CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION
Alienation is an experience, which has become more and more a fact of life in these days of modernisation and urbanisation. Probably youth feel this much more than the aged or children. They experience powerlessness, normlessness, rootlessness and the drift in values.

Sometimes, these form the common ground for protest and rebellion against the establishment. Other features include disrespect to elders for their conservatism and apathy towards reform, reactions to government policy on international treaties and alignments; and psychological maladjustment of political ideologies. Last, but not the least, is the impact of corrupt leadership, lack of character at the national level to emulate, and the cry for power. All these and many more factors may be generating a sense of alienation and anomie among youth.

Students feel alienated in educational institutions also, for they had been assured to be served but instead these educational institutions have culminated in having a total control over their entire lives. The university examinations keep them awfully occupied and hardly leave time for the free development of individuals, thereby restricting them for showing any awareness towards social consciousness.

The phenomenon of alienation is being witnessed and experienced increasingly by youth in political, economic, social and religious fields.
The alienation of youth have tragic consequences especially in the sphere of human relationships. The importance of the period of youth in life is evident from the fact that by this period he has set concrete patterns of personality, motivation and adjustment. Generally, youth is considered a dynamic force and most susceptible to change. They have brought about tremendous change in social, political and educational fields through their movements in many countries, including India, in the past few years.

Therefore, a lot of research activity was generated to understand the minds of the young people; to analyse the dynamics of their behaviour and to grapple with the ever changing life style of these young people so that correct appreciation of their potential, promise and problems could be made.

A study of UNESCO (1969) on youth problems throughout the world, the first of its kind found that demand to involve youth in productive activities is felt everywhere. The UNESCO study stressed the need for understanding the youth and directing the youth in the national development programmes, particularly in the developing countries.

Nehra (1970) has highlighted the need to undertake studies, to develop systematic theoretical framework for carrying out research on youth. He is further of the opinion that it
is the need of the hour to launch nation-wide programmes based on research to provide youth with opportunities, so that their energy can be diverted towards meaningful social changes.

George (1971) reported that the theoretical surmises and speculation on the subject of needs and problems of youth are based on chance observations, general subjective impressions, guesses and speculative hypothesis. Only scientific investigations can give us an idea of the real causes of their problems, their relative importance and suggest suitable solutions. He also reported that literature regarding youth is rare in India. A full understanding of Indian youth, their needs and problems, can only be surmised on the basis of Indian studies.

Noban (1977) in a seminar sponsored by ICSAR had analysed psychological problems of youth. Sharma (1981) very pointedly emphasised that youth has clearly and emphatically asserted itself, their roles have been that of revolutionaries, rebels, agents of social change, dissenters, crusaders of social and political justice, leaders of masses, and above all, deviants from norms.

The present study, therefore, aims at psychological understanding of alienation of urban youth in terms of their personality, achievement motivation and academic achievement.
Various attempts have been made to give exact meaning and definition of youth.

In Webster's Third New International Dictionary (1976), Adolescence, Puberty, Pubescence and Youth are frequently used interchangeably to refer to the period between childhood and maturity. Youth, being inclusive of these terms, applies sometimes to the entire period from childhood to maturity. At times it applies to the period between adolescence and maturity only.

Adolescence designates the same period as youth in its most restricted sense but carries a stronger implication of immaturity, thereby suggesting inexperience or awkwardness or mental or emotional instability, often characteristic of that period of life.

Modern scientific investigation of adolescence, as a separate and distinct phase in human development really began with the work of Hall (1904) who published his work on adolescence in two volumes, viz., "Storm and Stress".

Other theorists have emphasized other characteristics as processes of adolescent stage. For Bank (1945), adolescent stage was striving for independence; for Levin (1948), it symbolized marginality, ideological instability, extremism, expansion and increasing differentiation of the life span;
for Casell (1956), it was negativism, extraversion and rebellion; for Freud (1953) this was psychological disequilibrium resulting from sexual maturity and arousal of age defense mechanism.

Freud (1953) viewed adolescence as a stage of development in which, largely as a result of psychological changes accompanying puberty, the sexual impulses breakthrough to produce the subordination of all sexual components and instincts.

Youth has also been sometimes identified by such words as adolescent, teenager or even a person, yet to take up any job or family responsibility seriously. Youth has also been defined to be an individual falling into the age range of 15-29 years (Kohn,1976).

No one will deny that such a classification has its practical uses; but it can hardly serve as a common denomination to cover many complex problems and the great diversity of the individuals that make up this age group. It is quite difficult to use any of these as a universal criterion. For the laws, customs and institutions governing the age of consent, the age of legal majority or the age of full responsibility vary considerably from culture to culture, country to country and from continent to continent. Accordingly, there is some justification for defining youth 'as a state of mind'; such a definition could then embrace all those identified by the
Quality of their imagination, their preference for boldness over timidity, and their love for adventure rather than comforts. But this criterion is no more adaptable than the other ones, to the plethora of situations affecting the individuals and social groups that it claims to identify.

The youth of today are radically different from those of older days - more enlightened than the society around them, more conscious of their rights, having greater intellectual maturity, and more sensitive to the high rate at which changes are taking place in nature and society at a given time.

With the corresponding increase in their consciousness and sensitiveness, they have emerged as the most vigorous and conscientious challengers of society - its history, heritage, culture and civilization. The eruption of youth as a dynamic force today is by no means a phenomenon peculiar to this country or to the present century. Youth activism has differed in content, as each age and each establishment reacted in a way appropriate to its environment.

The social, economic and psychological aspects of youth are too varied to accept any general definition. But considering the above definitions, it cannot be denied that youth indicates vigour, innocence, and ingratiating attributes generally associated with the period of life between childhood and maturity and thus purports to suggest vigour or fullfilness of life generally.
Urban area is a place where population is concentrated in a rather congested area. It has rapid ways of communication. It has a cultural heritage of its own. It has a complex economic system. Urban population, i.e., the city dwellers, are associated with more modernized jobs in the public sector related to manufacture and trade.

In India the following definitions have been accepted for urban area in the 1971 census:

1. All places with municipality or a notified town areas.
2. All other places which satisfy the following criteria:
   a. At least 75% of male working population is not engaged in agriculture.
   b. Minimum population of 5000 people.
   c. Density of population at least 400 persons per square km.

Parsons and Shils (1965) stated that behaviour is a function of individual's situational, physical, social and psychological variables. Also significant to these factors are tribal, rural and urban backgrounds of youth. In this context, several studies have been conducted in India on rural reconstruction and development (Guha, 1964; Singh and Rao, 1966; Sinha, 1969a, 1974; Rathiaya, 1974; Singh, 1976; Chakraborty, 1977; and Srivastva et al., 1979).

The rural youth is agriculturist by profession and dwells in villages. The social and economic development of
the rural sector is closely related to the development of the agricultural sector. The society of the community which they live, provides no pre-requisites in fulfilling their personal needs and ambitions. Therefore, some of the young people migrate to urban areas for better education, where they come in contact with the urban milieu, which creates problems for them because they fail to keep up with the environments of the urban society. Efforts have been made here and there, to study such problems, but, very little seems to have been done in the direction of urban youth. Similar views have been expressed by, Singh, Sen and Hague (1971) when they remarked that everybody seems to agree with the need to pay attention to the problems of rural youth, but very few efforts have been made in the direction of urban youth. The knowledge of psychological and personality characteristics of urban youth is of paramount importance in the area of urban reconstruction and their integrated development can only be realized by understanding them fully.

There have been studies on urban youth since two decades on many important issues. The researches of Mehta (1970), Mohan (1975), Garg and Parekh (1976), Kirpal (1976) and Mehra (1977) in the area of youth are highly interesting. The problems these social scientists tried to investigate were militancy, political awareness, drug addiction, attitude towards various problems, interests, intergenerational gap and leadership behaviour of the youth.
Many of these studies are from the sociological viewpoint and lack psychological perspective. Thus, it would be important to analyse the urban youth going to different kind of institutions because it would be expected that urban youth will differ on the variables chosen to study viz., Alienation, personality, Achievement Motivation and Academic Achievement.

**ALIENATION**

The Oxford Dictionary (1961) meaning of alienation is estrangement, and transference of ownership.

Much social psychological interpretation revolves around this meaning, though it is sometimes extended beyond that to include isolation.

The Universal Webster Dictionary (1958) meaning of alienation is foreign.

In case this is the meaning that is chosen, then man who is alienated would in a way, be foreign or separated from himself.

The concept of alienation has been used differently by different writers.

Maelver (1950) defined anomie as the state of mind of one who has been pulled up by his moral roots. The anomie man has become spiritually sterile, responsive only to himself and responsible to none. He lives on a thin line of sensation between no future and no past.
He specified anomie as a type of personal behaviour which is derived from and added to the societal problem of anomie.

For Horney (1950) alienation is remoteness from the real life. It refers to determination and impairment of total personality.

Ellist (1952) said that alienation is increasingly being recognized as a symptom of man's contemporary crisis, a human problem, which refers to 'desiccation of the world of fancy' and inoperacy of the world of spirit a condition of having the experience but missing the meaning.

Alienation generates excessive process of rapid change and uproots the individual.

The alienated individual may well see himself as separated from his fellows, unattached to them, and with few bonds or ties of any enduring or intimate nature. Thus, the alienated man extends his dimensions in social environment but at the same time he feels isolated and insecure.

Fromm (1956) emphasized that alienation in the modern society is almost total. It pervades the relationship of man to his work, the things he consumes, his fellowmen and to himself. When he is unable to maintain these relationships, he is in state of alienation. Fromm (1956) in the book 'Same Society' explained that alienation is meant to be a mode of experience, in which the person experiences himself
as an 'alien'. He regards it as the psychological consequence of the operation of modern capitalism. He further explained that self alienation is due to lack of contact between individual conscious self and his productive potential.

Kistere (1965) defines alienation as experienced loss of relationship and sense of participation and control, with reference to prevailing social structure. It may or may not be associated with new attachments designed to counter the loss. Self alienation is not a different phenomenon but is an internal view of the same loss.

Kaplan (1957) told that alienation occurs when an individual perceives an absence of meaningful relationships between his status, identifications, social relationships, style of life, and his work. Alienation is recurrent phenomenon.

Kaplan (1957) in his book "System and Process in International Politics" brought out that the concept of alienation originated with Hegel, who used this term to denote the distance between the mind and reality and means that the states, causing self-alienation, loss of sense of identity, a feeling of depersonalisation, the cause of which is traced back to some environmental pressure. He has further stated that as men labours upon the world, he trades his surplus labour for other things of value to him and the pattern of conduct that becomes institutionalised, represent objectifications that eventually divorce themselves or alienate
themselves from his individual purposes.

Haberman (1957) discussed Hegel's theory of Alienation and expressed the evolutionist view of human society. It depicted social development as progress from lower to the higher, and from less developed to more developed states, from the non-alienated to the alienated society of the future.

Alienation presupposes the poverty of mind of the human world. In underdeveloped conditions, alienation appears as a specific regularity which stimulates the evaluation of man and society.

Two major objections can be raised against Hegel's theory of alienation as sketched above.

(1) The individual aspect of the problem is not sufficiently developed in this theory.

(2) The negativity which centres history is not separated from the negativity which creates nothing. The problem of negativity is not sufficiently clarified. According to Hegel, any negativity creates positivity.

Srole (1955), Dean Dwight (1961), conceptualized that anomia combines Seeman's variant of Isolation.

In other words, alienation refers to various mental states.

Seeman (1960) states that alienation refers to a more comprehensive relationship between personality and
social system than does relative deprivation. An individual is separated from his social system. So be discussed it from personal and socio-psychological view point.

Seeman and Melvin (1967) stated that alienation is caused due to engagement in work which is not intrinsically rewarding. They tried to codify the meaning of alienation as:

(A) **Meaninglessness**

According to Seeman (1960) meaninglessness manifests itself when the individual is unable to understand what he ought to believe as the individual's minimal standards for clarity in decision-making. In this state an individual's choice among alternative beliefs has low confidence limits. It can be operationalised by focussing upon the fact that it is characterised by low expectancy, that satisfactory predictors about future outcome of behaviour can be made, or in other words, it refers to a sense of inability to predict behavioural outcomes.

Meaninglessness refers to the feeling of people that some aspects of their lives, or style of life around them, have no meaning. It is a sort of 'going through the motion' without any sense of meaning in it.

(B) **Self-estrangement**

Seeman (1960) defines it as absence of intrinsic meaning of pride in work, a loss which Marx and others
hold to be an essential feature of modern alienation. The height of alienation is reached, when the individual treats himself as a commodity, as a means rather than an end.

Self-estrangement is the feeling of lack of identity and sense of what one is. A person, whose relationships with those around him appear empty or unclear, or for whom there is a clear isolation of himself from others, may be called to have come to a state of self-estrangement.

(C) Isolation
Seeman (1960) alienated in the isolation are those who, like intellectuals, assign no reward values to goods or beliefs that are typically highly valued in a given society. It is common in descriptions of intellectual roles. It may lead to the state of self-estrangement, but not all isolates are alienated.

Isolation refers to the feeling of man himself as an Island, separated from other people, and unattached to them, without any bonds or ties of an enduring or intimate nature. The individual’s feeling of being apart from society, is expressed by disputing the high values it attaches to its belief systems.

(D) Powerlessness
Seeman (1960) defines it as a motion of alienation, as it has originated in Marxian view of workers condition in a capitalist society. The worker is alienated to the extent
that the prerogative and means of decision are expropriated.

In powerlessness, a person finds himself in a situation where he does not feel that there is any thing he can do about it. The situation may appear to him to be outside his control; he feels himself trapped, hung up in a rat race on a treadmill; or that he cannot fight a city's fall. Powerlessness is often used synonymously with external locus of control of externality by Seeman (1960) and Rotter (1966). Externality, refers to the general tendency to view the external world as having control, or it measures the beliefs that outcomes and events are the consequences of luck or fate, in contrast to internal locus of control. Internality signifies the belief that events are contingent on one's own behaviour according to Rotter (1966).

Powerlessness refers to the feeling of lack of control over the immediate environment, or when a person does not have any control over the work, but is under the control of the hierarchy or officials or other persons that foster dependence as opposed to independence.

(b) Powerlessness

Seeman (1960) has derived this word from Durkheim's writings. Many synonymous words are used by various investigators e.g. anomie, anomic and anomy. The word anomie is Greek in origin. It was translated into Latin as 'anomia', and into English as anomy. Durkheim translated the word into French as 'anomie'. Anomie is a state of society in which norms have lost their power to regulate behaviour. A literal translation
of Greek source might read 'no laws' (or norms) it is deregulation.

He further added that anomie meant a condition of deregulation or relative normlessness in a social group. In his view anomie was endemic in modern societies and specially virulent in the economic sector where all customary restraints and normal limits of man's aspiration were being undetermined by the capitalist ethic of greed and gain. These weakening restraints gave men a feeling of wandering through an empty space, without any landmarks from which to take a bearing and set a course. Normlessness refers to the feeling of the absence of attachment to any definite set of standard, or the feeling of estrangement from the accepted norms. A breakdown in regularity, power of social norms over individual behaviour and the expectations that certain goals can only be achieved through socially unapproved behaviour.

Hajda (1961) contended that people who do not fit in with the dominant values and expectations of their social group are often labelled as alienated.

Alienation refers to certain perceptions and feelings such as feeling of separation from oneself etc. that some people have about themselves and about one or more aspects of their social environment, as these two (self and environment) relate to one another. Thus, the alienated man is any person drifting in a world that has little meaning for him, and over which he exercises little power, a stranger to himself and to others.
Alienation, a hallmark of the modern age has been described as: loss of self, anxiety state, anomie, depersonalization, revoltlessness, apathy, social disorganization, loneliness, alienation, powerlessness, meaninglessness, isolation, pessimism and the loss of belief or values (Josephson, 1962).

Alienation can be defined as a general psychological, aesthetic or an attitudinal stance.

Prednag (1965) described alienation in terms of 'As a man he does not feel himself a part of larger community and as an official being, he does not feel himself to be a man.'

Schineck and Meyer (1975) put forth that concept of Alienation can refer to serious beliefs and attitudes, values, judgement - always reflecting a specific social and ethical frame of reference. He also maintained that it is precisely the unquestioning conformity and adjustment to the demands and dogmas of a social system which is the sign of an individual's alienation from himself and from basic human values.

Thus the people who do not fit in with the dominant values and expectations of their social groups cannot maintain meaningful relationships and perceive society in a disorganized state are often labelled as alienated.
Handy (1977) in his survey of research trends expressed Anomie condition as a response to the speed and direction of social change and to the psychological adaptation demanded by this change.

From the above mentioned definitions relating to alienation, one can conclude in a nutshell that alienation is a situation where the framework in which one grows is shattered. This shattering brings about a breakdown of human form, disillusion of coherence and structure. This alienation in one's day to day life is the only basis and source of other alienating forms of the youth.

**Causes of Alienation**

After understanding meaning of alienation and its components it would be necessary to deal with the main causes underlying alienation.

Man is a bio-psycho-social organism. His healthy growth as well as his alienation have individual as well as social or cultural roots.

Fromm (1956) described cause of alienation as dehumanizing effects of a modern social system which emphasize mechanisation and conformity.

Freud (1958) stated that Alienation is seen as an unavoidable result of civilization and its discontents.

According to Marx (1961), an oppressive economic and political structure produces the sense of estrangement. Thus alienation can be seen as a result of frustration produced by
social structure or as a consequence of its anomic qualities, inevitable result of neurotic development, simultaneously it is the most comprehensive attempt at avoiding self-awareness, anxiety, and conflict.

For several people, the family is also an important cause of alienation. Break down of kinship, decline of craft and labour, lack of close bonds between the young and the old, change in the family structure, separation of the work from family life, are some of the important familial causes which throw the individual in unusual stress condition: loneliness and alienated condition. Because of urbanization, joint family collapsed, resulting in the Nuclear family which leads to alienation.

Beside these, increasingly high divorced rate, broken home, etc. also create condition to increase alienation. Defective family values, defective patterns, lack of attention of parents or interruption of close motherhood submission, lack of intimate relations of parents and child are also some of the important factors leading to alienation conditions. Negligence of parents and high expectations, faulty child rearing practices, residential mobility are still other causes of alienation. Lack of faith in religion is also causing feeling of alienation in people now a days.

There is alienation due to occupation. In occupation prestige and position of a person, his status in the occupation, and the satisfaction are important factors creating alienation.
The feeling of alienation appears extremely dominant in today's youth. This restlessness, rootlessness, powerlessness, isolation, pessimism in youth resulting due to anxiety, insecurity and frustration etc., directly or indirectly govern their lives. The phenomenon of Alienation being extremely complex in nature, coupled with the fact that it has not been sufficiently analysed in psychology seems to be very vital and promising for an attempt at analysis of its correlates among urban population.

PERSONALITY

The true search for an understanding of personality, individual differences, temperamental peculiarities and other deviations from the strictly average behaviour can, in real sense be said to have a beginning with Galen. He was a Greek physician who lived in the Second Century, A.D. who is widely accredited with the enunciation of the doctrine of the four temperaments - the melancholic, the choleric, the sanguine and the phlegmatic. Wundt pointed out that choleries and sanguines both shared the characteristics of being changeable, while phlegmatic and melancholics were unchangeable; and substituted extroverts and introverts for changeable and unchangeable respectively, thereby gave birth to modern theory of personality in its descriptive aspects. Kirchner (1954) insisted on the importance of constitutional factors in the study of personality and
shoved his insight into the relationship between leptomorphis
body-build, and introversion. Gross (1962) attempted to
give a physiological basis of personality dimensions of
extraversion-introversion.

McDougall (1929), Allport (1937), Murray (1938),
McClelland (1951), Cattell (1966), and Spence (1974) provided
systematic theoretical and experimental models of personality.
McDougall (1929) had put forth that Personality is extremely
complex, it comprises factors of many distinguishable classes.
Allport (1937) made an extensive survey of the literature,
classed them into numbers of broad categories and finally
formulated his own definition. According to Allport (1937),
Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual
of those psycho-physical systems that determines his unique
adjustment to his environment.

Personality is an integrated whole. It is used in
various senses, but here we are concerned with the
psychological interpretation, which is nothing but the sum
total of the traits of an individual. It includes physical
features, psychological characteristics, social traits,
impact of culture and other needs.

Murray's (1938) views on the structure of personality
were heavily influenced by psycho-analytic theory. The concept
most closely associated with Murray's name, i.e., "need" and
in most of his practical experimental work, he focussed his
attention on this concept. He said that the term personality has been reserved for the hypothetical structure of the mind, the consistent establishments and processes which are manifested over and over again in the internal and external proceedings, which constitute a person's life.

Thus personality is not a series of biographical facts but something more general and enduring, that is, inferred from the facts.

Murphy (1947) used a bio-social approach in the personality theory. He emphasized the importance of studying "the full reciprocity of inner and outer events." According to him, personality is structured organism-environment field, each aspect of which stands in dynamic relation to each other's aspect. There is organization within the individual and there is organization within the environment, but it is the cross-organization of the two that is investigated in personality research.

Woodworth (1947) defined personality as the quality of the individual's total behaviour. Lewin (1948) explaining his basic formula \( B = F(P,E) \) said that to understand or predict psychological behaviour (B), one has to determine every kind of psychological event, the momentary whole situation that is the momentary structure and the state of the person (P) and the psychological environment (E).
Personality might be, therefore, interpreted as social effectiveness.

Stagner (1968) was more concerned with the inner system of thought processes of an individual and defined personality as an inner system of beliefs, expectancies, desires and values.

The philosophers usually believe in perception. That is why according to them personality is ideal of perception, it is self-realization.

Personality is the impact that one causes on others also. It is the sum total of impression. In fact it meant the value that a person has for others and the society as well. Eysenck (1960) defined personality as the more or less stable and enduring organization of a person's character, temperament, intellect and physique which determines his unique adjustment to the environment.

It has been observed that personality is the sum total of various traits, characteristics and qualities which are psychological as well as physical exhibit themselves at different stages and are helpful with the adjustment of the social environment. If these physical and psychological traits and qualities are properly organized and orderly they help in the adjustment and this is called integration of personality. Integrated personality is able to adjust itself with the social environment. Integration means
proper organisation of character, intellect, temperament and physique etc. Lack of integration is responsible for maladjustment with the social environment and leads to various types of physical, psychological and other types of conflicts. In an integrated personality emotions, desires, determination and other mental activities are so organised that the general organism acts in a balanced manner.

Rysenck's definition of personality revolves around four behaviour patterns: cognitive, conative, affective and somatic. Thus, to Rysenck, personality is the sum total of actual or potential behaviour patterns of organisms as determined by heredity and environment. It originates and develops through the functional interaction of the forming sectors into which these behaviour patterns are organised. Rysenck (1947,1952,1960,1965) used types in categorising people. His approach to personality is from two ways. One is from individual differences point of view and the other of general experimental psychology. The former produces understanding of the structure of personality, the latter produces insight into dynamics of personality.

Rysenck's Theory of Personality

Rysenck's descriptive system (1947) included four dimensions: introversion, Neuroticism, Psychoticism and Intelligence.

In terms of available evidence and fairly respectable data, the first two dimensions emerge, as most relevant.
By dimensions, Eysenck (1952) meant focal points of frequently occurring groups of characteristic concentration of correlated traits which exist along a continuum. The Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI) developed by Eysenck (1959) was assumed to provide an adequate measure of each of the two principal personality dimensions. But even among normal subjects, the Extraversion Scale and Neuroticism scale of the EPI, are negatively correlated. This negative correlation between measures led Eysenck & Eysenck (1964) to construct a revised version of the EPI called the Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI). In this revised and modified test, the extraversion and Neuroticism Scales are said to be uncorrelated. The quantified description of these two dimensions are as follows:

**Extraversion**

High E-scores are indicative of extraversion. High scoring individuals tend to be outgoing, impulsive, and uninhibited, having many social contacts and frequently taking part in group activities. The typical extravert, i.e., sociable, likes parties, has many friends, needs to have people to talk to, and does not like reading or studying by himself. He craves excitement, takes chances, often sticks his neck out, acts on the spur of the moment and is generally an impulsive individual. He is fond of practical jokes, always has a ready answer, and generally likes change.
He is carefree, easy going, optimistic and likes to ‘laugh and be merry’. He prefers to keep moving and doing things, tends to be aggressive and to lose his temper quickly. His feelings are not kept under light control, and he is not always a reliable person. The typical introvert is a quiet, retiring sort of person, introspective, fond of books rather than people. He is reserved and distant except to intimate friends. He tends to plan ahead, “looks before he leaps”, and distrusts the impulse of the moment. He does not like excitement, takes matters of every day life with proper seriousness, and likes a well-ordered mode of life. He keeps his feelings under close control, seldom behaves in an aggressive manner, and does not lose his temper easily. He is reliable, somewhat pessimistic and places great value on ethical standards.

Extraverts and introverts are two types that are more or less opposed to each other but they seem to be quite dynamically opposed type. But in real words, persons possessing both these qualities are to be found. These persons are extraverts in certain respects and introverts in other. The world actually requires persons who should think, then act. Meek thinkers and those who act without thinking can prove to be dangerous people for the society. Those persons who partly possess the qualities of an extravert and partly the qualities of
introverts are called 'Ambiverts'. They are the real people that we find in the world of reality (Murlock, 1976).

**Neuroticism**

High N scores are indicative of emotional liability and over-reactivity. High scoring individuals tend to be emotionally over-responsive and to have difficulties in returning to a normal state after emotional experiences. Such individuals frequently complain of vague somatic upsets of a minor kind, such as headaches, digestive troubles, insomnia, backaches, etc., and also report many worries, anxieties, and other disagreeable emotional feelings. Such individuals are predisposed to develop neurotic disorders under stress, but such predispositions should not be confused with actual neurotic breakdown. A person may have high scores on Neuroticism yet functioning adequately in work, sex, family and society spheres (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1968).

Eysenck (1957) attempted to relate individual differences in introversion-extraversion to hypothetical inherited differences in the functioning of the nervous system. For this purpose he refers to the Pavlovian concepts of excitation and inhibition (Pavlov, 1927). He stated his fundamental assumptions as follows: Individuals in whom excitatory potentials are generated slowly and in whom excitatory potentials so generated are relatively weak, are thereby predisposed to develop extraverted patterns of behaviour and to develop hysterical-psychopathic disorders in the case of neurotic breakdown;
individuals in whom excitatory potential is generated quickly and in whom excitatory potentials are generated are strong, are thereby pre-disposed to develop introverted patterns of behaviours in the case of neurotic breakdown. Similarly, individuals in whom reactive inhibition is developed quickly, in whom strong reactive inhibition is generated, and in whom reactive inhibition is dissipated slowly, are thereby predisposed to develop extraverted patterns of behaviour and to develop hysterical-psychopathic disorders in case of neurotic breakdown. Conversely, individuals in whom reactive inhibition is developed slowly, in whom weak reactive inhibition is generated and in whom reactive inhibition is dissipated quickly, are thereby pre-disposed to develop introverted patterns of behaviour and to develop dysthymic disorders in case of neurotic breakdown.

Although it is not explicitly stated in the above quotation, Eysenck postulates the existence of a ratio of inhibition to excitation (I/E). The value of this ratio is relatively low for introverts and relatively high for extraverts. Thus Eysenck's theory essentially asserts that introverts have inherited a nervous system which permits them to form learned connections between stimuli and responses more rapidly than extraverts. Introverts are more able to respond continually in the same way than extraverts and tend to persist in a particular pattern of response, longer than extraverts. Eysenck has tried to derive most of the known
differences between introverts and extraverts by the use of the excitation, inhibition theory. For this purpose, he uses modified version of Hull's theory of inhibition (Brodie, 1972).

Subsequent to the publication of the theory of inhibition and excitation in relation to the introversion-extraversion dimension by Eysenck (1977), a number of investigators performed studies dealing with the relationship between these dimensions and conditioning. Eysenck (1965) summarized the experimental literature dealing with this problem. He argued that this theory predicts more rapid conditioning for introverts only under partial reinforcement conditions and hence the failure to find more rapid conditioning for introverts under total reinforcement conditions is in no way contradictory to his theory. However, Eysenck (1967a) attempted to relate differences in the introversion-extraversion dimension to a more explicit physiological theory. The physiological basis of introversion is now assumed to be differences in the threshold of arousal of the reticular activating system. Introverts are assumed to have lower thresholds of reticular arousal than extraverts. Reticular arousal is also produced by strong emotional responses. Emotionality is thought by Eysenck to be dependent upon the activity of a second quasi-independent physiological system called the visceral brain including the hippocampus, amygdala, cingulum and hypothalamus. Differences in the threshold of activation of the visceral brain are presumed to be the physiological basis of individual
differences in the neuroticism-stability dimension. Neurotics are assumed to have low thresholds of such action. Arousal of the visceral brain system is assumed to lead to arousal of the reticular activating system — but not the converse. As a result, on the physiological level, there should be a dependence between these two systems. Such individuals with extremely low threshold for emotional arousal, are as a result, high on neuroticism, also tend to be introverted because high levels of arousal of the visceral brain system should lead to arousal of the reticular activating system. According to Eysenck, this would account for the negative correlation on the MPI between E and N scales and would explain why hysterics tend to be lower on Neuroticism than dysthymins.

There is another important feature of Eysenck’s new physiological theory. Eysenck (1967a) relates his conception of the physiological differences between introverts and extraverts to a distinction used by Russian researchers. Introverts are assumed to have a weak nervous system. Organisms with weak nervous systems are assumed to respond at lower levels of stimulation and are assumed to respond with greater intensity to stimuli than organisms with strong nervous system. However, the weak system as a result of its extreme reactivity is more subject to protective or transmarginal inhibition than the strong nervous system. The concept of protective or transmarginal inhibition implies
that when the levels of excitation are reached, which are above some optimal value, inhibition occurs; which serves to dampen or decrease such excitation. Eysenck (1967a) believes that introverts are more subject to transmarginal inhibition than extraverts. Eysenck’s theory thus assumes some upper level of arousal which is reached at a lower level of stimulus intensity by introverts than extraverts. Once this level is reached, new inhibitory processes occur which reduce excitation. However, introverts will reach a level of arousal which produces transmarginal inhibition more rapidly than extraverts, as a result of the operation of this form of inhibition. It is possible that at high levels of stimulus intensity cortical arousal should be lower for introverts than for extraverts.

Eysenck and Russian researchers both deal with the physiological systems. Eysenck talks also of Reticular activating system and the visceral brain. The difference of activity of these lead to an Introvert or Extravert personality. The Russian researchers attribute an introvert personality to have a weak nervous system as compared to extraverts who have a strong nervous system. The physical structure or physique does influence the personality and person's behaviour towards others. On the other hand it also affects the behaviour of others towards that person. Apart from this there are certain chemical elements produced
in the body itself while others are acquired from outside. Components in the body such as vitamins, minerals etc. are also responsible for changes in physical features and personality. Nervous system influences not only the development but also the working of the personality.

Harlock (1967) stated that instincts and motives, intellect etc. are responsible for the development of the personality. Apart from the central nervous system, the autonomic nervous system also influence the working of the personality.

Relation of Extraversion and Neuroticism

The mutual independence of Neuroticism and Extraversion has been reviewed and supported by Cattell (1960). In an extensive review of introversion/extraversion she says, "It is seen that almost every analysis which has produced an extraversion like factor has also yielded a factor identifiable with some aspect of adjustment. The latter factor, variously known as ego-strength, general adjustment, neuroticism, anxiety, etc. appears to be essentially independent of introversion/extraversion.

Eysenck's (1953, 1957) claim of orthogonality of Neuroticism and extraversion has to be considered at some length, if any independent predictions are to be made on the basis of the two. Unless Neuroticism and Extraversion are two independent dimensions of personality, their effects on any response variable would not be a function of a single dimension but of both.
Occasionally, Eysenck's claim of orthogonality of
Neuroticism and Extraversion has been disputed (Hamilton, 1959) on account of some factorial studies, wherein it was deemed that independent factors have not emerged. The second reason is that some negative correlations have been obtained between Neuroticism and Extraversion, which do reach significance on some occasions. To this argument Eysenck (1959) has duly replied, and on the whole where the groups have been from the normal population, correlations have not been significant. One is apt to agree with Carrigan (1960) that, according to the criterion of uncorrelated factors $1/2$ and adjustment $0$) appear to be independent. On the other hand, the range of correlations between Neuroticism and Extraversion of $-.10$ to $-.20$ for the normal group and reaching up to $-.40$ for the neurotic group, is a discrepancy which according to Eysenck (1959) is not due to lack of independence, but due to "the choice of questions" for the inventory used earlier. Eysenck (1959) has said, "This finding (Hysteric, i.e., Extraverts scoring lower on Extraversion than expected) may be connected with the fact that the regression line of neuroticism and extraversion is significantly bent at the extreme introverted and, showing a marked tendency both in normal and neurotic groups. This standpoint has been reiterated by Eysenck (1959a), Eysenck and Claridge (1963) and Sigel Star & Frank (1958a) specially when the groups under consideration are extreme. This failure of orthogonality at the extreme ends would imply that whenever the groups are showed on either dimension, the effects on various behavioural variables would not be quite independent.
Today measurement of personality or assessment of personality has become the important subject matter of the study of the Psychology. It has become necessary so that proper guidance and counselling may be provided for education, choice of occupation, and adjustment of the youth. Development of delinquency may be checked and people may be able to select proper persons for industry business etc.

**Measurement of Extraversion and Neuroticism**

The devices used for measuring the Extraversion and Neuroticism, range all the way from objective techniques like tests of reminiscence, figural after-effects, kinesthetic movements, classical conditioning etc. to more subjective devices like the rating scales, questionnaires and inventories.

The most popular amongst the latter has been the Maudsley Personality Inventory (MPI), (Eysenck, 1959). The MPI was the result of many years of development work designed to give a rough and ready measure of the two dimensions. The items were initially taken from the MPI and MMPI (Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory). The reliability of the final scale of the MPI, as measured through various standardization techniques ranges between .85 to .90 for Neuroticism and from .75 to .85 for Extraversion.

In 1964, Eysenck remodeled the MPI - introducing a lie scale in it and also trying to eliminate some of the
drawbacks in the set of questions. The new scale is known as EPI (Ryans and Ryans, 1964) - Ryans Personality Inventory.

Test-retest reliability of the EPI ranges between .80 to .97 for both Neuroticism and Extraversion and is indicative of the high dependability of these scales.

Ryans (1965), too constructed a scale for children JEP - which is on similar lines as the EPI for adults. A Hindi version called JPI (Junior Personality Inventory) EPI (Ryans Personality Inventory, JEP (Junior Ryans Personality Inventory, JPI (Junior Personality Inventory) were constructed. They have been frequently used on large samples ranging from pathological cases like neurotic prisoners, sufferers of psychoemotional disorders, mentally retarded children, psychotics of normal groups like students, nurses industrial apprentices, school children etc.

Loe Scale (Social Desirability)

The Loe (L) Scale which was first incorporated in the EPI (Ryans Personality Inventory) attempts to measure a tendency on the part of subjects to 'Fake Good'. A series of factorial and experimental studies have been carried out to investigate the nature of this scale in some detail (Ryans & Ryans, 1971). It is clear that the scale possesses a considerable degree of factorial unity, with individual items having high loadings on this factor, and
on me other. This scale measures some stable personality factor which possibly denotes some degree of 'Social Anivota'. Unfortunately, too little is known about the precise nature of this scale (Ryten and Ryten, 1976).

The Personality of youth is an influential force not only in his own life but also in the lives of all those whom he contacts, whether at home, in business and social transitions or in the daily round of professional activities.

Social scientists and mental health professionals have begun to be evidence of widespread alienation as a major element in modern life.

Referring to the alienation of modern man, Pappenhain (1959) discussed that the emerging socio-psychological state of man leads to a loss of identity, especially on the part of the hyper-sensitive man and the intellectuals, because they experience estrangement either from self or society. Their efforts to reintegrate their crumbling personality often results in retraction. He also emphasized this acute awareness of alienation on the part of people, which finds expression in various moods like feeling of anxiety, apathy, and isolation.

Burlock (1976) contended that emotions and social traits do influence the integration of the personality without social education. Personality is incomplete unless a man acquired social qualities or traits socialized, he
shall not be able to adjust himself with the society which is the basic requirement. As a result of socialisation the individual is able to mix with the people belonging to the society in which he lives. Lack of socialisation leads to extreme kind of introvert people who have nothing to do with outside world. They live by themselves and are not able to face the problems of life. Because of introvert qualities such persons become anti-social.

Integration of personality is very much governed by factors of adjustment with the social environment. Emotions and sociability therefore, play a vital role in integration of the personality. If the personality is not properly integrated, the individual is not able to adjust with the social environment. It is a very harmful situation for the individual as well as the society. Due to lack of integration the personality does not grow in a balanced manner. This unbalanced growth has its effect on behaviour pattern. A person who lacks integration of personality behaves in an unbalanced manner. It is so because there is no proper mixing of psychological and physical qualities.

Because Personality is totality of man, my contemplation flowing from the above definition is that Personality is an important determinant of behaviour of individuals and their success in any sphere of life is subject to their personality.
In fact the development of the personality is a constant process requiring adjustment with new needs and situations. Lack of adjustment leads to conflict and frustration. Every stage brings certain problems that have to be fulfilled at that stage or later stage. If they are properly fulfilled the personality remains properly adjusted. Lack of adjustment bring about several complications, thus lead to sense of alienation.

**Alienation in Relation to Personality**

When youth is devoid of any positive understanding of the reality around them, their Personality becomes like rudderless individuals who are merely searching for approval. In the extreme cases this leads to loss of identity and therefore feels alienated. The primary source of alienation lies in the discrepancy between the identification of people in actual societies and the satisfaction of their needs and desire in social activities when the identifications of the individual appears to be subject to social or natural forces over which he has no control, he perceives himself as alienated from important aspects of his personality. Such alienations occur often, if the society fails to produce what humans perceive as satisfaction of legitimate human goals.

An anomic person who lacks a robust sense of identity is inherently incapable of satisfying the demands that are made upon him by his personality. Thus the sense of alienation gathers strength.
Each extension of his sensitivity although designed to reduce the alienation between him and the rest of world, increases the alienation between him and the rest of the world. As the sensitivity to injury increases, no matter how great the empathetic subjective distress, the sense of ultimate disjunction between self and other is heightened. The sensitive consciousness is acutely aware that the real sufferer is an 'other'. To escape this distress, the sensitivity is heightened still further, thus again heightening the self-punishment and the subjective sense of alienation. The fear of alienation keeps rising and his personality becomes fragmented.

Alienation occurs almost inevitably in complex societies because of conflicts which affect their personality behaviour. Alienation is a result of social change which at times disturbs identification, in ways threatening to the personality of some members of the society.

Under ordinary circumstances, we solve these problems by various psychological mechanisms that depress our sensitivity, or that divert information, or that produce rationalization. In the person of exquisite sensitivity, however, these particular forms of self-protection are no longer available. His life becomes anguished. His attempts to avoid conflicts of this type become ever more exquisitely extended. It is necessarily an internal pattern or logic that is disconnected from external world and therefore alienated from it.
Hamara (1971) had put forth that lack of effective outlets for aggression, ineffective coping mechanisms for frustration, and negative attitudes toward life, support alienating feelings therefore affect the personality.

Today youth is alienated not only from the actual life of the society, but from their own personality also. They are devoid of any positive understanding of the reality around them. Mukherjee (1977) contended that young are doomed to live a life out in isolation, ignorance, fear, anxiety or dread and conflict, with only immediate reactions or pleasure or pain to boost them up or weigh them down. The consequence is that the youth of India today faces a complicated and truncated social reality. The fear of alienation in youth results in fragmented personality. Hence the personality of youth must be analyzed.

ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

The attempts to explain the term 'Academic Achievement' can be traced back to Stagner (1933), Altus (1947), and Gough (1949).

Trout (1949) contended that academic achievement of a pupil is the knowledge attained and skills developed by him in the subjects in which he is imparted training in schools and subsequent success in life.

The academic achievement is assessed by the school authorities with the help of achievement test which may be
either standardized or made scholastic. Achievement is the proficiency of the student, assessed by his performance in the academic subjects such as reading-writing arithmetic, history and science as contrasted with skills developed in such areas as industrial arts and physical education. It is the competence actually shown by the students in the subjects in which they have received instructions at school.

Stephen's (1956) analysis revealed that the academic development is uniform, regular and steady and that it shows through the gradual progress in achievement from year to year. Achievement encompasses enhancement of 'self actualization' or 'self improvement' and some form of competitiveness. The desire to improve oneself stimulates the youth to continue the academic activities. Till the goal is achieved, youth directs its activities in a particular direction. The teacher can improve the conditions of effective learning to improve achievement abilities in academics (Maharjoe, 1977).

Good (1959) had placed emphasis on knowledge attained or skills developed in the academic subjects known as academic achievement and usually designated by test scores. It is different from proficiency in the areas of different arts or physical skills. Academic or educational age, accomplishment quotient or achievement quotient, are the commonly used means to interpret the level of academic achievement of pupils in general or in specific given subject matter.
The knowledge or skill attained by youth becomes the media for providing incentive to the youth for attainment of higher level of academic achievement, thus satisfying their intellectual curiosity.

Pressey Robinson and Harrock (1968) defined achievement as the status or level of persons skill, the range and depth of his knowledge or his proficiency in a designated area of learning or behaviour, indicative of the extent of his achievement.

According to Crew and Crew (1969), achievement means the extent to which a learner is profiting from instructions in a given area of learning.

In other words, achievement is reflected by extent to which the skill of knowledge has been acquired by a person from the training imparted to him. It is the outcome of general and specific learning experience.

From the above given views of different psychologists, sociologists and educationists it can be concluded that achievement is synonymous with the accomplishment or proficiency to performance. The social acknowledgement of a person's skill, the range, and depth of his knowledge or his proficiency in a designated area of learning or behaviour is indicative of the extent of his achievement.
Concept of Underachievement and Overachievement

Academic achievement are not uniformly distributed in the general population. Traditionally, we refer to a student as being a high, low or average achiever, on the basis of his performance in the achievement test or the grades that student receives from his teacher. Besides the wide variance in the recorded performances between students subjectivity and preference for different subjects also gets reflected in the performance of the same student in different subjects. Even when equal opportunities are provided there is no equality in performance and achievement.

Edwards (1963) used three criteria to identify three levels of achievement, that is, over average and under achievement. The criteria used were: (I) Quick Scoring Intelligence Test (II) California Achievement Test, and (III) Teacher’s Evaluation of the Students. Teachers identified under-achievers as having less than C, average achievers as 'C' grade student, and overachievers as 'B' or above. Teachers evaluation and achievement test results had to agree in order for a student to be retained in the sample population.

Helfenstein (1970), however, has cautioned against the use of teachers judgement alone, as it was not found to be a reliable predictor of achievement performance of either boys or girls.
In either case if the method is used as supplementary to some other scientific and objective method, it can prove to be effective.

Attempts to explain academic achievement or underachievement in the context of cognitive personality determinants can be traced in the studies of Eysenck (1957), Lynn (1959), Holland (1960), Cattell et al. (1962), Cattell and Scally (1965), Cattell and Saucey (1966), Emmer (1970), Entwistle and Brennan (1971), Entwistle et al. (1971).

**Underachievement**

Geza (1960), and Kohan (1972), have emphasized that an 'underachiever' is one whose academic performance falls below the normative range of his potentialities. Peters and Farewell (1966), have supported the same view: when they say that by underachievement, "we refer to that level of attainment which does not measure up to the potential capabilities of the individual.

Peters and Farewell (1966) said that under-achievement is referred to that level of attainment which does not measure up to the potential capabilities of the individual.

According to Brewer (1967), academic underachievement is defined as a "significant and sustained disparity between capacity and performance, which defies rectification through stimulation, tutoring and exhortation. The disparity obtains when measured intelligence contradicts class tests, achievement tests and teachers' impressions."
School children who achieve below the level which is expected of them have attracted a great deal of research attention. The underachiever is a child with whom most teachers are very familiar. Failure to achieve in accordance with expectations, particularly when expectations exceed the actual achievement, is frequently attributed to aspects of "personality" or "character" believed to be important in performance (Naylor, 1972). However, underachievement is not necessarily such a simple and obvious matter. It depends on assumptions concerning the level of 'possible performance', and these assumptions are generally derived from the findings concerning the relation between ability and performance.

For the both, the teacher and the psychologist the underachieving child is one whose actual achievement, as indicated by his scholastic attainments in schools, does not measure up to his potential achievement, as indicated by his abilities. This reflects the fact that there is not a perfect positive correlation between ability and attainment; but perhaps the concept of underachievement suggests that there ought to be or could be, "all other things being equal." In fact, however, all other things are never equal, which is to say that there are real and pervasive differences between people, in addition to differences in ability.

Olsen (1969) sorted out under-achievers as those who were identified by their teachers and those who scored two months or more below grade level on a standardized achievement test.
Cipperly (1969) made a similar attempt to define the concept of underachievement through an investigative case study. He studied the potentiality effective but low performing college students and reached the conclusion that there was not one type or form of under-achieving behaviour. In that investigation, he classified the behaviour into four forms as 'chronic', 'situational', 'transitional', and 'marked or hidden' under-achieving behaviour. This highlights the fact that the concept of under achievement is not static and, rather time-persistence and situational factors are important in distinguishing between different forms of underachievement even on the same level of ability.

There are many causes which affect an individual intellectually and result in underachievement.

Joshi's study (1970) of the important role played by study habits. Joshi, in his study of a sample of 10th and 11th class in Jodhpur schools, concluded that faulty study habits lead to poor results and failures.

Habits and attitudes as non-intellectual parameters affecting academic achievement and over and under achievement have also been given impetus by Nitte (1959), Carwise (1965), Harris (1969), Entwistle and Entwistle (1970), Entwistle and Bromman (1971).
Overshicientment

Carnical (1964), defined oversachievers as pupils whose school attainment surpasses expectations formed on the basis of their ability. Gowan (1968), and Mohan (1972) have also emphasized that an 'oversachiever' is one whose academic achievement surpasses his abilities.

Peters and Parry (1966), say that by overachievement, "we refer to that level of accomplishment which extends above and beyond the level of expectation as indicated by a comprehensive assessment of an individual's potentiality."

Gowan (1968), Mohan (1972) had emphasized that an underachiever is one whose academic performance falls below the normative range of his potentialities. The high or over achiever is one whose academic achievement surpasses his abilities.

Paiinas and Payne (1963) on the basis of reported research literature in the field, have classified the techniques of identifying over and under-achievers under following main categories - regression equation, percentile method, percent difference method index of achievement method, Inventories and batteries used to identify over and under-achiever, Stanine method, Dunning method, Percentage Position method, Grade placement deviation method, grading method and teachers rating method.

The distinction between overachievement and underachievement is significant and important in an educational
content on two grounds:

(1) First, the facts of such achievement indicate the limits which measures of ability possess as predictors of performance. Underachievement suggests that a potential indicated by ability is not being realised, and that the factors which militate against its realisation require explication.

(2) Second, the fact of overachievement - performance in excess of expectations based on measured ability - indicates that an inevitable or necessary ceiling on performance is not dictated by ability levels. The assumption that a level of performance is an inevitable predicate of a level of ability renders underachievement mysterious and overachievement miraculous.

**Characteristics of Overachievement and Underachievement**

The fact that overachievement and underachievement do exist, has led a number of investigators to identify certain conglomerations of traits, characteristics, and behaviour patterns which can serve as a useful criterion for distinguishing the under and over achievers from each other. Goffart and Nyce (1958), explained the concepts of over and underachievement by identifying certain patterns of 'needs'. They identified three different patterns for overachievement:

1. Overachievement associated with a drive to complete (Achievement).
2. Overachievement associated with a drive to organize or plan (Order).

3. Overachievement associated with intellectual curiosity (Introspection).

Similarly, two patterns of underachievement were identified:

1. That associated with a need for variety (Change) wherein academic studies may appear boring and routine.

2. That associated with social motives (Affiliation, Nurturance) wherein friendship may be placed above scholarship.

Taylor in a useful review of literature from 1933-1963 has identified seven basic traits that have been found to differentiate overachievers from underachievers. Overachievers are characterized by well controlled (versus free floating) anxiety, high self-esteem, acceptance of authority, good relations with peers, either independence or low conflict about dependency, academically oriented interests and activities, realistic goals.

Two main themes appear in the determinants. High achievers show strong internalization of values, indicated by responsibility and socialization. They also have high achievement motivation, in regard to both independent and conforming spheres. They are, however, low on social desirability (need to make a good impression for its own sake)
and lack flexibility, apparently preferring order and stability. Intellectual adaptivity is greater, the approach to problems is more cautious and concrete, and intellectual control of emotional reaction in the face of strong outer stimulation is more effective.

Burgess (1936), in a study carried out for the determination of factors of over and underachievers found that underachievers on the other hand are less intellectually adaptive, over-generalise and over-extend the self, and show less intellectual control and repression of emotional reactivity. Establishment of rapport in social situation is easier, but they are more dependent in their attitudes towards others. Motivation for academic achievement is weak; they tend not to enjoy the school situation, and to be unable to see the value of an education. They tend to see their own environment as desirable one.

Dynamics of Overachievement and Underachievement

Recently Brewer (1947), has mentioned the following dynamics which are involved, and are responsible for the onset of underachievement in a child-intellectual under-nourishment at home, basic insecurity, a low repression threshold, over-introspectiveness, pedantry, bodily image disturbance, absence of an ego-ideal, wide scatter on intelligence tests, precipitous loss at puberty of one's "blind faith" in parents, teachers, doctors, the clergy, and the law.
Etiological factors that have been involved in the past include an unconscious need to fail, passive resistance, retribution for parental rejection, and secondary gains of neurosis. Accordingly, Brewer (1967), has offered the following sequence to account for the underachievement syndrome in terms of inmemorable stages of development rather than of psychopathology.

1. **Assimilation - Recall Disparity**

   Since the syndrome afflicts immediate recall more than fundamental learning capacity, we find a gulf between material that is assimilated and that is reproducible at examinations.

2. **Test-Anxiety**

   In the second stage, the resulting failure experience with test works, pressures from parents and teachers, produces a situation where further competitive class room pressure comes ego-dystonic. Test-anxiety which may increase the efforts of some adolescents, is now disposive in its effects on this group.

3. **Intellectualisation of Failure**

   By now the youngster is a severe underachiever who can be identified by the rapid flow of rationalisations of his failures and by his projection of blame upon others. He is functioning now at a vastly reduced level of efficiency.

4. **Breakdown of Intellectualisation**

   The reality situation continues to elicit failure,
while special helps like tutoring and psychotherapy serve to break down the structure of rationalisation and projection. The outstanding clinical symptom is now regression.

5. \textit{Ego-deflation}:

By now the individual feels stupid and hopeless. It is in this stage of decomposition of self-concept that the disparity between assimilation and recall is at its worst. The child now approaches a turning point. Will the disjunctive process continue to overwhelm him in the state of failure feeding on failure, or will he start to rally?

6. \textit{Dilation of a Shortened Ego-Perimeter}:

Through ego-deflation the child has reduced his demands upon himself and has altered his self-concept. This shortened perimeter allows for a higher sense of satisfaction with lower output, which permits a re-inflation of his ego.

7. \textit{Reduction of Intra-Anxiety}:

With increasing ego-strength, and a consequent reduction of the intellectualising mechanisms, the youth can now gradually increase his expectations for himself, and thus, decrease the gulf of underachievement.

8. \textit{Reduction of Assimilation-Recall Disparity}:

Reconditioning occurs through a series of graduated successes.
The hypothesis offered here suggest that the underachievement is better seen as a sequential even if disjunctive pattern of pubertal adolescent development, rather than a pathological syndrome. For example, it may be more important to determine in which stage a younger finds himself in this eight-stage cycle, rather than determine the intensity of symptomatology.

Carnical (1964), says that the logical problems in the notion of underachievement are reflected in the concept of overachievement. In the case of overachievers we would not say that such pupils ought to be performing in accordance with their ability, since an over-riding concern of both teachers and psychologists is the maximisation of performance. But the concept of overachievement does suggest that there are variables in addition to ability which have positive effects on performance. This leads into the question of characterising the variables and discovering whether they are absent in underachievers and whether underachievers possess characteristics which are absent in overachievers.

**Factors Affecting Overachievement and Underachievement**

Never before has the need for understanding of the factors which contributed to college success been quite as acute as it is now. Predictive attempts based upon measures of ability and past performance (high school record) have been moderately successful. A number of recent
studies have therefore focussed upon factors associated with academic over and under-achievement in the attempt to develop more efficient predictors of academic success (McQuary, 1974; Parish and Rothlinghouser, 1954; and Shaw and Brown, 1957).

Sinha (1970) in a study of academic achievers and non-achievers attempted to analyse certain factors associated with success and failure in university education with special reference to some non-intellectual and personality factors. He added that the level of scholastic success or failure attained by the student is not only governed by his intellectual equipment, it is also a function of his personality, the way he is able to adjust himself with his environment, and the drive and energy that he brings to bear upon his work.

Mohan (1974), instead of emphasising the importance of a specific number of factors in explaining the nature of over and underachievement, has made a more comprehensive survey and grouped the various factors under the two broad categories of Psychological and Environmental. To these we can add another category—that of Biological.

1. Biological Factors:

Peter and Farrell (1966), have emphasised that an important facet impinging upon underachievement and overachievement is that of physical influences. One's state of physical health may contribute tremendously to his lack
of the initiative and lack of desire to succeed or to work up to his potential. If a rundown physical condition, a physical handicap or an uncorrected physical deficiency is present, an individual may not have the physical energy or desire to apply himself. During adolescent years, particularly, physical influences may have great bearing. Great changes are taking place; it is a period of rapid physical growth, and all of these influences may be conducive to accomplishment or may cause a lack of it.

On the other hand, a person with a physical disability may well compensate for this through extensive overachievement in other areas. Peters and Parley (1966), have remarked, that they are not saying that this is wrong; rather, it emphasises that the cause for this performance may be physical.

2. **Environmental Factors:**

Environmental variables, such as, social status have been discussed by Dockerell (1959); Crouch (1962); Curry (1962); Lindgren (1963); Varè (1967); and McDonald (1964), physical conditions (Colquhoun and Corcoran, 1964) and effect of schooling (Buck,1964; Finger and Schlesser,1963).

Environmental/situational factors that have been studied as influencing factors in one's performance are further subdivided under various headings:
(i) **School**: Frankel (1960), observed that the underachievers were significantly more absent from the school and their participation in co-curricular activities was much less. Moody (1958), showed that children's interest is no doubt fostered as much by their successes as is success by interest in school. Children in schools where the mean rating for interest in school is higher tend to be more intelligent.

(ii) **Home and Family**: Frankel (1960), found that the fathers of the achievers had more formal education than the mothers. The underachievers had significantly greater number of working mothers in the lower jobs such as typist, clerks etc. Lindgren and Guadet (1963), too found that the education of parents was positively correlated with academic achievement of children. Sinha (1970), on the other hand observed no relationship of mother's education to high achievement of student. Contrary to the above findings he found that the mothers of low achievers seemed to be superior in education than those of high achievers.

(iii) **Peer Influence**: One of the basic needs of most youths is acceptance by their peer group.

According to Peters and Parley (1966), if the peer culture provides rewards for high level accomplishment in content learning, the contribution to the motivating force for succeeding, is tremendous.

Acceptance by peers is a strong force in the application one gives to a particular endeavour.
(iv) **Teacher Influence**: Peters and Farwell (1966) have emphasised that teacher influences may have just as much to do with under and overachievement as any other factor. A teacher without understanding and acceptance after provides a psychological climate that precipitates a negativistic attitude on the part of the pupils leading to underachievement. On the other hand, overachievement may originate when acceptance by the teacher may be crucial in the child's need pattern, and he may see high attainment as the means to acceptance, particularly if the grades have been emphasised.

(v) **Socio-economic Status (SES)**: In the study by Frankel (1966), it was found that family's socio-economic status in case of achievers was relatively higher than those of underachievers. Cray (1964), found that socio-economic status has relatively no effect on children with higher IQ. But on the whole, achievement and language of these children is better who come from higher socio-economic status. Simha (1970), found only a negligible association between parental occupation and academic achievement.

Nae (1970), on the other hand, in a study of some factors related to scholastic achievement came to the following conclusions regarding SES: First, there is a substantial positive relationship between SES and achievement (r = .39). This shows that the parents income, education and occupation influence the achievement of the pupils.
Second, SES is highly related to intelligence (.49). Whatever relationship exists between SES and achievement seems to be due to relation between SES and intelligence.

3. Psychological Factors:

The psychological factors have been assessed as significant in determining academic achievement. These may be enumerated as follows:

(i) Intelligence: Many studies (Collins and Dougless, 1937; Coleman, 1940; Bryan, 1941; Shaw, 1943; Cough, 1946; Super, 1949; Walking, 1955; Hime, 1956; Wellman, 1977; Edwards and Tyler, 1953) have related measures of intelligence IQ to measures of achievement in school. On the average such studies indicated a correlation of approximately .70 between IQ and achievement. As this figure shows that only about fifty per cent of the variance in achievement scores can be accounted for in items of IQ several investigators looked elsewhere for other determining variables.

Hollingworth and Cobb (1923), Terman et al. (1925), Freeman (1943), Crawford and Burnham (1946), Gowan (1955), Terman (1970) in their observational and scientific investigations have lent a unanimous support to the widely held viewpoint that intellectual superiority of the individual plays a prominent role in determining the limits of academic achievement.

According to Lynn (1955, 1957, 1959), Lynn and Gordon (1961), Savage (1962) and Child (1964), Intelligence had been
taken for granted to be an important determiner of academic achievement.

Sinha (1970), in a comprehensive study, made an analysis of students who had obtained high percentage of marks (designated as high achievers) and those who had either failed or secured a low percentage of marks in their examination (designated as low achievers). Five categories of intelligence - very superior (IQ 125 and above), superior (IQ 111 to 124), average (IQ 80 to 110), inferior (IQ 74 to 88) and very inferior (IQ 73 and below) were made, and the number of subjects from the two groups falling in each was ascertained. A majority of the high achievers were found to belong to the categories of superior and very superior, the number of lows in these was much smaller. Moreover, very negligible number of the highs were in the inferior category.

(ii) Aptitude: Frankel (1960), found that under-achievers had poorer aptitude scores on verbal reasoning and numerical ability than achievers. Green and Parvazhar (1965) did a study with Negroes and found them to be poorer achievers, and their correlation between academic achievement and aptitude as also very low.

(iii) Interest: According to Frankel (1960), achievers were found to be more interested in computational and scientific spheres and underachievers had higher scores on mechanical and artistic interests. Related to this was the
the liking of school subjects. The achievers preferred Mathematics and Science and found language difficult, whereas underachievers found mathematics more difficult.

(iv) Motivation: McClelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell (1953) reported a correlation of .51 between need achievement or achievement imagery scores and various indexes of academic accomplishment. Page (1959), found praised and blamed children performing better on an objective test than those receiving no comments.inks (1970) found that the inter-relationship of motivation to academic achievement is not simple. What is important is not just high motivation but a better channelisation of one's dynamic energies in the directions which are chosen realistically and showing persistence in one's efforts in attaining it.

In the area of induced motivation and its effect on academic achievement, a positive relation has been reported (Nehan,1972). Knowledge of results also has known motivational and directional properties (Nehan and Gupta,1972).

Study Habits

Eban (1969), found that the factor interpreted as study habits has no relationship with achievement for males, but bears moderate relationships for females. He further added that 'achievement oriented' psychological variables influence academic achievement significantly more than the variables involving mechanics of how to study.
4. Personality:

Personality variables, including all of the faults, types, traits, attitudes, interests (Demos and Spolyar, 1961 Lynn and Gordon, 1961) determine the achievement of an individual.

According to Entwistle (1972), any attempt to understand the complete causal chain associated with school attainment must include the effect of personality on the child's work in the school.

Janet (1961), Simha (1970), and Vishwani (1974), have shown that achievement depends on the personality adjustment of the individuals. High achievers are better adjusted than low achievers in all the five areas of adjustment, home, health, social, emotional and school, as well as the total adjustment scores (Vishwani, 1974).

There have been studies conducted from time to time in the field of personality in relation to extraversion and neuroticism. The theory that learning simple educational tasks takes place by conditioning, taken together with Rysman's personality theory, yields the prediction that those who do well in educational tasks should be introverted since they generate reactive inhibition slowly.

A further prediction was made from the theory by Lynn and Gordon (1961), that high achievers should show low indices of reactive inhibition as assessed by reminiscence and vigilance tasks. On the other hand, extraverts because of their lower
cortical excitation, faster accumulation of IR and its slower dissipation are found to be poor performers on academic tasks. (Lynn and Gordon, 1961; Callard and Good-fellow, 1968; Child, 1964; Nadan, 1968).

One may conclude here with the comment that what is important for the pupil and those around him is to be aware of the uniqueness of the individual, and for the pupil to be sensitive to the effect of his uniqueness on the multiple aspects of his overall development of personality.

As Cough and Fink (1964), point out that the pattern of achievement is not a pattern of creativity or innovation but rather that of constructive adaptation to a world in which one's circumstances are modest and one's destiny limited.

Finally Mohan (1976) while discussing the results of her study, 'Neuroticism, Extraversion and Academic Achievement supported the contention that a combination of Neuroticism and Extraversion would be a better predictor of Academic Success than the one used for explanation alone. Thus, on the whole, the stable introverts were found to have the best performance in vocabulary, examination and intelligence.

Academic Achievement has been the focus of educational research. Some attempts have been frustrated in establishing a direct relationship between certain variables and academic performance; some are still in the throes of scientific stipulation. Thus academic achievement of youth must also be
analyzed in relation to alienation.

**Alienation in relation to Academic Achievement**

The academic development of the youth is the primary and most important goal of education. Academic Achievement is the unique, prime and perennial responsibility of all educational institutions established by the society to promote a wholesome scholastic growth and development of the youth. Prediction of academic brilliance are often made on the basis of brilliance for scholastic aptitudes. But sometimes it is observed that two individuals, exactly alike in intellectual endowments, having the same age, belonging to the same class and judged objectively by the same teacher exhibit variations in educational accomplishments, leading to sometimes over and underachievement, that is, when actual achievement exceeds or falls short of expected achievement. Students rush around at a hectic pace to compete with other students. Cohen (1959) had put forth his views that an anomic student rushes through courses and accumulates grades and little else; he gets his degree and is successful. Then he is shocked at the realization that it is an empty symbol, a piece of paper with little behind it, except numbers of grades and wasted years. He gets the prestigious job and realizes eventually with a jolt that it too is meaningless, that he is not really attached to the work, the firm, the people with whom he works, that he only goes through empty motions and has money only to show for all these years of life. He accumulates the money, the car,
the house in the suburbs, and realizes that he has wasted away his years always expecting the next stage, the next promotion, the next raise in pay, the next purchase to give him what he really wants. These never become ends in themselves; he strives after means and once achieved, these are like water in his hands which drips away, non solid, with little possibility of attachment. He starts to search for more again, dissatisfied, unfulfilled. Instead of searching for ends such as creative work and relationships, the meeting of deep seated needs of the self, he makes money, power and materialistic goods into ends. But these are means only, which send him searching for more, hoping to find in the future the gratification for which he really searches. He lives for and with means, achieves them, is dissatisfied and runs for means again; truly there is no end in the running, and to his confusion, no end to the climbing. All he has are means to ends, water or sand in his hands, 'goods' to his life, but with no good in it. When finally, he has what he thinks he wants, he looks up and the ladder is higher still. He must climb for more money. There is never enough because of the lack of fulfilment of his true wants; his true needs of self remain to be filled and this he can do in the only way he knows how, by more emphasis on means, such as money and power to fill the void of empty ends, or unfulfilled ends, or unknown ends, unknown because he has never thought out the ends to life, to existence, to himself, to his deep
self-needs. He may be successful but that is never enough. He becomes disillusioned, weary of the search for real happiness and fulfilment which he never finds despite the riches and other success symbols accumulated. Hence he is prone to manifestation of Alienation (anomia), including suicide.

The success and failure both in modern society can lead to a feeling of alienation. Gladding (1977) contended that the absence of religious belief and the absence of liking school may be associated with the personal frustrations that these individuals (adolescents) face in being amongst the most psychologically isolated in the community.

Under certain conditions in modern society, success and failure have within them, conditions in common, leading to feeling of alienation, because one does not understand the common 'sickness' inherent in certain types of success and failure in achievement of youth leading to a feeling of alienation. Perhaps a better understanding of the factors involved in academic achievement can help the youth to overcome their alienation. In this context academic achievement assumes the important function of monitoring the progressive stages of development of youth and must be analysed in relation to alienation.
Motivation

In the present era there is a great emphasis on achievement motivation. Maslow (1954) and McClelland (1953), working towards a theory of motivation established that basic human needs are organised into hierarchy of relative potency. It assumed that healthy individuals whose lower order needs for physical health, safety, belongingness and love and esteem are reasonably satisfied at once, other (higher and still higher) needs emerge - and human beings strive continually and with high intrinsic reward for self actualisation. The motives are explained in terms of needs basic and innate as well as higher and acquired.

According to Neonalt (1964) the term motivation refers to any organism i.e. state that mobilise activity which is in some sense selective or directive, with respect to environment.

Achievement Motivation

The concept of Achievement Motivation or need for achievement (n-Ach) has been prevalent in one form or another, since the beginning of the present century.

Murray (1938) referred to Achievement Motive as the need for achievement, (abbreviated as n-Ach and described it as the desire to accomplish some thing difficult to rival and surpass others. In the area of
motivation much experimentation has been done on need achievement. Murray (1938) had put forth that need achievement means to accomplish something difficult to master, manipulate or energise physical objects, human beings or ideas.

Sears (1942) and Allport (1943) considered concept of achievement motivation synonymous to 'success or failure', 'Ego involvement', and the 'Level of aspiration'.

The level of aspiration is also a type of motive but it differs from person to person and is called 'motive of aspiration', and this motive motivates a man unless it satisfies his aspiration.

McClelland (1951) said 'need-Achievement' or 'need mastery' is a competition with a standard of excellence. The standard of excellence may be self-related, task related or either related. He further added that it is a need which presumably is aroused by experimentally inducing ego involvement. He further adds that some people are more strongly motivated by the expectation of success, others by the expectations of failure. He calls these sub-forms of the achievement motivation as 'need achievement' and 'Fear of Failure'.

While clarifying the concept Oates et al. (1953) said that motivation has a tri-function of energizing the behaviour, selecting or determining the behaviour and tendency to react to different situations as well as direct behaviour. Atkinson (1958) used the term 'achievement motivation' or need for achievement
to refer to temporarily aroused state.

Clark and Lowell (1952) argued that the achievement motive is acquired through the reinforcement of responses made in achievement related activities during childhood. They said that in case of achievement motivation, this situation should involve 'standard of excellence' presumably imposed on the child by the culture, or more particularly by the parents as representative of culture, and the behaviour should involve either 'competition' with those standards of excellence or attempts to meet them; which if successful, produce positive effect or if unsuccessful, will produce negative effect. It follows that those cultures or families which stress competition with standard of excellence or which insist that the child be able to perform certain tasks well by himself, should produce children with high achievement motivation.

This means we have to motivate students to learn. As a matter of fact, motivation is at the heart of learning. Without motivation, no learning is possible at any significant age level. Therefore the motivating aspect cannot be ignored while promoting learning.

Rosen (1959) stated that the achievement motive is the enduring characteristic or disposition to strive for achievement goals, is strengthened as a result of successive reward for attaining certain imposed standard of excellence.
When one pursues the activity for the sake of some external reward, one is extrinsically motivated. Extrinsic motivation is considered inferior to intrinsic motivation as a learning device. Intrinsic motivation appears to be the best and most enjoyable approach to the learning process, but when it is not possible, sensible extrinsic motivation is an acceptable substitute.

Heckhausen (1963) put forth that in terms of content, achievement motivation may be characterized as the tendency to maintain and increase individual proficiency in all areas in which a standard of quality is taken as binding. Heckhausen (1967) further added that motivation is a universal fact of life just as the maturation steps in cognitive development. He is of the view that achievement motivation can be conceptualized as the striving to increase or keep as high as possible, one's own capabilities in all activities in which a standard of excellence is thought to apply and where the execution of such activities can, therefore, either succeed or fail.

To Farquhar (1963), motivation is expressed through various motives. In the domain of learning or scholastic attainments, achievement or academic motive can be singled out as the most prominent. According to him achievement motive is a combination of forces which initiate direct and sustained behaviour towards a scholarly goal.

Learning is a process by which an organism, in satisfying
his motivation, adapts or adjust to a situation in which it must modify its behaviour in order to overcome obstacles or barriers. It is no secret that activity is basic to learning and motivation is basic to activity. Motives are the sources of energy which initiate a man to act or behave in order to succeed to achieve the set goal.

McClelland (1961) had also reported the characteristics of a person with high achievement motivation. The related characteristics of being motivated are risk taking, performance of energetic innovating activity, and taking personal responsibility for results of action. It has also been reported that high achievement motivation was an essential ingredient of entrepreneurship. McClelland (1964) also emphasised to point that Achievement Motivation is a desire for excellence, not so much for the sake of social recognition, as to attain an inner feeling or personal accomplishment. However, according to Atkinson (1964), Achievement Motivation is the inner force, desire or need. Experimentally, it is the conscious experience of desire, emotion, feeling of determination and the inclination to act, whereas behaviourally it is description of the direction (vigor) and persistence of observable behaviour in relation to observable and environmental conditions.

Thus, achievement motivation is a desire to do well not so much for the sake of social recognition or prestige, but for the sake of inner feelings of personal accomplishment. Any behaviour related to striving for success, relates to
occupation and achievement.

Kohli (1964 and 1975) stressed the fact that achievement motivation is a great source of inspiration to learn or achieve better and quickly.

Mukherjee (1965) said that in an achievement motivated person there is a conscious high desire for achievement with a high desire for excellence, an effort to maintain self respect and pride on a high level and set for striving or striving in order to make up for a failure.

Motive or need is a disposition to strive for particular kind of goal state or aim i.e. achievement, affiliation power etc. The attainment of goal state is accomplished by feeling of satisfaction; non attainment of desired goal state is accompanied by feeling of dissatisfaction. But there are also some unconscious motives, in a man that initiate a man unknowingly to act.

Atkinson and Feather (1966) asserted that a person's motive to achieve his motive to avoid failure and his expectation of success in some venture, strongly influence his character of his motivation as it is expressed in level of aspiration, preference for risk, willingness to put forth effort and to persist in an activity.

Two individuals may possess the same amount of motive abilities, yet one may set up a very high standard of expectations out of himself and another may set up very low one.
This setting of goals had been called the level of aspiration by Lewin, Demo, Festinger and Sears (1944).

A parallel phenomenon is the achievement oriented behaviour called achievement motivation or need for achievement. Both act as motivating force to put in more efforts in performing a task.

Atkinson (quoted by Chana 1966) differentiating between a motive (meaning potential motivation) or motivation or 'tendency' (meaning actual motivation) described achievement motivation as the disposition to strive for satisfaction derived from success in completion with a standard of excellence.

McClelland (1969) was of the view that a high level of economic growth can be achieved by focusing strong emphasis on hard work and achievement and the view, rampant amongst the people that social relationship should occur with specific purpose in mind to obtain culture of high productivity and more satisfaction. Thus McClelland incorporated the need for achievement motivation.

According to Davies and Tune (1970), Arousal is a state of the individual which can effect his behaviour and has motivational potential equivalent to 'drive'.

Sharma (1961) discussed that the demand forced on the individual by his social environment contributes to the
development of his desire for success. As the social environment is found different in all the three subcultures, viz., tribal, rural and urban, so the demand put by the environment on individuals will be different. Since a-Achievement is a learned and acquired motive, there is possibility of raising it.

Every person has got some attitude towards other group, society or man. This attitude may be favourable or unfavourable towards the group, society or a man. The favourable attitudes are liked while the other one are disliked. Thus every man grows in his social environment. The acquired social motives are found in every man. They are called common social motives, because there are some common experiences of life in every man.

Achievement Motivation is an important social drive. To conclude the term can be defined as performance in terms of standard of excellence or simply as a desire to be successful. It is a construct designed to explain inter and intra individual differences in the orientation, intensity and consistency of achievement behaviour. Motivation can be considered synonymous with aspiration. These two are positively correlated.

Alienation in Relation to Achievement Motivation

(A human society is one in which alienation is accepted as a natural potentiality. The problem of alienation is related to the nature of human beings. Reuter (1965) envisaged that every human being is expected to possess or develop Achievement
motive as to strive for success, thus actualising his potentialities.)

Learning is a voluntary activity. The more difficult a subject to learn, the more power will be required to learn it and consequently the more motivation is required for it. An intelligent student develops motivation in his studies. By motivation learning becomes active. In it, the interest and attention are spontaneous, more work is done in less time and a thing learned once is remembered for ever. Motivation has the same place in learning as energy in mechanical function.

One must also continually return to the open world of experience. Some particular experiences can refresh one's concepts, ideas, generalisations and theories. It is the union of the particular experience with the general experience that generates meaning and governs understanding. There is an ultimate particularity that defies all our generalisations.

Raynor (1969) said that the present century has rightly been called "the century of Motivation" whether in education or in industry, in general learning or in doing a sophisticated job, 'Motivation' confronts every one interested in achievement.

The word motive includes all the internal and external factors that initiate any activity. But in Psychology motive includes only those factors which control the activity of the living being. It does not include mechanical or reflex actions because they depend on the physical structure and the external
environment. There can be one motive behind different actions and different motives behind the same action. Psychology explains the real motives behind the behaviour and experience of the individual and living beings.

Nature can never be sufficiently bountiful to accommodate all ambitions. And those ambitions or values that are sufficiently denied will produce alienation.

Because each type of alienation can be removed in imagination, it can be removed simultaneously. This is impossible for the biological man, let alone for the man in society, thereby resulting in conflict. Kaplan (1976) stated that conflict could be removed by providing honor, esteem and other similar values, all of which are inherently comparative. These conflicts can be avoided by changing motivation. But then esteem will be extended to those who affect themselves or who avoid competition, the fear of defeat generates a feeling of alienation. At the same time Man has desires to be successful, thus he is motivated to achievement.

The cases dealing with the esteem awarded men, give rise to the illusion that all could be harmonious if only there were a new man, who was not motivated by envy, grudge, or the need for esteem or honour. Essentially, alienation is to be eliminated through productivity, changes in social organisation that eliminate competitiveness and changes in the motivation or consciousness of men that eliminate competitiveness or egoistic desires.
Unfortunately, this process of reasoning involves a slight trick. Each particular focal point of alienation or contradiction is removed by rearranging some other elements of the system.

(Society can be restructured to improve the sense of identity, and facilitate authenticity, to encourage productivity, and to generate creativity in youth, if alienation is recognized as an intrinsic potential in life. Problems will always occur, conflict will always exist but resources are always limited. Thus the study of alienation in relation to achievement Motivation leads us toward reconstruction of behaviour of youth, thus generate the need for it to be analyzed.

Finally, it appears that the effect of achievement motivation effects the individual differences in physiological responsiveness, and adjustment in life. Therefore, the concept of Achievement Motivation in the area of youth Alienation needs to be studied further.