CHAPTER – II

RELATED LITERATURE
AND STUDIES
CHAPTER – II
RELATED LITERATURE AND STUDIES

2.1.0 : FRustration and Reactions to FRustration

The term ‘frustration’ has been defined in myriad ways in the literature. In this context, Britt and Janus (1940) point out that this term has been used in at least three broad ways in psychological literature, describing (i) a frustrating situation or instigating condition; (ii) the effects of such instigation on personality, i.e. change in tension, maladjustment and homeostasis; and (iii) the effects on person’s reaction system, i.e. anger, aggression, withdrawal, regression, resignation. The analysis of the vast literature of frustration reveal that frustration implies the “blocking or interferences of the satisfaction of an aroused need through some barrier or obstruction”; (Symonds, 1949 : 42–43) and this blocking may be real or anticipatory in nature. In this same veins Cofer and Appley (1980 : 412) states; “Frustration implies that a course of action has not been carried through to its goal or conclusion, or that an end state of some sort has not been reached, or that an expected outcome or consequence has failed to materialize”. This may describe a single set of events on “a particular occasion or it may refer to repeated instances, so as to become characteristic of an individual’s relationship to his environment.”

In psychology, frustration is common emotional response to opposition. Related to anger and disappointment, it arises from the perceived resistance to the fulfillment of individual will. The greater the obstruction, and the greater the will, the more the frustration is likely to be. Reaction to frustration is never being observed. So human beings have to observe its reactions towards various objects and situations.

2.1.1 : Definition and Meaning of Frustration

The very word ‘frustration’ derived from the Latin ‘frustrationem’ which means “deception or disappointment/indicating a process or condition.” Generally speaking definition can be classified into two categories, i.e. frustration as a state of an organism and frustration as a hypothetical construct. Most of them however agree in emphasizing the role of interference.

However, some typical definitions of frustration have been given below:
1. **The American Heritage Stedman’s Medical Dictionary (1995)**: “The condition that results when an impulse or action is thwarted by an external or an internal force.”

2. **Collins English Dictionary (2014)**: “the condition of being frustrated.”

3. To **Bollard, et al. (1939 : 7)** frustration is “an interference with the occurrence of an instigated goal response at its proper time in the behavior sequence.” By ‘goal response’ they meant the reaction reducing the strength of the instigation and by the term instigated response sequence they meant an ongoing activity.”

4. **Rosenzweig (1981 : 117)** considers frustration as “a failure in biological adjustment in the context of vital defense and he posits.”

5. **Maslow and Mittleman (1951 : 107)** distinguish between ‘threat’ and ‘derovation’ and feel “perhaps frustration as a single concept is less useful than the two concepts cross it: (1) deprivation of non-basic needs and (2) threat to personality deprivation implies much less than is ordinarily implied by the concept of frustration, threat implies much more. Deprivation is not psycho pathogenic threat is.”

6. **Roger Brown (1965)**: “Frustration occurs when something happens to block the progress towards a goal of a motivated man or animal.”


8. **Atkinson, Berne and Woodworth (1988 : 186)** define frustration as “i) Blockage or thwarting of goal-directed behavior and ii) An unpleasant state of tension, anxiety and heightened sympathetic activity resulting from blockage or thwarting.”

9. **John Bellingham’s Dictionary of Education (2002 : 115)**: “A loose term for the level of relative discouragement that an individual can typically tolerate before dropping efforts to reach some goal. Individuals range from low too high in their frustration threshold; children generally start low and move toward the higher with increasing maturity.”

10. **Tompson, Gardner & Vesta (2008)**: Frustration always produces an increment in the need for aggression toward the individual most clearly responsible for the frustration.
11. Ciccarelli, K. Saundra & Meyer, E. Glenn (2008) : Frustration occurs when people are blocked or prevented from achieving a desire goal or fulfilling a perceived need.

12. [website] : “It arises when one’s motivation to achieve a desired goal is blocked.”


14. Dictionary of Psychology, Oxford University Press (2009 : 249) : “The blocking or prevention of a potentially rewarding or satisfying act or sequence of behavior, or the emotional response to such hindrance.”

15. [website] : “dissatisfaction or discouragement that occurs when an individual’s needs, goals or expectations are not met.”

16. DK Illustrated Oxford Dictionary (2012 : 278) : “Make someone feel dissatisfied as a result of being unable to do something.”

17. The Advanced Learner’s Dictionary of Current English (1968) : “Frustrating or being frustrated.”

18. [website] : “Frustration is like showing aggression of irritation.”

19. Random House Kernerman Webster’s College Dictionary (2010) : “A feeling of dissatisfaction often accompanied by anxiety or depression, resulting from unfulfilled needs or unresolved problem.”


21. [website] : "Frustration is a feeling that occurs when something does not go as you expect.”

22. According to one psychologist, frustration is, “The denial or thwarting of motives by obstacles which lies between needs and goal.”
23. According to one psychologist, “Frustration is the emotional state resulting from being blocked, thwarted or defeated.”

24. According to one psychologist, “Frustration is that condition which exists when a goal response suffers interference.”

25. Rosenzweig (1944) defined it saying “Frustration occur whenever the organism meets more or less instrumental obstacles or obstruction in its route to the satisfaction of the vital needs.”


27. Good, Carter V. (1959) : “Frustration means emotional tension resulting from the blocking of a desire.”

28. Kartz, Barnev and Lehner, C. F. : “Frustration refers to failure to satisfy a basic need because of either condition in the individual or external obstacles.”

29. Kolesnic, Walter B. (1963) : “Frustration is the feeling of being blocked or thwarted in satisfying a need or attaining a goal that individual perceives as significant.”

30. Munn (1973) : “In some cases strong motives are blocked by impossible barriers, which it seems impossible to overcome. It is with reference to such situations that translation, stress or conflict arises.”

31. Shaffier and Shopen (1956) : “A frustration is an external circumstances or an act of another person that prevents the reduction of an aroused drive.”

32. The Free Dictionary (2016) : “To prevent from accomplishing a purpose or fulfilling a desire.”

33. Merriam Webster Online (2016) : “A feeling of anger or annoyance caused by being unable to do something.”

35. Yale Group (2016) : Frustration is the “condition which exists when a goal-response suffers interference.”


37. Bo Bennett (1969) : “Frustration, although quite painful at time, is a very positive and essential part of success.”

38. Maier (1949) : “Frustration is that particular state where continued failure causes learning function to operate easily and other mechanisms of adjustment being operating.”

Above-mentioned definitions reveal the following characteristics and meaning of frustration.

- Frustration occurs when goal is blocked.
- Frustration lies both in the individual and his environment.
- Frustration results in mental tension.
- Frustration is that stage or condition in which failure dominates the attempt.
- The intensity of frustration depends upon the significance of the goal and the strength of the blockade.

If we analyses the underlying idea of the above definitions of frustration, we find that all psychologists agree on its general nature. Human beings have three types of needs, namely biological, psychological and social which motivate them to reach a particular goal. When motivated behavior is locked by an obstacle, tension is produced and it continues as long as a barrier is present. But frustration occurs only when the organism meets hindrances which are difficult or impossible to overcome. In other words when progress toward a motivated goal is blocked by an insurmountable barrier before the goal is achieved and the underlying tension unresolved, it results in frustration.

2.1.2 : OPERATIONS OF FRUSTRATION

J. C. Aggarwal (1947) considers operations of frustration as :

**Withholding reinforcement :**

The first operation of frustration refers to withholding of reinforcement that ordinarily occurs from an organism that has already been conditioned in a particular way. Frustration occurs when a response is regularly reinforced and then all of a sudden extinguished. This operation causes frustration by delay. The delay in reinforcement may vary from slight to an
indefinite period of time.

Seers, Hovland and Miller (1940) conducted an experiment to understand the reaction of frustration by withholding reinforcement (Chauhan, 2010).

**Thwarting:**

The second operation of frustration refers to mechanically preventing a response from occurring. It means that at point of an organism’s activity, a barrier is introduced and behavior is prevented from occurring. Following is the list of common obstacle, which prevent the organism from reaching its goal and leads to frustration.

**Physical Obstacles:**

There are several types of physical obstacles such as a door being locked to prevent entry into a room, a guard preventing one from seeing an officer, a lower prevented from seeing belloved because of restrictions imposed.

**Socio-economic Barriers:**

In our society wide gaps in socio-economic conditions exist. Young men and women are prevented from reaching their goals because of these barriers Marriages are prevented because of religion, caste, socio-economic status and educational barriers.

**Sources from the Self:**

The sources of thwarting may also come from the person himself. His physical handicap, low intellectual abilities and undesirable personality etc. may thwart the fulfillment of his needs and may cause frustration.

**Authority:**

The behavior of other person may operate as a source of constant frustration. Parent’s negative attitude towards their children may create frustration. Sometimes people in authority are autocratic and unfair with their juniors and may create frustration in their minds.

**Minority Groups:**

India is a country with hundreds of minority groups. Members of particular minority group when discriminated against and made to feel inadequate and unwanted experience a high degree of frustration which may result in maladjustment.
Natural Calamities:

Natural calamities such as floods, partition, drought, epidemics, earthquakes and wars etc. may prevent the fulfillment of needs and cause frustration.

S. S. Chauhan (2010) considers withholding reinforcement, thwarting and conflicts as operations of frustration.

2.1.3: CAUSES OF FRUSTRATION

According J. C. Aggarwal (2007, Essentials of Educational Psychology) the causes of frustration may be divided into two heads: 1. Internal and 2. External.

1. Internal Causes of Frustration:

These include: (i) Physical abnormality or defects, (ii) conflicting aims and desires, (iii) high ideals and morality of the individual, (iv) too high level of aspiration, (v) lack of persistence, (vi) lack of sincerity etc.

2. External Causes of Frustration:

These consist of (i) Natural calamities, (ii) Economic and financial constraints, (iii) Corruption and favoritism, (iv) Absence of norms and domination of subjectivity etc.

According to Morgan (1986), the causes of frustration are to be found in: (1) environmental forces that block motive fulfillment, (2) personal inadequacies that make it impossible to reach goals and (3) conflicts between and among motives.

Environmental Frustration:

By making it difficult or impossible for a person to attain a goal, environmental obstacles can frustrate the satisfaction of motives. An obstacle may be something physical, such as a locked door or a lack of money. Or it may be people-parents, teachers, or police. Officers, for example-who prevent us from achieving our goals. The vertical line in represents an environmental obstacle that prevents a goal from being reached.

Personal Frustration:

Unattainable goals can be important sources of frustration. These are largely learned goals that cannot be achieved because they are beyond a person’s abilities. For instance, a boy may be taught to aspire to high academic achievement but lack the ability to make better than a mediocre record. He may be motivated to join the school band, play on the football team, be admitted to a certain club, or act the lead in a play and be frustrated because he does
not have the necessary talent. Thus people are often frustrated because they aspire to goals-have a *level of aspiration*-beyond their capacity to perform. The vertical line in might stand for thwarting of goal-directed behavior by some personal characteristic of the individual.

**Conflict–Produced Frustration:**

A major source of frustration is found in *motivational conflict*, in which the expression of one motive interferes with the expression of other motives. In expressing aggression, for example, people are often caught in such a conflict. On the one hand, they would like to give vent to their rage; on the other, they fear the social disapproval which will result if they do. Aggression is thus in conflict with the need for social approval. In some societies, sexual motivation is often in conflict with society’s standards of approved sexual behavior. Other common conflicts are between independence and affiliation needs or career aspirations and economic realities. Life is full of conflicts and the frustration arising from them.

2.1.4: FACTORS OF FRUSTRATION

According to Kaur (2014) factors that lead to non-fulfillment of desires are the causes of frustration. Such factors are of two categories:

A. External Environment Factors.
B. Internal / Personal Environment Factors.

A. **External Environment Factors**:

External factors are the environment. They influence the individual from outside. Some of the important external factors of frustration are:

1. **Physical Factors**: Many of needs remain unfulfilled due to the physical obstacles. For example rain, flood, famine, fire, earthquake may destroy normal condition and lead to non-fulfillment of needs and desires.

2. **Social Factors**: The prevailing norms and rules of our society may lead to non-fulfillment of desires and cause frustration. A person may be anxious to marry a beautiful girl. But because of social situation he may not be able to be appreciated, loved and respected. If this desire for love and respect is not met, the result is frustrating.

3. **Economic Factors**: Poverty is the cause of many types of frustrations. Some people are not able to fulfill these physical needs due to poverty. They are not able to get proper food
and sufficient clothing. Unemployment, lack of security in employment, inadequate wages, harsh treatment by employers and lack of opportunities cause frustration.

**B. Internal / Personal Factors :**

Sometimes internal or personal causes are responsible for frustration, personal causes frustrate the individual from with internal person himself is the cause of frustration. Some of the important internal factors of frustration are:

1. **Physical Defect or Abnormality** : Frustration may be caused due to physical defect such as blindness, deafness, lameness etc. An ugly face, dark complexion, very heavy or thin body, very small or big stature may be source of frustration.

2. **Mental Deficiency** : Deficiency in one’s intelligence or studies may frustrate an individual. A person may be anxious to get first division in any examination, but because of mental deficiency s/he may not get it. This would cause dissatisfaction and frustration.

3. **Conflicting Desires** : Frustration may be caused due to conflicting desires of the person. For example, a young boy wishes to marry a particular girl of his choice, but also wishes to avoid it as it interferes to obtain a Ph.D. degree, which requires four years study in a university.

4. **Moral Values** : Sometimes moral values also cause frustration. A person wants to steal an attractive living, but his moral values stop him from doing so. In such a situation s/he can fulfill only one need and this leads to conflict and frustration.

5. **High Level of Aspiration** : Sometimes very high level of aspiration causes frustration. For example, a school student who hardly gets pass marks in various examinations aspires to become lectures. Such aspirations are found to lead to frustration.

**2.1.5 : SOURCES OF FRUSTRATION**

According to James D. Page (1947) the chief sources of frustration are:

**Competition** : Most individuals have somewhat similar desires, but they are not equally equipped to satisfy them. Some, by virtue of a superior heredity or more favorable family background, possess an insurmountable advantage over others with respect to intelligence, physical attractiveness, social charm, and emotional stability. In the competitive struggle for wealth, desirable marital partners, social recognition, professional success, new experiences,
and other values that make for happiness, they encounter fewer difficulties than the less well endowed.

**Social Obstacles** : The restrictions placed on behavior by the rules of society constitute another important source of frustration. In satisfying our manifold desires, our actions must be in conformity with the accepted moral and social code of our culture. One cannot, with impunity, seek a short cut to economic security by theft or gain new experiences through marital infidelity or drug addiction. Members of minority groups and persons born on the “wrong side of the tracks” often find it difficult to attain their life goals because of discriminatory social and economic barriers.

**Environment** : The workplace environment and natural environment both may frustrate the employees. For example, there may be break down in machinery, no canteen facilities, a wet rainy day or a hot sunny day may prevent the employees to perform their duties efficiently.

**Co-workers** : Co-workers may be a major source of frustration. They may place barriers in the way of goal attainment by delaying work, withholding work inputs, poor presentation of work, affecting its quality, etc.

**Employee Himself** : The employee himself is rarely recognized as a source of frustration. The employee may set higher goals than his abilities.

**Management** : Management may act as the source of frustration; they may block the promotion of an employee due to change in organization’s promotional policies.

**Other Sources of Frustration** : Human wants are sometimes thwarted by wars, floods, economic depressions, political upheavals, and other events that upset the best-laid plans. In many war-torn countries, the scarcity of men constitutes an important obstacle to marriage. As yet, this is not a serious problem in the United States, where the sex ratio is only slightly in favor of females.

2.1.6 : **GENERAL REACTIONS TO FRUSTRATION**

When an individual experiences frustration, in so far as he does not allocate responsibility for the unhappy occurrence in an objective way, he may respond in one of the three following typical subjective ways or some combination of them : (1) He may manifest the emotion of anger and condemn the outer world (other persons, objects and circumstances)
for his frustration, adopting an attitude of hostility toward his environment. This type of reaction may be termed extrapunitive.” (2) He may react with emotions of guilt and remorse and tend to condemn himself as the blameworthy object. This type of reaction may be termed “intropunitive.” (3) He may experience emotions of embarrassment and shame, making little of blame and concentrating instead upon conciliation of others and himself to the disagreeable situation. In this case he will be more interested in condoning than condemning and will pass off the frustration as lightly as possible by making references, even at the price of self-deception, to unavoidable circumstances. This type of reaction may be termed “impunitive”.

According J. C. Aggarwal (2007, Essentials of Educational Psychology) generally reactions of frustration are of two broad categories:

A. Simple Reactions:

These include:

(i) increasing efforts
(ii) improving trials
(iii) adopting compromising positions
(iv) withdrawal from the situation
(v) submissiveness.

B. Violent Reactions:

These include two types of aggression:

(1) External aggression: Quarrelling with colleagues and superiors and

(2) Internal aggression: Hatred for the self sometimes may result in suicide.

Thus internal aggression is more dangerous than external aggression. According to James D. Page (Abnormal Psychology, 1947), frustrations create uncomfortable emotional tensions that operate as insistent drives influencing the individual to engage in various tension-reducing activities. The variety of reactions to frustrations is practically unlimited. The reactions may range from the constructive direct approaches of normal individuals to the mental symptoms of psychotic patients.

Direct Approaches:

The two principal direct methods of overcoming obstacles are through increased effort and variation in mode of attack. If these approaches fail, the third direct course of action consists in changing the goal to one that is more attainable. A premedical student
doing unsatisfactory work in his courses may first react by spending more time and effort on his studies. If this does not produce satisfactory results, he may try to improve his grades by changing his study habits, employing a tutor, selecting easier courses, or becoming an “apple polisher.” Should these varied approaches prove unsuccessful, he may give up his medical goal and transfer to some other course more in keeping with his abilities.

**Feelings of Inferiority:**

When increased effort and variation in attack fail and substitute goals are unavailable or unacceptable, individuals often react by developing feelings of helplessness and inadequacy. This emotionally distressing state of mind, popularly known as the inferiority complex, is especially prevalent among individuals who attribute their failure to attain life objectives to personal inadequacies or defects. An inferiority complex is a form of self-criticism usually involving fear of social disapproval. As might be expected, persons burdened with ideas of inadequacy show considerable variation in conduct and mental reactions. Some of their more common characteristics are extreme sensiveness to criticism, suspiciousness, envy, expensive response to flattery, playing to the grandstand, fear of competition, unsportsmanlike reaction to failure, tendency to disparage others, accentuated self-consciousness, proneness to worry, and excessive self-analysis.

Feelings of inferiority bear on direct relationship to actual ability. As a matter of fact, inferiority complexes are much more common among persons of high than of low ability. For example, more college students than morons are troubled by thoughts of intellectual inferiority. In general, the severity of inferiority feelings experienced by an individual is determined by the amount of discrepancy between his ambitions or goals and his actual achievement. Persons with simple goals that are easily satisfied are rarely troubled by inferiority attitudes. High ideals that are difficult to attain are prerequisites for an inferiority complex, and the severity of inferiority feelings is roughly equal to the difference between ambition and success. The student who aspires to be the top-ranking member of his class and earns second place may suffer miserably from pangs of inferiority; whereas the student whose goal is limited to doing passing work may be immensely pleased if he ranks in the middle of his class.

In a study of college students, Allport noted that more than 90 percent had experienced feelings of inadequacy. Approximately three out of five students of each sex admitted that at some time in their lives they had felt physically, socially, and intellectually inferior. Feelings of moral inferiority were reported by more than one-third of men and one-
fourth of women students.

Feelings of inadequacy may be cured in one of two ways. One method is to lower the goal to a level within easy range of achievement. This technique is common among college students who in their freshman year try for a straight A record but who are well satisfied with a B average by the time they are sophomores. A second alternative consists in attaining the original goal by great intensification of effort or removal of personal handicaps. Two outstanding examples are provided by the lives of Helen Keller and Theodore Roosevelt. Through diligent and persistent efforts, Helen Keller overcame the double handicap of blindness and deafness to become a successful writer and speaker. As a boy, Theodore Roosevelt was extremely sensitive of his physical frailness. He successfully compensated for his physical inferiority by becoming a “Rough Rider,” big-game hunter, and an ardent exponent of vigorous and dangerous living.

As these two illustrations imply, inferiority feelings are not without value in that they frequently drive their possessors to great achievement. Many outstanding men and women owe their success to the fact that they were tormented by attitudes of financial or social inferiority in their youth.

**Aggressive Behaviour:**

Instead of adjusting passively to obstacles by developing defeatist attitudes, many individuals vigorously attack or develop hostile attitudes toward the source of their frustration. We usually dislike and are vindictive toward people who humiliate us or prevent us from attaining our goals. Aggressive behavior is most common when frustration is caused by some external obstacle but failure due to personal faults and errors may also evoke this reaction. The target of attack is usually some other person or object, and the intensity of the attack varies with the amount of frustration.

When parents interfere with the wishes of their children, the latter frequently turn upon the parents and either expresses their hatred outright or indirectly punish them by engaging in some destructive, defiant, or annoying behavior. Discharged employees have been known to assault their foremen or damage company property. It is not uncommon for convicted criminals to swear that they will get even with the judge or prosecuting attorney who deprives them of their freedom. Radical political movements that advocate the overthrow of established government through violence have always drawn their support from the disgruntled and frustrated members of society.

However, it is not uncommon for thwarted persons to direct their aggression upon
themselves. Many individuals “kick themselves” when hopes are not realized. Mental depression, sulkiness, feelings of guilt, and suicide are essentially methods of self-punishment. Indirectly, of course, these reactions may also punish other persons in that such behavior is discomforting and annoying to associates. The suicide who leaves notes blaming specific persons for his act frequently hurts the designated persons much more effectively than he might have by direct attack.

**Mental Mechanisms:**

Good solutions to conflicts, frustrations, and inferiority attitudes are not always available. Physical handicap or the necessity of talking care of their parents may prevent many persons from attaining their goals of marriage, children, and a home of their own. Individuals possessing mediocre ability and high aspirations may strive in vain for success as scholars, business executives, or artists. Sound plans for security or new experiences may be thwarted by disabling accidents, bank failures, wars, and other catastrophes.

Under such circumstances, the individual has the alternative of remaining chronically tense, maladjusted, and crushed with feelings of inadequacy; or he may obtain partial relief through unconscious recourse to mental mechanisms that have some protective, alleviating or escape value. Some common mechanisms are phantasy, compensation, projection, rationalization, and sublimation. These “psychological detours”, which will be discussed in the following chapter, are frequently used to great advantage by normal individuals without any attendant ill effects. When carried to extremes, however, they may become symptomatic of neurotic or psychotic behavior.

**Mental Symptoms:**

The symptoms of the neurotic and the psychotic usually serve the same general purposes as those served by the mental mechanisms of normal people; that is, they adjust the mentally ill to their inner conflicts and to the demands of the external environment. Through loss of memory and varied psychogenic ailments, neurotics escape from distressing life situations. Psychotics indirectly satisfy frustrated ambitions by developing delusions of grandeur, and they protect themselves against harsh realities by distorting facts and withdrawing into satisfying private worlds. An important difference between mental mechanisms and mental symptoms is that the latter are more drastic last-stand measures that provide partial adjustment at best, at the high cost of gross impairment of function and social maladjustment.
Quality of Adjustment:

Good solutions, in addition to relieving the tension created by specific thwarting situations, should result in desirable personal and social adjustment. A person who embezzles a large sum of money may remove his immediate fear of financial insecurity, but he will then be disturbed by his conscience and by fear of apprehension. A secretary may obtain considerable satisfaction from candidly telling her exasperating employer exactly what she thinks of him, but the subsequent discharge would not improve her general adjustment. The student who reacts to his lack of popularity by aggressive and insolent behavior, like the child who seeks attention by engaging in minor delinquencies, obtains some relief; but solutions of this nature are not conducive to complete mental tranquility. In brief, whether the selected tension-reducing activities result in favorable or unfavorable adjustment depends on the extent to which the individual regains his mental equilibrium without unduly slighting other motives, lowering his personal efficiency and standards, violating social customs, or interfering with the welfare of others.

An example of good adjustment to a difficult situation follows. Some poor solutions might have been extramarital affairs, divorce, persuasive weeping, perpetual quarrels, or running back to mother.

Two years after graduating from college, Jane married a young physician. Her husband started his practice in a small town, and for several years Jane was extremely busy running a home and leading an active social life. After accumulating some money, her husband decided to return to school and specialize in surgery. He obtained an internship in a large hospital and spent almost all his time there. He would come home only two evenings a week and on these occasions he would study or rest.

To economize, they had rented a small apartment, and Jane found that time passed very slowly. In addition, she began to feel that she was unimportant to the welfare of anyone. Her husband had his meals at the hospital, and he seemed to do his work quite well without her. Jane solved the situation by taking a course in nursing. This kept her quite busy so that she no longer resented her husband’s habit of studying all the time. She also felt more important in that she was preparing herself to be more helpful to him. In the meantime, he had to consult her about their mutual plans.

2.1.7: Categories of Reactions to Frustration

The reactions to frustration are also known as Defense Mechanisms. These defense mechanisms are so called as they try to defend individuals from the psychological effects of a
blocked goal. Wien some employees get frustrated, they become tensed and irritable. They experience an uneasy feeling in their stomach and also show various other reactions of frustration.

Some of the immediate reactions have been studied by Banker, Demelo and Lewis (1941) through their experiments on effects of frustration on children during play.

**Restlessness** : One of the immediate reactions to frustration is restlessness in behavior. Restlessness is associated with many actions indicating unhappiness.

**Aggression** : Both tension and restlessness are feeling of anger that leads to destructiveness. Aggression is expressed directly against the individual or object that is the source of frustration.

**Apathy** : Although a common reaction to frustration is active aggression another reaction is it opposes apathy, indifference, and withdrawal.

**Fantasy** : When the problem becomes too much for us we sometimes seeks the solution of escape into a dream world, a solution based in fantasy rather than reality.

**Stereotype** : Another consequence of frustration is stereotype behavior that is tendency to exhibit repetitive and fixated behavior.

**Regression** : Regression is another reaction to frustration. Regression is defined as a return to make primitive modes of behavior that is to modes of behavior characterizing.

Following are the various types of reactions to frustration according to http://kalian-city.blogspot.com :

1. **Withdrawal** : Behaviors such as asking for a transfer or quitting a job.
2. **Fixation** : An employee blames others and superiors for his problems, without knowing complete facts.
3. **Aggression** : Acting in a threatening manner.
4. **Regression** : Behaving in an immature and childish manner and myself-pity (to feel sorry for one).
5. **Physical Disorder** : Physical ailments such as fever, upset stomach, vomiting, etc.
6. **Apathy** : Becoming irresponsible and disinterested in the job and his co-workers.

The specific reactions to frustration that an individual elicits, depend upon many factors either internal or external to the individual but the responses always involves a
conflict or/and compromise between the urge towards reaching the desired goal and the urge toward avoiding barrier. Symonds (1949) summarized these factors under the categories of:

i) strength of drive,
ii) strength of barrier,
iii) barrier immediately presented,
iv) goals as ends and means,
v) cumulative effect,
vi) availability of substitutes,
vii) ego-strength,
viii) frustration tolerance,
ix) emotional security,
x) self-involvement,
xii) personality structure,
xiv) familiarity of the situation (Bekoff, 1981; Tedeschi, 1881),
xv) physiological condition of the individual (Murphy, 1956; Coche, 1974) and
xvi) several social factors, such as parental discipline, modeling ecological condition of home, etc, have been referred to as the possible determining factors.

Reactions to frustration, however, may broadly be, classified into two broad categories: (A) Psychological and (B) Physiological.

A. Psychological Reactions:

From the psychological point of view three different types of actions to frustration have been posited: Task Oriented Reactions; Defense-Oriented Reactions and Decompensatory Reasons, (Coleman, 1971).

(a) Task-Oriented Reactions:

The aim of these sorts of reactions is the objective appraisal of the frustrated situations and is based on a conscious rational and constructive course of action (Rosenzweig, 1978b), when the frustrated individual feels that his ability permits him to solve the problem. Here the individual may change his self or the surrounding environment, or both, depending upon the frustrating situation and the action may be overt {improving one’s efforts}, covert [lowering of one’s level of aspiration]. Finally the action may take the
form of: (i) attacking the problem aggression (Dolard etc., 1939) choice to resolve conflict (Symonds 1949; Patrick; 1934) and resistance, (ii) withdrawing from the problem-admitting defeat, leaving the field, establishment of a new goal (Doob and Sears, 1939) and iii) finding a workable, compromise-substitution and accommodation (Coleman, 1971).

(b) Defense-Oriented Reactions:

Three types of defense-oriented reactions have been summarized by Coleman (1971). They are (i) ‘Wired-in’ reparative mechanism. ii) Ego-defense mechanism; and iii) Dependence on drug-pathological intoxication, delirium tremens and chronic alcoholic deterioration.

Of particular, in psychology ego-defense mechanism as reactions to frustration have noticed special attention. Ego-defense mechanisms protect the individual in one or more of the following ways: (i) by denying the reality, (ii) by cognitive distortion, (iii) by reduction of emotional involvement and (iv) by counter action of the threat. In the literature of frustration studies these ego-defense mechanisms, as reactions to frustration, have found expression in the writing of Freud, Dollard et al. (1939; aggression), Barker, Dembo and Lewin (1941, regression), Rosenzweig (1644, projection, displacement, isolation, repression) Maier (1949, fixation) and many others.

(c) Decompensating under Severe Frustration:

Under severe and prolonged frustration there may occur decompensating (break-down of integrated functioning) of the frustrated individual. These may occur in the following three stages:

i) alarm and mobilization, in which the individuals show symptoms of maladjustment, continuous anxiety, gastro-intestinal upset, etc;

ii) resistance: usually includes exaggerated use of defense mechanisms, such as, rationalization, and projection and may involve gradual introduction of neurotic

iii) defense patterns and

iv) disorganization and exhaustion: the individual is forced to take more deviant measures in the form of severe neurotic and psychotic reactions. Thus the individual becomes disorganized and incompetent to deal with the common problems of life.

B. Physiological Reactions:

Some physiological changes may occur as reactions to frustration because it is thought the experience of frustration is same function of emotion (Berkowitz, 1962, 1989),
which has its physiological bases according to different theories of emotion, particularly one proposed by Cannon and Bard (1934) and modern concept of physiological bases of mental life. These reactions may be in the form of changes in Palmer skin resistances (Haggard and Freeman, 1941); galvanic skin resistance, pulse rate, blood pressure and hand tremors (Jost, 1941); secretions of norepinephrine (Funkenstein, King and Drolette, 1957); ratio of norepinephrine and epinephrine secretions (Fine and Sweeny, 1968), neuroanatomical functioning of brain structures (Ursin, 1981). Reactions to frustration, proposed by Rosenzweig (1944), to which we are interested in the context of assessment of reactions to frustration have been discussed in the next section.

**2.1.8: LEARNING AND HUMAN AGGRESSION**

Social learning theory stresses the role of imitation of others’ behavior as a cause of aggression (Bandura, 1973, 1977, 1983). In both laboratory experiments and everyday life, people who have seen others act aggressively are apt to do so in similar situations aggression is contagious.

The aggressive models play an important role in the initiation of riots, insurrections, and similar events? Eye-witness accounts by social scientists on the scene during the initiation of such events suggest that they may. In many cases, it appears that large-scale aggression fails to develop until one or more “hot-headed” individuals commit an initial act of violence (Lieberson & Silverman, 1965; Momboisse, 1967). Prior to such events, angry muttering and a general milling about may predominate. Once the first blow is struck, the first rock hurled, or the first weapon fired, however, a destructive riot may quickly ensue. It seems reasonable to view the persons who initiate violence in such situations as aggressive models. (Baron, 1977, p. 99).

Modeling’ is most effective if the aggressive behavior is seen as being both justified and achieving a reward and if the watcher is already angry. Modeling is said to work because it serves to (1) direct the observer’s attention to one of several possible behavior sequences (aggression instead of attempts at ingratiation, perhaps); (2) show the observer that certain behaviors are all right, thus decreasing inhibitions to aggression; (3) enhance the emotional arousal of the observer which, under some conditions (Zillmann, 1983) can facilitate aggression and (4) show the observer some specific aggressive actions that may be copied.

Television and films provide us with many aggressive models, and the question of their contribution to aggressive behavior has been much studied (Geen, 1983). The results of these studies have generally (but with exceptions) shown moderately enhanced aggression,
especially among boys, following the viewing of television or movie violence. Here is the way one author put it:

“It is my impression that the weight of existing evidence strongly favors the view that exposure to scenes of violence in the mass media does increase the likelihood that observers will behave in a similar manner themselves. But please note: this does not mean that after watching-their favorite on-packed (and aggression-packed) program, adults or children are likely to rush out and launch blind and assaults against any individual unfortunate enough to land in their paths. Judging from the magnitude of effects reported in most investigations, the increase in aggressive tendencies produced by exposure to such materials is probably slight.” (Baron, 1977, p. 110)

In addition to social learning, classical conditioning and instrumental conditioning can be important sources of human aggression. Classical conditioning occurs when certain stimuli or situations are paired with each other. If, for example, aggression-producing situations are repeated often enough in the presence of some stimulus, a person may learn to dislike and be aggressive toward the stimulus that has been paired with the aggression-arousing situation. And, through generalization the aggressive behavior may spread until the individual behaves in an aggressive way toward many similar stimuli. For example, if a boy is strongly and arbitrarily frustrated or insulted by his father often enough, it is likely that he will learn, through classical conditioning, to express hostility toward him. Then, by means of generalization, the boy may also come to show hostility and aggression toward other authority figures-police officers, teachers, bosses, and the like.

Instrumental conditioning of aggression occurs when people are rewarded, or reinforced, for their aggressive behavior. According to the principles of instrumental conditioning behaviors which are reinforced are more likely to occur in the future. Thus, if aggression is reinforced – if it pays off – it may become a habitual response in many situations. Suppose a girl finds that aggressive behavior gains her the approval of the people she wants to be her friends. Her need for acceptance will be satisfied by aggressive behavior, and the satisfaction of this need will be rewarding, or reinforcing. So, by means of instrumental conditioning, aggression will become her likely response in many situations.
2.1.9 : CONTROLLING HUMAN AGGRESSION

If, as research seems to indicate, much human aggression has its basis in learning and in specific environmental and social factors, the potential exists for its limitation and control. Changing the instigators of aggression might well be expected to decrease aggressiveness in our society. For instance, having fewer aggressive models and instances where aggression pays off might help. While the potential for the limitation of aggression may give us hope, it will be very difficult to put into practice the suggestions for the control of human aggression indicated by research. What are some of these suggestions?

Punishment for aggression has been one of the classic approaches to the control of human aggression *Punishment*, as described in, occurs when an event following for contingent upon some behavior decreases the likelihood that the behavior will occur again. *Punishers are* usually, though not necessarily; unpleasant events which follow behavior; chastisements, fines, loss of social acceptance, embarrassment, imprisonment, and the like can serve as punishers. It is widely held in our society that punishment of aggression will reduce it, but, as we shall soon see, punishment may not be as effective as usually thought.

Punishment seems to work best when it is strong, when the aggressor is relatively sure of receiving it, when it immediately follows aggressive behavior, when the instigation for aggression is relatively weak, when the payoff for aggression is not great, and when the person perceives the punishment as being legitimate and appropriate (Baron, 1977). Otherwise, punishment may not be very effective, as seems to be the case with its use in most societies as a means of controlling crime and other aggressive acts. When punishment is used ineffectively, it may actually increase aggressive tendencies. Punishment is a frustrator, and it may therefore further arouse and anger the person being punished. Furthermore, it is, in itself, an aggressive act which provides a model for aggression.

Another classic approach to the reduction of anger and aggression is called catharsis. *Catharsis* refers to venting an emotion, or “getting it out of one’s system.” For example, it is often said that we can get anger and aggression out of our systems by pounding on a table, yelling out the back door, kicking a dog, or watching a boxing match. While catharsis may help us reduce our anger for a short time, it does not seem to decrease the likelihood that we will aggress in the future against the particular person who made us angry. Research results indicate that we can get cathartic relief from our anger and aggressive feelings toward another person only by actually venting our anger and aggression on that person (for example, Konecni & Ebbesen, 1976). Therefore, in this case, catharsis is achieved only after aggression has occurred — not a very good way to control aggression.
If, as social learning theory says, aggressive models can induce aggressive actions, can nonaggressive models lessen them? The answer seems to be “yes” (for example, Baron & Kepner, 1970). The interpretations we make of aggression directed toward us have much to do with our tendency to reply aggressively. For instance, if we know, before an attack on us occurs, that the aggressor was upset for reasons out of his or her control, we will make allowances for the aggressive behavior and reduce our counter aggression (Zillmann & Cantor, 1976). Thus the thoughts, or cognitions, we have about the reasons for another’s aggression play a role in helping us control our own aggression (This is related to the topic of attribution.

Another interesting approach to the control of aggression is based on the notion that certain emotions and feelings are incompatible with anger and aggression (Baron, 1977, 1983). Thus anger may disappear when a person is induced to smile, feels concern about the object of his or her attack (empathy), or perhaps is mildly sexually aroused. The results of laboratory studies (Baron, 1983) seem to show that such emotions and responses are incompatible with anger and aggression and thus serve to lessen it Out in the “real world,” too, field studies support the view that anger and aggression can be reduced by incompatible responses (Baron, 1976):

The experimenters chose for their study a moderately busy intersection with traffic light. One experimenter drove a car which waited at the intersection for 15 seconds after the light turned green; the others, from hiding, observed the reactions of the male drivers (the subjects in the experiment) of the cars that were forced to wait. Horn honking and aggressive gestures were recorded by the hidden experimenters.

There were three experimental (incompatible-response) conditions and two control conditions in the experiment. In one experimental condition (empathy), a young woman experimenter hobbled across the street on crutches just before the traffic light turned green; in the second condition (humor), she crossed the street wearing a clown’s mask; and in the third experimental condition (mild sexual arousal), she crossed the street in scanty attire. In one control condition, nobody crossed the street; in the other control condition (distraction), the young woman experimenter, dressed normally, simply walked across the street. In all cases, the woman crossing the street was out of sight by the time the light turned green and the 15-second delay began.

How would you react to the aggression-instigating frustration of being forced to wait? Well, in the control condition, with nobody crossing the street, 90 percent of the waiting drivers honked; in the distraction control condition, 89 percent honked. But when the
incompatible responses of empathy, humor, or mild sexual arousal were induced, honking dropped markedly: 57 percent honked in the empathy condition, 50 percent honked in the humor condition, and only 47 percent honked in the mild-sexual-arousal condition.

2.1.10 : Frustration and Conflict of Motives

The course of motivation does not always run smoothly. Things happen that prevent us from reaching the goals toward which we are driven or pulled. The term frustration refers to the blocking of behavior directed toward a goal. Although there are many ways in which motives can be frustrated – that is, prevented from being satisfied – conflict among simultaneously aroused motives is perhaps the most important reason why goals are not reached. If motives are frustrated, or blocked, emotional feelings and behavior often result. People who cannot achieve their important goals feel depressed, fearful, anxious, guilty, or angry. Often they are simply unable to derive ordinary pleasure from living.

A frustration can be schematized by a diagram. The box denotes the total environment of a person, and the vertical line represents the thwarting of a goal. In such diagrams, goals are depicted by either plus (+) or minus (–) signs, called valences. A plus sign indicates a goal to which a person is attracted; a minus sign indicates a goal which repels-punishment, threat, or something an individual fears or has learned to avoid. The arrow is used to indicate the direction of motivating forces acting on the individual. The psychologist Kurt Lewin (1947) devised such diagrams many years ago to help in the visualization of the sources and effects of frustration.

2.1.11 : Rosenzweig’s Theory of Frustration

A more systematic comprehensive and also eclectic theory of frustration emerged from a series of experimental reports published by Rosenzweig in 1938, 1944 and 1978. Basically, he discussed his theory in three broad headings: definition and sources of frustration, frustration tolerance and types of reactions to frustration. We shall discuss his theory in brief on the basis of ‘An outline of frustration theory’ (Rosenzweig, 1944).

Rosenzweig assumes the unity of organism and his theory includes three levels of psycho-biological defense: the cellular or immunological level, primarily concerned with the protection of the body against infections diseases, the autonomic or emergency level, dealing with the defense of the total organism against some gross bodily injuries, and cortical or etho-defense (ego-defense) level guarding the inviolacy of the personality from psychological insult. The interrelationships of these levels in the unified functioning of the organism he assumes provide the key to both normal and abnormal behaviour.
Rosenzweig (1981), – “frustration” which he thinks an ingredient of all behaviours is “defined as occurring whenever the organism encounters an obstacle or obstruction en route to the satisfaction of a need.”

Rosenzweig considers that there are three main classes of situations that may cause frustration to an individual. These are privation, deprivation and conflict; each may be either internal layer externally originated to the individual. Rosenzweig also classifies frustration into two types — primary and secondary. Primary frustration implies only to the existence of an active need, such as, hunger, sex, etc. Secondary frustration refers to obstructions in the path to a goal. Secondary frustrations, on the basis of nature of obstacle, according to Rosenzweig, are of two kinds: active and passive. Passive obstacles are impassible but are not dangerous; but active obstacles are not only impassible but also dangerous. Thus, frustration includes situations both of dissatisfaction and danger.

The second aspect of this theory deals with the concept of frustration tolerance, which according to Rosenzweig is the “capacity of the individual to withstand a given frustrating situation without distorting to so call ‘objective’ facts of the life situation.” He further assumes that individuals differ either constitutionally or as a result of experience in the process of development, in the possession of the degree of frustration tolerance. Furthermore, he posits that the frustration tolerance of an individual does not exist at the same level throughout his personality. He also asserts that the degree of frustration tolerance is related to the mental soundness of an individual, generally a normal individual possesses to relatively high degree of frustration tolerance. Finally, he asserts that an individual’s specific reactions to frustration depend to some extent on the degree of his frustration tolerance.

The final structure of Rosenzweig’s theory of frustration deals with the classification of reactions to frustration upon which the : Rosenzweig Picture-Frustration Study Technique
for the assessment of reactions to frustrations based. Broadly he classifies reactions to frustration under two. Broad headings: *Directions of Aggression and Types of Aggression*.

By ‘Direction of Aggression’ Rosenzweig (1978a: 59) means, “The direction in which aggression is turned in response to frustration: either outward to the environment (extraggresive), inward upon the subject himself (intraggresive), or ‘turned off’ i.e. evaded (imaggresive.” By ‘Type of Aggression’, Rosenzweig, 1978a: 60) means, “The general manner in which aggression is marshaled in response to frustration: either to concentration on the frustrating obstacle (Obstacle-dominance); or to defend the status of the ego and preserve the basic organization of behavior (ego or etho-defense); or to solve the problem arising from the frustration (Need-persistence)” Further, he looks assertivenassas the general component of aggression and he posits, “Aggression would generally mean stepping or moving forward to achieve goals and overcome obstacles” (Rosenzweig, 1978b:2). Thus, aggression may be described as “either constructive, when there is no entailed damage or injury to other individuals or objects, or destructive i.e. to the extent that other individuals or objects are injured or destroyed by the behavior.” (Rosenzweig, 1978b: 3)

Rosenzweig elaborated three Directions of Aggression in terms of associated emotions and psychoanalytic concepts. For the better understanding of the foundations of his theory the scheme designed by Rosenzweig (1944) with some necessary modifications have been presented in Table 2.1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2.1 : Types of Reaction to Frustration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Name of Type</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pathognomonic Features</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(upon frustration)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Judgement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Sarkar & Biswas (1986).
Table 2.2 : Types Hypothetically Associated Psychoanalytic Concepts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Type</th>
<th>Extraggresion</th>
<th>Intraggresion</th>
<th>Imaggresion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dynamic and Genetic Basis Instincts:</td>
<td>Aggressive needs outwardly directed (Hate guilt)</td>
<td>Aggressive needs inwardly directed (Hate guilt)</td>
<td>Erotic needs (Love guilt)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes of Identification:</td>
<td>Fear of punishment</td>
<td>Need for punishment</td>
<td>Fear of loss of love</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychopathological aspects Modes of defense :</td>
<td>Projection</td>
<td>Displacement and isolation</td>
<td>Repression(with self-deception)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental disorders:</td>
<td>Paranoid (paranoid type of Schizophrenia)</td>
<td>Compulsive and obsessional (catatonic type of Schizophrenia)</td>
<td>Hysterical (hebephrenic type of Schizophrenia)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libidinal types (Freud)</td>
<td>Narcissistic</td>
<td>Compulsive</td>
<td>Erotic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Sarkar & Biswas (1986).

Rosenzweig further deals with the *adequacy and inadequacy of reactions to frustration*. On the social standpoint, he says “a response is regarded as adequate in so far as it does not misinterpret the facts of frustrating situation.” In the context of individual’s behaviour, “an adequate reaction is progressive rather than regressive trends of personality.”

**2.1.12 : METHODS OF ASSESSMENT OF REACTIONS TO FRUSTRATION**

Assessment of reactions to frustration poses some hurdles to the psychometricians because reactions to frustration may occur both in the physiological and behavioural (verbal and non-verbal) levels: sometime appraisal of frustration may deal with the experimental and real-life situations or with the fantasy level of the individual; many psychologists believe aggression as the only antecedent of frustration or some believe in multiple response of frustration. Literatures dealing with the measurement of reactions to frustration are vast in nature and kind; however for the reason of simplicity, the whole area may be divided into the following headings:

**Analysis of Physiological Reactions :**

The basic assumption of this method is that the expedience of frustration is attendant
with some kind of emotion and that emotion would cause some physiological change within the individual. The method involves the inducement of some frustration of some artificial means and then the analysis of the consequent changes in Palmer skin resistance (Freeman, 1940) galvanic skin resistance, respiration pulse rate, blood pressure (Jost, 1941) or epinephrine and norepinephrine secretion (Funkenstien, King and Drollets, 1357) are recorded and studied.

**Analysis of Verbal Response:**

Under this method, the experimental group is induced to some form of artificially created frustration either by deprivation of some foods, etc. or putting them to some difficult or conflicting situations, then the subjects evoke a wide range of verbal response which are recorded and classified into some categories like aggressive response, withdrawal response, rationalization, etc. Then their responses are compared with those of non-frustrated (control) group; (McClelland and Apicella, 1945).

**Measurement in Terms of Performance Change:**

This method includes the analysis of post-frustration behaviours of subjects in terms of changes in the subjects performances on a given task, such as ‘constructiveness of play’ (Barker, Dembo and Lewin, 1941), note taking (Billingslee and Bloom, 1950), problem solving behaviour (Patrick, 1934) etc.

**Measurement by Observation, Rating Scale and Questionnaire:**

This method is based on the assumption that aggression generated in an individual by the frustrating situation would be displayed and expressed in his sample of behaviour and these behaviours may be either directly observed by others (Sears et al.; 1953; Walters et al., 1957) rated by individual himself or rated by other individual through rating scales or questionnaire or inventory; (Millerand Bugelski, 1948; Chouhan and Tiwari, 1972).

Further, two types of multiple-choice questionnaires have been employed to assess reactions to frustration in response to questions relating to every day frustrating situations of the respondents. In one of these methods, the subjects a-e require to choose one of the pre-stated alternatives which are pre-coded according to some accepted definitions of reactions of frustration; (Christiansen, 1959; Malaviya, 1977). In another approach of open-end questionnaire, the subjects have complete freedom to write responses freely for themselves in their characteristic way. Here also coding is done according to some definitions of various reactions to frustration (Dollard, et al. 1S39; Cohen, 1955; Rothans and Worchel, 1960).
Measurement by Projective Technique:

It is sometimes argued that reactions to frustration are subjected to considerable social control and inhibition and hence it is not readily accessible to more direct methods of study. For this reason psychologists have suggested the use of projective devices to assess the reactions to frustration for several grounds. Projective techniques deal with relatively unstructured task i.e. & task that permits an unlimited variety of response on the basis of an individual’s characteristic thought processes, needs, conflicts, etc. Thus, these techniques are usually regarded by experts as the most effective in revealing covert latent or unconscious aspects of personality. Further, the more unstructuredness of the ambiguous stimulus items, the less likely they are to evoke defensive reactions on the part of the respondents.

Measurement by Rorschach Technique:

Under these assumptions, projective devices like the Rorschach’ the TAT. (Beilak, 1944; Musson and Naylor, 1954; Jenson 1957) and Sentence Completion Test (Graham, et al., 1957 Sargent, 1953) have been used to measure aggression as one of the form of reactions to frustration. But the most important device, projective in design, to measure reactions to frustration has been prepared by Rosenzweig (1945), popularly known as Picture-Frustration Study Technique.

2.1.13: ROSENZWEIG’S PICTURE–FRUSTRATION (P-F) STUDY TECHNIQUE

This technique is said to be a direct out-growth of theoretical oriented, experimental research beginning in 1928 enunciated by Saul Rosenzweig and his associates. He primarily called his technique as Picture-Association Study for Assessing Reactions to Frustration (1945) which was subsequently shortened as Picture-Frustration Study or P-F Study.

The content of the study is a series of 24 cartoon-like drawings each depicting two persons who are involved in a mildly frustrating situations of daily life. Facial features and other expressions of emotion are deliberately omitted from the pictures. One person drawn at the left of each picture is shown saying something which either help to describe the frustration of the other individual or which are themselves actually, frustrating to him. The respondent is requested to write in the caption box (on the upper position of the person drawn at the right of the picture) the appropriate reply the second figure may say. The basic assumption of this technique is that the respondent will ‘project’ himself into the stimulus situation and possibly identify’ himself with the frustrated character in each picture. Thus the
technique explores the modes of personal reactions to frustration by verbal means—Verbal stimuli eliciting verbal responses. The P-F is usually called a semi-projective technique which combines the feature of Word Association Method with the Thematic Apperception Test. Rosenzweig (1981) claims that the technique represents a convergence of three fundamental approaches to psychodynamics of human behavior:

1. Systematic research that focuses on nomothetic norms (i.e. principles of Types and Directions of Aggression);
2. Psychometric method that gives demographic norms (for example Group conformity Rating and the percentile norms for P-F aggression categories), and
3. Clinical insights that are derived from the idio-dynamic norms (i.e. Trends extracted from the scrutiny of the individual protocols). In the context of the P-F Study; Anastasia (1982 : 578) has rightly commented: “Being more limited in coverage, more highly structured, and relatively objective in its scoring procedures, the P-F Study lends itself better to statistical analysis than do most other projective techniques.” Therefore, it f is no doubt; the P-F Study is the most suitable tool to assess reactions to frustration, though this instrument suffers from some limitations in the context of reliability and validity (which have been discussed in the appropriate section).

At present, there are three forms of the Study for Adults (aged 18 and above), for Adolescents (aged 12 to 18) and for children (aged 4 to 13).

2.2.0: SCHEDULED TRIBES

The numerous tribes that constitute the category Scheduled Tribes, also known as ‘adivasis’ (the original inhabitants), largely reside in the central, north-east, and southern regions of India. These various tribes inhabited the Indian subcontinent long before the arrival of the Aryans around 1500 B.C. However, incursions by the Aryans followed by the Muslims and the British relegated the tribes to isolated forests and mountain areas. The ‘adivasis’ traditionally survived on a subsistence economy until the British introduced the use of money and aspects of a capitalist economy. British government officials and missionaries also penetrated previously undisturbed tribal regions bringing a new form of political organization and a new religion, Christianity.

The ‘adivasis’ have largely remained out of the mainstream of India life. In 1950, three years after India received its independence, the President established the category of scheduled tribes to encompass the country’s diverse tribal grouping. Federal policies to promote education and to ensure representation of the scheduled tribes in government and
political office have had some success in integrating the scheduled tribes. Over 40 seats are reserved for tribals in the Lok Sabha (national parliament) and around 8% of jobs in the civil service. However, literacy rates in tribal regions still lag behind those in the rest of the country.

Despite their diversity, there are a number of common concerns among the Scheduled Tribes. Primary among these are the protection of their land and culture. Consistent encroachments upon their lands has meant that many tribals are now landless, being forced to work as bonded laborers or unable to find employment. The 1986-87 report of the Commissioner on Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, for instance, is very critical about the inability of government policies to address tribal land issues. It states that economic development policies have done little to halt tribal land alienation or to provide alternative lands for the tribes to settle. This picture stands even today though some positive development has been by the governmental as well as non-governmental efforts.

2.2.1: MEANING AND DEFINITION OF SCHEDULED TRIBE (ST)

The term ‘tribe’ is derived from the Latin word ‘tribus’ (Bacon, 1972). The tribe refers to “group families” (Bacon, 1972) or an “organized group of families or clans” (Oliver, 1971). The tribal population is found in almost all parts of the world. In fact there is no universal definition of ‘tribe’ acceptable in academic and non-academic circles.

A tribe is defined as a group of people in a primitive or barbarous stage of development acknowledging the authority of a chief and usually regarding themselves as having a common ancestry.

“A tribe is a social group comprising numerous families, clans or generation together with slave dependents or adopted strategies.” (Webster’s New Collegiate Dictionary)

Majumder (1937) states that, “A tribe is a social group with territorial affiliation, endogamous with no specialization of functions, ruled by tribal officers united in language or dialect, recognizing social distance with other tribes or castes without any social obloquy attaching them as it does in caste structure, following tribal traditions, beliefs and customs, illiberal of naturalization of ideals from alien sources, and above all conscious of homogeneity of ethnic and territorial integration.”

In the light of anthropology, the Tribes in India may broadly be classified into four ethno-linguistic groups: (a) Indo-Aryan, (b) Austro-Asiatic, (c) Tibeto-Burmese, and (d) Dravidian. And technoeconomically Indian Tribes may be divided into five types: (i) Hunter-Gathers, (ii) Pastoralists, (iii) Craftsman, (iv) Shifting Cultivators and (v) Settled
Agriculturists.

Over the years, the term ‘Tribe’ has indeed undergone a drastic change in connotation. The Indian Constitution tribes have been specified as “Scheduled Tribes” Article 366(22) of our Constitution states that “Scheduled Tribes” means such tribes or tribal communities as are deemed under Article 342 to be Scheduled Tribes for the purpose of this Constitution. Obviously, the main criteria adopted for specifying them include:

i) Traditional occupation of definite geographical areas;

ii) Distinctive culture which includes language, customs, traditions, religion, beliefs, etc.;

iii) Primitive traits depicting occupation pattern economy, etc.; and

iv) Lack of educational and techno-economic development.

In general, the tribes have the under-mentioned characteristics:

1. Their roots in the soil date back to a very early period,
2. They live in relative isolation in the hills and forests,
3. Their sense of history is shallow in the sense that after some generations, the remembered history tends to shade off into mythology,
4. In terms of their cultural ethos (language, institutions, beliefs, and customs) they stand out from the other sections of the society,
5. They have low level of techno-economic development, and
6. Even if they are not egalitarian, they are at least non-hierarchic and undifferentiated.

A “Scheduled Tribe” may be termed as an administrative and constitutional concept. It refers to a tribal community which is enlisted under Article 342 of the Indian Constitution. In force of the Article 342 of our Constitution, “the President may with respect to any State or Union Territory and where it is a State after consultation with the Governor there of by public notification specify the tribes or tribal communities or parts of or groups within tribes or tribal communities which shall for the purpose of this constitution be deemed to scheduled tribes in relation to that State or Union Territory as the case may be.”

The Scheduled Castes (SCs) and Scheduled Tribes (STs) are two groups of historically-disadvantaged people recognized in the Constitution of India. During the period of British rule in the Indian subcontinent, they were known as the ‘Depressed Classes.’ The Schedule Castes and Scheduled Tribes comprise about 16.6 percent, respectively, of India’s population (or about 25 percent altogether, according to the 2011 census). The Constitution (Scheduled Castes) Order, 1950 lists 1108 castes across 25 states in its First Schedule and the Constitution (Scheduled Tribes) Order, 1950 lists 744 tribes across 22 states in its First
Schedule. But now Scheduled Tribes are notified in 30 states/UTs. The number of individual ethnic groups, etc., notified as Scheduled Tribes is 705 (Dr. C. Chandramouli, Registrar General and Census Commissioner, India, 3rd May, 2013).

Since independence, the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes were given reservation in India. The reservation policy became an integral part of the Constitution through the efforts of Dr. Bhimrao Ambedkar, who participated in the Round Table Conference and fought for the rights the oppressed and depressed classes. The Constitution lays down the general principles of affirmative action for SCs and STs.

In the matter of identification of the Indian Tribes, the Backward Class Commission in its preamble to their questionnaire rightly expressed that, “The Scheduled Tribes can also be generally ascertained by the fact that they live apart in hills and even where they live in plains, they lead a separate and excluded existence and are not fully assimilated in the main body of the peoples. The Scheduled Tribes may belong at any region. They are listed as Scheduled Tribes because of kind of life led by them.” Thus, for specification of a tribe as a Scheduled Tribe it should fulfill the following criteria:

1. It should have its distinct language, religious beliefs and culture which should qualify to be considered as primitive;
2. It should have an isolated existence. In case it lives in close proximity to other castes or communities, it should not have assimilated with them and
3. It should be extremely backward both educationally and economically.

2.2.2: LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK OF SCHEDULED TRIBES

The Constitution provides a three-pronged strategy to improve the situation of SCs and STs:

1. Protective Arrangements:

   Such measures as are required to enforce equality, to provide punitive measures for transgressions, to eliminate established practices that perpetuate inequities, etc. A number of laws were enacted to implement the provisions in the Constitution. Examples of such law include the Untouchability Practices Act, 1955, Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe (Prevention of Atrocities) Act, 1989, The Employment of Manual Scavengers and Construction of Dry Latrines (Prohibition) Act, 1993, etc.

2. Affirmative Action:

   Provide positive (preferential) treatment in allotment of jobs and access to higher
education as a means to accelerate the integration of the SCs and STs with mainstream society. Affirmative action is popularly known as reservation.

3. Development:

Provide resources and benefits to bridge the socioeconomic gap between the SCs and STs and other communities. Major part played by the Hidayatullah National Law University.

2.2.3: NATIONAL COMMISSION ON SCHEDULED TRIBES

To effectively implement the various safeguards built into the Constitution and other legislation, the Constitution under Articles 338 and 338 A provides for two statutory commissions: the National Commission for Scheduled Castes, and the National Commission for Scheduled Tribes. The chairpersons of both commissions sit ex-officio on the National Human Rights Commission.

In the original Constitution, Article 338 provided for a special officer (the Commissioner for SCs and STs) responsible for monitoring the implementation of constitutional and legislative safeguards for SCs and STs reporting to the president. Seventeen regional offices of the Commissioner were established throughout the country. There was an initiative to replace the Commission with a committee in the 48th Amendment to the Constitution, changing Article 338. While the amendment was being debated, the Ministry of Welfare established the first committee for SCs and STs (with the functions of the commissioner) in August 1978. These functions were modified in September 1987 to include advising the government on broad policy issues and the development levels of SCs and STs. Now it is included in Article 342.

In 1990, Article 338 was amended for the National Commission for SCs and STs with the Constitution (Sixty fifth Amendment) Bill, 1990. The first commission under the 65th Amendment was constitution in March 1992, replacing the commissioner for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and the commission established by the Ministry of Welfare’s Resolution of 1989. In 2003, the Constitution was again amended to divide the National Commission for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes into two commissions: the National Commission for Scheduled Castes and the National Commission for Scheduled Tribes. In 2013, Government of India decided to constitution High Level Committee (HLC) under the aegis of Ministry of Tribal Affairs to prepare a position paper on the present socioeconomic, health and educational status of STs and suggests a way forward.
2.2.4: NATIONAL MONITORING COMMITTEE (NMC) FOR EDUCATION OF SCs, STs and PWDs

The Ministry of Human Resource Development had constituted a “National Monitoring Committee for Education of SCs, STs and Persons with Disabilities” in June, 2012 under the Chairpersonship of Hon’ble Minister for Human Resource Development to advise the Government on all matters pertaining to education and its pursuit for SCs, STs and Persons with Disabilities. The composition of the Committee includes Members of Parliament, Education Ministers and Education Secretaries of State Governments of various states with concentration of SC/ST population. The Committee also includes the academics, activists and administrators connected with SCs, STs and 1st PWDs. The 3rd meeting of NMC was held on 21 December, 2014 (Annual Report 2014-15, MHRD, Govt. of India).

2.2.5: SCHEDULED TRIBE DEPARTMENTS OF GOVERNMENT

The classes, which are included in Section 341 of the Indian Constitution, are known as Scheduled Castes. The Central / State Governments have implemented many programmes for the uplift of these sections that are economically, socially, educationally backward. The Scheduled Caste Development Department works for the uplift of the Scheduled Castes. Under this Department, other eligible castes, other backward classes, and the economically backward forward castes are also given educational aids.

It was in 1975 that a separate department was set up to supervise the tribal development activities. The Director of the department will be the supervising authority over the tribal development activities. The other officers designated by the Government are Joint Director, Administrative Officer, Finance Officer Assistant Director (Education) Assistant Director (sub plan cell) and Publicity Officer Special Officer (education). The committee also included officers who are in charge of the various activities of the department. Trivandrum is the headquarters. The following offices namely Nedumangad Kanjirappally, Thodupuzha, Attappadi, Nilampur, Waynad and Kannur are the places where seven ITD project offices function. Punalur, Ranni, Moovatupuzha, Thamarasseri, Mananthavadi, Sulthanbatheri, Kasargod are the other 7 tribal development offices which carry out tribal development activities.

In addition there are 48 tribal extension centers which are active in tribal belts. The Department runs a number of institutions like Hostels, Balavadis, Nursery Schools, Training Centers, Dispensaries, Mobile Employment Exchanges and Midwifery centers. A State Tribal Advisory Committee is constituted to monitor the welfare activities of the Department with
the Minister for Tribal Development as Chairman and Director of the Department as convener. In the districts too such committees function as District Collectors at the helm. A District Working Group also functions to prepare plans and to implement them.

The centrality of the government programmes for the quality development of the Scheduled Tribes for ensuring equality of opportunities and maintaining equity can be judged looking at the following features of the National Commission for the Scheduled Tribes:

**Vision**: Education, Employment, and Empowerment.

**Mission**: This has been spelled out in ten aspects as shown below:
1) Modernization of lifestyle by conserving the culture;
2) Preservation of traditional knowledge;
3) Total literacy;
4) Land for landless, Home for homeless;
5) Cluster Development for livelihood;
6) Total health care;
7) Residential education for reducing the rate of dropouts;
8) Vocational training for more employment;
9) Sustainable development for regular income and
10) Total care.

**Educational and Cultural Safeguards**:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Article No.</th>
<th>I. Educational &amp; Cultural Safeguards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Confers equal rights and opportunities to all;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>“Nothing in this article or in clause (2) of Article 29 shall prevent the state from making any special provision for the advancement of any socially and educationally backward class of citizens or for the scheduled castes and the scheduled tribes.”;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15(2)</td>
<td>The state shall not discriminate against any citizen on grounds only of religion, race, caste, sex place of birth, or any of them. However, the state can make special provisions for the advancement of women, children, SC and ST. Articles 14 and 15 have indirect implication for education. Every citizen should enjoy equality before law so far as his education is concerned. Admission should not be denied to any student in any</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Article No.</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>educational institution run by the state government simply on grounds of religion, race, caste, sex, place of birth, or any of them;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15(3)</td>
<td>“Nothing in this article shall prevent the state from making any speed provision for women and children.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15(4)</td>
<td>Special provisions for advancement of other backward classes (Which includes STs);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Protection of Interests of Minorities (Which includes STs)- Equal right to admission of SC and ST students in all schools and colleges maintained by public funds;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>“The State shall promote with special care, the educational and economic interest of the weaker sections of the people, and in particular, of the Scheduled Castes, and the Scheduled Tribes, and shall protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation.”;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>350</td>
<td>Right to conserve distinct Language, Script or Culture;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>350</td>
<td>Instruction in mother Tongue.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>II. Social Safeguards</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Untouchability has been declared as a social crime. The people practicing it may be prosecuted;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 :-</td>
<td>Prohibition of traffic in human beings and beggar and other similar form of forced lab our;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Forbidding Child Lab our.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>It is obligatory for the state to “strive to promote the welfare of the people by securing and protesting as effectively as it may a social order, in which Justice; Social; Economic and Political shall inform all the institution of the National Life.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>III. Economic Safeguards</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>244</td>
<td>Clause(1) Provisions of Fifth Schedule shall apply to the administration &amp; control of the Scheduled Areas and Scheduled Tribes in any state other than the states of Assam, Meghalaya, Mizoram and Tripura which are covered under Sixth Schedule, under Clause (2) of this Article;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>275(1)</td>
<td>Grants in-Aid to specified States (STs &amp; SCs) covered under Fifth and Sixth Schedules of the Constitution.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
IV. Political Safeguards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Article No.</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>164(1)</td>
<td>Provides for Tribal Affairs Ministers in Bihar, MP and Orissa;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>330</td>
<td>Reservation of seats for STs in Lok Sabha;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>337</td>
<td>Reservation of seats for STs in State Legislatures;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>334</td>
<td>10 years period for reservation (Amended several times to extend the period.);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>243</td>
<td>Reservation of seats in Panchayets;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>371</td>
<td>Special provisions in respect of NE States and Sikkim.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

V. Service Safeguards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Article No.</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16(4), 16(4A), 164(B), 332, 335,320(40)</td>
<td>Reservations for scheduled castes and scheduled tribes in all public services, Commissions and Committees for Education of SC and ST students.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The Fifth Schedule to the Constitution lays down certain prescriptions about the Scheduled Areas as well as the Scheduled Tribes in states other than Assam, Meghalaya, Tripura and Mizoram by ensuring submission of Annual Reports by the Governors to the President of India regarding the Administration of the Scheduled Areas and setting up of Tribal Advisory Councils to advise on matters pertaining to the welfare and advancement of the STs (Article 244(1)). Likewise, the Sixth Schedule to the Constitution also refers to the administration of Tribal Areas in the states of Assam, Meghalaya, Tripura and Mizoram by designation certain tribal.

Functions of the Commission (Under Clause (5) of Art. 338A):

Main functions of the Commission:

- To investigate & monitor matters relating to Safeguards provided for STs under the Constitution or under other laws or under Govt. Order, to evaluate the working of such Safeguards.
- To inquire into specific complaints relating to Rights & Safeguards of STs;
- To participate and Advise in the planning Process relating to Socio-economic development of STs, and Evaluate the progress of their development under the Union and any State;
- To submit report to the president annually and at such other times as the Commission may deem fit, upon / working of Safeguards, Measures required for effective
implementation of Programmers / Schemes relating to Welfare and Socio-economic development of STs;

- To discharge such other functions in relation to STs as the president may, subject to the provisions of any law made by parliament, by rule specify;
- The Commission would also discharge the following other functions in relation to the protection, welfare and development & advancement of the Scheduled Tribes, namely :-
- Measures that need to be taken over conferring ownership rights in respect of minor forest produce to the Scheduled Tribes living in forest areas.
- Measures to be taken to safeguard rights to the Tribal Communities over mineral resources, water resources etc. as per law.
- Measures to be taken for the development of tribal’s and to work for move viable livelihood strategies.
- Measures to be taken to improve the efficacy of relief and rehabilitation measures for tribal groups displaced by development projects.
- Measures to be taken to prevent alienation of tribal people from land and to effectively rehabilitate such people in whose case alienation has already taken place.
- Measures to be taken to elicit maximum cooperation and involvement of Tribal Communities for protecting forests and undertaking social forestation.
- Measures to be taken to ensure full implementation of the Provisions of Panchayats (Extension to the Scheduled Areas) Act, 1996 (40 of 1996).
- Measures to be taken to reduce and ultimately eliminate the practice of shifting cultivation by Tribal’s that lead to their continuous disempowerment and degradation of land and the environment.
- Copy of The Ministry of Tribal Affairs notification dated 23.08.2005 regarding the extended terms of reference of NCST.
- NCST letter dated 21/10/2008 to MTA furnishing detailed proposal for strengthening of NCST.
- D.O. letter dated 13/01/2011 from Chairperson NCST to the minister for Tribal Affairs.
- D.O. letter dated 24/05/2010 from PMO to Ministry of Tribal Affairs regarding action to be taken on important pending issues.
- D.O. letter dated 05/03/2010 from VC, NCTS to Minister for Tribal Affairs for resolving critical issues involved in efficient performance of NCST.
2.2.6: TRADITIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF SCHEDULED TRIBE PEOPLE

- The tribal people live in rather inaccessible parts of the country.
- The tribal people live away from the civilized world.
- They belong to Australoid or Mongoloids or Negrito races.
- They speak tribal dialects.
- They believe in ghosts and spirits and worship them.
- They profess primitive religion known as ‘Animism.’
- Their chief occupations are gathering forest products, hunting, etc.
- They are, by and large, meat eaters.
- Very little education.
- Livelihood dependent upon land.
- Economic condition is very poor.
- Social Life – Tribal people at different places live different cultures, faiths, traditions and values.

2.2.7: POPULATION OF SCHEDULED TRIBES IN INDIA

The population of tribal people in 2001 was estimated to have reached 84.3 million. This represented 8.19 percent of country’s total population.

Population Profile of the Tribal People in 2001:

- The largest concentration of ST population is found in the North-Eastern State: Mizoram (94.8%); Nagaland (87.7%); Meghalaya (85.5%) and Arunachal Pradesh (63.7%).
- Union Territories: Lakshadweep (93.2%); Dadra and Nagar Haveli (79%); Andaman and Nicobar Islands (5.5%).
- Madhya Pradesh (23.3%); Orissa (22.2%); Rajasthan (12.4%); Maharashtra (9.3%); Bihar (7.7%).
- The population of tribal people in 2001 was estimated to have reached 104.2 million. This represented 8.6 percent (Rural–11.3%, Urban–2.8%) of country’s total population.

Population Profile of the Tribal People in 2011:

- The largest concentration of ST population is found mostly in the following States and Union Territory: Lakshadweep (94.8%); Mizoram (94.4%); Nagaland (86.5%); Meghalaya (86.1%) and Arunachal Pradesh (68.8%).
- The lowest concentration of ST population is found mostly in the following states:
U.P.(0.6%); Tamilnadu (1.1%); Bihar (1.3%); Kerala (1.5%); Uttarakhand (2.9%).

- Almost nil in Haryana, Punjab, Pondicherry, Chandigarh, NCT of Delhi and Puducherry.

The population of tribal people in 2011 was quite different. It may follow the table:

**Table 2.4 : Change in Percentage of ST to Total Population (in crores)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of States/UTs</th>
<th>5 (Punjab, Chandigarh, Haryana, NCT of Delhi, Puducherry)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No listed ST in Census 2001 and Census 2011</td>
<td>7 (Uttarakhand, Mizoram, Meghalaya, Assam, Jharkhand, Gujarat, Tamil Nadu)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change within +0.2 percent points</td>
<td>5 (Nagaland, Chhattisgarh, Daman &amp; Diu, D &amp; N Haveli, A &amp; N Islands)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease by more than 0.2% percent points</td>
<td>4 States/UTs (Himachal Pradesh, Sikkim, Arunachal Pradesh, Goa)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase by more than 1 percent points</td>
<td>14 States/UTs (all expect the above)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source**: Presentation “SCHEDULED TRIBES IN INDIA, Census 2011” by Registrar General of India, May 2013.

So ultimately the population of tribal people in 2011 is:

**Table 2.5 : Sex-wise and Resident-wise Total Population of ST in 2001 and 2011**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2001</th>
<th>2011</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Population of India</td>
<td>ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,028,610,328</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>532,156,772</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>496,453,556</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source**: Office of the Registrar General & Census Commissioner, India, 2011.

**2.2.8 : MEASURES TAKEN FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF QUALITY OF LIFE OF THE SCHEDULED TRIBES**

1. Acts passed for the protection of SCs and STs:

A. Legislation against Untouchability (1955) and Protection of Civil Rights Acts (1976):

For enlarging the scope and making penal provisions more stringent, the Untouchability (Offences) Act, 1955 has been comprehensively renamed as the Protection of Civil rights Act, 1955 which came into force with effect from November 19, 1976. This Act Provides for penalties for preventing any person on grounds of untouchability, from enjoying
the rights accruing on account of abolition of untouchability.

B. Legislation to Check Atrocities against STs:

Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (Prevention of Atrocities) Act, 1989, which came into force on January 30, 1990, specifies offences which are considered as atrocities and provides for deterrent punishments for commission of the same. It also envisages preventive measures, and states to evolve schemes, among others, for economic and social rehabilitation of such victims. All States and Union Territories except Arunachal Pradesh and Nagaland have specified special courts for trial of offences under this Act. Exclusive special courts have been set up in Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Gujarat and Karnataka.

2. National Commission for STs:

In 1990, by the 65th Amendment of the Constitution, the Special Officer’s post under Article 138 has been substituted by the National Commission for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The Commission suggests measures for the upliftment of SCs and STs.

3. Parliamentary Committees

Government had set up three Parliamentary Committees, first in 1966, second in 1971 and third in 1973 to examine the implementation of the constitutional safeguards for welfare of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The Committee has since then constituted as a Standing Committee of Parliament on Labour and Welfare.

Overall Strategies for the Development and Welfare of the STs:

The Government has adopted the following fourteen-fold strategy for the development of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes:

1. Specific provisions in the constitution for the advancement of SCs and STs.
2. Special component plans formed by the Central and State Government for the development of SCs and STs.
3. Special center assistance to the States for the projects taken tip by the State.
4. Governments for the welfare of the SCs and STs.
5. Setting up Scheduled Caste Development Corporation (SCDCs) and ST Development Corporation.
6. Legislative measures.
7. Reservation of seats in the parliament and State Legislatures.
8. Reservation in services.
10. Assistance to voluntary organizations for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.
11. Distribution of the wasteland.
12. Provision of ‘Sulabha Sauchalaya.’
13. Special schedules for providing employment and special credit facility.
14. Special incentives for the promotion of education.

2.2.9: EDUCATIONAL PROVISIONS FOR SCHEDULED TRIBE STUDENTS (IN DIFFERENT COMMISSIONS)

Generally, it is observed that people of minority community belong to the weaker action of the society. The weaker section of the society includes schedule castes, scheduled tribe, de-notified tribe, notified tribe and other backward classes of the minority community, ‘weaker section’ or ‘backward classes’ is used for those groups of the miscellaneous castes, which are economically poor and socially and culturally backward. For their well-being following commissions have been instituted by the government.

Renuka Roy Commission (1959):

The Renuka Roy Commission stressed more on the medium of instruction of the tribal students in their mother tongue and recommended for the appointment of at least one woman teacher in every tribal school.

The Dhebar Commission (1960 – 1961):

The Government appointed a commission under the chairmanship of Dhebar is 1960–61 for finding out the condition and problems of the SC/ST people. The commission observed that adequate arrangements have not yet been made for the education of SC/ST. The commission has also recommended employment opportunities to the villagers in their own locality. The commission made the following recommendations:

- The children of SC/ST should be trained in some handicraft or practical skills.
- The teacher appointed to teach SC/ST children should be given special allowances and residential facilities.
- Children in schools for SC/ST should be given food, clothing, books and stationeries free.
- Teachers appointed for teaching SC/ST children should be trained in training colleges established in their area in order that during the training period they may get acquainted with the life style of the SC/ST.
• Teachers appointed to teach SC/ST children should be fully conversant with their culture.
• Primary education for SC/ST children should be given through their mother tongue. Suitable book should be published for this purpose in mother-tongue.

The Kothari Commission (1964 – 1966):

In addition to the recommendations of the Dhebar commission the Kothari commission has given welcoming suggestions for various levels of education of SC/ST children.

• Primary education: Primary education for SC/ST children should be better organized. More schools should be opened in the densely populated areas of SC/ST people.
• Secondary Education: More secondary schools should be opened with facilities for hostels and stipends.
• Higher Education: More scholarships should be instituted for higher education. Those engaged in the service for SC/ST people should be assigned a separate cadre. In the beginning, Non-SC/ST people may be appointed in this cadre, but later no suitable people from the SC/ST people may be appointed in this cadre.

The Commission for SCs and STs (1978):

The Commission was set up in 1978 under the article of 338 of the constitution. In 1987 it was renamed as National Commission for SCs and STs. Its soul target is to provide appropriate and prompt investigation to various offences towards SCs and STs.

NPE (1986):

1. Priority will be accorded to opening primary schools in tribal areas. The construction of school building will be undertaken in these areas on a priority basis under the normal funds for education, as well as under the N.R.E.P., R.L.E.G.P., Tribal Welfare Schemes etc.
2. The socio-cultural milieu of the ST has its distinctive characteristics including, in many cases, their own spoken languages. This underlines the need to develop the curricula and devise institutional materials in tribal languages at the initial stages, with arrangements for switching over to the regional languages.
3. Educated and promising Scheduled Tribe youths are encouraged and trained to take up teaching in tribal areas.
4. Residential schools, including Ashram Schools will be established on a large scale.
5. Incentive schemes will be formulated for the Scheduled Tribes, keeping in view their special needs and life styles. Scholarships for higher education will emphasize technical, professional and para-professional courses. Special remedial courses and other programmes to remove psycho-social impediments will be provided to improve their performance in various courses.

6. Anganwadis, Non-formal and Adult Education Centers will be opened on a priority basis in areas predominantly inhabited by the Scheduled Tribes.

7. The curriculum at all stages of education will be designed to create an awareness of the rich cultural identity of the tribal people as also of their enormous creative talent.

**Ramamurti Committee Report (1990):**

The committee stressed more on varies aspects of Scheduled Tribes, such as-

1. Incentive Schemes.
3. Recruitment of ST Teachers.
4. Special Component Plan.
5. Improvement of Capability and Educational Environment etc.

**Janardhan Committee Report (1992):**

Programmes for ST people: The following three types of programmes have been organized by the government for the SC / ST people:

- The work directly done by the central government.
- The work done under the supervision of the central government.
- The work clone by the various states in the country.

**2.2.10 : EDUCATIONAL INTERVENTIONS OF THE SC/STs BY THE CENTRAL AND STATE GOVERNMENTS**

The central government grants reservation in government services in favor of SC/ST people. But may reserve posts are not filled-in by the SC/ST people, because suitable hands from them are not available. For improving this situation, the government has opened coaching-cum-guidance centers at Chennai, Jabalpur and Kanpur in order to transmit information regarding employment opportunities and also to impart training to SC/ST people for specific jobs. Since 1953 many scholarships have been instituted sending people of SC/ST groups to foreign countries for obtaining education. 17.5 % of seats in educational institutions have been reserved for SC/ST people. Some seats have been reserved for them in medical and
engineering colleges also.

The work done under the supervision of the Central Government:

- After passing high school examination the SC/ST students are granted scholarship for continuing further education. These days, about a lakh scholarship to the SC/ST classes.
- There are more than 25 centers all over the country for coaching people for SC/ST classes for I.A.S and I.P.S. services.
- The central government gives grants to the various state governments for instituting scholarships for SC/ST student.
- More than twenty five centers have been established throughout the country for doing research on SC/ST people.
- A central research advisory council has been established for correlation the activities of these researches enter spread all over the country.
- The central government gives various kinds of financial assistance for rehabilitation and education of SC/ST people. Through this assistance provision have been made for meals, hostels, residential schools, examination fees, scholarships and tuition fees.

The work done by the various States:

The financial assistance received from the central government by the various state governments are treated as loans and block grants. Through this assistance the state government runs the following type of programmes for SC/ST people:

- Opening ashram schools;
- Organizing teaching materials;
- Establishing schools and hostels;
- Stipends for primary and higher education;
- Mid-day meals;
- Exemption from tuition and examination fees etc.

Strategies adopted in the Programme of Action:

The POA-NPE has suggested the following operational strategies with respect to SC/ST education:

- Contact micro-planning and verification will be done to ensure that enrolment, retention and successful completion courses by SC/ST students do not fall at any stage.
- Recruitment of teachers from SC/ST category.
- Provision of hostel facilities for SC/ST students at district headquarters.
• Location of hostel buildings and school buildings, balwadis and adult education center in SC/ST extensions.
• Content and orientation of the curriculum in respect of SC/ST.
• Measure will be further strengthened to ensure that incentives in the form of scholarships, uniforms, book, etc, reach the backward groups.

On the other hand, a number of centrally sponsored schemes are being continued in the 8th Five year plan (1992–97) for SCs, STs and other backward sections. These are:
• Post-metric scholarships;
• Grant-in-aid to voluntary organizations;
• Pre-metric scholarships for children of those engaged in un-clean occupation;
• Books banks;
• Boys’ and girls’ hostel and
• Coaching and allied schemes.

In addition to these, two schemes in the central sector have also been approved –
i) Special educational development programme for girls belonging to SCs of very low literacy levels and ii) Educational complex in low literacy pockets for development of women’s literacy in tribal areas.

These programmes are in addition to the special thrust given to the weaker sections in the general programmes for educational development like opening of schools, running of Non Formal Education (NFE) Centers and Adult Education Centers, Operation Blackboard, up gradation of merit of SC/ST students, reservation in educational institutions etc.

**Elementary Education:**

Taking into account the experience gained in the implementation of NPE, 1986 and POA, the following strategies are proposed:

**a) Access and Enrolment:**

In order to ensure universal access and enrolment of SC children in rural areas, henceforth, in opening primary and upper primary schools, priority would be given to the needs of SC habitations and hamlet. As far as possible, pre-primary sections will be an integral part of such schools.

Every ST habitation will be provided with a primary school or other suitable institution before the end of the 8th five year plan in order to ensure universal enrolment and
participation.

In tribal areas educational plan will be implemented in an integrated manner. Preschool education (through Balwadis), Non Formal education, elementary education and adult education will be organically linked and integrated to ensure achievement of total literacy of the entire population. This integrated educational complex will be responsible for total education within its area serving all children in the age group 3-14 and adults in the age-group 15 and above.

For SC children access and enrolment will be assured primarily in the formal school. Where SC children access and not able to attend their formal school provision for non-formal and distance education centers will be established to ensure universal access and enrolment. It will be the responsibility of the teachers to organize enrolment drives at the beginning of every academic session on all school-age children specially girls belonging to SCs, STs and other backward sections. For this purpose active assistance of voluntary agencies and local communities shall be taken. Traditional and folk media can be very effective in reaching parents and children in remote areas to motivate them.

b) Participations:

Adequate incentives have been provided for the children of SC, ST and other backward sections in the form of scholarships, uniforms, textbooks, stationery and mid-day meals. All schools, NFE centers and pre-school centers in SC/ST habitations are equipped with necessary and essential infra-structural facilities in accordance with the norms laid down for Operation Blackboard and for achieving Minimum Levels of Learning (MLL). Operation blackboard shall cover within a period of two years all schools in tribal areas and Harijan bastis irrespective of the date on which the school was set up. The indigent families among SC/ST will be given incentives to send their children, particularly girls, to schools.

c) Achievement:

Children from tribal communities have been taught through mother tongue in the earlier stages in the earlier stages in primary school. Teaching / learning material in the tribal languages is prepared providing for a transition to the regional language by class III.

The home language of children of SC/ST may be different from others. Therefore, standard teaching/learning material is re-written to make them intelligible to the SC/ST children especially in areas where the standard language and the learners’ dialect are different.
It will be ensured that MLL already set-up for primary schools will be achieved, that the necessary standards of three R’s (Reading, Writing and Arithmetic)) are acquired by all children in SC/ST communities. Effective methodologies for measurement of MLL are implemented.

d) Adult Education :

Adult education programmes are an integral part of educational micro-planning in all tribal areas. Under the total literacy campaign, SC and ST populations have been the major focus for achieving total literacy. Special attention has been paid to adult illiterate women. Adult education programmes for SCs/STs are essentially the programmes of empowerment. Special and relevant curricular and materials are prepared for this purpose as a crash programme. Post- literacy centers have been set up in SC/ST areas where literacy campaigns are carried out in order to provide facilities for continued literacy for adult neo-literates, especially women.

e) Incentives :

Under the scheme of pre-metric and post-metric scholarships for SC/ST students in upper primary (middle) school and onwards are distributed through band/post-office. Scholarships are paid in advance on the first day of each month. Special provisions have been made to allow minor children to operate bank accounts.

Coaching, training and remedial teaching classes are organized for students of SC/ST and other backward sections in order to enhance the scholastic achievement of these students. Special coaching for entrance examinations for institutions of higher learning, particularly for professional courses is provided to SC/ST students of classes X and XII. Residential facilities are provided for SC/ST students preparing for competitive examinations. Additional scholarships are provided for SC/ST girl students in the secondary and senior secondary classes. Special coaching and remedial courses are organized for SC/ST girl students.

Merit scholarship schemes covering grade students have been implemented in all the states. Books of proven quality including classics from Indian and foreign languages have been abridged, adapted, translated and reproduced and made available at subsidized rates to the children and neo-literates in SC/ST communities.

f) Reservations :

Implementation of reservation is monitored at all levels and failure to adhere to the same is punishable. Reservation in recruitment of teachers from SC/ST communities has been
endured in all educational institutions. In Navodaya Vidyalayas, admission-forces and STs are reserved on the basis of either the national norms or 15% and 7.5% respectively or of the percentage of SC and ST population in the district, whichever is higher. This principle is considered for adaptation by state governments in other educational institutions, wherever feasible, the criterion of reservation being the national percentages of 15 and 7.5 or the state percentages of SC and ST or the district percentage SC and ST, whichever is higher.

**g) Teachers and their Training:**

Crash programmes for giving suitable training to eligible persons from SCs/STs have been started where teachers are not available in schools located in SC/ST localities. The eligible amongst them are appointed as teachers in the schools. Specified teachers training institutions such as DIETs are identified for training of SC/ST teachers a large scale.

In order to encourage SC/ST student to become teachers, special courses integrating secondary, senior secondary and professional training have been devised. This will encourage such candidates to opt for the teaching profession from an early stage and get adequate training as teacher, wherever possible husband-wife teams are posted as teachers in tribal areas. This has ensured high participation by such teachers in school education.

**f) Additional Measures:**

A chain of pace-setting institutions forms primary to higher secondary have been established in areas of SC/ST concentration for providing quality education to talented learners as well as for upgrading the achievement levels of comparatively slow learners in these communities.

Education in tribal areas is linked without door activities. Many tribal children excel in sports, game and other out-door activities. Such talent is identified and nurtured. Adequate coaching is provided at early stages so that these talented sportsmen and women can participate in sporting activities and competitions, scholarships have been provided for such students paying special attention to their dietary requirements.

There is a need for improvement in the standards of hostels for SC/ST students. Special attention has been paid to the nutritional needs of the students. As far as possible hostels are managed by teachers, hostels for SC girls are constructed in or around the vicinity of the school/college where the girls are enrolled and adequate security measures are provided.
g) Monitoring:

Monitoring of education in SC/ST areas has been entrusted to the local community/village education committee with adequate representation of SC/ST members specially women. The local community takes the total responsibility of planning the educational facilities in ST/ST areas.

In most of the state and at the center the incentive programmes like scholarships, mid-day meals, free uniforms, etc. And setting up of hostels and ashram, schools for SC/ST are being implemented by the welfare departments, while the departments of education run programmes of setting up of schools, appointment of teachers, preparation programmes of setting up of schools, appointment of teachers, preparation of text book, curriculum, etc. which cater to SC/ST students as a part of the general programmes of education departments. In some stages, educational institutions for scheduled tribes are being run by agencies other than the education department. It is better that these are managed by department of education.

h) Scheduled Tribe Education Loan Scheme:

The National Scheduled Tribes Finance and Development Corporation announced a loan scheme for professional and technical courses for Scheduled Tribes. Students having annual family income up to Double the Poverty Line are eligible for the scheme.

The National Scheduled Tribes Finance and Development Corporation (NSTFDC) has launched an Education Loan Scheme for students belonging to scheduled tribes in the country in the month of November, 2011.

The requirement for availing benefits of the scheme are that the annual family income of the Scheduled Tribe candidate shall be up to double the poverty line and the candidate is willing to pursue technical/professional education, including Ph. D. in India conducted by colleges / universities approved by UGC/Govt./AICTE/ICMR etc.

The details of rule and guidelines etc. of this scheme to avail its benefits are as below:

1. NSTFDC would provide concessional loan eligible scheduled Tribe students for professional and technical courses including Ph. D. in India conducted by colleges / universities approved by UGC / Government / AICTE / ICMR etc.
2. A scheduled tribe having annual family income up to double the poverty line (DPL) would be eligible. The present DPL limit is Rs. 39,500 per annum for rural areas and Rs. 54,500 per annum for the urban areas.
3. Loan would cover expenses towards Admission/ Examination/ library/ laboratory/ Tuition
fee, boarding and lodging, caution money, building fund/ Refundable Deposit, books
stationery items, computer, Equipment/ Instruments, study tours, project work/ Thesis,
Insurance premium for student and any other expenses towards completion of course.
90% of expenditure/ Deposits for entire duration of the course subject to a maximum loan
amount of Rs. 5.00 lakh (five lakh rupees) per eligible family.

4. 6% per annum chargeable form the beneficiary.

5. After the moratorium period (Course Period plus one year or six months after getting job,
whichever is earlier) within next 5 years subject to maximum period of 10 years.

6. The eligible students apply to the respective State Channelizing Agencies of NSTFDC
located in her / his domiciled State / UT in the prescribed format along with copies of the
requisite documents.

(The above information was given by the Minister of State for Tribal Affairs Shri
Mahadeo Singh Khandela in the Rajya Sabha in 16th December, 2011).

2.2.11 : SUB PLAN AND TRIBAL SUB PLAN (SCSP & TSP)

The Ministry of HRD, as per the advice of National Monitoring Committee had issued
guidelines for implementation of SCSP / TSP. As per these guidelines, for the Department of
Higher Education the earmarking of funds is 15–16.2% and 7.50% for SCSP and TSP
respectively and for Department of School Education and Literacy earmarking of funds is
more than 16.2% and 10.70% for SCSP and TSP respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>SC</th>
<th>ST</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School Education and Literacy</td>
<td>10183.34 (19.65%)</td>
<td>5666.22 (10.93%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Education</td>
<td>2534.40 (15.00%)</td>
<td>1268.10 (7.50%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


2.3.0 : ACADEMIC MOTIVATION

Academic motivation as a construct has been conceived by some researchers in order
to explain learners’ the non-intellective determination for their scholastic success. As a
concept it has its origin in the research works of McClelland (1953) and Atkinson, J. W.
(1932). The term “academic motivation” has been coined basically by Entwistle (1968) on
the argument that achievement motivation fails in many ways the students’ determination to
succeed. For this reason, this discussion begins with the earlier work of Atkinson (1932).

Principles of psychology have been applied by researchers to education but no
systematic theory of academic motivation has been tried out. The research works of
Crandall (1963), Crandall, Kathkovsky and Crandall (1965), Cattell and Butcher (1968) etc. 
making some advancement toward this end. Another promising attempt in this direction is the
theory of achievement motivation developed by J. W. Atkinson (1966, 32, 33). His theory of
achievement motivation can be briefly expressed in the undernoted equation :

\[ T_a = T_s + T_f + \text{Text} \]

where,

\( T_a = \) for an active impulse to undertake an achievement-oriented activity,

\( T_s = M_s(P_s) (I_s) \);

in which

\( M_s = \) tendency to approach success subjective,

\( P_s = \) probability of success lying between 0.00 and 1.00,

\( I_s = \) incentive value of success, \([ I_s = 1 - P_s ]\),

\( T_f = (M_{af}P_0) (I_0) \);

in which,

\( M_{af} = \) tendency to avoid failure

\( P_f = \) subjective probability of failure \([ P_f = 1-P_s ]\),

\( I_f = \) incentive value of failure \([ I_f = 1-P_f ]\), the sign being assumed as negative in computing \(-I_0\),

Text= positive extrinsic tendency to perform in activity.

\( M_s \) is assessed with the help of TAT and \( M_{af} \) is assessed with Test Anxiety Questionnaire.

This theory is based on the following assumptions :

1. The theory is appropriate in achievement oriented situations, i.e., in situations in which
the individual feels her / himself responsible for outcomes to be measured against some
prescribed standards. That is, it appropriate in situations that requires both skill and
competence.

2. The theory assumes that achievement situations will be governed by two opposite
motives – a motive to approach success and a motive to avoid failure. Both are the
enduring part of a subject’s personality and their relative strengths will differ from person
to person. That is, the theory regards both the personal and situational factors as
important.

3. The theory assumes that the incentive value of success and incentive value of failure
\((I_s, P_0)\) depend directly upon the expectancy factor \((P_s, P_0)\) subjective probability of
success and subjective probability of failure, both these being increase linear functions of
the probability of success and failure.
This theory helps us to make some specific predictions subject to the condition that in achievement situations achievement-oriented subjects, for whom \( M_s > M_t \) will exhibit highest motivation when \( p_s = 0.50 \) and lowest motivation when \( p_s = 0.00 \) or 1.00. That is subjects will exhibit highest motivation when the probability of success is of intermediate level. On the contrary, the failure threatened subjects for whom \( M_{at} > M_t \) will exhibit lowest motivation when \( p_s = 0.50 \), i.e., at intermediate level. When applied to education this means that achievement-oriented subjects will be more inclined towards challenge.

Under the above backdrop, Entwistle (1968) and his associates has coined the term ‘academic motivation’ as a specific trait of a subject in school learning situations in order to explain some of the differences in school attainment of children with similar measured abilities. Its origin was stimulated the earlier research work of Finger and Schlesser (1962). On the basis of the earlier researches done by others and also by Entwistle himself, he came to conclusion that academic motivation is said to be one’s determination to succeed in academic studies. Further, he argued that academic motivation as a construct can best be explained by the combination of three factors: Academic aspiration, Attitude toward school, and Study habits.

Academic aspiration stands for one’s desire or ambition, especially to aim at high things, to mount up and striving to achieve success in difficult tasks and circumstances. According to the Dictionary of Education (Good, 1959, p. 42) aspiration is “the level of performance or the goal that a person (or group) desires or hopes to reach in a specified activity.” In education, thus, academic aspiration means a student’s aims, goals, hopes, targets that he/she sets for her/himself in the activity of academic achievement. Analytically, academic aspiration include activities like making maximum possible use of resources and facilities provided by the school in academic matters for one’s personal growth and development so as to secure high grade or score reflecting her/his quality of academic achievement.

Attitude toward school means a mental readiness/set or emotional readiness to react favorably to educationally significant situations in the school environment so as to make best utilization of all school facilities and resources with a deep care and appreciation of them and to make use of all the provided facilities and opportunities for one’s growth and development and the service of society. Ultimately it serves as motive.

By the term ‘study’ we mean activity to learn some specific things, to master some skills, etc. Cronbach (1964) opines, “Study can be interpreted as a planned programme of subject mastery” with three-fold purposes of — (a) to acquire knowledge and habits that are
useful in meeting new situation, interpreting ideals, and general enrichment of life; (b) to perfect skills, and (c) to develop attitude.

According to Sorensen (1954) “study habits basically consist of effective methods of study.” Again Armstrong (1956) “Study is the total of all habits, determined purposes and enforced practices that the individual uses in order to learn.” To sum up, study habits generally involve a bundle of activities on the part of the person who engages in the work of study. It embraces governing one’s will, setting up goals and purposes, concentrating one’s energies, one’s power and capacities toward their realization. It involves adopting some styles. It means keeping regular hours, maintaining congenial atmosphere for studying, deep absorption, proper working schedule, planning for concerned activities, adopting laws of learning, through quest for supplementary materials, practicing oral or/ and written expression, taking guidance from others, etc. Briefly, it serves as motive in learning for academic achievement.

In fine, when all these three factors combine together and help one’s determination to get good grade in academic studies the combination is coined as academic motivation.

2.4.0. LOCUS OF CONTROL OF REINFORCEMENT

Julian B. Rotter (1916–2014) was much influenced by the works of Freud and Adler. He was specialized in clinical psychology. His social learning concept has its roots in clinical psychology. Sometimes he is known as the originator of the construct of ‘locus of control’ which is an integral part of his social learning theory.

At the time when Rotter developed his social learning theory, the dominant perspective in clinical psychology at the time was Freud’s psychoanalysis, which focused on people’s deep-seated instinctual motives as determining behavior. Individuals were seen as being naive to their unconscious impulses, and treatment required long-term analysis of childhood experience. Even learning approaches at the time were dominated by drive theory, which held that people are motivated by physiologically-based impulses that press the individual to satisfy them. In developing social learning theory, Rotter departed from instinct-based psychoanalysis and drive-based behaviorism. He believed that a psychological theory should have a psychological motivational principle. Rotter chose the empirical law of effect as his motivating factor. The law of effect states that people are motivated to seek out positive stimulation, or reinforcement, and to avoid unpleasant stimulation. Rotter combined behaviorism and the study of personality, without relying on physiological instincts or drives as a motive force.
The main idea in Rotter’s social learning theory is that personality represents an interaction of the individual with her / his environment. One cannot explain a personality, internal to the individual that is independent of the environment. Neither can one focus on behavior as being an automatic response to an objective set of environmental stimuli. Rather, to understand behavior, one must take both the individual (i.e., his or her life history of learning and experiences) and the environment (i.e., those stimuli that the person is aware of and responding to) into account. Rotter describes personality as a relatively stable set of potentials for responding to situations in a particular way.

Rotter sees personality, and therefore behavior, as always changeable. He opines change the way the person thinks, or change the environment the person is responding to, and behavior will change. He does not believe there is a critical period after which personality is set. But, the more life experience one has building up certain sets of beliefs, the more effort and intervention required for change to occur. Rotter conceives of people in an optimistic way and he sees them as being drawn forward by their goals, seeking to maximize their reinforcement, rather than just avoiding punishment.

Rotter has four main components to his social learning theory model predicting behavior. These are behavior potential, expectancy, reinforcement value, and the psychological situation.

**Behavior Potential**: Behavior potential is the likelihood of engaging in a particular behavior in a specific situation. In other words, what is the probability that the person will exhibit a particular behavior in a situation? In any given situation, there are multiple behaviors one can engage in. For each possible behavior, there is a behavior potential. The individual will exhibit whichever behavior has the highest potential.

**Expectancy**: Expectancy is the subjective probability that a given behavior will lead to a particular outcome, or reinforce. How likely is it that the behavior will lead to the outcome? Having high or strong expectancies means the individual is confident the behavior will result in the outcome. Having low expectancies means the individual believes it is unlikely that his or her behavior will result in reinforcement. If the outcomes are equally desirable, we will engage in the behavior that has the greatest likelihood of paying off (i.e., has the highest expectancy). To have a high expectancy, people must believe both(a) that they have the capacity to enact the behavior effectively and (b) that that behavior will result in reinforcement.
Expectancies are formed based on past experience. The more often a behavior has led to reinforcement in the past, the stronger the person’s expectancy that the behavior will achieve that outcome now. In addition, people do not need to have direct experience with reinforcement of a particular behavior. Rotter wrote that our observations of the outcomes of others’ behaviors affect our own expectancies. If we see someone else being punished for a particular behavior, we don’t have to experience punishment personally to form an expectancy that this behavior is likely to be punished.

It is important to note that expectancy is a subjective probability, because one common source of pathology is irrational expectancies. There may be no relationship whatsoever between the people’s subjective assessment of how likely a reinforcement will be and the actual, objective probability of the reinforces occurring. People can either over- or underestimate this likelihood, and both distortions can potentially be problematic.

**Reinforcement Value**: Reinforcement is another name for the outcomes of our behavior. Reinforcement value refers to the desirability of these outcomes. Things we want to happen, that we are attracted to, have a high reinforcement value. Things we don’t want to happen, that we wish to avoid, have a low reinforcement value. If the likelihood of achieving reinforcement is the same (i.e., expectancies are equal), we will exhibit the behavior with the greatest reinforcement value, the one directed toward the outcome we prefer most. As the name social learning theory suggests, the social environment is of primary importance in shaping our behavior. Social outcomes, such as approval, love or rejection, are powerful influences on our behavior. For people, the most important reinforcers are often social reinforcers.

As with expectancy, reinforcement value is subjective, meaning that the same event or experience can vastly differ in desirability, depending on the individual’s life experience. Punishment from a parent would be negatively reinforcing to most children and something to be avoided. However, children who get little positive attention from parents can seek out parental punishment because it has a higher reinforcement value than neglect.

The value of any given reinforcer is determined in part by other, future reinforcers it might lead to. For example, doing well on an exam in a particular class would have a heightened reinforcement value, if you believe that doing well in that class will lead to being able to work in your professor’s lab. Therefore, even an apparently trivial event can have a very strong reinforcement value, either positive or negative, if the individual sees it as leading to other strongly valued reinforcers.
The least amount of reinforcement that still has a positive value is known as the minimal goal. If people achieve an outcome that equals or exceeds their minimal goal, they will feel that they have succeeded. When the level of reinforcement falls below an individual’s minimal goal, that reinforcement feels like failure. People differ in their minimal goals. Thus, the same outcome may represent success to one person (with a lower minimal goal) while it feels like failure to another person (with a higher minimal goal).

**Predictive Formula**: Behavior Potential (BP), Expectancy (E) and Reinforcement Value (RV) can be combined into a predictive formula for behavior:

\[ BP = f(E \& RV) \]

This formula can be read as follows: behavior potential is a function of expectancy and reinforcement value. Or, in other words, the likelihood of a person’s exhibiting a particular behavior is a function of the probability that that behavior will lead to a given outcome and the desirability of that outcome. If expectancy and reinforcement value are both high, then behavior potential will be high. If either expectancy or reinforcement value is low, then behavior potential will be lower.

**Psychological Situation**: The psychological situation represents Rotter’s idea that each individual’s experience of the environment is unique. Although the psychological situation does not figure directly into Rotter’s formula for predicting behavior, Rotter believes it is always important to keep in mind that different people interpret the same situation differently. Different people will have different expectancies and reinforcement values in the same situation. Thus, it is people’s subjective interpretation of the environment, rather than an objective array of stimuli, that is meaningful to them and that determines how they behave.

**Generality versus Specificity**: An important dimension of personality theories is the generality versus specificity of their constructs. General constructs are broad and abstract, while specific constructs are narrow and concrete. Both types of constructs have their advantages. A theory with general constructs allows one to make many predictions, across situations, from knowing only a small amount of information. The disadvantages of general constructs, though, are that they are harder to measure and the predictions made from them have a lower level of accuracy. Specific constructs, on the other hand, are easier to measure, and they can be used to make more accurate predictions. However, these predictions are limited to being situation-specific.

For example, knowing that someone is a generally hostile person allows us to make
predictions that this individual will be hostile toward a range of people. Across situations, this person is likely to be more hostile to others than is someone low in hostility. However, our ability predict how hostile this person would be to Jane, for example, is limited, because there may be other factors that determine whether this individual will treat Jane in a hostile way during a particular encounter (e.g., person likes Jane, or situational factors inhibit an expression of hostility). On the other hand, if we know that this person hates Jane, we can predict with a high level of accuracy that this person will be hostile toward Jane. But, we will not be able to predict whether this person will treat other people in a hostile way.

A strength of Rotter’s social learning theory is that it explicitly blends specific and general constructs, offering the benefits of each. In social learning theory, all general constructs have a specific counterpart. For every situationally specific expectancy there is a cross-situational generalized expectancy. Social learning theory blends generality and specificity to enable psychologists to measure variables and to make a large number of accurate predictions from these variables.

**Locus of Control** : In his famous Monograph (1966, p.1) Rotter puts : “The role of reinforcement, reward, or gratification is universally recognized by students of human nature as a crucial one in the acquisition and performance of skills and knowledge.” However, an event regarded by some persons as a reward or reinforcement may be differently perceived and reacted to by others. One of the determinants of this reaction is the degree to which the individual perceives that the reward follows from, or is contingent upon, his own behavior or attributes versus the degree to which he feels the reward is controlled by forces outside of him and may occur independently of his own actions. The effect of a reinforcement following some behavior on the part of a human subject, in other words, is not a simple stamping-in process but depends upon whether or not the person perceives a causal relationship between his own behavior and the reward. A perception of causal relationship need not be all or none but can vary in degree. When a reinforcement is perceived by the subject as following some action of his own but not being entirely contingent upon his action, then, in our culture, it is typically perceived as the result of luck, chance, fate, as under the control of powerful others, or as unpredictable because of the great complexity of the forces surrounding him. When the event is interpreted in this way by an individual, we have labeled this a belief in external control. If the person perceives that the event is contingent upon his own behavior or his own relatively permanent characteristics, we have termed this a belief in internal control. It is hypothesized that this variable is of major significance in understanding the nature of
learning processes in different kinds of learning situations and also that consistent individual differences exist among individuals in the degree to which they are likely to attribute personal control to reward in the same situation. This report is concerned with reviewing a number of studies which have been made to test both hypotheses; “to present some heretofore unpublished experimental results; and to present in detail new data regarding the development, reliability, and validity of one measure of individual differences in a generalized belief for internal versus external control of reinforcement.”

For many people, their only exposure to the ideas of Julian B. Rotter is his concept of *generalized expectancies for control of reinforcement*, more commonly known as locus of control. Locus of control refers to people’s very general, cross-situational beliefs about what determines whether or not they get reinforced in life. People can be classified along a continuum from very internal to very external.

“A perception of causal relationship need not be all or none, but can vary in degree. When reinforcement is perceived by the subject as following some action of his own, but not being entirely contingent upon his action; then, in our culture it is typically perceived as the result of luck, chance, or fate, as under the control of others or as unpredictable because of the great complexity of the forces surrounding him. When the event is interpreted in this way by an individual, we have labeled this a belief in external control. If the person perceives that the event is contingent upon his own behavior or his own relatively permanent characteristics, we have termed this a belief in internal control.”

People with a strong internal locus of control believe that the responsibility for whether or not they get reinforced ultimately lies with themselves. Internals believe that success or failure is due to their own efforts. In contrast, externals believe that the reinforcers in life are controlled by luck, chance, or powerful others. Therefore, they see little impact of their own efforts on the amount of reinforcement they receive.

Rotter has written extensively on problems with people’s interpretations of the locus of control concept. First, he has warned people that locus of control is not a typology. It represents a continuum, not an either/or proposition. Second, because locus of control is a generalized expectancy it will predict people’s behavior across situations. However, there may be some specific situations in which people who, for example, are generally external behave like internals. That is because their learning history has shown them that they have control over the reinforcement they receive in certain situations, although overall they perceive little control over what happens to them. Again, one can see the importance of conceiving of personality as the interaction of the person and the environment.
Psychopathology and Treatment: Rotter is very opposed to the medical model conception of mental disorders as being diseases or illnesses. Rather, he conceives of psychological problems as maladaptive behavior brought about by faulty or inadequate learning experiences. For Rotter, the symptoms of pathology, like all behavior, are learned. Therefore, treatment should be considered a learning situation in which adaptive behaviors and cognitions are taught.

According to Rotter, pathology can develop due to difficulties at any point in his predictive formula. Behavior can be maladaptive, because the individual never learned more healthy behaviors. In this case, the therapist would make direct suggestions about new behaviors to try and would use techniques such as role-playing to develop more effective coping skills.

Expectancies can lead to pathology when they are irrationally low. If people have low expectancies, they do not believe their behaviors will be reinforced. Consequently, they put little effort into their behaviors. If they don’t try to succeed, they are likely to fail. And, when they fail, it confirms their low expectancies. This process of decreasing expectancies is a common occurrence in pathology known as a *vicious cycle*. When clients have low expectancies, therapists attempt to increase clients’ confidence by using their therapeutic influence to help clients (a) gain insight into the irrationality of their expectancies and (b) attempt behaviors they have been avoiding out of fear of failure. In general, social learning therapists always attempt to raise their clients’ expectancies for reinforcement.

Lastly, reinforcement value problems can lead to pathology. Reinforcers are the goals we seek in life. If people set unrealistically high and unobtainable goals for themselves (i.e., have too high minimal goals), they are likely to experience frequent failure. This failure can lead to the development of the vicious cycle described above. In this situation, therapists would help clients to lower their minimal goals, developing reasonable, achievable standards for themselves. Flexibility in setting minimal goals is one sign of good mental health. It is better to strive, step by step, to achieve a series of goals than it is to set one distant, lofty goal for oneself. A Rotter therapist also wants clients to consider the long-term consequences of behavior, rather than just short-term consequences.

Internals were believed by Rotter (1966) to exhibit two essential characteristics: high achievement motivation and low outer-directedness. This was the basis of the locus-of-control scale proposed by Rotter in 1966, although it was based on Rotter’s belief that locus of control is a single construct. Since 1970, Rotter’s assumption of uni-dimensionality has been challenged, with Levenson (for example) arguing that different dimensions of locus of
control (such as beliefs that events in one’s life are self-determined, or organized by powerful others and are chance-based) must be separated. Weiner’s early work in the 1970s suggested that orthogonal to the internality-externality dimension, differences should be considered between those who attribute to stable and those who attribute to unstable cause.

2.5.0 : ATTITUDE TOWARD SCHOOL

Attitude has been defined as “a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual’s response to all objects and situations with which it is related.” (G. W. Allport) It is a mental set of emotional readiness to react to multifarious activities, programme etc. Attitude serves as a motive to judge what is right and what is not so and to the purpose of the school are attached all the individual student’s drives, cognition and conation.

2.6.0 : RELATED STUDIES

The studies surveyed by the present investigators and reported in this Section are not directly related to reactions to frustration of the Scheduled Tribe students. However, the findings of these studies build the foundation and direction of the present survey.

Mohanti (1989) compared tribal and non-tribal children in terms of their intelligence, perceptual, motor and achievement motivation and training. The research consisted of three studies with a $2 \times 2 \times 2$ design, having two cultures, two grades (III and V) and two groups (experimental and control) with 40 tribal and 40 non-tribal children. It was found that short-term intelligence, language and motivational training resulted in positive gains but the tribal children’s disadvantages of deprivation are so prolonged and the training was so short and inadequate that too much gain could not be expected.

Nayak (1990), in his study of “Achievement Motivation and Level of Aspiration of Tribal and non-Tribal Children (7–11 age group)”, found that, in general, both the groups had a low level of aspiration as compared to their achievement level. The non-tribal group was found higher than their tribal counterparts in achievement motivation and level of aspiration. In another study, academic performance was found significant but negatively correlated with self-concept and level of aspiration but no such relationship was observed between academic performance and academic motivation except on one of its dimensions, i. e., and desire for self-improvement (Tripathi, 1990). But this relationship was positive in the case of tribal high achievers. The study also found the tribals to have low academic performance, low self-concept and low level of aspiration as compared to their non-tribal counterparts. The study
was conducted on an Oriya tribal and non-tribal population.

Two independent studies focused on a comparison of the mental abilities, occupational aspirations and interest patterns of tribals and non tribals were conducted by Gharmode (1990) and Rawat (1991). The non-tribal students were found to be significantly higher than tribal students in logical ability and mechanical interests. The tribal students were higher in scientific and outdoor interests. Among the high occupational aspirants, the tribals were high in numerical ability, scientific and outdoor interests and the non tribals were high on mechanical and clerical interests; among the low occupational aspirants, the tribals were higher in verbal ability and scientific and outdoor interests than the non-tribals.

In a differential study of the scientific aptitudes of the tribal and non-tribal pupils in Chhatisgarh, Sharma (1988), found the tribal pupils to be significantly inferior to the non-tribal on a comprehensive scientific aptitude test but significantly superior to them on accuracy of observations at both levels of educational status. However, the non tribals were superior to the tribals on direction of inconsistencies or illogical conclusion, the ability to deduce conclusions at the HSS level, on experimental bent, accuracy of interpretation and caution and thoroughness at the college level. The sample consisted of 200 urban (130 boys and 70 girls) and 200 rural (130 boys and 70 girls) pupils at secondary schools and 50 girls and 150 boys from the Oraon tribe at the college level.

Kumar (1988) aimed at studying the “Difference in Attitudes towards Non-Violence, Creativity and Conformity of the Scheduled Tribes and High Castes Students”. It was conducted on a sample of 400 students of Class X who were selected for correlation purposes. Another 100 students of the same class were selected for experimental purposes. The high castes students were found to be superior to the Scheduled Tribes students on verbal creativity and non-violence. Male students were superior to female students on verbal creativity and figural creativity.

Kumar (1989) selected the adjustment, attitudes, interests and levels of aspiration variables for his study. He concluded that the pattern of vocational interests among tribal and non-tribal students found in the study suggests certain trends with educational implications. There is a need to create interest among tribal students in science and technical subjects.

Das’s (1991) study showed that non Scheduled Tribes students were very high in respect to educational aspiration and vocational aspiration levels as compared to Scheduled Tribes students. Male students were found to be having a higher aspiration level than girl students.

Jain (1988) found that Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes adolescents were
comparatively less intelligent and emotionally more unstable, expedient and tense than upper-
classes students. The rural students, in general, were dominating, enthusiastic, happy-go-
lucky, and tough minded, circumspect and individualistic. Within the Scheduled Castes
groups girls were found to be better in their intellectual capacity.

A cross-cultural comparative study between “Tribals and Non-Tribals of First
Generation and Traditional Learners in Relation to their Social Maturity and Educational
Adjustment” was conducted by Agnihotri, C. S., 1991. He found the tradition of learning to
be a contributing factor to social maturity. The tribal group also had more problems of
emotional adjustment than the non-tribal group.

Sinha and Jha (1990) conducted a study of “Invariance of Mass and Number among
Tribal and Non-Tribal Children: Influence of Age, Sex, Culture and Habitation.” The sample
was drawn from tribals and non-tribals hailing from two groups (120 children from each
group), who were further equally divided into two sex groups, three age levels and two
habitations. For the conservation of mass, clay balls (250 gm.) were used, and for number
conservation, 14 (2.54 cm. × 2.54 cm.) wooden cubes were utilized. Ten questions were put
to the subjects. It was found that sex and culture did not affect the performance. The
performance of children of both groups was quite low. Maturation and environmental factors
were found to be complementary in the process of the growth of conservation concepts. The
performance on tasks related to mass was better than that on tasks related to number.

Warudkar (1988) attempted to identify barriers in the participation of Scheduled
Castes, Scheduled Tribes and women, in the national adult education program me. Thirty
adult education centers from nine colleges in seven tehsils in Dhule District were selected for
the study. The study showed that inconvenient time (late evening hours), improper physical
arrangement, lack of learning materials and use of the standard regional language instead of
the mother tongue/dialect were the main causes of non-participation of women and Scheduled
Castes and Scheduled Tribes learners.

Lakkamma (1990) studied the problems of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and
non-Scheduled Tribes high school girls in relation to their traditionalist-modernity. The
researcher found that the recreational problems of the non-Scheduled Tribes girls were more
than those of the Scheduled Castes girls and the Scheduled Castes girls had more such
problems than the Scheduled Tribes girls. The group of girls with high modernity had more
intense problems and the urban girls also had them more than the rural girls. The same was
the case with the girls with high traditionalist also.
Ramiah (1990) sought to relay self-concept to parental involvement in Class IX pupils and found the two to have a significant positive relationship, whereas Jain, N. (1989) studied self-esteem in adolescents in relation to family structure and parental behavior through a 2×2×4 factorial design. Joint family, parental support along with control, support rather than control and interaction of family structure and parental behavior contributed to self-esteem.

Bhatt (1987) conducted a more inclusive but culturally loaded study of alienation, dogmatism and self-image in relation to prolonged deprivation in Kumaoni and non-Kumaoni adolescents. Ultimately, thirty variables were studied and they showed many kinds of significant differences within each group, depending mainly on the extent of deprivation and between the two groups; surprisingly there were many similarities, too, especially in sexual attitude, morals, alienation and educational/economic goals. Deprivation seemed to cause alienation, dogmatism, confusion and poor emotional tone and social relationships, apart from low adaptability.

Jena (1989) found the invulnerable to be about as curious as the advantaged-competent, without the effect of memory; similarly, incompetence was associated with low curiosity, irrespective of disadvantage.

Hariharan (1991) found the invulnerable to have only limited damage from deprivation and stress, and to be prepared to face crisis and tackle problems; they showed healthy family relationships too.

Risk-taking fascinated Sharma (1989) searching for some cognitive and non-cognitive correlates, he found the high risk-taking to be outgoing, venturesome, tender-minded, assertive, low in frustration, happy-go-lucky, expedient, suspicious, apprehensive, experimenting, imaginative and forthright, whereas the low-risk-taking were intelligent, fast-learning, emotionally stable, humble, sober, exacting, controlled, withdrawing, tough-minded, trusting, practical, assertive, sedate and self-sufficient. He also found many differences by gender and S. E. S.

Konwar (1989) focused on personal achievement motivation along with socialization practices at home and school. Significant differences were found between boys and girls, the urban and rural, pairs of caste groups (SC, ST, OBC, and Caste Hindus), etc. The board socialization factors identified included individual achievement orientation and independence of behavior.

Biswa (1989) focused on frustration, exploring school-children’s reactions there to and testing a number of sets of hypotheses. While age, family structure and tension were found to have differential effect on the relation pattern, gender, locale, SES and school
climate made little difference.

Srivastava (1988) and Arunima (1989) were concerned with aggression. While the former studied aggression in adolescents in relation to self-concept, motivation and performance, the latter sought to make a “socio-psychological appraisal of aggression in children.” Srivastava (1988) found no significant correlation, except a curvilinear relationship between aggression and academic and non-academic performance. However, high aggression went with more frustration and behavior deviation and low aggression with lack of clear goals. Both found boys to be more aggressive than girls. Arunima (1989) reported association between high aggression in children and low education/income/occupational status of parents but not their aggression or spousal relations or in congenial childhood. Children of younger parents and larger families tended to be more aggressive-without class / caste differences.


Khatoon (1988) focused on personality patterns of high and low achievers among adolescents of Rohilkhand and, with a $2 \times 2 \times 2$ factorial design and ANOVA, found a few significant differences as well as main effects and interaction effects of gender and locality on achievement.

P. M. (1989) sought to compare children of orphanages with ‘normal children’ and found the latter superior in anxiety (lower), adjustment, self-concept and intelligence (with little difference after 16 years of age); gender, religion, etc., made little difference in both the groups.

Malhotra (1992) studied the impact of education on Nicobarese tribal life and adjustment at the post-doctoral level. This study examined the impact of modern education on the social, cultural, economic, political and religious life of the community, including its family structure and organization. The sample was drawn from 15 villages of Car Nicobar Island, which included tribal and non-tribal teachers. The data, collected through questionnaire, interview, observation schedule, Likert’s Attitude Scale and case studies, showed that the spread of education has brought about changes in the traditional occupations, in the cultural life, in Nicobarese language (dialect), and in their economy and political consciousness, and has also made them more receptive to new ideas.

Abrol’s (1987) study of constraints in the educability of three tribes-the Gaddies,
Gujjars and Bakerwals in the Jammu region- aimed at identifying the out-of-school and in-school constraints in the educability of tribal children as perceived by the community, the students and the teachers. The sample drawn from three districts consisted of 360 heads of tribal families, 499 tribal students and 252 teachers. The data was collected with the help of questionnaire and interview schedule. The results of the study showed that poverty, poor school facilities, parental apathy and inconvenient location of the school were the major constraints.

Ramana (1989), for his study titled, “Problems of Education among the Tribal Communities of Andhra Pradesh-A Case Study of Ashram Schools”, drew a sample of 187 students from six tribal Ashram schools together with their parents and 31 teachers. The study points out that the infrastructure of Ashram schools is poor, the teaching-learning process not satisfactory, and the absenteeism, stagnation and wastage are high. But the researcher found a perceptible impact of the Ashram school on local communities.

Ekka’s (1990) study, “Development of Tribal Education in Orissa after independence”, is a descriptive study which concentrated on issues related to educational facilities, enrolment, literacy, effectiveness of various welfare schemes and the overall educational development of tribals in Orissa. The study indicated heavy drop-out (73.48% at the primary and 84.11% at the upper-primary school stages), poor retention (12.44%) at the primary and 15.89% at the upper-primary level), and low literacy (13.50%). The researcher attributes the low level of education of tribals to their inability to derive benefits from various welfare measures planned for improving their education.

Biswal’s (1991) study was an attempt to study the indigenous educational training practices available in the tribal community with respect to their nature, scope, objectives and usefulness, and also the effectiveness of the developmental programmes undertaken for the tribal community. A cluster of six villages in the Niyamgiri-villages ranges, Koraput District of Orissa, which is predominantly inhabited by Dongria Kandhas, was selected for the study. The sample consisted of 50 students, 110 parents, 19 teachers, 60 adults, 30 nonschool goers, 20 officials and 225 households. The study identified various problem areas and suggested that educational development of the community needs to be emphasized so that their socio-economic condition, culture, agriculture, health, and life, in general, are enriched.

Panda (1992) worked out a socio-anthropological survey to study the functions, organization and impact of the tribal schools on the community. The study has come out with a comprehensive profile of the tribal’s living Koraput District. The results show that in spite of availability of various facilities like inexpensive hostels, provision of free textbooks,
uniforms, stationery, etc., these schools are not able to maintain a high retention rate and reduce the drop-out rate. The instructional activities in these schools were found to be monotonous and teacher-centered, which resulted in poor student performance at Class V level. Even the parents’ response to the functioning of the school and its relevance to the community was not positive.

Lalibeba (1986) attempted to identify the structural variables which impede the spread of formal education among the Scheduled Tribes, and also studied the educational problems of tribal children. A sample of 404 tribal students (195 middle levels, and 29 secondary levels) was drawn through stratified random sampling techniques from the junior high schools- and secondary schools of Chamoli. He found that tribal girls faced more difficulties than boys in doing their homework but were found to be more adjusted with teachers as compared to their male counterparts. The low achievement of tribal children was attributed to factors like educational backwardness, unfavorable attitude of parents towards education and lack of motivation.

Another study, the “Educational and Vocational Interest Patterns of Tribal Students and Their Relationship with Intelligence, Socio-Economic Status and Educational Achievement– A Descriptive Survey of Chander”, Prabhat (1990) conducted on 232 tribal students of high schools. The data, collected through Educational and Vocational Interest Inventory, Jalota’s General Mental Ability Test and Kaul’s (1985) Socio-Economic Status Scale, showed that tribal children were more interested in commerce and the medical stream, and less interested in home science and the arts stream as compared to tribal girls; high-intelligent students were found to be more interested in home science and less in commerce as compared to their counterparts in the low-intelligence group. The researcher noticed that high and low achievers did not differ significantly with regard to their educational interest patterns and also showed high scientific vocational interest. When children coming from families with high and low socio-economic status were compared, children with high socio-economic status were found to score high in music and teaching and less in mechanical and clerical vocational interests. The study suggests that more courses, including vocational courses, should be started in the schools situated in the tribal areas so that students could opt for subjects according to their interests. Vocational Guidance Bureaus may also be opened in tribal areas to find out the interests of students so that they could be guided accordingly.

Gaur (1990) studied the difference between the facilities available and facilities utilized by Scheduled Tribes students of various sub communities of the Scheduled Tribes in Rajasthan, between 1984 and 1987. The study was conducted on a sample of 400 Scheduled
Tribes students of Class VI who belonged to the Mina, Bhil, Garasia, Dainor, Baharia and Bhil Mina tribes. The researcher noticed that the enrolment in the ‘initial classes was high but was low in the subsequent classes. An important finding of the study was the existence of hardly any relationship between the school curriculum and the traditional occupation and culture of the tribal population. Only two-thirds and one-third of the facilities provided were being availed by Scheduled Tribes boys and girls, respectively.

Choubey (1991) compared personality factors, academic achievement and scholastic achievement of socially high and low deprived tribal youths of Rajasthan but did not find any difference in the personalities and academic adjustment of these two groups.

Majaw, Sister Julia Narayan (1991) attempted to ascertain the levels of education and other related factors including exploration of the differences between the drop-outs and non-drop-outs among the tribals of Meghalaya. She found that enrolment was the highest at the primary level and went on decreasing at the middle and high school levels. Though at the primary level the enrolment of boys exceeded that of girls, but it was higher at higher levels. The school was perceived as being more conducive to realization of their ambitions by urban children, boys and tribal children compared to rural children, girls and non-tribal children, respectively;

Santra (1991) focused on the “Self-perception. Parental Aspiration, Ability and School Achievement of Santhal Elementary School children studying in Classes I to V.” Children studying in the lower classes differed significantly from their counterparts in the higher classes in respect of self-concept, achievement-orientation and intelligence, but the parental life and aspiration were not found to be closely related with these psychological attributes though the self-concept of children was found to be significantly and positively correlated with their achievement-orientation. The study suggests that well-designed enrichment programmes are needed to improve the level of school achievement of Santhal children which is otherwise low.

Tripathy (1991) is a comparative study of the cognitive functioning, affective adjustment and academic achievement of Scheduled Tribes children attending special Ashram schools and integrated upper primary schools in Odisha. The study reveals that the tribal children in integrated schools showed a more field-independent cognitive style than the tribal children in tribal schools. No significant difference in terms of academic achievement was found among the three groups. Various factors like occupation, income, education of family, housing facilities and reading time available were found to be positively related to conservation and cognitive style and academic achievement. This study has implications for
educational planners as an increasing number of Ashram schools are being proposed by the states to improve tribal education. More in-depth studies of the academic and instructional programmes of Ashram schools and their relevance to increasing the achievement levels of the children are needed.

Pradhan’s (1991) study on “Meta-linguistic Competence of Schooled and Un schooled Tribal Children” was conducted on a sample of 120 subjects, with 40 children (20 schooled and 20 non-schooled) each of 7,9 and 11 years of age. The study showed that schooling promotes linguistic awareness in general and gives rise to 9 global constructs.

Talesra’s study (1988) is on “Tribals and Education : A Quest for Integration in the Regional Mainstream’, and was financed by ERIC, NCERT. The study aims at analysing the role of modern education in integrating tribals with the mainstream and also attempts to identify the regional-level areas in which integration of various tribal groups in Rajasthan is required. The study very rightly suggests that there is a need to develop an alternative model for tribal education, which should, on the one hand, help the tribals to preserve their ethnicity, and. On the other, speed up their integration with the regional society. Special courses oriented to technology rather than agriculture and a co-curricular package of activities should be made available to tribal students. The methodology of education in this context requires a wide structural transformation.

Bisaria’s (1991) work on “Need-Based Ecologically Determined and Change Oriented System of Education for a Group of Tribals-the Gaddis of Himachal Pradesh” is a probe into the overall background of the search for alternative systems of education for the tribal population in order to build the educational circle with concentric force applied on diversities for nation-building. The study was carried out in the Chamba and Kangra Districts of Himachal Pradesh. It was found that their culture is undergoing radical transformation under the impact of the dominant culture and the media, and the speed of change is rather fast. Agriculture is no more rewarding for them for many reasons, lack of tradition being one of them, and the next generation is trying to move on to the cities.

A study of “Home Background and Selected Psychological, Vocational Planning Variables of Tribal High School Students in and around Shillong” of Mehta and Jain (1989) is the only study available in the area of educational and career guidance for the tribal population. A sample of 338 Class XI tribal and non-tribal students (boys and girls) from rural and urban areas was selected for the purpose of the study. The study did not indicate much difference between tribal and non-tribal students of Meghalaya in terms of background and vocational planning characteristics but on general mental ability, socio-economic status
and academic achievements, tribal students were slightly inferior to their non-tribal counterparts. As compared to non-tribal girls and boys and tribal boys, tribal girls were found to be more independent in their job values. The basic reason lay in the nature of their society being a matriarchic society. The parents and siblings of such children play a significant role in their educational and vocational planning.

Gaur (1989) completed an ERIC-financed status survey of the special facilities given by the government for the educational upliftment of the tribal population, and it investigated the attitude of teachers and guardians towards this endeavour. The analysis of information showed that the special facilities provided by the government do influence the educational development of tribal children. The teachers covered by the study felt that vacations if declared to coincide with the harvesting season will bring down the absenteeism in the schools. They also advocated training in self-employment for all tribal students and medical facilities for ailing tribal students.

Awasthi (1987) in his study on the “Relationship between Education of Scheduled Tribes and Their Socio-Economic Mobility”, selected the sample from Munda, Oraon and Kharia tribes of the Ranchi and Gumla Districts of Bihar. He found that the socio-economic mobility in the Scheduled Tribes increases with the spread of education.

Shah (1989) explored the educational problems of tribal students and also studied their educational aspirations and achievement motivation. The sample comprised 221 tribal and 116 non-tribal students of Classes VI-XII in Chamoli District. She found that senior basic level tribal students of general schools had more adjustment problems with their teachers as compared to their tribal counterparts. The rate of wastage and stagnation was significantly higher in the tribal group. The facilities in the special tribal schools were also better than those in general schools. One significant finding was that the scholarship money received by the students was being spent by the parents on their higher studies. These findings should be taken into account while planning education for tribal children.

Lata (1992), entitled “Academic Achievements of the Tribal and Non-Tribal Pupils of Ranchi City”, was aimed at exploring the relationship between the secondary school curriculum and the pupils. A sample of 400 respondents was drawn through the stratified random sampling method from 12 senior schools of Ranchi. (The total number of senior schools in Ranchi was 24). The tribal group consisted of 100 boys and 100 girls, and the non-tribal group also had the same composition. When compared the two groups showed intra-culture and inter-culture variations in their scholastic achievement. An important finding of the study was that the operating factors behind the scholastic attainments are both cultural
and school-environment factors, which are mutually exclusive.

“A study of the Missing Tribe of Assam : Some Aspects of Their Primary and Secondary Education” was conducted by Rehman (1989). This study addressed itself to the issues of enrolment and drop-out and the relationship between the appointment of teachers and the teacher-student ratio. A sample of 500 families was selected from nine villages of upper Assam selected randomly, and the head of each family was interviewed. The study found that poverty, lack of infrastructure and illiteracy among parents are the main causes of the low enrolment of tribal children in schools. Many students from the tribal community drop-out between the primary and secondary levels and between secondary and college levels. About 22% of the posts primary school-teachers had also not been filled in.

Das’s (1991) study on “Innovative Education in Remote Tribal Blocks : A Search for Contents and Methods” is an innovation which has been carried out through Agragamee in Orissa. It is an experiment in development of education, attempting a pattern of education in the tribal regions of Orissa with community ownership and participation. In these areas, tribal children do not have any access to education and the literacy rate remains abnormally low. The study suggests that community involvement, inculcation of skills, co-curricular activities, local teachers, flexible school timings, teacher training programmes conducted on a regular basis, and an effective supervision are helpful in promoting tribal education. The research studies mentioned above do not cover all aspects of tribal education. There is a need to identify gaps in these researches so that some more researches could be taken up in future.

Mishra (1990) studied the Status of Harijans in Tribal and Caste Context. The study attempted a comparative evaluation of the status of Harijans (Patna and Banda) in two sub-central regions of Orissa. The study showed that the status of Harijans has changed towards some respectability; they no longer suffer from humiliation, nor are they treated with contempt by their Savarna neighbors in the interactional settings in public life. This could be the cumulative effort of the government and non-government efforts to bring about equality in our society, which is very encouraging. But the results of this study could not be generalized as the study was confined to only two villages.

Bej (1991) conducted a descriptive survey of the general intelligence and creativity of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes students on a sample of 492 students (246 Scheduled Castes and 246 Scheduled Tribes, including boys and girls) of Classes V-VII. Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes students of the higher classes were found to be superior to their counterparts in the lower classes on both the dimensions. Scheduled Castes students were found to be superior to their Scheduled Tribes counterparts in creativity but these two groups
did not differ with each other in terms of general intelligence. This could be attributed to the social environment of the Scheduled Castes students.

Another study titled as “Frustration Tolerance Among Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Students with Reference to Some Personal, Educational and Family Related Variables” was conducted by Manharlal (1992). He found that boys were more confirmative than girls, and all those Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes students whose father’s educational qualification was higher than SSC were more confirmative than their counterparts. He also compared the various groups with each other on other variables.

Elangovan (1989) attempted to study the problems faced by the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in pursuing their higher studies. He found that the factors related to teachers, parents, community, students and economic status, and also other factors come in the way of their academic career. The students did not perceive their teachers to be sympathetic to them at all. They also felt that communal clashes in colleges and hostels and late receipt of scholarships are some examples of the various constraints that they have to face.

A cross-cultural study of “Reasoning among Socially Disadvantaged Groups of Children of O-14 Years” was done by Bhat (1992). As a sample 372 Scheduled Castes (8 to 14 years) and 178 Scheduled Tribes (9-14 years) children studying in Classes III-IX were selected for the study. A Piagetian paper pencil test and Menon’s (1988) test of process of scientific inquiry were used. He found that the children of both the disadvantaged groups were lagging behind in logical reasoning abilities but Scheduled Castes boys seemed to be generally ahead of Scheduled Castes girls in this regard. This was not true for the Scheduled Tribes group.

Bhargava (1988) did a sample study of educational facilities for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in Rajasthan. The study was confined to two districts of Rajasthan, i.e., Bharatpur and Dungarpur. A set of four tools was used to collect information. He found that in spite of the availability of various facilities, participation of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes children in general and a girl in particular was very low.

Sachchidananda and Sinha (1989) conducted a study of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes with a view to find out how the educational facilities have been used by the target groups and what types of problems are faced by them in the process of education. A questionnaire was used to collect information. The study suggested reframing of the strategy for the education of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, diverting 50% of the scholarship amount for strengthening school education, making appointments of teachers
from the same community in case the school population has more Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes students, ensuring availability of facilities to the most disadvantaged ones, and laying emphasis on education of the educationally most disadvantaged communities. The study is now available in the form of a book.

Sharma (1991) studied the adjustment problems of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes by selecting a sample of 100 Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes boys and 100 Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes girls of Udaipur. Questionnaire and Personal Adjustment were used to collect the data. The study revealed that girls, and not boys, face adjustment problems in the emotional and academic fields.

Symonds (1939) stressed in his study that a rejected and over anxious child is likely to become more aggressive and hostile and may resort to truancy lying and stealing.

Baldwin (1949) conducted a study on school children to study their home atmosphere and it is impact on child behavior and concluded that children from democratic homes were more outgoing, active, competitive, resourceful and hence less stressed and frustrated.

Anthony (1970) noted that the behavioral problems of adolescents like jealousy, bullying teasing, are the result of sibling frustration.

Mithal (1975) in his study found that the frustrated students expressed their aggressive mainly towards the external environment or towards self.

Balbir (1987) studied that over chosen children are less frustrated. They possess a power of abstract thinking and socially desirable traits. They possess a power of abstract thinking and socially desirable traits. They are emotionally stable, most zestful and like group action. They are adjustable and submissive. Under chosen students possess socially undesirable traits. They are affected by feeling emotionally stable. In order to get attention they become aggressive, stubborn and dominant.

Yeaman (1994) in her study described the pervasive stress on school campuses. The data showed that the resilient subject experienced less pressure – overload, anger frustration, anxiety and depression than either average or vulnerable groups. Male and females were not found to differ with regard to pressure – overload, anger frustration, anxiety levels anxiety, stressor magnitude, health distress, social support and philosophical spiritual resources.

Prochnau (1998) in their qualitative study revealed, personal hardships accompanied palliative care practice in the form of feelings such as sadness, frustration and anxiety and even developed into stress and loss of control. Coping with such difficulties was accomplished through self-expression, self-nurturance, laminating relationships, control taking and rationalizing.
Monaco (1999) indicates that marital discord, disruption of family social life, frustration and financial strain commonly result for the stress OCD (obsessive Compulsive Disorder) places on the family. Regression analysis indicated or depression. Denial or disengagement coping strategies mediated the relationship between psychological adjustment variables and hope.

Chadha (2003) in her study concluded that psycho-social correlates the anxiety, achievement, adjustment anfamily environment contribute to 97% of the frustration in students of professional schools. She at different significant differences among the students of professional schools at different levels of frustration with respect to the above predictor.


Dill & Anderson (1995) in their research on Effects of Frustration Justification on Hostile Aggression. The study tested Berkowitz’ reformulation of the frustration-aggression hypothesis which states that any negative or aversive stimulus such as frustration, even if justified, will result in some measurable tendency to aggress. Participants’ attainment of an expected gratification was blocked in an unjustified manner, blocked in a justified manner, or not blocked at all. Degree of hostile aggression directed at the frustrating individual was measured. As predicted, justified frustration produced less hostile aggression than unjustified frustration, but even justified frustration produced more hostile aggression than non-frustration at all. Results support Berkowitz’ frustration-aggression reformation.

Wilde (2012) studied the relationship between frustration tolerance and academic achievement in college. This study involving 105 undergraduate students aimed to investigate the relationship between frustration tolerance and academic achievement. Frustration Discomfort Scale was used which was divided into four subscales (a) discomfort intolerance, (b) entitlement, (c) emotional intolerance, (d) achievement frustration. Multiple linear regression indicated that three of the four subscales i.e. entitlement, emotional intolerance and achievement frustration were statistically significant. Only discomfort intolerance failed to reach statistical significance. The best single predictor of grade point average was achievement frustration. It was observed that second best predictor of grade point average was emotional intolerance. It was revealed that students who had lower scores on the frustration discomfort scale had a higher overall college grade point average.

Anitei et al. (2013) studied the influence of fatigue on impulsiveness, aspiration level, and performance motivation and frustration tolerance among young Romanian psychological students. It was hypothesized that fatigue has a statistical significant influence on exactitude
level, decisiveness, impulsivity level, performance level, aspiration level and tolerance to frustration among young Romanian psychological students. Participants were 60 undergraduate students from the Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences, 30 undergraduate students were sleep deprived 24 hours and 30 undergraduate students were having their normal sleeping hours, and aged between 18 to 23 years old. Findings showed that fatigue had a statistically significant influence on performance level among young Romanian psychological students and also had a statistically significant on tolerance to frustration among young Romanian psychological students. Mean difference was also obtained between the control group and experimental group. The experimental sleep deprived group had a lower performance mean by a statistically significant margin than the control group showing that the experimental group could not achieve better performance than the control group. The tolerance to frustration mean is higher by a statistically significant margin for experimental group than the control group.

Dragomir et al. (2011) examined adolescents’ frustration tolerance for violence-based films. This study aimed at comparing the frustration tolerance of criminal adolescents as well as non-criminal ones, participants in the research. It also attempted to compare the variance of frustration tolerance in terms of index of group conformity and overall tendencies for different categories of adolescents, criminal or non-criminal, after watching violence-based movies. The implementation of the ANOVA comparison test had revealed a significant difference in the frustration tolerance between the group of criminal young males and the groups of young males aged 14. Significant statistical differences were also found in the frustration tolerance between the group made up of criminal young males and the group consisting of young males aged 16. The group of young males aged 14 and aged 16 differed significantly in their frustration tolerance. The criminal adolescents’ frustration tolerance was significantly lower in comparison with non-criminal adolescents. It was observed that watching the movies had not only lowered frustration tolerance but it had also strengthened it due to catharsis.

Shirotriya and Singh (2012) studied the intervention on occupational stress and frustration tolerance of physical education teachers working in public schools at Delhi and NCR. It was hypothesized that there would be high occupational stress and low frustration tolerance of physical education teachers. The sample comprised of 125 qualified physical education teachers (86 males and 39 females) of Delhi and NCR. Sample was selected through purposive sampling from various public schools. The age of the subjects were ranging from 23 to 25 years. Descriptive statistics and percentages were applied to test the
research hypotheses. The findings indicated that large member of selected sample of physical education teacher suffer with high occupational stress and low frustration tolerance.

Kaur (2014) studied frustration as a means of blocks in the way to goal. According to her frustration can be classified into two categories, i.e. frustration as a state of an organism and frustration as a hypothetical construct. Most of them however agree in emphasizing the role of interference.

Labonte et al. (2011) tried to identify the public health interventions or components of these interventions that are effective in reducing morbidity or mortality rates and reducing risks of ill health among ST populations in India, in order to inform policy and to identify important research gaps.

Yao (2010) studied on “Effect of different stress stimulation on Frustration Tolerance of female college students with different temperament”. The results showed that frustration Tolerance of female college students with phlegm temperament significantly increased with increasing stress stimulation. Frustration tolerance of female college students with choleric temperament, sanguine temperament and melancholic temperament varied with increasing stress stimulation, but the difference was not significant.

Dave (2013) investigated on Construction and Tryouts of Frustration Inventory for the Students of Secondary School. The major findings are the effect of gender was not found on frustration of students of secondary schools. It means that gender does not create effect on frustration. The present study finds out the level of reactions to frustration faced by the students in Shillong.

Frustration tolerance of female college students with choleric temperament and sanguine temperament increased rapidly under high-intensity stress stimulation. Frustration tolerance of female college students with melancholic temperament showed U-shape under different levels of stress stimulation.

Bajwa, Kang et al. (2012) conducted a study on Frustration Tolerance among Adolescents and results revealed that most of the respondents possessed low frustration tolerance and a very few adolescent respondents showed high frustration tolerance.