalamus. Thus for Cannon and Bard theory, all emotions, including anxiety, result from stimulus conditions
of the environment and are mediated through specific structures of central nervous system.

Current attempts have tried to show the interrelations of external stimulation, physiological processes, and emotional experience by demonstrating the importance of particular areas of structures of the central nervous system, the role of genera bodily arousal in relation to experiential factors, patterns of bodily change expressive of anxiety, and endocrinological factors involved in the activation of these expressive features. Research has shown that in addition to the thalamus, and hypothalamus, the limbic system is also integral to the experience of pain and pleasure and is, therefore, involved in the occurrence of anxiety. The significance of another area of brain, the reticular formation has been emphasized by Lindsley (1951). This area is said to be related to the level of cortical functioning and as such regulates the state of emotional arousal. Malmo (1957) hypothesized that this reticular activating system controls the possibility of the experience of anxiety and suggests that “anxiety is a results of a weakening of the inhibitory aspect of the RAS. This permits too many facilitative impulses to be discharged in the cortex, leading to an arousal level beyond the optimal”.

More recently Barratt (1972) has proposed a neurophysiological model of anxiety. On the basis of his researches he has speculated that feeling of anxiety is determined by hypothalamic-hypophysial control of endocrine function which consequently affects the changes in the ANS. The awareness of the feeling of anxiety in the persons, perhaps results from nonspecific reticular control of cortical activity.

Many researchers have tried to discuss the particular pattern of bodily processes expressive of anxiety. Martin (1970) after assuming anxiety as fear or one type of fear has presented a clear account of these processes. Anxiety involves increases in heart rate, systolic blood pressure, cardiac output, respiration rate, frontalis muscle tension, forehead temperature, palmar conductance, CNS activity and blood sugar level; and decreases in
peripheral resistance, diastolic blood pressure, hand temperature and salivary output. Some investigators have tried to uncover the endocrinological patterns underlying these processes. In the opinion of Martin and Breggin (1964) these patterns of bodily processes result from increased adrenalin (epinephrine) secretion. Summarizing the results of biochemical studies regarding emotions Levitt remarks.

“The search for an ultimate, physiological cause of emotional reactions and illness goes on but the patiently awaited breakthrough still seems far off in the future. The totalities of experimental findings remain confused, conflicting and ambiguous. Assuming that the ultimate cause is biochemical, many possibilities have already been investigated, but the unexplored area in vast”.

1.3.2.5 Learning Approach to Anxiety :

Explorations of anxiety, under the rubric of learning theory started from a basic assumption of Mowrer in which he equated anxiety with fear. Ho wrote: “Psychoanalytic writers sometimes differentiate between fear and anxiety on the grounds that fear has a consciously perceived object and anxiety does not. Although this distinction may be useful for some purposes these two terms will be used… as strictly synonymous”.

Later learning theorists accepted Mowrer’s identification of anxiety with fear which has worked as a basic principle in the experimental researches on anxiety. About the nature of anxiety, Mowrer held that his phenomenon is, to a large extent learned, it can motivate behaviour, and the reduction of anxiety has reinforcing effects on the learning of new behaviors.

Mowrer (1950) distinguished has conception of anxiety from that of Freud’s in these words, “Freud’s theory holds that anxiety comes from evil wishes, from acts the individual would commit if be dared. The alternative view here proposed is that anxiety comes not from acts the individual would commit but dares not but from acts which he has committed but wishes that
he had not. It is, in other words, a guilt theory of anxiety rather than an impulse theory” (1950, p. 537). Mowrer translated Freud’s theoretical views on anxiety into stimulus-response terms and highly influenced the empirical research on human anxiety. It was he who first expressed the view that fear, and for that matter anxiety can as a drive and its reduction, as reinforcement.

More complete analyses of anxiety were later on put forth in the theories and researches of Dollard and Miller, Eysenck, Taylor, and Spence.

Dollard and Miller’s theory of anxiety is rooted in the conceptual framework of Hull’s theory of learning. They believe that all behavior are consequence of drives and all learning results from reinforcement. They distinguished between primary and innate drives (e.g. hunger, sex, thirst etc.) and secondary drives that are formed out of necessities of our social living Fear and for that matter; anxiety is regarded as an extremely important secondary or learned drive. These theorists hold that anxiety and fear are not synonymous. Rather, anxiety is a particular kind of fear. This distinction is made explicit when they write that “when the source of fear is vague or obscured by repression, it is often called anxiety “(1950). Dollard and Miller’s theory attempts of explain the learning of anxiety reactions and the occurrence of repression phenomenon. Since, according to this theory, anxiety is a particular variety of fear, it is essential to understand the behavioral properties of fear itself. They conceive of fear as a learned drive and give experimental support to this conception. They write, “we say that fear is learned because it can be attached to previously natural cues… we say that it is a drive because it can motivate, and its reduction reinforces the learning of new response… Therefore, we call fear of a previously neutral cue, a learned drive”.

How the sources of fear become obscured and it takes them from of anxiety? To answer this question, Dollard and Miller take recourse to psychopathology. They think that anxiety results under conditions of neurotic conflict, i.e. all neurotic fear is anxiety. Since fear is a drive, it is
the main motivating factor in conflict, symptom formation, and repression. According to these theorists, neuroses result from unconscious emotional conflicts that “are created only in childhood.” In this context greatest importance has been attached to that particular variety of conflict called approach-avoidance conflict. In this type of conflict there are two competing, mutually exclusive response tendencies with reference to same goal object. When the source of this conflict, is known, it only arouses fear as is often the case in normal conflicts of everyday life. One the other hand, when the sours are obscured as a result of repression, anxiety emerges. Repression has been used by these theories in the sense of inhibition of new perceptions and labeling, thereby preventing the verbalization of the cue determined response. This repression takes place during a person’s development from childhood to maturity.

Another theorist who employed the leading theory approach to the phenomenon of anxiety was Flyspeck. In addition to the use of learning principles, Flyspeck also gives due importance to personality factors in the development of anxiety. He has postulated two major dimension of personality, namely, neuroticism and introversion extraversion. In his view, all the neurotic behaviours and individual can be analyzed in terms of interactions of these two personality dimension. Talking about the causes of anxiety, Eysenck asserts that there are two sources of this phenomenon. The first source is the major component of neuroticism demotions. The neurotic individual is excessively sensitive and responsive to anxiety provoking stimuli because of his inherited autonomic nervous system tendencies. These genetically determine liability of the autonomic nervous system is a direct and fundamental source of anxiety. The second source of anxiety the inheritance of an excitation-inhibition balance. If excitation is dominant tendency the person becomes unusually accessible to conditioning process involved in socialization. Such a person becomes an introvert and is characterized by excessive guilt, shame, and anxiety. On the other band, if inhibition dominates the individual becomes less conditionable in the course
of socialization. Such a person becomes an extravert and demonstrates childish, impulsive, and unsocialized behaviors. The second source of anxiety involves learning and this learning, is itself based on the inherited excitation-inhibition balance.

Unlike Dollard and Miller, Eysenck does not distinguish between fear and anxiety, nor does he show any interest in repression process. The consequence of anxiety, according to Eysenck, are neuroses and the development of a particular neurosis depends upon the learning history of a particular individual.

A number of studies emphasizing the nature anxiety as an acquired drive have been carried out by the Iowa group (Taylor, Spence and others 1956, 1958, 1966). The approach of these psychologists takes its start from Hull’s conception that the excitatory potential (E), determining the strength of a response, is a multiplicative function of a learning factors (H) and a generalized drive factor (D). Strength of a response, \( E = H \times D \). It is further assumed that when the organism is faced with an aversive stimulus, the drive level is function of the magnitude of a hypothetical response in the organism i.e. this hypothetical mechanism has been taken to be anxiety. The drive due to anxiety is thought to be non-specific. The low group made use of the Taylor’s Manifest Anxiety Scale (Taylor 1953) and tested their hypothesis, that anxiety acts as a drive, which was generally confirmed.

**1.3.2.6 The Existential Approach:**

Philosopher Kierkegaard conceived anxiety as an experiential state which is the outcome of individual’s freedom to choose between possibilities and at the same time the realization of the responsibility for his choice. Whenever the person is faced with the problem of making a decision, he experiences anxiety, because he is aware of his limited capacity of foresee all the consequence of a possible choice and because he may not have an objective justification for the choice made. Kierkegaard believes
that in order for self development to advance one must experience anxiety because by facing anxiety, awareness is increased.

According to Heidegger, another existential philosopher, fear and anxiety are dispositional or affective states. Both are unpleasant affective states, both have some object or situation that threatens, both involves sense of one’s existence. The difference between fear and anxiety is that in fear the sense of one’s existence relates to a particular potentiality of one’s being whereas in anxiety it relates to totality i.e. individual’s whole world.

As summarized by Epstein, existential psychologist May has enumerated the properties of anxiety in the following manner:

1. It is a diffuse apprehension.
2. It differs from fear in that it is unspecific, vague and objectless.
3. It is associated with feelings of uncertainty and helplessness.
4. It involves a threat to the core or essence of personality (1972).

1.3.2.7 Other Approaches to Anxiety:

Goldstein: The propounder of the organismic approach, Goldstein, has expressed the view that it is the “basic tendency of the individual to actualize itself in accordance with its nature” (1963, p. 88) when the organism is unable to cope with his environment and self-actualization is obstructed it results in disordered or ‘catastrophic’ reaction. Goldstein makes use of both, external and internal, points of view. He writes, “we can disclose characteristic bodily changes... certain expressive movements of the face and the body, and certain states of physiological processes, motor phenomenon, change of the pulse rate and vasomotor phenomenon etc. and we certainly have no reason to exclude these changes from an investigation of the phenomenon of anxiety”.

According to him, in addition to the external point of view, anxiety should also be considered from the perspective of the person experiencing it. He observes:
“It is the experience of the ‘catastrophic’ situation, of danger, of going to pieces, of ‘losing’ one’s existence”.

On the basis of the person’s experience, anxiety has been distinguished from fear, in that, (1) it is not spatial, (2) it is not connected casually with events in the external world, and (3) it has no reference to an object i.e. it “deals with nothingness. It is inner experience of being faced with nothingness” (1963, p. 92). These differences between fear and anxiety led Goldstein to the natural conclusion that the experience of the possibility of anxiety gives rise to fear. Thus anxiety is that for which fears.

Rogers: in the opinion of Carl Rogers (1951) anxiety is that experience which occurs when the person perceives something which is a threat to his self-concept. The incompatibility of person’s self-concept and his perception of reality gives rise to tension which is basis of anxiety. In his words: “if the individual becomes to any degree aware of this tension or discrepancy, he feels anxious, feels that he is not united or integrated, that he is unsure of his direction”. The only difference between conception of anxiety by Goldstein and Rogers is that to the former it is the consequence of a threat to the organism whereas to the latter it is the result of a threat to the self-concept.

McReynolds: According to McReynolds, anxiety is the result of failure in assimilating new percepts. A percept is a conceptual, unit “used to refer to that which one is, or is assumed to be aware of regardless of whether this is related to sensory input or whether it results from the individual’s reexamination and reorganization of older percepts and memories” (1956, p. 294). Man has an inherent tendency to obtain new percepts and to assimilate these percepts into perceptual systems. This is the process of perceptualization. This process has an optimum rate. Normally assimilation of new percepts keeps pace with the process of acquisition of these percepts. If the two processes do not go on the same pace, an accumulation of surplus percept results, which consequently gives rise to anxiety. McReynolds,
therefore, defines anxiety as, “the feeling tone concomitant with a large mass of unassimilated percepts”.

**Lidell**: Lidell attributes anxiety to the vigilance, or what-it is response. When the magnitude of this response is low, it helps the individual in his adaptation by making him attentive to changes in stimulation. The vigilance response is short lived and terminates when the change is evaluated and if found to have no single value of significance. However, under certain condition the vigilance response is sustained over a large period and gives rise to anxiety. Lidell presents his view in the following manner: “Let us suppose that natural mechanisms for intelligent action are phylogenetially derived from the primitive, rigid and sluggish conditioning or expectancy mechanisms of it he mammals. Then it is reasonable to suppose further that the experimental neurosis which result from long-continued and costly demands upon this expectancy machinery stands in a similar phylogenetic relationship with human anxiety… we may then suppose that when the capacity for maintaining intense and unremitting vigilance is exceeded… the pent-up nervous tension thereby released will disrupt the operation of the complex and delicate conditioning machinery and lead to chronic states of diffused or congealed vigilance : experimental neurosis. The finer, skilled adjustment to the environment will give palace to the stereotyped manifestations of alarm characteristic of experimental neurosis. It is then as if the animal lays compelled to keep senselessly repeating “what is it, what is it” (1974, pp. 189-191).

**Lazarus**: According to Lazarus. “Anxiety is an emotion based on the appraisal of threat, an appraisal which entails symbolic, anticipatory and uncertain elements. These characteristics, broadly conceived, mean that anxiety results when cognitive systems on longer enable a person to relate meaningfully to the world around him. On the response side anxiety may be accompanied by behavioral and physiological manifestation; often, however, cognitive modes of response predominate (1972, pp. 246-247).
By symbolic characteristics Lazarus means that the threat which are productive of anxiety are not concrete immediate events, but are related to ideas, concepts, values, or cognitive systems to which the individual is heavily committed… Man uses symbols to construct his world and invest it with meaning. When these symbols no longer fit reality or are in danger disintegration, anxiety is the result” (1972, p. 247).

About anticipatory characteristics, Lazarus holds that anticipation does not always involve future expectancies. The usual division of time into future, present and past is not always adequate for expressing phenomenal experience. In case we take anticipation as not an apprehension of some future event; but as failure to comprehend events occurring in the present, then appraisal leading to anxiety can belong to the present. Thus by an emphasis on anticipation, Lazarus does not deny the significance of the present.

The third important characteristic of anxiety is uncertainty. This uncertainty may be with respect to, “exactly what will happen, whether it will happen, when it will happen and what can be done about”.

Mandler : According to Mandler, one of the sufficient conditions for the arousal of anxiety, is the interruption of organized behavioral sequences. Mandler and Watson write :

“All that is implied by the idea of interruption is that an organized sequence which has been initiated cannot be completed, or that a plan cannot be executed. Interruption necessarily implies that the blocking of sequence has not been anticipated by the organism, since, if the blocking is anticipated, it will necessarily become part of the plan” (1966, p. 264).

From the above statement, it is clear that interruption is not limited to the blocking of motor responses; it rather includes the inability to obtain closure with respect to cognitive planning. The importance of the cognitive aspect has been further emphasized by the statement that blocking should be unanticipated.
**Cattell**: With the application of the factor analysis to the data obtained from questionnaires, life study reports, and laboratory experiments. Cattell (1966) has found a relatively broad second order factor which he has called anxiety. This factor has correlation with ratings of anxiety by psychiatrists; it differentiates neurotics, is reduced by psychotherapy, rises in normal’s facing threats and uncertain situations, varies directly with economic insecurity and lack of cultural integration in cross-cultural research, and has association with increases in general autonomic activity.

Cattell defines anxiety in two ways. According to the first definition, anxiety is a function of the magnitude of all unfulfilled needs (or ergs) and the degree of uncertainty that they will be fulfilled or more simply stated anxiety corresponds to uncertainty of reward, or of total need fulfillment. In his second definition, Cattell holds that anxiety is specific to the fear erg and results from the threat that occurs when there is anticipation of deprivation of any or all ergs.

It is apparent that in the opinion of Cattell, anxiety is different from fear, in that, it involves uncertainty and anticipation with regard to unfulfilled needs or values. In addition to it he holds that anxiety is nourished by lack of integration, by an inability to focus upon external fears, and by the presence of incompatible needs.

Cattell and his associates identify two different types of anxiety which they label as trait-anxiety and state-anxiety. The trait anxiety factor is interpreted as measuring stable individual differences in a unitary and relatively permanent personality disposition. The state anxiety factor, on the other and is based on a pattern of variables that covary over occasions of measurement and is a transitory state of the individual which fluctuates overtime. According to Cattell and Scheier, the component characteriological variables which load the trait anxiety factor include: “ergic tension”, “ego weakness”, “guilt proneness”, “suspiciousness”, and “tendency to embarrassment”. On the other hand, the physiological variables that have
loadings on the state anxiety factor are respiration rate and systolic blood pressure. These physiological variables have only slight loadings on trait anxiety factor (1961, p. 82).

**Spielberger**: Spielberger points out that there is much ambiguity and semantic confusion in the use of the term ‘anxiety’ in current psychological literature. The ambiguity arises from the fact that different thinkers invest this term with a variety of meanings, and use the word anxiety in more or less indiscriminate manner to refer to two logically very different constructs. One of these constructs for which the term anxiety has been often used is the unpleasant emotional state, characterized by subjective feelings of tension, apprehension, and worry with concomitant arousal of the autonomic nervous system. The other construct, which also goes by the name anxiety, refers to relatively stable individual differences in anxiety proneness. Of these two constructs, the former may be called as anxiety. State (A-state) and the latter may be designated as anxiety traits (A-trait). Spielberger opines that a conceptual and operational distention between these two constructs is essential for an adequate theory of anxiety. Spielberger offers the definitions of these constructs in the following terms;

“State anxiety (A-state) may be conceptualized as a transitory emotional state or condition of human organism that varies in intensity and fluctuates over time. This condition is characterized by subjective, consciously perceived feelings of tension and apprehension, and an activation of the autonomic nervous system. Level of A-state should be high in circumstances that are perceived by an individual to be threatening, irrespective of the objective danger. A-state intensity should be low in non-stressful situations or in circumstances in which an existing danger is not perceived as threatening”.

“Trait anxiety (A-trait) refers to relatively stable individual differences in anxiety proneness, that is, to differences in the dispositions to perceive a wide range of stimulus situations as dangerous or threatening, and
in the tendency to respond to such threats with A-state reactions. A-trait may also be regarded as reflecting individual differences in the frequency and the intensity with which A-state have been manifested in the past, and in the probability that such states will be experienced in the future. Persons who are high in A-trait tend to perceive a larger number of situations as dangerous or threatening than persons who are low in A-trait, and to respond to threatening situations with A-state elevation of greater intensity.

The above review of various approaches to the nature and meaning of anxiety reveals that a number of psychologists subscribe to the idea that cognitive factors are important in the arousal of anxiety; and that anxiety reactions are evoked by some form of stress or threat. A part from these two points of convergence, necessity of a distinction between state and trait anxiety is also apparent. Freud has regarded anxiety as a state of unpleasure. Sullivan, too, thought of anxiety as a state that resulted from difficulties in a person’s interpersonal relations. Ego psychologist Jacobson opines that anxiety is a specific state of unpleasure arising from intersystemic tensions. Kierkegaard conceptualizes it as an experiential state and Hiedeggar regard it as an affective state. May takes it to be a state of diffuse apprehension. In the opinion of Goldstein it “is…” the experience of the ‘catastrophic’ situation, of danger, of going to pieces of loosing one’s existence”. Obviously this is a conception of anxiety as a state. Rogerian theory takes anxiety as a state while McReynold calls it feeling tone. According to Mandler it is a state of arousal caused by interruption of organized plan. In the view of Lazarus anxiety consists of unpleasant cognitive and affective states accompanied with physiological arousals. Cattell and Spielberger both recognize anxiety state as a psychological construct. All these views are testimony to the truth inherent in the conceptualization of anxiety as a state.

The conception of anxiety as a trait is implicit in the views of many psychologist. Dolloard and Milter’s conception of anxiety as a result of neurotic conflict which emerges from unconscious emotional conflict
created in childhood implies the dispositional basis of anxiety. Eysenck posits that the source of anxiety is the trait neuroticism and the excitation-inhibition balance and that these sources are inherited. Physiological psychologist Barrat’s acceptance of trait-state distinction is implicit in his use of separate measures of state and trait anxiety in research with humans. Levitt, another psychologist having a physiological approach, has admitted the importance of state-trait distinction in his book, ‘The Psychology of Anxiety’. This distinction is also inherent in Beck’s (1972) hypothesis that there are individual differences in vulnerability to stress and that these differences are important factors in the development of psychosomatic symptoms. According to Atkinson, a fear of failure motive is reflected in measures of A-trait which indicates that situations having a risk of failure may have greater effect on high A-trait persons than on low A-trait individuals. As noted by Spielberger though some works on anxiety tend to overlook the role of individual differences in A-trait (e.g. Epstein, Lazarus) they nonetheless acknowledge the significance of trait-state distinction.

Spielberger (1966) notes that the concept of trait-anxiety has characteristics similar to those construct which have been given the name “acquired behavioral dispositions” by Campbell (1963) and “motive” by Atkinson (1964). According to Campbell (1963) acquired behavioral dispositions involves residues of previous experience and predispose the person to see the world in a particular way and to manifest “object-constant” response tendencies. Similarly Atkinson thinks of motives as those dispositions acquired during childhood which are latent and are aroused by particular situations. In the words Spielberger (1966), “the relation between state and trait anxiety may be conceived as analogous in certain respects to the relation between the physical concept of kinetic and potential energy.”
1.4. ADJUSTMENT:

In psychology adjustment is studied especially in abnormal psychology and also in social psychology. In our daily life there has been continues struggle between the needs of the individual and external forces, since time immemorial. According to Darwin’s theory of evaluation those species which adapted successfully to the demand of the living survived and multiplied while who did not died. Therefore adaption or changing of, if oneself or one’s surroundings according to the demands of external environment become the basic need for our survival. It is a true today with all of us as it was with Darwin’s primitive species.

Adjustment generally refers to modification to compensate for to meet special conditions. In the dictionary the term adjustment means to fit, make suitable, adapt, arrange, modify harmonize or make correspondence. Whenever we make an adjustment between two things adapt or modify one of both to correspond to each other. For example wearing of cloths according to the requirement of the seasons is an example of the adjustment. Before understanding the adjustment as a process it is necessary to examine some of the definitions of adjustment given by the various researches.

“Adjustment is the established of a satisfactory relationship as representing harmony, conformance, adaptation or the like.” (Webster, 1951). Adjustment may be defined as “A process of bringing about a balance between motives, restrictions on their satisfaction, opportunities offered by the environment for the some and personal limitations.”

“Adjustment is the process by which of living organism maintains a balance between its needs and the circumstances that influence the satisfaction of these needs.” (Shaffer, 1961).

“Adjustment is the continuous process in which a person varies his behaviour to produce a more harmonious relationship between himself and his environment.” (Gates and Jersild 1984)
From these definitions it is clear that in every definition the needs are incorporated. One has to change one’s mode of behaviour to suit the changed situation so that a satisfactory and harmonious relationship can be maintained keeping in view in the individual and his needs on the one hand and the environment and its influence on the individual in other hand. Even Shaffer’s definition underlines one’s need their satisfaction. Shaffer tries to maintain a balance between his needs and his capacities of realising these needs and as long as this balance is maintained he remains adjusted. As soon as this balance is disturbed he drifts towards maladjustment (Gates and Jursield 1984) mentioned that adjustment is a harmonious relationship between individual and his environment. In view of all these facts it could be stated that adjustment is a condition or state in which the individual behaviour conforms to the demands of the culture or society to which the belongs and he feels that his own needs have been or will be fulfilled. In this concern Arkaff (1968) had given an extensive definition of adjustment. He defines adjustment is the interaction between a person and his environment. How one adjusts in a particular situation depends upon one’s characteristics and also the circumstances of the situation. In other words both personal and environmental factors work side by side in adjustment. An individual is adjusted if he is adjusted to himself and to his environment.

Examination of various definitions of adjustment reveals that adjustment can be interrelated as both process and the outcome of the process in the form of some attainment or achievement, when a poor child studies under the street light because he has no lighting arrangement at home he is said to be in the process of adjustment what he attain in term of success in his examination or the fulfillment of his ambition or pride in his achievement is nothing but the results of his adjustment to his self and his environment. In other words when adjustment is perceived as an achievement it means how the effectiveness with which an individual can function in changed circumstances and is at such related to his adequacy and regarded as an achievement that is accomplished as badly or well (Lazarus).
In some definitions of adjustment it was stated that the process of adjustment is continuous. If one observes that the process of adjustment starts at one’s birth and goes on without stop till one’s death. In other words adjustment is something that is constantly achieved and re-achieved by us. Apparently, it appears that adjustment is a one way process but in reality it is not. It is a two way process and it involves not only the process of fitting oneself in to available circumstances but also the process of changing circumstances to fit one’s need. In this reference White (1956) commented excellently. White stated that the concept of adjustment implies a constant interaction between the person and the environment each making demands on the other, sometime adjustment is accomplished when the person yields and accepts conditions which are beyond his power to change. Sometimes it is achieved when the environment yield to the person activities. In most cases adjustment is a compromise between these two extremes and maladjustment is a failure to achieve a satisfactory compromise.

Researcher has made several attempts to measure the relationship between adjustment and other factors. For example the relationship between adequacy and social adjustment and adequacy of personal adjustment has been investigated in the large number of studied. In Moreno’s study it was observed that how choice status or high rejection status is evidence that the adjustment of the subject is not good. A large number of studies search the relationship between the socio metric status of the individuals and adjustment. In these studies it was observed that the subjects low in social status make more unfavorable responses than the subjects high in social status. (Baron, 1951).

In addition to the personal adjustment a number of other personality characteristic have been investigated as correlates of social status. In present study anxiety was one of the factors of which effect on the adjustment was examined while considering the personality variables the researchers found that the high anxiety affect the adjustment
To get adjusted in life on has to be versatile individual for a simple reason that every individual has to face varied social situations, which require different skills for satisfactory adjustment. Psychologist have pointed out and mentioned the characteristic of well adjusted person which denotes that these skills need to be developed and one has to learn to keep controls on the emotions. At the first place an individual must be aware of his own strengths and limitations. He must respect himself and other also. It is necessary that he should have an adequate level of adjustment. If the adjustment is very high which can not be achieved even by hard work that the adjustment in likely to be hampered.

To be adjusted satisfactory level it is necessary that the basic needs of the individual must be satisfied. Often it is seen that people develop critical or fault finding attitude, in fact one should learn to appreciate the goodness in objects, person or activity. As far as possible the observation should be scientific and objective not critical or punitive. There should be flexibility in behaviour. Rigidity is likely to result in maladjustment. The individual must the capacities to deal with the other circumstances in other words he must have courage to resist and fight odds. If the person is having a realistic perception of the world then there is possibility of satisfactory adjustment. In addition to this an individual must have a feeling of ease with his surroundings of course its very difficult to develop a balanced philosophy of the life but specially after maturation or during the late age one can have the establish norms which could be treated as a balanced philosophy of life, no doubt one has to make special efforts in order to be well adjusted and successful in life.

I The Discussion of Adjustment:

a) Realistic attitude to oneself:

Ability to accept oneself as he is and proper evaluation of oneself without over estimation (superiority feelings) or under estimation (inferiority feelings).
b) **Feelings of Security:**

One must feel safe in the psychophysical, social world. Without the feelings of security one cannot do constructive work in the life and cannot use all his capacities to progress in the life.

c) **Ability to Give and Receive Affection:**

This is necessary for harmonious interpersonal relations and for adjustment to the social environment.

d) **Ability to be Productive:**

It implies capacity for constructive work using one’s abilities and assets. Person is not able to utilize his abilities fully when most of his energy and time spent in dealing with his stress.

e) **Ability to Change The Environment:**

When the environment is not favorable for pursuing one’s aims or goals, the individual should try his best to change it in his favor.

f) **Ability to Change Oneself:**

When the environment can not changed the individual must be able to change himself. This is known as co-operation with the inevitable and is considered to be the essential feature of a well adjusted person.

g) **Flexibility in Behavior:**

With greater maturity and change in one’s experience of earlier behaviour is no longer appropriate. It should be changed situation added experience and present level of maturity.

h) **Knowledge of When to Worry:**

On some issues, worrying is justified because it motivates the individual to do some thing about them or to find solutions to the problems.

II **Theoretical Prepositions Related To Adjustment:**

After studying the nature of adjustment and the factors that are related to successful adjustment it is necessary to consider theoretical prepositions
related to adjustment. It is necessary because some people adjust to their environment successfully; many others could not it means that there are some factors that hinder the satisfactory adjustment. In order to understand that it is necessary to examine some of the theories of models of adjustment.

One of the most famous view is to related to psycho-analytic theory. It was Sigmund Freud (1938) who proposed this view, according to Freud human psyche consist of three layers, the conscious, the sub conscious, and the unconscious. It is the unconscious that hold the key to our behaviour, it is this unconscious level which decides the individual adjustment and maladjustment to his self and his environment. It contains all the repressed wishes, desires feelings drives and motives many of which are related to sex and aggression. According to Freud man wants to seek pleasure and avoid pain or anything which is not in keeping with his pleasure loving nature. A person’s behavior remains normal and in harmony with himself and his environment to the extent that his ego is able to maintain the balance between the evil designs of his Id and the normal ethical standard detected by his super ego. Freud suggested that adjustment or maladjustment should not be viewed only in term of what the individual may be undergoing at present and what happened to him in his earlier childhood is even more important.

Adler disagreed with the view expressed by Freud. He proposed that there is an inherent strong urge in all human beings to seek power and attain superiority. However as a child one is helpless and dependent which makes one feel inferior and in order to make up for the feeling of inferiority one takes recourse in compensatory behaviour. Here there is a need for adjustment.

1.4.1 Models of Adjustment :
1.4.1.1 Moral Model:

This is one of the oldest views of point about adjustment or maladjustment. According to this view adjustment should be judged in term
morality. Thos who fallow the norms are adjusted and those who violet or do not follow the norms are maladjusted. This view is not scientifically correct but in past it was respected much.

1.4.1.2 The Medico Biological Model:

According to this model genetic physiological and biochemical factors are responsible for a person being adjusted or maladjusted to his self and his environment, Maladjustment according to this model is the result of diseases in the tissues of the body, especially in the brain. Such diseases can be the result of heredity or damage acquired during the course of a personal life by injury, infection or hormonal disruptions arising from stress among other things. This model is still extant and enjoys credibility for rooting out the causes of adjective failure in term of genetic influences biochemical defect hypothesis and disease in the tissues of the body.

1.4.1.3 Erich Fromm’s Views:

Fromm emphasized the need of security and felt that a child one may feel the necessity for belonging to offset the fear of isolation and aloneness. The individual in his childhood may desire to live in his family, belonging to the members of the family and provided with love affection security. When he attains maturity he is impelled by an inner craving for freedom as a result he tries to escape from the very bonds, which provided him his security he needed. In this kind of situation he may be confronted with the inner conflict of being dependent for the satisfaction of his needs. If the crisis dissolved the individual is satisfied and adequately adjusted but if the conflict retains then there is possibility of maladjustment.

1.4.1.4 The Socio -Genic or Cultural Model:

This modal proposed that the society in general and culture in particular affects ones ways of behaving to such an extent that behaviour takes the shape of adaptive on non adaptive behaviour turning one into an adjusted or maladjusted personality. The society and culture to which one belongs does not only influence or shape ones behaviour but also set his
standard for its adherents to behave in the way he desires. Individual who behave in the manner that society desires are labeled as normal and adjusted individual, while deviation from social norms and violation of role expectancy is regarded as a sign of maladjustment and abnormality.

1.4.1.5 The Socio Psychological or Behavioural Model:

According to this model, behavior is not inherited competencies required for successful living are largely acquired or learnt through social experiences by the individual himself. The environmental influences provided by the cultural and the social institutes are important but in the interaction of one's psychological self with one's physical as social environment which plays a decisive role in determining adjective success or failure. Behaviour whether normal or abnormal, is learnt by obeying the same set of learning principles or laws. Generally every type of behavior is learnt or acquired if reinforced may be learnt by the individual as normal as a result one may learn to consider responses which are labeled normal as abnormal. Not only the normal or abnormal behavior is learnt but labeling of behaviours as normal or abnormal is also learnt. In short the behaviorist model proposes that adjustment or maladjustment is acquired not inherent. Social influences on the individual and vice versa should be taken into consideration for understanding adjustment or maladjustment of the individual with the self and environment.

1.4.2 Methods of Adjustment:

In order to lead a healthy happy and satisfying life one has to learn the various ways of adjustment. The first one being coping with one's environment as effectively as possible. The individual has to safeguard himself against turning into a maladjusted and abnormal personality. Psychologists have suggested different ways and methods which could be grouped into two categories. The first one is called direct method and the second one is called indirect methods. In the direct methods increasing trials or improving efforts is an important one. The second one refers to adopting compromising means, at times one has to withdraw and to be submissive
and finally he has to make proper choice and decision. There are indirect methods of achieving adjustment in fact direct methods are those methods which a person tries to seek temporary adjustment to protect himself for the time being against a psychological danger. These are purely psyche or metal devices that are way they are called as defense mechanism. In these indirect methods all the defense mechanism suggested by Freud are incorporated.

1.5. ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION:

A theory of motivation is concerned with the formulation of a systematic, logically consistent and empirically verifiable body of laws and principles for explaining the arousal and goal directedness of behavior as well as the tendency of these behaviors to persist till the goal is reached and some sort of consummator, behavior has occurred. A number of psycho sociogenic motives have been postulated to explain a variety of human behaviors that are characterized of personality which is one of the determinants of motivation, defined as the tendency to endeavor for the attainment of a goal.

The achievement motive is the inclination of an individual to be concerned with to plan and to endeavor for the successful acquisition of some standard of excellence is circumstances. Where the performance has to be appraised positively or negatively. This standard of excellence may consist of one or more of the following alternatives, such as, competition with others, surpassing one’s own previous level of performance, unique accomplishments, and long term involvement in a profession.

1.5.1 The Concept of Achievement Motivation:

There is surprising finding from surveys taken in unites states, Germany and Japan (Quintanilla, 1990). 84% of those who were questioned (What would you do if you won the state lottery? Would you work even if you did not have to?) Said that they would continue to work. The explanation of these findings is that, for many people, their work is related not only to economic well-being but also to emotional security, self esteem
and happiness. Individual career can offer a sense of identity and status. Chance to learn new skills and master new challenge. It can bring social rewards, satisfying their needs etc. Those who found the work most suited to their abilities, experiences, sense of personal satisfaction enrolment fulfillment that provides its own reward, need for achievement, something distinct form the income they earn. The single greatest predictor of longevity is work satisfaction (work in America, 1973).

The idea of measuring needs in an individual arose because psychologists believe they would predict behaviour. Murray (1938), who first formulated the concept of “need achievement”, defined a need as “a construct that stands for a force originally perception, apperception, connection and action organizing in such a way as to transform in an certain direction an existing unsatisfied simulation”. Research findings suggest that many different motives are relevant to organizational behaviour and processes. One of the most important being is the need for achievement.

The formulation of the achievement motivation construct derives primarily from the work and theory of Murray (1938), and has its antecedents in an earlier psychological studies conducted under a variety of different rubrics, particularly’ success and failure’ (Scars, 1942), “ego involvement” (Alport, 1943), “level of aspiration” (Lewin et al 1944).

Since the early 1950s, achievement motivation theory has been studied intensively by David McClelland and his Colleagues (Atkinson and feather, 1966; McClelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell, 1953). They set forth a theory of achievement motivation as part of a more general theory of motives, McClelland has demonstrated that the economic growth of organization and of whole societies can be related to the level of the need for achievement among employees and citizens (McClelland, 1961).

The need for achievement is related to the strength of individuals desire to excel, to do something better than others. This motive was defined as follows. “The desire or tendency to accomplish something difficult to
master, manipulate or organize physical objects human being or ideas; to do this as rapidly or as well as possible, to overcome obstacles and attain a high standard, to excel one’s self; to rival and surpass others; to increase self regard by the successful exercise of the talent.” (Murray, 1938).

McClelland (1951) defines n-Ach as ‘behaviour towards competition with a standard of excellence’, or as a concern with “doing things better, with surpassing standard of excellence”. People with high n-Ach have a great concern to do better, to improve performance, to undertake moderately challenging tasks, to perform better at challenging tasks to take personal responsibility, and to seek and utilize concrete feed-back on their performance”. Heckhuasen (1955) defined n-Ach as “the striving to increase to keep as high as possible one’s own capacity in all activities in which a standard of excellence is thought to apply and where the execution of such activities can, therefore, either succeed or fail”.

Achievement motivation can also be defined as a disposition to strive for success and / or the capacity to experience pleasure contingent upon success (Atkinson, 1958).

In terms of ‘action’, n-Ach represents intense prolonged and repealed efforts to accomplish something difficult to work earnestly toward a high and distant goal, to have the determination to win, to try to do everything well, to be stimulated, to enjoy competition, to exert will-power to overcome boredom and fatigue.

The definition of achievement motivation overlaps a number of concepts associated with a possible view of human motivation which has received a great deal of recent attention such as masterly, effectiveness, curiosity exploration drive, manipulation drive and the need to know. Achievement motivation can be seen as related to such things as overcoming difficulties, maintaining high standards and improving one’s own performance, competing with the level established by others and generally
gaining mastery over one’s physical and social environment (Nisson, 1954, Hunt, 1965).

a. Achievement Motivation: Need for Achievement (n-Ach)

Achievement motivation is a one of the trait or characteristic of the students. Achievement is a concept related with motivation. Achieving a goal or obtained something is rewarding thing for almost everyone. For some people, the achievement of goal takes on a special importance. They enjoy working to achieve something whether it is in school, in work or in community service. When they achieve a goal, they immediately, set a new one. Such people may be said to have a strong need for achievement.

Students with a strong need for achievement are frequently overachievers. That is, they make better grades than their intelligence and ability test scores, would lead one to expect. Need for achievement is a valuable kind of motivation in a society that strongly values individual achievement.

Achievement motive is one of the important psychological motives. It concerns with setting goal and achieving them. It concerns with becoming successful in whatever activity one undertakes and avoiding failure. People with strong achievement motive not only like to excel others, but also try to do better than what they did in past. People with a strong achievement motive choose tasks which are neither very easy not very difficult but the one which they are confident of accomplishing through their best efforts.

Achievement motive or need for achievement (N-Ach) refers to an individual’s desire for significant accomplishment, mastering of skills, control, or high standards. The term was introduced by the psychologist, David McClelland. David McClelland and his associates’ investigations of achievement motivation have particular relevance to the emergence of leadership. McClelland was interested in the possibility of deliberately arousing a motive to achieve in an attempt to explain how individuals express their preferences for particular outcomes- a general problem of
motivation. In this connection, the need for achievement refers to an individual’s preference for success under conditions of competition.

Need for Achievement is related to the difficulty of tasks people choose to undertake. Those with low n-Ach may choose very easy tasks, in order to minimize risk of failure, or highly difficult tasks, such that a failure would not be embarrassing. Those with high n-Ach tend to choose moderately difficult tasks, feeling that they are challenging, but within reach.

n-Ach is one of the important social motives. It refers to the desire to meet standards of excellence, to accomplish difficult tasks and to do better than the others. McClelland claims that the level of achievement motivation differs from one individual to another. People in whom achievement motivation is strong want to excel, accomplish and constantly improve their own performance. Such individuals want to do well in whatever situation they are placed.

Individual differ greatly in their levels of achievement motivation. Achievement motivation is not inborn but learned. Studies have found that children with high n-Ach have parents in occupations that demand individual achievement. However in certain cultures such as Zuni Indians, individual achievements are looked down.

b. N-Ach theoretical description

David C. McClelland’s and his associates’ investigations of achievement motivation have particular relevance to the emergence of leadership. McClelland was interested in the possibility of deliberately arousing a motive to achieve in an attempt to explain how individuals express their preferences for particular outcomes—a general problem of motivation. In this connection, the need for achievement refers to an individual’s preference for success under conditions of competition. The vehicle McClelland employed to establish the presence of an achievement motive was the type of fantasy a person expressed on the Thematic
Apperception Test (TAT), a series of pictures that subjects were asked to interpret by writing stories about them.

The procedure in McClelland’s initial investigation was to arouse in the test audience a concern with their achievement. A control group was used in which arousal was omitted. In the course of this experiment, McClelland discovered through analyzing the stories on the TAT that initial arousal was not necessary. Instead, members of the control group—individuals who had no prior arousal—demonstrated significant differences in their stories, some writing stories with a high achievement content and some submitting stories with a low achievement content. Using result based on the TAT, McClelland demonstrated that individual in a society can be grouped into high achievers and low achievers based on their scores on what he called “N-Ach”.

McClelland and his associates have since extended their work in fantasy analysis to include different age groups, occupational groups, and nationalities in their investigations of the strength of need for achievement. These investigations have indicated that the N-Ach score increases with a rise in occupational level. Invariably, businessmen, managers, and entrepreneurs are high scores. Other investigations into the characteristics of the high achievers have revealed that accomplishment on the job represents an end in itself; monetary rewards serve as an index of this accomplishment. In addition, these other studies found that the high achievers, though identified as managers, businessmen, and entrepreneurs, are not gamblers. They will accept risk only to the degree they believe their personnel contributions will make a difference in the final outcome.

These explorations into the achievement motive seem to turn naturally into the investigation of national differences based on Max Weber’s thesis that the industrialization and economic development of the Western nations were related to the Protestant ethic and its corresponding values supporting work and achievement. McClelland and his associated
have satisfied themselves that such a relationship, viewed historically through an index of national power consumption, indeed exists. Differences related to individual, as well as to national, accomplishments depend on the presence or absence of an achievement motive in addition to economic resources or the infusion of financial assistance. High achievers can be viewed as satisfying a need for self-actualization through accomplishments in their job assignments as a result of their particular knowledge, their particular experiences, and the particular environments in which they have lived.

1.5.2 Motivation:

Psychologist see motives as inner directing forces that arouse an organism and direct its behaviour towards a goal. The study of “Motivation” is concerned with the “Why” of behavior. One of the major aims of psychological research has been to explain which motivates us act in certain ways.

Kleinginna and Kleinginna, (1981) define motivation as, internal state or condition that activates behavior and gives it direction; desire or want that energizes and directs goal-oriented behavior; influence of needs and desires on the intensity and direction of behavior. Franken (1994) provides an additional component in his definition; the arousal, direction, and persistence of behavior.

1.5.2.1 Importance of Motivation:

Most motivation theorists assume that motivation is involved in the performance of all learned responses; that is, a learned behavior will not occur unless it is energized. The major question among psychologists, in general, is whether motivation is a primary or secondary influence on behavior. That is, are changes in behavior better explained by principle of environmental ecological influences, perception, memory, cognitive development, emotion, explanatory style, or personality or are concepts unique to motivation more pertinent.
For example, we know that people respond to increasingly complex or novel events (or stimuli) in the environment up to a point and then responses decrease. This inverted-U-shaped curve of behavior is well-known and widely acknowledged. However, the major issue is one of explaining this phenomenon. Is this a conditioning (is the individual behaves because of past classical or operant conditioning), a motivational process (from an internal state of arousal), or is there some better explanation?

1.5.2.2 The Relationship of Motivation and Emotion:

Emotion (an indefinite subjective sensation experienced as a state of arousal) is different from motivation in that there is not necessarily a goal orientation affiliated with it. Emotions occur as a result of an interaction between perception of environmental stimuli, neural/hormonal responses to these feelings (Kleinginna and Kleinginna, 1981b). Evidence suggests there is a small core of core emotions (perhaps 6 or 8) that are uniquely associated with a specific facial expression (Izard, 1990). This implies that there are a small number of unique biological responses that are genetically hard-wired to specific facial expressions. A further implication is that the process works in reverse; if you want to change your feelings (i.e. your physiological functioning), you can do so by changing your facial expression. That is if you are motivated to change how you feel and your feeling is associated with a specific facial expression, you can change that feeling by purposively changing your facial expression. Since most of us would rather feel happy than otherwise, the most appropriate facial expression would be a smile.

1.5.2.3 Motivational Concepts:

i) Reward and Reinforcement:

A reward, tangible or intangible, is presented after the occurrence of an action (i.e. behavior) with the intent to cause the behavior to occur again. This is done by associating positive meaning to the behavior. Studies show that the person receives the reward immediately, the effect would be greater,
and decrease as duration lengthens. Repetitive action-reward combination can cause the action to become habit.

Rewards can also be organized as extrinsic or intrinsic. Extrinsic rewards are external to the person; for example, praise or money. Intrinsic rewards are internal to the person; for example, satisfaction or accomplishment.

Some authors distinguish between two forms of intrinsic motivation; one based on enjoyment, the other on obligation. In this context, obligation refers to motivation based on what an individual thinks ought to be done. For instance, a feeling of responsibility for a mission may lead to help others beyond what is easily observable, rewarded, or fun.

A reinforce is different from reward, in that reinforcement is intended to create a measured increased in the rate of a desirable behavior following the addition of something to the environment.

**ii) Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation:**

Intrinsic motivation is when people engage in an activity, such as a hobby, without obvious external incentives. Intrinsic motivation has been studied by educational psychologists since the 1970s, and numerous studies have found it to be associated with high educational achievement and enjoyment by students. There is currently no universal theory to explain the origin or elements of intrinsic motivation, and most explanations combine elements of Fritz Heider’s attribution theory, Bandura’s work on self-efficacy and other studies relating to locus of control and goal orientation. Though it is thought that students are more likely to be intrinsically motivated if they:

i) Attribute their educational results to internal factors that they can control (e.g. the mount of effort they put in),

ii) Believe they can be effective agents in reaching desired goals (i.e. the results are not determined by luck),
iii) Are interested in mastering a topic, rather than just rote-learning to achieve good grades.

Note that the idea of reward for achievement is absent from this model of intrinsic motivation, since rewards are an extrinsic factor. In Knowledge-sharing communities and organizations, people often cite altruistic reasons for their participation, including contributing to a common good, a moral obligation to the group, mentorship or ‘giving back’. In work environments, money may provide a more powerful extrinsic factor than the intrinsic motivation provided by an enjoyable workplace.

The most obvious form of motivation is coercion, where the avoidance of pain or other negative consequences has an immediate effect. Extreme use of coercion is considered slavery. While coercion is considered morally reprehensible in many philosophies, it is widely practiced on prisoners, students in mandatory schooling, within the nuclear family unit (on children), and in the form of conscription. Critics of modern capitalism charge that without social safety networks, wage slavery is inevitable. Successful coercion sometimes can take priority over other types of motivation. Self-coercion is rarely substantially negative (typically only negative in the sense that it avoids a positive, such as forgoing an expensive dinner or a period of relaxation), however it is interesting in that it illustrates how lower levels of motivation may be sometimes tweaked to satisfy higher ones.

iii) Self-control:

The self-control of motivation is increasingly understood as a subset of emotional intelligence; a person may be highly intelligent according to a more conservative definition, yet unmotivated to dedicate this intelligence to certain tasks. Victor Vroom’s “Expectancy Theory” provides an account of when people will decide whether to exert self control to pursue a particular goal.
Drives and desires can be described as a deficiency or need that activates behaviour that is aimed at a goal or an incentive. These are thought to originate within the individual and may not require external stimuli to encourage the behaviour. Basic drives could be sparked by deficiencies such as hunger, which motivates a person to seek food; whereas more subtle drives might be the desire for praise and approval, which motivates a person to behave in a manner pleasing to others.

By contrast, the role of extrinsic rewards and stimuli can be seen in the example of training animals by giving them treats when they perform a trick correctly. The treat motivates the animals to perform the trick consistently, even later when the treat is removed from the process.

1.5.3 Motivational Theories:

i. Drive Reduction Theory:

Woodworth (1918) has given the idea that we dislike the feeling of discomfort to such an extent that we are driven to reduce the feeling and therefore become motivated in a particular way. This theory accounts for very basic activities, such as, eating, drinking, sleeping etc.

It can also account for more complex activities such as comforting someone (because we have something to say to them) or apologizing to a friend after an argument.

ii. Cognitive Dissonance Theory:

Suggested by Leon Festinger, this occurs when an individual experiences some degree of discomfort resulting from an incompatibility between two cognitions. For example, a consumer may seek to reassure himself regarding a purchase, feeling, in retrospect, that another decision may have been preferable.

Another example of cognitive dissonance is when a belief and a behavior are in conflict. A person may believe smoking is bad for one’s health and yet continues to smoke.
iii. Optimum level of Arousal Theory:

Routtenberg, (1968) have a view that there are wide ranging levels of individual differences- those with low levels (near boredom) prefer to lead safe, secure, predictable lives, whereas, those with high levels (near excitement) are constantly changing, often unhappy, and always looking for possible opportunities and alternatives.

iv. Need Achievement Theory:

David McClelland’s achievement motivation theory envisions that a person has a need for three things, but differs in degree in degrees to which the various needs influences their behavior: Need for achievement, Need for power and Need for affiliation. In his theory, he stated that achievement-motivated people have certain characteristics they are as follows:

1- A person with high n-Ach likes to take personal responsibility.
2- A person with high n-Ach likes to take moderate risks.
3- A person with high n-Ach want to know the result of his efforts.
4- A high n-Ach person tends to persists in the face of adversity.
5- A high n-Ach person tends to be innovative.
6- The high n-Ach person usually demonstrates some interpersonal competence.
7- A high n-Ach motivated individual is oriented towards the future.

v. Interests Theory:

Holland codes are used in the assessment of interests as in Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI; Holland, 1985). One way to look at interests is that if a person has a strong interest in one of the 6 Holland areas, then obtaining outcomes in that area will be strongly reinforcing relative to obtaining outcomes in areas of weak interest.
vi. Need Hierarchy Theory:

Abraham Maslow’s ‘hierarchy of human needs theory’ is the most widely discussed theory of motivation.

The theory can be summarized as thus:

a- Human beings have wants and desires which influence their behavior; only unsatisfied needs can influence behavior, satisfied needs cannot.

b- Since needs are many, they are arranged in order of importance, from the basic to the complex.

c- The person advances to the next level of needs only after the lower level need is at least minimally satisfied.

d- The further the progress up the hierarchy, the more individuality, humanness and psychological health a person will show.

The needs, listed from basic (lowest, earliest) to most complex(highest, latest) are

1- Physiological

2- Safety and security

3- Social

4- Self esteem’

5- Self actualization

6- Self Transcendence

vii. Herzberg’s two-factor theory:

Frederick Herzberg’s two-factor theory, intrinsic/extrinsic motivation, concludes that certain factors in the workplace result in job-satisfaction, but if absent, lead to dissatisfaction.
He distinguished between:

a- Motivators:-( e.g. challenging work, recognition, responsibility) which give positive satisfaction, and

b- Hygiene factors; (e.g. status, job security, salary and fringe benefits) that do not motivate if present, but, if absent, result in demotivation.

The nameHygiene factors is used because, like hygiene, the presence will not make you healthier, but absence can cause health deterioration.

The theory is sometimes called the “Motivator-Hygiene Theory.”

viii. Alderfer’s ERG Theory :

Clayton Alderfer, expanding on Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, created the ERG theory (existence, relatedness and growth). Physiological and safety, the lower order needs, are placed in the existence category, while love and self-esteem needs are placed in the relatedness category. The growth category contains our self-actualization and self-esteem needs.

ix. Self-Determination Theory :

Self-determination theory, developed by Edward Deci and Richard Ryan, focuses on the importance of intrinsic motivation in driving human behavior. Like Maslow’s hierarchical theory and others that built on it, SDT posits a natural tendency toward growth and development. Unlike these other theories, however, SDT does not include any sort of “autopilot” for achievement, but instead requires active encouragement from the environment. The primary factors that encourage motivation and development are autonomy, competence feedback, and relatedness.

x. Goal-Setting Theory :

Goal-setting theory is based on the notion that individual sometimes have a drive to reach a clearly defined end state. Often, this end state is a reward in itself. A goal’s efficiency is affected by three features; proximity, difficulty and specificity. An ideal goal should present a situation where the
The time between the initiation of behavior and the end state is close. This explains why some children are more motivated to learn how to ride a bike than mastering algebra. A goal should be moderate, not too hard or too easy to complete. In both cases, most people are not optimally motivated, as many want a challenge (which assumes some kind of insecurity of success.) At the same time people want to feel that there is a substantial probability that they will succeed. Specificity concerns the description of the goal in their class. The goal should be objectively defined and intelligible for the individual. A classic example of a poorly specified goal is to get the highest possible grade. Most children have no idea how much effort they need to reach that goal. For further reading, see Locke and Latham (2002).

1.5.4 Characteristics of People With High n-Achievement:

a. A Person With High n-Ach Likes To Take Personal Responsibility:

When he undertakes a task, he prefers to have it clearly understood that he will see it through. He wants the credit for the success of the undertaking, but he is equally prepared to accept the blame should it fail. The high n-Ach individual, then, is not a ‘buck passer’. When he is successful he does not rail against the unkind fate, nor lays the faults at his superiors, competitors, subordinates or the government. He likes games of skill. Games of chance do not appeal to him because he feels no control over their outcome.

b. High Achiever Prefers To Work On Challenging Task And Like To Take Moderate Risks Which Promises Success:

He does not like either excessive odds against his success or to easy a task. The reasonable possibility of failure excites him to increase his efforts he wants to make extra efforts to achieve his goal, on the other hand the person with low need for achievement prefer an easy task, where his likelihood of succeeding is quite high and where he can avoid a reasonable chance of failure. Such a person values security, and generally attempts
goals that are too difficult to achieve. However, a chance success may catapult him to glory. But such successes are rare. Since he can not be sure of succeeding, he wants to make it clear to the whole world that the task was so difficult that no one could really have succeeded. His failure is not due to him but success, even if by chance, is only due to him; Isn’t he great? A high n-Ach person enjoys a calculated risk where he feels that he is pitting himself against a worthy adversary, be this a human competitor or the conditions of the game.

c. A Person with High n-Ach Wants to Know the Results of his Efforts;

They like tasks with their performances can be compared with that of others. They like feed-back on how they are doing. They prefers that this be objective, and that it be available soon after he has finish the job. Not only is this ‘feedback’ stimulating and satisfying to him; He uses to adjust and improve his efforts. We find the high n-Ach person seeking task an occupations where this type of feedback is available, such as in sails or production rather than in industrial relations or research.

d. A High n-Ach Person Tends to Persist in the Face of Adversity:

He tends to raise his level of aspiration in a realistic way so that he will move on slightly more challenging and difficult takes. He is not easily discouraged by failure. His underlying self-confidence leads him to carry on despite setbacks. He looks at failures as temporary and as a natural part of the game. He uses the knowledge of his failures as a learning experience. The achievement motivated individual is not content to live the task unfinished. He feels tension so long as there is something undone. Some step must be taken to achieve the goal. So he tends to carry on or go back to the unfinished task and put forth extra efforts to carry it through to a definite conclusion. This is not to say, however, that he will continually hit his head against the wall. When it becomes clear that the odds are too much against him, he readily shifts tactics or ever objectives, it is noticeable, however,
that he is not quick to abundant a task simply because he has encountered
difficulties.

e. A High n-Ach Person Tends to be Innovative:

Once he has determined his goals, he is prepared to try. First one
approach and then another, we may say that he is more goal-oriented than
 technique-oriented. For him, the method of choice is the method which will
work best. If the commonsense approach does not work, he will invent new
ones. He is not a creative person in the sense that a painter or writer is. He
is, however, ingenious at adapting and modifying whatever is at hand to
solve the problem or achieve the objectives. He like to work situations in
which he has some control over the outcome, n-Ach people are not
gamblers.

f. A High n-Ach Person Usually Demonstrates Some Interpersonal
   Competence:

He recognizes the importance of interpersonal relationships in
achieving objectives. Therefore, he devotes responsible effort to develop and
maintain adequate relations with others. Because he is task oriented, he
selects experts as work colleagues, rather than friends and people of high
status.

g. A High n-Ach Motivated Individual is Oriented Towards The
   Future:

He tends to be persistent in working on tasks on which he perceive as
career related. While he may not necessarily have a clear idea of his long-
term goal, he addresses himself with maximum efforts to his task with the
underlying feeling that his successful accomplishment of this task will
 prepare him for more important activities in the future. Perhaps we can say
that he has some sense of destiny, that is, the belief that he is destined for
bigger things. Accordingly, each current task, no matter how, insignificant
it may be is perceived as important in itself because of its relationship to his own growth process and preparation for the future.

**h. Factor Influencing the Strong Need for Achievement:**

The need for achievement is considerably influenced by the following factors:

1. **Independence Training in Childhood:** Several studies show that early childhood experience has a lot to do with it. Individual who are high in need for achievement come from families where they have been trained to be independent right from childhood. Some individual are given enough freedom to do their task. Parents differ in how much they value independence in their children. Parents expect children to learn different things on their own. In some studies it is found that parent expect their children to act independently at an earlier age than did parents of people with less need for achievement.

2. **Socio-Cultural Environment:** In some societies like the ‘Arapesh’ of New Guinea and Zuni Indians, this motive is absent. In average American is high in need for achievement as compared to an average Indian. McClelland (1969) has shown how learning influences the n-Ach. Achievement motivation is a learned motive and is influenced considerably by our upbringing and socio-cultural environment. One’s socio-cultural environment also influences the need for achievement.

3. **Past Success:** Individual who has a past history of success in a given task is likely to be high in need for achievement as compared to those who have a past history of failure.

4. **Sex:** Another factor is the sex of the individual. It is said that sex influences need for achievements. Women generally show low level of n-Ach as compared to men. There is a greater-emphasis on achievement by males than by females in the American society. According to Maslow’s (1954) theory people are not free to emphasize achievement needs unless
psychological safety and belongingness needs are reasonably well met. Thus people who live constantly with deprivation threat and loneliness are less likely to have strong achievement needs.

5. Economic Growth: McClelland, D.C. et al. have done considerable work on the need for achievement. McClelland has observed that need for achievement is related to economic growth. Research studies have found relations between achievement motivation and economic progress in society. It has found that achievement is followed by economic progress in the society. Societies with a high need for achievement have a high rate of economic growth than societies with a low need for achievement.

1.5.5 The Measurement of n-Ach:

Psychologists have developed tests to measure social motives in general and need for achievement in particular. Projective tests are generally used to measure the need achievement. The technique McClelland and his collaborators development to measure n-Achievement, n-Affiliation and n-Power (McClelland et al, 1958) can be viewed as a radical break with the dominant psychometric tradition. However, it should be recognized that McClelland’s thinking was strongly influenced by the pioneering work of Henry Murray, both in terms of Murray’s model of human needs and motivational processes (1956) and his work with the OSS during World War Two. It was during this period that Murray introduced the idea of “situation tests” and multirater/multi-method assessment. It was Murray who first identified the significance of Need for Achievement, Power and Affiliation and placed these in the context of an integrated motivational model.

Whilst trait-based personality theory assume that high-level competencies like initiative, creativity, and leadership can be assessed using “internally consistent” measure the McClelland measures recognize that such competencies are difficult and demanding activities which will neither be developed nor displayed unless people are undertaking activates they care about (Strongly motivated to undertake). Furthermore, it is the cumulative
number of independent, but cumulative and substitutable, components of competence they bring to bear while seeking to carry out these activities that will determine their success. Accordingly, the n-Ach, n-Aff and n-Pow scoring systems simply count how many components of competence people bring to bear whilst carrying out activities they have a strong personal inclination (or motivation) to undertake.

An important corollary is that there is no point in trying to assess people’s abilities without first finding out what they care about. So one cannot (as some psycho-metricians try to do) assess such things as “creativity” in any general sense. One has always to ask “creativity in relation to what?” So McClelland’s measures, originally presented as means of assessing “personality”, are best understood as means of measuring competence in ways which break radically with traditional psychometric approaches.

1.5.6 n-Ach and Gender:

The researcher is also interested to know the relationship between n-Ach and gender. From the several studies it is revealed that the males had higher achievement scores than the females. In one study i.e. a study by Godwin A. Ugal (1990) of Nigeria, it is fond that Nigerian female students had higher achievement score than their Indian female students had higher achievement score than their Indian female counterparts. Male subjects consistently improved their scores from ‘neutral’ to around conditions, while female subjects responded more complex ways than did males.

Achievement Motivation (n-Ach) is third important area of this research study. Following are some of the studies relevant to the Achievement motivation. Godwin A. Ugal of Nigeria (1990) made a study on “Sex difference in Achievement motivation among Indian and Nigerian University students.” This study was carried out to examine the sex differences among 50 Indian and Nigerian University students. Results revealed that the males had higher achievement score than their Indian
female counterparts. Results were discussed in the light of cultural and socialization differences.

Bimaleshar De and Aftab Ahmad Khan (1969) of Patna University have conducted a study on Achievement Motivation. The study was on “Achievement Motivation and two personality dimension.” The results obtained in this study are summarized as follows:

1. There is a significant difference between arts and science student in the need achievement score. The science students were found more achievement oriented than the arts one.

2. Arts students score significantly higher on neuroticism scale than science students.

Mc Clelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell (1953) used the thematic apperceptions test to measure the achievement motivation. Atkinson(1957) showed that any situation which calls for evaluation against a standard of excellence, gives rise to two dissimilar alternative motives, He labeled them as motive to achieve success (MS) and motive to avoid failure’.

Achievement motivation and adjustment are important aspects of personality characteristic of successful executives (Schults & Schults 1954).

1.6 Achievement and Anxiety:

Atkinson is one of early studies (1953) on the Zaigarnik effect in high and low n. Achievers found that Ss with low n-Ach scores, based on TAT were performing better under relaxed than under achievement-oriented conditions. These findings could not be explained upon the basis of n-Ach alone. Hence, a separate motive to avoid failure had to be postulated. This motive is also aroused under achievement test conditions. Later researchers have led to the inevitable conclusion that the two motives are independent and uncorrelated, when tested under neutral concision (Atkinson and Litwin, 1960; Mahone, 1960; ‘O’connor, 1960; Atkinson and Feather, 1966). If the two variables are assumed to be normally distributed, the high n-Ach score
on TAT will be higher in Ss with strong motive to Achieve success, although they would have similar distribution of $M_{AF}$ scores as in medium and low n-Ach scores. Similarly, the medium and low scorers will have more failure avoidant tendencies because the Ms is relatively weak, hence $M_{AF}$ will have relatively more influence resulting in a stronger tendency to avoid failure (Atkinson and Feather 1966). Thus it appears that the n-Ach scores on TAT are a measure of Ms. However, predictions may be improved by using a separate measure of $M_{AF}$ along with a measure of Ms. This also facilitates selection of Ss who are high n-achievers as well as low in anxiety and also Ss who are low n- Achievers and highly anxious.

The motive to avoid failure refers to that disposition of the individual due to which he experiences humiliation, discomfort and shame when an activity results in failure. The individual with this motive finds the achievement takes which are moderately difficult i.e. have 0.5 probability of success, unattractive. The tendency to avoid failure is strong when $M_{FA}$ is strong because $T-f = (M_{AF} \times pf \times if)$. The tendency to avoid failure is an inhibitory tendency, therefore, the person with this tendency is apt to avoid achievement situations, and participates in them only when it becomes essential to do so. Fear of failure is thus a defense against devaluation in the achievement area. His achievement related performance thus suffers to the extent to which anxiety is aroused by the situation.

A separate measure of fear of failure along with TAT or other measure of motive to achieve success has been employed in recent researches, in order to have a better appraisal of the resultant motivation. A number of researchers have used test Anxiety questionnaire (TAQ) of Mandler-Serason (1952) (Atkinson and Litwin, 1960; Mahone, 1960; Feather 1961). Recent researches have shown that Ss who have low n-Ach and high anxiety scores actually have $M_{AF} > Ms$, (Karabenick and Youssef, 1968). Tripathi and Agarwal (1978) found that student leaders had significantly higher n-Ach in comparison to nonleaders and in the ego
involving success failure condition reflected significantly less anxiety than nonleaders on sinha anxiety scale.

The TAQ is a measure of anxiety experienced by an individual in achievement test situations. Therefore, the position of Mandler Sarason is closer to that of Miller (1948) who believes fear of anxiety to be a response to the specific cues of the situation. Manifest anxiety as measured by Taylor’s test (1953) has also been sometimes used as a measure of fear of failure. Test anxiety, however focuses more directly upon the anxiety experienced in the achievement test situation and has, therefore, been used more frequently. A number of other measures have also been developed to measure fear of failure e.g. Achievement Anxiety Test (Alpert and Haber, 1960; Dember, Nairne and Miller 1962; Milholland, 1964). Some projective measures of fear of failure have also been developed (Moulton, 1958 Birney, Bardick and Teevan, 1961, 1969, Heckhausen 1963).

In a study Litting (1970) Demonstrated that when TAQ scores were obtained from the same Ss twice, over a period of several years anxiety was seen to be related with the contemporary attainment in different occupations only and not with aspirations. The author concluded that test anxiety was more of a measure of the state of anxiety rather than a trait or stable disposition of the person to be anxious. A problem, therefore, arises as to whether the fear of failure is a stable motive or a situationally determined a variable.

Atkinson (1964) has proposed that high scores on the test of A-trait reflect a fear of failure while Sarason (1960) has demonstrated the importance of the experimental situation in arousing the feelings of self deprecation and anxiety. Experimental findings support Atkinson’s view that fear of failure is an important characteristic of high A-trait persons. These also support Sarason’s conclusion that high A-trait person suffer more decrements in efficiency than low A-trait person under ego-involving
conditions or conditions calling for self-evaluation (Denney, 1966; Spielberger 1966b, Spielberger and Simth 1966).

Spielberger (1972) has concluded that situations which appear to be subjectively threatening give rise to state of anxiety in an individual irrespective of the objective danger. Since high A-trait individuals tend to perceive situations involving failure and threat to self esteem as more intimidating and foreboding, than the low A-trait persons, situations which involve achievement testing, or difficult testing, arouse a higher A-state in high A-treat $s$ as compared to low A trait $s$ (O’ Neil, Hansen and Spielberger 1969). Even in computer assisted instruction learning tasks, high A-trait $s$ committed more errors throughout the study, these differences were, however, significant only for easier sections of the learning tasks but not in the performance of difficult parts of the tasks, (O’ Neil, 1970) Spielberger et.al. (1970) reported that in a group of students coming for counseling in educational vocational problems at a university counseling center the correlation between A-trait scores and achievement as measured by Personality Research From (Jackson 1967) was -.2. The correlation between achievement and a state was -.10.

It may therefore, be concluded that A-trait is a measure of fear of failure. A-state also measure fear of failure if it is measured in conditions calling for self-assessment, because under such condition high A-trait $s$ respond with higher A-state as compared with the low A-trait $s$s. Hence two measures of anxiety were employed in the present study, one each for trait and state anxiety.

1.7 Significance of the Problems:

With references to the above introduction of the background of significance to the problem the researcher charley formulated frame of social study of the problem of tribal girls is known as a tribal belt. This is an age of globalization. Many foreign universities intrude India.
International school and colleges invade the land. Foreign companies are creating a network. He is also associated with the tribal area. Therefore he is attracted towards the problem. He observed many differences in living style of tribal’s. There is sharp difference between the anxiety, Adjustment and achievement motivation of the trebles and non-tribal girls. Pada is one of the groups of tribals. He is well aware about the lifestyle of tribal because he is originally from tribal area. In Satpuda ranges Dhule, Jalgaon, Nandurbar Districts are included while in western ghat region.

Tribal’s are original people of the region and they have their particular norms, their festivals, ceremonies, food habits, family life style etc. there are not many psychological studies of the tribal’s but may studies are done in the field sociology, Anthropology and social work. Therefore, the researcher wants to focus on the tribal community. From the tribal community selected between the age group between 14 to 18 years. Because they all are school and college going students and shaping their personality, through their education. The researcher also observed many difficulties in their personality development project, they are very shy and having inferiority complex for inter-personal skill. There is a need for such combination and to build a solid foundation for life with goal setting, self esteem, mental discipline, inter-personal relation, communication skills, leadership skills and creativity.

After independence, in democratic, secular and socialist India, the schools have been thrown open to all the sections of society, irrespective of their caste and creed, including the tribal’s. This is to provide an equal opportunity for the development of potentialities of every citizen of India. However, it is a matter of common experience that this objective has not been achieved even to this day. The tribal females have remained far behind
their counterparts, belonging to non-tribal women. A large majority of tribal girls remain illiterate. Only some of them go to primary school but they drop out of the school soon after. The percentage of wastage and stagnation is much higher among tribal girls as compared to that among non-tribal girls. Only a few enter the doors of secondary schools and here, too, their performance is not up to the mark. The quality of their education might be affected by several factors.

As we think over the problem of the quality of education of the tribal and non-tribal girls, a number of questions crop up. Is their performance to be judge on the basis of the scores of examination or achievement test only? Should we also consider the performance of girls, tribal as well as non-tribal, in other school activities as a mark of achievement? The girls, towards the end of secondary school education, being to think of their future career. They want to become ‘something’ and to do ‘something’ in order to be happy in life. In other words each of them adjusts to achieve some status. This feeling serves as a motivating force. The question arises; are all the girls, tribal and non-tribal, reading in the same school, equally motivated? Do they differ in the levels of Adjustment, do the differently motivated girls achieve differently? In what way is Adjustment related to achievement? Adjustment helps in getting goals of achievement in school life.

When these goals are not achieved, the result is frustration or anxiety experience. Sometimes, this kind of experience may cause discouragement which is detrimental to achievement and sometimes it strengthens the effort. The school girls, tribals and non-tribal, do have frustrating or anxiety experiences that affect the quality of their achievement. Hence some more questions arise, namely. Do the girls of both categories really differ in respect of Adjustment, Anxiety? Does anxiety affect the quality of achievement as shown by the relationship of these two variables.

These two aspects and questions, mentioned above in relation of the education of tribal and non-tribal girls are important. Unless these are
properly examined, the provision made for their education will go waste. The present research seeks to find answer to the questions suggested above and explores the psychological factors affecting the quality of achievement motivation of tribal and non-tribal girls.

Ultimately, the success of educational efforts depends vary much on the learners though all kinds of facilities may be provided. As earlier discussed, all out efforts is being made by the Central and a State government to improve the lot of scheduled tribe’s students; but the lot of this deprived class has not yet improved. The reason is that the psychology of scheduled tribe students has not been fully understood. The present study seeks to do so, that it could be ensured as to what psychological factors hinder the learning of scheduled tribe and non scheduled tribe girl’s student. Among the factors that influence the performance of the students, adjustment, anxiety and achievement motivation are most important.

An in depth study relating to these factors operating in the education of tribal and non tribal girls is needed. Moreover, the comparison of these factors operating in tribal and non-tribal girls education has also not been so for made. It is necessary to see how the tribal girls compare with non-tribal girls in their adjustment, achievement. This may help planners and administrators to have a fresh look into the management of education.

The scientific investigation of the factors influencing the achievement of the individual, in the academic areas as well as non-academic areas in gaining importance because of the fact that the achievement, whether in the academic or non-academic areas, does influence the development of personality indirectly and then it has some concern with the instructional procedure also.

To uplift the scheduled tribe girls of Maharashtra educationally raise them to the level of their non-tribal counterpart, it becomes essential for us to look into the adjustment level and anxiety of the scheduled tribe girls and to study deeply the levels of achievement motivation and also see how these
factors influence the academic performance of the scheduled tribal girls. But only a few studies have been made in this direction. There is, therefore, a growing need for studying the Anxiety, adjustment and levels of achievement motivation of the scheduled tribe’s girls. It is important and necessary for providing appropriate and worthwhile guidance to the scheduled tribe girls.

Motivational level of adjustment, as a determinate in the achievement of goal is very important. As we are all aware, of all activities of human beings are motivated by their adjustment. If the adjustment and motivation is high, individual try to put is labour commensurate with the adjustment. The higher level of motivation and adjustment the higher would be the achievement. The lower the level of motivation and Adjustment, the lower would be the Achievement.

Adjustment as a motivational determinant is also a factor that may influence the academic achievement. The scheduled tribe girls may face such situation in their life which in turn influences their achievement.

The basic question that emerges from all this is whether the level of anxiety, adjustment and achievement motivation have any bearing upon the educational achievement of students whether the tribal and non tribal girls indicate divergence in this regard. The present investigation has therefore been designed to explore and compare the level of Anxiety, Adjustment and Achievement motivation of scheduled tribal and non-scheduled tribe girls in relation to their achievement. The study further envisages to attempt to identify the level, of achievement of tribal and non tribal students with matching level of Anxiety and Adjustment. In brief, this study is a humble attempt to survey the level of Anxiety, Adjustment, and Achievement motivation of tribal and non tribal girls and to find out whether the scheduled tribe’s females are really ambitious and their motivation and adjustment level is very high.
Robbins and Hunsakes (1996) define skill as a system of behaviour that can be applied in wide range of situation. Tribal students are away from hard skill required to perform the function and specific job as the hard skill are acquired through learning over a period of time. Hard skills alone will not be sufficient to survive successfully in today’s life. Secondly soft skills like listening, communication, team building, leadership, problem solving, time management, negotiation, conflict management, assertiveness, feedback counseling, presentation and monitoring. Our education system focuses on hard skills more than on soft skills, therefore tribal students lack behind in dealing with others. Tribal literacy, especially in girls, is meager, in spite of spending lot of money on education. This paradox should be studied seriously an honestly too. The tribal children are not interested to go to school in spite of sufficient number of schools, boarding schools, lot of teachers and various educational aids are available. The reasons should be studied and the remedies should be sought out. They should be taught the importance of education. It is observed that ‘language’ is a main obstacle in their way of earning. There is no common language among them. They are a need of a soft skill for develop their inter-personal relations, appropriate decision, effective communication and profession development. These skills are very importance for their al round development. Keeping these views in mind the researcher selects such problem.

Mcfall (1985) focused on specific component of inter-personal skill while Hargie (1997) defined inter-personal skill for goal directed and social behaviour. Secondly negotiations stage is very important for there achievement motivation. Approach negotiation skill is focusing on primary objective, their demands and interests. Therefore they are in need of awareness for their. Leadership development is necessary.
Leaders innovate administration and control according to Bennis (1989) and for the tribal youth this is essential. Tribals are very submissive to several people. Therefore the researcher wants to demand confidence building, planning co-ordinating, selection making interaction negotiation and monetary freedom, all these fortune are very useful for their psycho-social progress through their Shaizad, Suhail (2002) stated that the tribal youth have basic potentialities but they are away from opportunities, which affects their achievement motivation.

Value is very important for their personality development and family background. Social environment encourages their values associated with their social situation. Therefore the researcher wants to study the psycho-social study of girls of tribal area to understand their problems and solution.