CHAPTER : 1

PROLOGUE

Education is an important mean to shapes the personal growth and life chances of students, as well as the economic and social progress of our Nation. Pleasurable educational experiences of young students, such as reading daily, practical demonstrations, encourage the development of essential skills and prepare students for success in colleges. Parents send their children to school and colleges to achieve increasingly high educational attainments.

This is an age of globalization. Many foreign universities intrude India. International schools and colleges invade the land. Foreign companies are creating a network in educational settings. In the field of higher education govt. imparted traditional arts, science and commerce education which is called as non-professional and simultaneously engineering, management and medical education called as professional. Though the strength of students is large in the non-professional stream, the opportunities of services and jobs are very less to them. Day by day, the gaps between the professional and non-professional streams are becoming vast. The Researcher herself is from non-professional stream education system. Simultaneously, she has been working in the senior arts, science and commerce college. She is associated with students. Therefore, she has been attracted towards the problem. She observed many differences in living style, thinking patterns and attitudes of professional and non-professional college students. She thinks that there is sharp difference between the need for
achievement (achievement motivation), assertiveness and anxiety of professional and non-professional college students.

In this context anxiety, assertiveness and need for achievements of professional and non-professional college students are the major psychological constructs which are important to understand. In this study researcher has been concentrated on the higher educational atmosphere of the individual which is leading to his or her overall development.

Anxiety leads to participate in high-risk or illegal behaviors can have severe, long-term consequences for youth and society. Past researches proved that encouraging parents who serve independence to their children, Praise and rewards for success, Association of achievement with positive feelings, association of achievement with one's own competence and effort, not luck, a desire to be effective or challenged, intrapersonal strength is there, then the children achieve more and more up to their potentials without any anxiety and become more assertive in their life.

Professional college students are the students of various medical, engineering and nonprofessional college students are of the arts and commerce stream which also called traditional education. Generally it is observed that traditional educational students are having more anxiety and stress about their future so their achievement level will be low. And it is general observation that professional college students are more assertive than nonprofessional college students. In this context what is the real situation? Therefore, researcher has been selected this topic for research.
1.1 Delineation of the concepts:

1.1.1) Achievement Motivation: Need for Achievement (n-Ach)

Achievement motivation is a one of the trait or characteristic of college 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 (1958). 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 minimise 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.

a) 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 results based on the TAT, McClelland demonstrated that individuals 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 scorers. 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 personal 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 associates 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.

b) **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 behaviour. One of the major aims of psychological research has been to explain which motivates us to 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.

i) **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 principles 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 (e.g., Yerkes and Dodson, 1908). 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?

ii) 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 perceptions (often labeled feelings), and subjective cognitive labeling of
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.

c) **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 if the person receives the reward immediately, the effect would be greater, and decreases 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 reinforcer is different from reward, in that reinforcement is intended to create a measured increase 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 amount 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.

d) Motivational Theories:

1. 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 apologising to a friend after an argument.
2. **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.

3. **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.

4. **Need Achievement Theory**

David McClelland’s achievement motivation theory envisions that a person has a need for three things, but differs in degrees to which the various needs influence 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 wants to know the results of his efforts.

4- A high n-Ach person tends to persist 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.

5 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.

6 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

7. **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 name Hygiene 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."

8. **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.

9. **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.

10. **Goal-setting theory**

Goal-setting theory is based on the notion that individuals 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
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).

e) 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 to 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 task. 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 peoples 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.

f) Factors 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. (Ruth Benedict, 1934) and (McClelland, D.C. 1969)

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 achievements needs.
5. Economic Growth: McClelland, D.C. et al. (1953) 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 relation 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.

g) 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 techniques McClelland and his collaborators developed 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 (1938) and his work with the OSS during World War Two. It was during this period that Murray introduced the idea of "situation tests" and multi-rater/multi-method assessments. 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” measures the McClelland measures recognize that such competencies are difficult and demanding activities which will neither be developed nor displayed unless people are undertaking activities 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 psychometricians 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.

h) 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 found 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 differences in achievement motivation among Indian and Nigerian University students.” This study was carried out to examine the sex differences among 500 Indian and Nigerian University students. Results revealed that the males had higher achievement scores than the females in both the cultures. The findings also show that Nigerian female’s students had higher achievements score than their Indian female counterparts. Results were discussed in the light of cultural and socialization differences.

Bimaleshwar 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 dimensions.” The results obtained in this study are summarized as follows:-

1. There is 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.
1.1.2) Assertiveness

Assertiveness is a term first used by Joseph Wolpe. Wolpe is most well known for his reciprocal inhibition techniques and systematic desensitization which revolutionized behavioral therapy. For the successful negotiation of any transaction whether political, business, social or exchange of intimacy and pleasure, prerequisite thing is the absence of aggression and tolerance for other’s individuality. As pointed by Sharma, G. C. (1982), ‘Individuals whose mode of relating to others, if based solely on submissiveness and self-sacrifice, will in the long range are likely to feel angry, frustrated and chronically depressed since they postpone meeting their own needs and dealing with their own feelings. On the other hand, the aggressive individual shows no regard for the needs and the feelings of others and consequently ends up alienating others and thus failing to meet his personal and interpersonal needs. Fortunately, the option of being assertive is available to those who choose to avoid extremes and have deep rooted faith in the rights and responsibilities of others.’

Assertiveness is a trait taught by many personal development experts and psychotherapists and the subject of many popular self-help books. It is linked to self-esteem and considered an important communication skill. As a communication style and strategy, assertiveness is distinguished from aggression and passivity. How people deal with personal boundaries; their own and those of other people, helps to distinguish between these three concepts. Passive communicators do not defend their own personal boundaries and thus allow aggressive people to harm or otherwise unduly influence them. They are
also typically not likely to risk trying to influence anyone else. Aggressive people do not respect the personal boundaries of others and thus are liable to harm others while trying to influence them. A person communicates assertively by not being afraid to speak his or her mind or trying to influence others, but doing so in a way that respects the personal boundaries of others. They are also willing to defend themselves against aggressive incursions.

a) Definition

An assertive style of behavior is to interact with people while standing up for your rights. Being assertive is to one's benefit most of the time but it does not mean that one always gets what he/she wants. The result of being assertive is that you feel good about yourself other people know how to deal with you and there is nothing vague about dealing with you.

The typical example of genuine assertiveness is India’s independence struggle and the crux of Gandhism. Assertive behaviour can be defined as that type of interpersonal behaviour in which a person stands up for his/her legitimate rights in such a way that the rights of others are not violated. Assertive behaviour is an honest, direct, confident and appropriate expression of one’s feelings, beliefs and opinions.

Generally, behaviour can be classified as assertive, aggressive and non-aggressive. The definitions presented below are taken from ‘facilitating the growth of women through assertive training’ by Patricia Jakuchowski- Specter of Washington University, U.S.A.
b) **Assertive people have the following characteristics:**

They feel free to express their feelings, thoughts, and desires.

They know their rights.

They have control over their anger. It does not mean that they repress this feeling. It means that they control it for a moment and then talk about it later in a reasoning manner.

c) **Techniques**

i) **Broken record**

A popular technique advocated by assertiveness experts is the Broken record technique. This consists of simply repeating your requests every time you are met with illegitimate resistance. The term comes from vinyl records, the surface of which when scratched would lead the needle of a record player to loop over the same few seconds of the recording indefinitely. However, a disadvantage with this technique is that when resistance continues, your requests lose power every time you have to repeat them. If the requests are repeated too often it can backfire on the authority of your words. In these cases it is necessary to have some sanctions on hand.

ii) **Fogging**

Another technique some suggest is called Fogging, which consists of finding some limited truth to agree with in what an antagonist is saying. More specifically, one can agree in part or agree in principle.
iii) Negative inquiry

Negative inquiry consists of requesting further, more specific criticism. Negative assertion however, is agreement with criticism without letting up demand.

iv) I statements

I statement can be used to voice one's feelings and wishes from a personal position without expressing a judgment about the other person or blaming one's feelings on them.

v) Examples

Gandhi's struggle for India's independence, along with the communication strategy and actions he used for this, are a good example of assertiveness. He used a people movement which he called "Satyagraha" which used non violent resistance as a means to achieve his objective. He kept communicating the Indians' right to rule themselves to the British, irrespective of what the British thought about Indians. Gandhi was sent to jail several times and in many cases was asked to pay a fine for opposing British rule. He never agreed to pay the fine, saying that he had the right to say what he thought was correct. After several decades of this struggle, India became independent.

d) Assertive Behavior

The behavioral characteristics of assertion include:

Openness implies being clear and specific about what you want, think and feel. A lack of openness often leads to misunderstanding. "I didn't like that
movie", "I feel irritated when you show up late", "I want to eat Chinese. Can we get Chinese?" are statements that are clear and unlikely to be misinterpreted.

Directness means addressing the person / situation directly. For example, if you are in a group and want to say something to someone, communicate directly with that person instead of addressing the whole group and hoping that the person gets the message. Or, if you want your husband to get you vegetables from the supermarket, address it directly, "Will you please get a packet of frozen peas from the supermarket?" instead of asking, "Will you, by any chance, be going out today?".

Honesty in communication implies that you be truthful and not mislead the other person. Example: your friend says, "I don't like your hairstyle" and you reply, "Yes, I don't too" when in fact you actually do. When we aren't honest, we deprive the other person a chance to get to understand and know us better.

Appropriateness implies taking the social and cultural context into consideration before communicating. Asking out a girl in a bar might be appropriate, but trying to get a date with a widow on her husband's funeral can certainly get you into trouble. In other words, don't forget your manners!

If our communication isn't open and direct, the other party has to do a lot of guessing work to determine what we are actually trying to say or want. They may also feel manipulated (especially if you are being dishonest too). Behaving inappropriately will lose you respect and invite ire against you.
As we grow older and deal with more complex social interactions between friends, family and co-workers, we also learn to be flexible. Here, flexibility implies learning to control emotions so that we can choose our communication style as per the situation, and not let our emotions dictate our approach.

For example, if your life partner or boss is yelling at you, it would be more prudent (and assertive) of you to NOT give in to anger and be aggressive too. However with a stranger you might prefer (choose) to be angry and aggressive when threatened, to have an advantage. Or you might purposefully choose to be passive when you are being robbed at gun point, so as to not endanger your life (even if you know Karate and fell like thrashing the mugger!).

e) Becoming Assertive

After understanding the basic concepts, the next step in assertiveness training is practicing it out. Assertiveness training deals with behaviors of various complexity. In the first phase, we need to practice our non-verbal cues. This means, while communicating

Stand straight

Make eye contact

Speak loud enough
1.1.3) Anxiety

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 generalized mood state that occurs without an identifiable triggering stimulus. 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.

Anxiety is a normal reaction to stress. It may help a person to deal with a difficult situation, for example at work or at school, by prompting one to cope with it. When anxiety becomes excessive, it may fall under the classification of an anxiety disorder.

a) Symptoms

Anxiety can be accompanied by physical effects such as heart palpitations, nausea, chest pain, Shortness of breath, stomach aches, or headaches. Physically, the body prepares the organism to deal with a threat. 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 pupillary dilation. Someone suffering from anxiety might also experience it as a sense of dread or 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 underlie anxiety. When confronted with unpleasant and potentially harmful stimuli such as foul odors or tastes, PET-scans show increased bloodflow 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: ontic (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 meaning 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. Students 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 parents or friends, time pressures, or feeling a loss of control. Emotional, cognitive, behavioral, and physical components can all be present in test anxiety. Sweating, dizziness, headaches, racing heartbeats, nausea, 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 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 specific 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.

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 developmentally appropriate fear by toddlers and preschool children of those who are not parents or family members. In adults, an excessive fear of other people is not a developmentally common stage; it is called social anxiety.

d) 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.

e) 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 as to its significance, agreement about the nature of the phenomenon is 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 definitions 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 Martin and Sroufe (1970), and Martin (1971) between 'stimulus-oriented' and 'response-oriented' definitions 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 responses that constitute the anxiety reactions. 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 fear 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 being able to say what he thinks threatens"

The American Psychological Association (1952) defines it as, "a danger-signal 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 situations." 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" (1958, p. 17).

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).

Basowitz et al 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 cues 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 (1969), "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 "neurophysiological 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 as an extension of irritability and vigilance."

James Kritzeck (1955) observed that anxiety was a central concern in the writing of the Medieval Arab Philosopher Ala Ib m 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) bas 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 had significant influence on latters theory of anxiety. In view of the ever increasing stress of life in modern society, theory of anxiety have proliferated during the present century. Sigmund Freud (1936) is undoubtedly the first psychologist who brought the significance of anxiety to the foreground of psychological 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.

f) The psychoanalytic approach: Freud

Sigmund Freud, the originator of the theory and method of psychoanalysis, attempted to explicate 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 phenomena 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 source 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" (1936).

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, "analysis of anxiety state, therefore, reveals existence of (1) a specific character of unpleasure, (2) acts of discharge, and (3) perceptions of these acts" (1926, pp. 132-133). 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 Source 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 an state and Freud believes that, "anxiety is modelled 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;


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 begins to show increased sensitivity to the outer world and becomes capable for coping with internal and external danger. The ego has the difficult task of obeying three harsh masters; the external world, the superego, and the 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 threat from the instinctual impulses of the id. A person can evade reality-anxiety through flight but it can not avoid moral anxiety because the source of moral anxiety is intra-psychic. Neurotic anxiety may take three forms: free floating anxiety, phobic anxiety and panic state of anxiety. Anxiety, neurosis is one example of 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 functions 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 object 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 results. 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.

g) 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 objectives of pursuit of bodily needs, and pursuit of security i.e. avoidance of anxiety. The person-necessary environment complex is like a field and, as such,
can have different degrees of equilibrium or disequilibrium. The causes of disequilibrium are: tensions 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 everyday 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 the concept of 'empathy' which means 'seeing' ourselves as others 'see' us and 'feeling' about ourselves as others feel about us.

h) The ego-psychological approach

Of the many ego-psychologists, Jacobson (1953, 1964) 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 is unprepared to meet the instinctual urges, anxiety works as a signal 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.

i) 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 scientists 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 sequences 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" (1890, p.449).

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 changes 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 (Olds and Milner, 1954; Brady 1958; Heath 1964). 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 result 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" (Malmo, 1957).

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-hypophysical control of endocrine function which consequently affects the changes in the ANS. The awareness of the feeling of anxiety in the person, perhaps results from nonspecific reticular control of cortical activity.

Related to the above hypothesis, is the theory of general arousal put forth by Duffy (1941), Malmo (1959), Schachter & Wheeler (1962), Schachter and Singer (1962), Levi (1963), Korchin (1964) and Schachter (1964). This theory holds that there are no particular physiological patterns correlative to particular emotional states. Rather, "the physiological reaction is simply a general arousal or activation. The subjective experience of a specific emotion exists solely on the cognitive or psychological level (Levitt 1967).

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, frontallis 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 totality 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 is vast" (1972).

j) 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. He 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" (1939).

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 this 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 work 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 behaviors are consequences 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 to 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 neutral cues … we say that it is a drive because it can motivate, and its reduction reinforces the learning of new responses......... Therefore, we call fear of a previously neutral cue, a learned drive" (19)0, p. 68).

How the sources of fear become obscured and it takes the form 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. On the other hand, when the source is obscured as a result of repression, anxiety emerges. Repression has been used by these
Another theorist who employed the learning theory approach to the phenomenon of anxiety was Eysenck. In addition to the use of learning principles, Eysenck (1947, 1955, 1957, 1960, 1965) also gives due importance to personality factors in the development of anxiety. He has postulated two major dimensions of personality, namely, neuroticism and introversion-extraversion. In his view, all the neurotic behaviors of individual can be analyzed in terms of interactions of these two personality dimensions. 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 dimension. The neurotic individual is excessively sensitive and responsive to anxiety provoking stimuli because of his inherited autonomic nervous system tendencies. This genetically determined 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 processes involved in socialization. Such a person becomes an introvert and is characterized by excessive guilt, shame, and anxiety. On the other hand, 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 behaviours. 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 consequences 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 of 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 Iowa group made use of the Taylor's Manifest Anxiety Scale (Taylor ] 953) and tested their hypothesis, that anxiety acts as a drive, which was generally confirmed.
k) 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 to foresee all the consequences 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 the personality" (1972).
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' reactions. 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, changes 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" (1963, p. 291).

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" (1951, 58).

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 causally with events in the external world, and (3) it has no reference to an object i.e. it "deals with nothingness. It is the 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 fear 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" (1951, p. 511). 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 percepts 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-is it 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 is found to have no signal value of significance. However, under certain conditions the vigilance response is sustained over a larger period and gives rise to anxiety. Lidell presents his view in the following manner: "Let us suppose that natural mechanisms for intelligent action are phylogenetically derived from the primitive, rigid and sluggish conditioning or expectancy mechanisms of the 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 adjustments to the environment will give place 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, what is it" (1974. pp. 189191).

**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 no longer enable a person to relate meaningfully to the world around him. On the response side anxiety may be accompanied by behavioural and physiological manifestations; 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 of 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" (1972 p. 250).

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 can not 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 method of 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 normals 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 hand, is based on a pattern of variables that covary over occasions of measurement and is a transitory state of the individual which fluctuates over time. 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" (1961, p. 57 & 182). 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 distinction 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" (1972 p. 39).

"Trait anxiety (A-trait) refers to relatively stable individual differences in anxiety proneness, that is, to differences in the disposition 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 elevations of greater intensity (1972, p. 30.)

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 regards 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 an 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 psychologists. Dollard 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 Spilberger 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 constructs which have been given the name "acquired behavioral dispositions" by Campbell (1963) and "motives" by Atkinson (1964). According to Campbell (1963) acquired behavioral dispositions involve residues of previous experience and predispose the person to see the world in a particular way and to manifest "object-consistent" 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 concepts of kinetic and potential energy."

In consonance with above conceptualization, the present research is rooted in the conceptual distinction between anxiety as a state and anxiety as a trait. The problem under study is related to A-trait, that is individual differences in anxiety proneness. It is perhaps worthwhile to hope that persons having differences in anxiety proneness probably have differential personality characteristics and that the development of A-trait differences may be related to differences in certain antecedent demographic factors.

1.2 Significance of the study:

Education shapes the personal growth and life chances of children, as well as the economic and social progress of our Nation. Early educational
experiences of young children, such as enjoying reading, encourage the development of essential skills and prepare children for success in school. Parents send their children to school to achieve increasingly high educational attainments. In this context family environment facilitates children’s growth. The child develops to their full potential if the surrounding environment is favourable. In this study researcher has been concentrated on the educational atmosphere of the individual which is leads to his or her overall development. In the family environment there are so many factors contribute, e. g. Health care, physical environment and safety, behaviour pattern, education and health. Health care includes the prevention, treatment, and management of illness and the preservation of mental and physical well-being. Effective health care is an important aspect of promoting good health outcomes. Children’s physical environments should support their healthy development and be safe from hazardous conditions. Indicators of physical environment and safety include exposure to air and sound pollutants, drinking water contaminants, and lead, as well as measures of housing problems and deaths from injury. Inadequate, crowded, or costly housing can pose serious problems to children’s physical, psychological, and material well-being. Adolescent’s participation in high-risk or illegal behaviors can have severe, long-term consequences for youth and society. These behaviors include cigarette smoking, drinking alcohol, using illicit drugs, engaging in sexual activity, and participating in violent crimes. Alcohol use by adolescents can also have severe consequences: its use is associated with motor vehicle accidents, injuries, and deaths; problems in
school; and fighting and crime. Children’s health is influenced by their biological, social and physical environment, and behaviors, as well as the availability of services. Main health conditions, including low birth weight, emotional and behavioral difficulties, asthma, and overweight, that may result from a combination of these influences. Low birth weight (LBW) is an important risk factor for future health conditions, disability, and death. Past researches proved that lack of care and attention left children with stunted growth, substantially lower IQs and more behavioural and psychological problems than children who had been better cared for. Emotional and cognitive impairments caused by a poor family and social environment can be substantially improved if living conditions are improved early enough. If child have parents who encouraged independence in childhood, praise and rewards for success, association of achievement with positive feelings, association of achievement with one's own competence and effort, not luck, a desire to be effective or challenged, intrapersonal strength, then the children achieve more and more upto their potentials. Hence, researcher attracted this paradoxical situation and she selects the same problem for the study.

Muthayya B.C. (1968) of University of Madras conducted a study on “Personality variables and their relation to achievement motivation.”

The mean need achievement score is higher among introverts compared to extroverts, and normal compared top neurotics, but the mean difference of these four groups (Extroverts, Introverts, Neurotics and normals) are not significant as revealed by the F. ratio (.50). Thus, there is no significant mean
difference in the need achievement of four groups suggesting that theses personality dimension have no direct bearing on ones level of need achievement.

Ojha Hardev (1982) conducted a study entitled “Achievement Motivation among Hindus and Muslims.” In the present study, an attempt was made to measure the level of n-Achievement among Hindus and Muslim college boys of Bhagalpur. The subjects of the two groups were matched in respect of age, educational level, family income and area of residence. In order to know the effect of caste, culture, the Hindu subjects were chosen in such a manner that an equal number of them fell into the three distinct caste groups viz. The forward, the backwards, and the scheduled. McClelland’s projective test was used to determine the level of n-Achievement. The results indicated that Hindu Muslim boys do not differ significantly in respect of their n-Ach level because of the composite culture of the country. However, it was found that, although forward and backward caste Hindu boys do not differ significantly but both of them have obtained significantly higher n-Ach level than scheduled caste boys. The results have certain implications and support the Indian Govt. policy of greater protection to weaker section of the society.

Sinha Madhulika and Ojha Hardeo (1983) conducted a study entitled “A study of Achievement motivation as related to religion and caste”. The purpose of the presented study was to determine the extent to which the college boys differ in their n-Ach level due to their religious and caste background. Two hypotheses were formulated. The first hypothesis that Hindu boys would be
higher in n-Ach than Muslim boys was not conformed. The second hypothesis that higher caste boys would show a high n-Ach level than lower caste boys was confirmed. The mean n-Arch level of the present sample was also compared with the mean n-Ach levels of similar samples from Indian and some other countries and it was found that the mean n-Arch level of the Bhagalpur boys was the lowest.

Singhal Rekha and Mishra Girishwar, (1992), conducted a study on “Meaning of Achievement: - The role of socio-cultural background and social class.” The data were collected by semi projective method from Indian adult in order to investigate the meaning of achievement in Indian socio-cultural context from low, middle, and high social class groups. The results received the diverse goal may provide the experience of achievement, reflecting concerns with individual, family and society. Similarly achievement efforts can be persuaded through internal and external means. The individual level goals were predominant across all the three groups the low social class group received greater concern for materialistic goals than the other groups. The goal of praise and social approval from significant others was inversely related to the level of social class. Internal means were used more frequently by the high social class group. The low social class sample reported broad environmental factor more important mean of achievement than the other groups. The result are discussed in relation to socio-cultural and experimental background, and implications for management of classroom learning & motivation are pointed out.

In this investigation an attempt is made to study achievement motivation in relation to personality dimension and performance. 30 female college students were chosen for the study. A positive relationship between these factors was found. A significant difference in personality dimension between high and low achievers was found but the differences in performances were not significant.

Gloria Cowan, (1971), made a study entitled “Achievement Motivation in lower class Negro females as function of Race and Sex of the figure-1.” He selected intercity Negro adolescent females. These females were given Thematic Apperception Test pictures selected to elicit achievement motivation. The race and sex of the figure in the pictures were varied. The figures in the picture were Negro male, white males, Negro females or white females. The results were (a) More achievement motivation to male as compared to female figures. For female subjects, and no effect of race of figures on need achievement and (b) female subjects wrote longer stories to Negro than white figures and to female than male figures.

Patrick Heaven, Christopher Stones, Davi Rajab, (1984), tried to find out the “Level of Achievement Motivation in South Africa.” The findings of this study are as under. In a cross cultural study on the relationship between achievement motivation and authoritarianism. Ray showed that achievement
motivation was a good predictor of authoritarian personality and then concluded “It is achievement motivation, not authoritarianism that gives rise to South African authoritarian practice.”

Ojha Hardeo and Jha Pravinkumar (1972), in their study on “Achievement motivation as a function of social class, family system and family occupation determine the achievement motivation. For this 120 intermediate students were administered McClelland’s “Need Achievement Test the results indicated that middle class socio-economic status, nuclear family system and entrepreneurial occupations are associated with high achievement motivation, while upper class and lower class socio-economic status, joint family system and bureaucratic occupations are associated with low achievement motivation. The interactions were not significant.

Prakash P.A. (1977), conducted achievement study “A study of Need Achievement and Personality traits in Adolescents.” He carried out this study on undergraduate students from Rewari College, for this he used

2. 16 P.F. Questionnaires by Cattell, (1972).

He found that:-

A. There was a significant difference in personality traits at different level of socio-economic status.
B. No significant difference in need achievement in adolescent between upper middle strata and lower strata. Similar was the case with upper lower strata and lower middle strata but not true all with upper middle strata and upper lower strata.

C. Personality traits were found to be not related with need achievement at any level of socio economic status, R.C. Sharma.

Pandey, Uma Datta, and Singh, Ranjit Prasad of ANS institute of social studies, Patna, (1971) conducted a study on “The effect of sex, and culture on Achievement Motivation, religious beliefs and religious practice.” They carried out this study in the area of Lohargad, Bihar; They selected 84 students of 10 and 11 years (Adivasi boys and girls, Non-Adivasi girls and boys 21 each). For this study they used Religious Belief Scale, Religious Practice Scale, Achievement Motivation Scale,. They found significant correlation between any other combinations of their four variables. Similar results were found when correlations were separately computed for the four sub samples, male, female, adivasies and non adivasies. Analysis of variance did not show any significant differences for sex or culture on the above variables (.Agrawal K.G. 1970)

Kaur Jagbir, (1972), conducted a study on “Need Achievement of 10th class students with respect to sex and residences.” She took sample of 200 students 100 boys (50 urban & 50 rural) & 100 girls (50 urban & 50 rural) .Punjabi version of Mehta’s Achievement Inventory. Data Analysis, t-ratio analysis of variance. Analysis of variances revealed a highly significant
differences in n-Achievement between boys and girls, (F=7.40 P<.01) F was not significant between urban and rural students.

Weiss, (1988), studied “Achievement motivation and religiosity in Jewish and Catholic college students”, and the results of this study indicated that overall Catholic student’s n-Ach was significantly higher differences between Jewish and Catholic females.

Singh Ritu, S. Thind, Sudha Chhikara, (1998), studied “parental opinion regarding change in status of girl child.” The present research work was undertaken with the objective who studies the parental beliefs regarding the change in status of girl child. The sample comprised of 120 mothers who have daughters only whose youngest daughter was in the adolescent age. The result revealed that parents perceived to be discriminatory with their daughters mainly due to fear of mishappening and curb their social freedom. Further study reveals that mother accept the change in matters such as share in family property, and higher education, selection of life partners independently etc. The respondents were also interested in more preferred profession like medical, teaching, engineering, architectures for their daughters.

Ukey, Vimal, U. (2001) conducted “a study on some personality correlates of academic achievement.” The means of n-Achievement scores for males and females are 22.903 and 23.568 respectively. The results of the study indicate that females have more n-Arch level than the males.

Chaudhari, M, (1971), made a study on the “the relationships between achievement motivation and anxiety, intelligence, sex, social class and
vocational expirations” and found positive and significant correlation between n-Ach and Social class for the total group. But it was not significant in the case of boys as well as girls (when computed separately). Girls have more n-Ach level than boys.

Gokulnathan, P. (1972), made a study entitled “A study of achievement related motivation (n-Ach and anxiety) and educational achievement among secondary school pupils.” He found that girls have an overall significantly higher n-Ach than the boys. His study further revealed that tribal pupils obtain significantly higher n-Ach scores than non tribal pupils.

Otwell, (1998), in his study on “The possible predicative effects of Religious beliefs, locus of control and certain demographic variables on Academic achievement” reported that out of four predictor variables religious beliefs was statistically significant predictor on high achievers made significantly higher scores on the religious inventory.

Thus, the first chapter gives complete introduction and theoretical description of the present study.

1.3 Statement of the Problem:

A study of Achievement Motivation, Assertiveness and Anxiety level of Professional and non-professional college students of Aurangabad.