Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Man is a unique creature in the universe that is perpetually progressive and dynamic for harmonious adjustment with the environment. This adjustment is multidimensional coping system with environment. All the time this adjustment does not result in fruitful outcome and while adjusting individuals develop stress to cope with the situation. In contemporary modern time stress is conceptually protagonist of ill health and poor sense. Researches found strong correlation between stress, anxiety and academic performance of students. However, stress is not always disadvantageous for performing health and adjustment of man. Sometimes, stress named Eustress helps the man to get motivated and reach the goal. In modern society stress in making man affected in all the domains of its performances.

Homeostasis is conceptually central to the idea of stress. There are many perception of stress regarding well being of Students. In biology, most biochemical processes try to maintain equilibrium, a steady state that exists more as an ideal and less as an achievable condition. In Behaviour approach, Environmental factors, internal or external stimuli, perpetually disrupt and dysfunctionalize homeostasis of
an organism from equilibrium state of well being. Factors causing an organism’s condition to waver away from homeostasis can be interpreted as stress. A life threatening situation such as a physical insult or prolonged starvation can greatly disrupt homeostasis. On the other hand, an organism’s effortful attempt at restoring condition back or near to reach the status of homeostasis often times by consuming energy and natural resources can also be interpreted as stress. In such instances, an organism’s fight-or-flight response recreates the body’s energy store and focuses attention to overcome the challenge in hand. The ambiguity in defining this phenomenon was first recognized by Selye (1978), who loosely defined stress as something that “…. in addition to being itself, was also the cause of itself and the result of itself.” Selye used the term stress in biological context and defined stress as ” The nonspecific response of the body to any demand placed upon it.”

The brain plays a critical role in the body’s perception of and response to stress. However, pinpointing exactly which regions of the brain are responsible for particular aspects of stress response is difficult and unclear. Understanding that the brain works in more of a network like fashion carrying information about a stressful situation across regions of the brain (from cortical sensory areas to more basal structure and vice-versa) can help explain how stress and its negative consequence are heavily rooted in neural communication dysfunction.(Hans Selye, 1978)

Human’s fight or flight response of human body is the process of sympathetic nervous system enacting to a stressful event. Human body produces larger quantities of the chemical cortiles; adrenaline and nor-adrenaline, which trigger high heart rate, heightened muscles preparedness, surfing. All these factors help man protect himself in a dangerous or challenging situation.

There is a discrepancy between Environmental Demand and Perceptual response of an individual’s arousal of stress. When environmental factors become insolvent by an Individual it results into frustration and stress. Stress can be the result of "good changes" as well as "unexpected bad changes" in the life of an Individual, both works as stressors for an Individual. Stress is an exited state of mind of any organism, which is catalysis in both for combating of any environmental demand or
distancing from the realm of realism to the broken construct of Human being. (Hans Selye, 1978)

1.1.1 Biological Aspects of Stress

*Selye* (1978), defined stress as a biological response: “the state manifested by a specific syndrome which consists of all the non-specifically-induced changes within a biologic system” (p.64). He defined stress as an adaptive or defensive reaction to an event or stimulus. In his studies he labeled the defense reaction or body’s response to stress as the General Adaptation Syndrome (G.A.S.), which has three stages: the alarm reaction (A.R.), the alarm resistance (A.R.), and the stage of exhaustion (S.E.). The alarm reaction is a physiological response for alerting the defensive forces in the organism. In this stage, blood is diverted toward the skeletal muscles in order to prepare them for action. If the stress exposure remains, the stage of resistance or adaptation will follow. According to Selye, this stage is quite different or sometimes the opposite of the alarm reaction. The longer this stage lasts the greater the danger to the person. If an individual accepts the source of stress as a necessary part of life, the stressor may persist indefinitely. The person then gradually becomes more susceptible to a wide range of stress-related problems and diseases, such as headaches, hypertension, and cardiovascular disease (*Magill*, 1993).

*Rice* (1999) found in his study that with quantitatively long-term stress exposure; the individual will enter into the third stage, the stage of exhaustion. If the stressor is extremely intense and persists over a long period of time, the exhaustion stage sets in, and the risk of emotional and physical problems increases. In this stage, the individual experiences symptoms of exhaustion, such as loss of morale and feelings of loss of control and a final collapse will occur.

The precise nature of the source of stress is unimportant, in Selye’s system, as the physiological stress response does not depend on the nature of the stressor. *Selye* believed that if the event is stressful for individuals, the individuals’ bodily reaction remains the same as the G.A.S stage. His opinion largely ignored psychosocial factors, however, including the emotional component as well as individual interpretation of stressful events.
Stress is defined as an organism’s total response to an environmental phenomena or stimulus, also known as a stressor. Stress typically describes a negative condition that can have an impact on an organism’s mental and physical well-being. In the 1920s and 1930s; Stress was occasionally being used in biological and psychological circles to refer to a mental strain or a harmful environmental agent that could cause illness. Cannon (1926), defined stress to refer to external factors that disrupted what he called homeostasis, a concept central to the idea of stress, a biochemical process strive to maintain equilibrium, an ideal state for mind. Environmental factors, internal or external stimuli, continually disrupt homeostasis; an organism’s present condition is a state in constant flux moving about a homeostatic point that is that organism’s optimal condition for living. Factors causing an organism’s condition to diverge too far from homeostasis can be interpreted as stress. A life-threatening situation such as a physical insult or prolonged starvation can greatly disrupt homeostasis. In such instances, an organism’s fight-or-flight response recruits the body’s energy stores and focuses attention to overcome the challenge at hand.

1.1.1 (1) Concepts of Eustress and Distress

Selye (1956) divided stress into eustress and distress. Eustress is the good stress that motivates an individual to continue, means beneficial stress either psychological, physical or biochemical/radiological (hormesis). The term was coined by endocrinologist Selye, consisting of the Greek prefix eu- meaning "good", and stress, literally meaning "good stress". Stress is a function of physical or mental strength training for challenging work is considered eustress. Eutress is positive motivator for the individual. The characteristics of Eustress are it motivates, utilizes energy for success, it improves performance, etc. In contrast, Distress, a negative stress, has characteristics like: it Causes anxiety, it always perceives outside of coping abilities, it gives an unpleasant feeling and it decreases the performance of an individual Prolonged Distress may result in Depression.

1.1.2 Cognitive Concept of Stress

Lazarus & Folkman (1984) proposed theoretical background for cognitive aspect of stress. An individual’s perception of an event is a direct result of his
cognitive appraisal of the event and his way of perception of his environmental phenomena. Two cognitive processes, appraisal and coping, are important to the person and his environmental transaction. From this point of view, According to 

Lazarus (1999), “cognitive appraisal is a process of either consciously or unconsciously evaluating one’s performance whilst interacting with the environment”. According to Lazarus & Folkman (1984), cognitive appraisal or cognitive perception is the evaluative process used by the individual to determine why and to what extent a particular transaction or series of person-environment transactions results in stress. Simultaneously, cognitive appraisal is also a process through which an individual evaluates and manages his environment and his emotional and behavioral responses. The perceived demands and pressures produced within these ongoing interactions may result in varying levels of stress for many individuals. The individual’s response to such perceived stresses can also vary greatly. For example, one person may respond with anger, another with anxiety, and still another feel challenged to engage and interact in a more constructive manner. Lazarus (1999), proposed that increasing levels of dysfunctional stress occur when an individual perceives that they do not have the necessary interpersonal and physical resources for successful negotiation or to cope with the demands or pressures emanating from the environment. From Lazarus’s (1999) interpretation, cognitive appraisal of the situation is an important factor within the stress situation. Lazarus & Folkman (1984) considered cognitive appraisal essential for understanding stress for two reasons, first to understand various factors among individuals under an event and the factors affecting this interaction, and secondly to distinguish between benign and dangerous situations in which individuals survive and flourish. Before proceeding, some appraisal-related terminologies in the cognitive appraisal of stress should be clarified. Lazarus (1999) described three types of cognitive appraisals - primary, secondary and reappraisal - that individuals use to evaluate their situation. Primary appraisal is an evaluation of what is at stake. Primary appraisal describes the way people evaluate a potentially stressful situation in relation to their own goal commitments, values, beliefs about self and the world, and situational intentions. Goal commitment has been found to be a stronger factor influencing on action than values (Lazarus, 1999). One can have values without acting in their interest, but the term goal commitment refers to the fact
that an individual will attempt to attain a goal. If there is no goal commitment, a stress reaction will not occur because there is nothing of adaptation importance to interrupt the individual’s routine. In contrast, if an individual perceives a situation as harmful, threatening or challenging, stress and its related emotions will occur. Lazarus (1999), concluded that as a result, when the condition of stress is occurring, an individual would make an appraisal. Lazarus & Folkman (1984), have distinguished three kinds of primary appraisal namely: irrelevant, benign-positive, and stressful. Irrelevant appraisal is the transaction that carries no implication for an individual’s well-being. In this kind of appraisal, individuals have nothing to lose or gain. Benign-positive appraisal occurs when the outcome of an encounter is perceived as a positive or pleasurable emotion such as joy, love, happiness, or peacefulness. Stressful appraisals include loss, threat, and challenge. Damage to an individual may be sustained in a situation of harm/loss, such as in debilitating injury or illness, recognition of social esteem damage, or loss of a loved or valued person. Threats to central and extensive goal commitment are the most damaging life events for individuals. Threat and challenge focused on the future: those individuals have uncertainty about what will happen. According to Lazarus (1999), threat and challenge can occur in the same situation or in a continuing relationship, and the more individuals are confident in overcoming obstacles and dangers, the more likely they are to feel challenged rather than threatened. Threat appraisal is different from harm/loss appraisal as it permits anticipatory coping and threat concerns harm/losses that have not yet taken place (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Threat is characterized by negative emotions such as fear, anxiety, and anger. Furthermore, threat has an important inference for adaptation. Challenge appraisal is different from threat in that it is characterized by pleasurable emotions such as eagerness, excitement, and exhilaration. Moreover, challenge has important implications for adaptation. Lazarus & Folkman (1984) pointed out that challenged individuals are more likely to have better morale as they feel confident about demanding encounters. Threat or challenge varies greatly according to situational demands, constraints, and opportunities, which individuals are able to recognize. Secondary appraisal refers to the cognitive-evaluative process in which individuals evaluate their resources for dealing with a stressful person/environment. Secondary appraisal also includes an evaluation of the likelihood
that a given coping option will result in the satisfaction of that desire, as well as the likelihood that the individual can apply effective strategies (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). On this context, Magill (1993) indicated that individuals would determine their ability to control or cope with the new situation by examining potential options for dealing with an event. Secondary appraisal may occur during or after primary appraisal. It is not necessary that primary appraisal come first as it operates independently of secondary appraisal. According to Zohar & Dayan (1999), both primary and secondary appraisal can exert a moderate effect on positive and negative moods. After primary and secondary appraisals are exerted, reappraisal will occur. Reappraisal is the process of evaluating the stress potential of a situation based on new information. The result of this process may resist or nourish the pressures felt by individual. This can lead to an increase or decrease in stress. Coping is the second cognitive process that Lazarus & Folkman (1984) described in their concept of stress. The concept of coping will be explained in more detail in the later stage of this chapter. The psychological approach to stress from Lazarus & Folkman (1984) focused on cognitive appraisal of the situation as the most important factor. They argued that an individual’s perception of an event plays a major role in the stress response. Individual perception is a combination of the perception of a threatening/challenging event and their perceived ability to cope with that event. This theory is similar to that of Cox (1987). According to these authors, stress is a dynamic system of interaction between the individual and their environment. Cox (1987) defined stress as a perceptual phenomenon arising when an individual assesses the demand to the situation in relation to their ability to cope. From this point of view, when perceived imbalance in this comparison occurs, an experience of stress and a stress response will occur. If the coping is effective, the stress should be reduced. In contrast, if coping is ineffective, a prolonged exposure to stress will occur and may lead to functional damage. Cox’s system (1987), comprised five stages of stress as individuals have psychological and physical needs; the first stage is embodied by the sources of demand related to the individual and their environment. The fulfillment of these needs is important to determining behavior. If there is an imbalance between the individuals’ perceived demand and the individual’s perception of their ability to meet this demand, the second stage of stress arises. In this stage, cognitive appraisal plays a
crucial role as it does in Lazarus and Folkman’s theory (1984). If the individual has high demand and they can cope with it, they will not be stressed. If the individual has high demand and they perceive a limitation of their ability, then stress arises. For example, the stress may arise if the individuals’ life style fails to match their aspirations. In the third stage, the response will be accompanied by physical, cognitive, and behavioral changes in an attempt to reduce the stressful nature of the demand. The fourth stage involves coping responses. Ineffective or inappropriate coping strategies may increase the experience of stress. The authors suggested that occurrences of prolonged or severe stress are often accompanied by functional and structural damage. Feedback is the fifth and last stage in this stress system. Feedback is an effective way of shaping the outcome at each of these stages and feedback will occur to all other stages in the stress system.

Cox & Mackay’s (1987), stress model focused on the imbalance between the perceived demand and perceived capability to cope with situations. They also emphasized cognitive appraisal, similarly to the stress system offered by Lazarus & Folkman (1984).

The view of stress from both Cox (1987) and Lazarus & Folkman (1984) focuses on the concept of demand. A demand in their point of view means a request or requirement for physical or mental action, and implies some time constraint (Cox, 1987). A demand is an important concept and as Cox (1987) pointed out, stress may arise when there is an imbalance between the perceived demand and the person’s perception of his capability to meet that demand.

1.1.3 Social Aspects of Stress

Slavin, Rainer, McCreary & Gowda (1991) defined the cognitive appraisal theory of Lazarus & Folkman (1984) into a social stress theory by proposing a multicultural model of stress. Slavin et al. (1991) pointed out that the Lazarus & Folkman’s (1984) theory reflected a white or Euro-centric cultural bias in its basic assumptions by emphasizing individual goals and achievements. In contrast, other cultures focus on harmony and the well-being of the family, tribe, or group. Slavin et al. (1991) explained that there are four ways that the cultural group affects the nature and frequency of certain stressors. Firstly, being a member of a minority group can
increase the frequency of stressful events. Secondly, a member of oppressed groups has an increased likelihood of experiencing acts of discrimination. For example, gay students may be discriminated by their friends, family, and community. Thirdly, those who are of lower socio-economic status, poor, or lack political power face greater stress than advantaged groups due to monetary and lifestyle restraints. Finally, a social costume unique to the person’s culture can result in prolonged perceived threat of discrimination, and the stressful conditions of poverty and racism can lead to a chronic state of hyper-attention and hyper-sensitivity to events. This model is offered as an extension to the cognitive appraisal theory, and may be useful in terms of conceptualizing the individual’s interpretation of stressful events in relation to socio-cultural factors.

To sum up, Selye (1978) clearly focused on stress as a biological response of an individual to a wide range of stimuli. Selye (1978), emphasized the non-specific nature of the stress response. In Selye’s system, the precise nature of the source of stress is unimportant, as the physiological stress response does not depend on the nature of the stressor. The psychological approach to stress is best represented by the work of Lazarus & Folkman (1984). They claimed that cognitive appraisal is the key to stress responses. Lazarus & Folkman (1984) argued that it is the individual’s perception of an event that plays a major role in the stress response. Individual perception is a combination of the perception of threatening events and the perceived ability to cope with that event. Slavin et al. (1991), extended the cognitive appraisal theory into a social stress theory by proposing a multicultural model of stress. They suggested that membership of cultural groups can affect the nature and frequency of certain stressors and that a member of an oppressed groups has an increased likelihood of experiencing acts of discrimination. Also, those of lower socio-economic status, or who lack political power, or have social costumes unique to the person’s culture, can have alternative forms of stress coping.

1.1.4 Physiological Effects of Stress

Stress can also be seen as exerting a positive effect in terms of being a motivational force for individuals in meeting new challenges. However, persistently high and unrelieved stress can lead to physical ill health (Sordi, 2004). Selye’s (1978)
concept of stress strongly supports the proposal that stress could be involved in a variety of physical illnesses. Indeed, the literature does provide strong empirical support for Selye’s stress concept (e.g., Waldie, 2001; Sordi, 2004). According to Sordi (2004), both direct stress and indirect stress influence physical health outcomes. Directly, stress can impact on the functioning of the nervous, and the immune systems. Indirectly, high levels of stress can lead to other health risk behaviors such as smoking, and alcohol use.

The studies suggest that stress is the most frequently identified cause of tension-type headaches, particularly when a high number of minor, everyday stressors have been identified. For example, a study from Degges-White, Myers, Adelman & Pastoor (2003), found that high levels of stress are associated with headache problems. Degges-White et al. (2003), studied the differences between the perceived stress of a clinical headache patient group and a norm group. Not surprisingly, the results indicated that the clinical participants reported greater levels of perceived stress than the norm group. However, the study could not demonstrate directionality that is, whether stress caused the headaches or whether the headaches caused the stress.

A study from Reynolds et al. (2001), supported the hypothesis that headaches are a common outcome of stress. Reynolds and colleagues examined the impact of stressful life experience on low-income urban youth. The results indicated that heightened rates of stressful life experiences were associated with heightened rates of somatic complaints among low-income urban youth. The results also indicated that the most frequently endorsed somatic symptom in this group was headaches and stomachaches. In addition, a longitudinal cohort study from Waldie (2001), has found further support for the relationship between stress and headache problems.

Waldie (2001) suggested that headaches in childhood were a risk factor for headaches and migraines in adolescent and young adulthood. Due to Waldie’s (2001), longitudinal design, this study supported a multidirectional relationship in which stress causes headaches and vice versa, which previous cross-sectional studies could not sustain.
Infectious disease is another illness, which affects people who are under stress. Stone, Reed, & Neale (1987), supported the hypothesis that stressful life events are related to infectious illness. These authors studied the relationship between daily events and physical symptoms. The results indicated that a stressful life event often predicted infectious illness. In addition, many authors have proposed that life stress is positively associated with common colds and upper respiratory illness (e.g., Cohen, Frank, Doyle, Skoner, & Rabin, 1998; Reid, Mackinnon, & Drummond, 2001). For example, a study of stressors that increase susceptibility to the common cold in healthy adults by Cohen et al. (1998) indicated that severe chronic stressors were associated with a substantial increase in risk of upper respiratory diseases. Based on a sample of 276 volunteers (125 men and 151 women) who were required to be free of disease based on examination and laboratory testing, participants had to return to the hospital at both 4 and 5 weeks after screening to have a variety of assessments, (i.e., blood draw for assessment of cell activity and antibody to the challenge virus, the Bedford College Life Events and Difficulties Schedule questionnaires; (Brown & Harris, 1989; Harris, 1991). It has been found that the participants who reported chronic stress were more likely to have a greater susceptibility to common colds. Moreover, there were some indications that the longer the duration of stressor, the greater the risk for colds.

Research has suggested that direct stress, as well as an interaction between stress and risky health behaviors can lead to severe physical illnesses such as cardiovascular disease (Sordi, 2004). Byrne (2000), found in his research that, a combination of smoking and stress elevates cardiovascular disease to a degree greater than either smoking or stress alone. Thus, the risks of physiological stress outcomes are greater when combined with negative health behaviors.

Dinan (2001) suggested that depression was a common outcome from chronic stress and can lead to cardiovascular disease, as well as a 4-5 fold increase in the risk of myocardial infarction. Moreover, Sharpley & Scuderi (1990) reported that subjects with high levels of stress were at risk of developing atherosclerosis. Several studies have indicated that there is a strong relationship between stress and disease. Stress plays a major role in the development and recovery from several physical illnesses including headaches, common cold, and cardiovascular disease. There are both direct
and indirect stress influences, which can produce disease. Direct stress effects occur through the effects of stress on the nervous, endocrine, and the immune system. Indirect effects occur through the development of health risk behaviors and lifestyle.

### 1.1.5 Psychological Effects of Stress

Many studies show that stress can negatively affect psychological well-being (e.g., *Hong & Chongde, 2003; Lange & Byrd, 1998*). A study conducted by *Hong & Chongde* (2003), successfully tested the hypothesis that stress can have a negative affect on psychological well-being. *Hong & Chongde* (2003), further studied the impact of college stress on psychological well-being (academic hassles, personal hassles, and negative life events and confirmed that college stress was inversely related to psychological well-being. Remarkable study on the similar area was conducted by *Lange & Byrd* (1998), who found that financial distress, one of the major stressors for university students, was negatively related to psychological well-being. *Lange & Byrd* (1998) examined the relationship between university students’ levels of daily financial stress, chronic financial strain, perceived levels of financial understanding and control, and their perceived levels of psychological well-being. The results showed that the level of daily financial stress was associated with individuals’ perceptions of manage-ability and internal control regarding their financial situation. These factors, in turn, directly influenced the students’ levels of psychological well-being. Moreover, chronic financial strain had been shown to have related to students’ psychological well-being. Although the results of this study focus on current financial situations that affect student well-being, it should be noted that students often have long-term financial concerns.

On other hand *Beasley et al. (2002)*, indicated that negative life events directly affected psychological well-being. The relationship between negative life events or traumatic events (life stress) and psychological and somatic distress has been tested significantly. The results clearly supported a significant association between the negative life events and psychological symptoms.

To sum up, an individual perception of an adverse event is very important in relation to stress. This perception involves a combination of the individual’s
perception of the adverse event and their ability to cope with this event. Stress will occur when individuals perceive that they have not enough ability to cope with the situation. As a result, the symptoms of emotional (psychological) stress, such as anxiety, depression, and anger are more frequent in highly stressed subjects.

1.1.6 Symptom and Behaviour Pattern of Stressful Students

According to Schafer (1996), the eight common symptoms of emotional stress are anxiety, depression, anger, fear, sadness, frustration, guilt, and shame. Anxiety and depression are the most common outcome of ongoing emotional stress (McNamara, 2000; Rice, 1999).

The moderate or middle ranges of anxiety are a normal part of living, and have a positive influence on achievement in sports, career, and academic performance. In context of high levels of anxiety, Poltavski, Ferraro, & Dakota (2003) stated that the greater a subjects stress levels, the higher the anxiety and probability of illness. Schmeelk-Cone & Zimmerman (2003) supported the concept that individuals who reported chronic levels of stress, reported more anxiety and depression. D’Angelo & Wierzbicki (2003) also studied the relation of daily hassles with both anxious and depressed mood in 34 college students in the United State of America. The results indicated that the daily hassles were significantly related to both depression and anxiety.

Depression has multi-faceted symptoms. Feeling dull, tired, empty, and/or sad, are all examples of emotional symptoms. Thus, depression is not just an emotional state, but also a physical and behavioral state. Dixon et al. (1993) indicated that a high level of stress strongly relates to depression. Ciarrochi, Dean, & Anderson (2002) supported the idea that stress was associated with reported depression, hopelessness, and suicidal ideation among people with high emotional perception. Moreover, Flett et.al. (1997) studied on personality, negative social interactions, and depressive symptoms and found that the negative social interactions were correlated significantly with the depressive symptoms in the university students.

Schafer (1996) categorized anger as a secondary stress emotion that is led by other emotions, thoughts, actions, or circumstances. The results of unexpressed and
unresolved anger will result in the same symptoms as anxiety, such as damage to tissues and organs. Fear is a stress emotion of apprehension about some perceived threat. Sometimes fear is not based on reality, particularly in cases of phobia, paranoia, and low levels of confidence. Fear is one of the symptoms of stress-related outcome (Rice, 1999). Sadness as a primary stress emotion and its dark feeling relates to real, imagined, or anticipated loss. Frustration is the primary stress emotion caused by irritation, anger, or a blocked goal commitment. High expectation without expression can result in chronic excitation of the stress response and can lead to frustration symptoms. Guilt comes from the belief that someone has done something wrong or inadequately. Sometimes guilt is entirely rational, reasonable, and justified, but often that guilt includes unwarranted self-criticism, regret, and self-punishment that can lead to temporary stress in individuals. Shame is a feeling of disgrace or humiliation and can be a threat to health. Schafer (1996) stated that shame is based on the individuals’ perception of their internal image and the individuals’ perception that one has a negative image in others’ eyes.

All of these eight symptoms are commonly occurring psychological stress outcomes. According to Schafer (1996), the signs of emotional stress are often bizarre symptoms such as, fuzzy symptoms, forgetfulness, mental block, difficulty organizing thoughts, inability to concentrate, nightmares, etc.

Much evidence indicates that cumulative stress is significantly related to psychological health problems (Beasley et al., 2002; Hong & Chongde, 2003; Lange & Byrd, 1998). Several researchers also believed that psychological stress leads to the same bodily changes, which Selye observed as a result of tissue damage (Greenberg, 1996; McNamara, 2000; Stroebe, 2000).

Behavioral stress is the response or reaction of behavior generated by the stressor. The stressful experience motivates the individual to engage in a variety of behavioral coping methods.

Under some conditions, stress can also lead to social withdrawal. Flett, Hewitt, Garshowitz, & Martin (1997) indicated that when young people have depressive symptoms, they are at risk of having more negative social interactions. Social interaction is a very important means for individuals to cope with stress. Flett et al.
examined the association between the frequency of negative social interactions and depressive symptoms in 176 university students, York University, USA. Interestingly, the result showed that higher depression symptom scores correlated significantly with the frequency of negative social interactions.

In turn, social interaction directly affected the availability of young people’s coping methods. According to McIntyre & Dusek (1995), students whose parents had an authoritative child-rearing style (high levels of warmth, acceptance, and nurturance) used more social support and problem-focused coping and less emotion-focused coping than did other students.

In conclusion, stress can affect not only physiological and psychological well-being, but also indirectly effect behavioral/social characteristics. These effects create a stress interaction that affects health outcomes.

1.1.7 The concept of Coping

Lazarus & Folkman (1984) defined coping as an individual’s efforts to manage internal and external demands from the environment that are appraised as taxing or exceeding their resources. The coping process is complex, but an important ingredient in Lazarus theory of stress. This is the ability or inability to cope with a stressful situation. Generally, a stressor must be appraised before selecting a coping strategy. This cognitive process of appraisal consists of a continuous and evaluative process of categorizing the encounter (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). After evaluating the stressful encounter, coping system attempts to make a response to these stress appraisals. Kenny et al. (2000) pointed out that psychological stress negatively influences cognitive functioning, and may lead to a reduced capacity to deal effectively with the stressor. The concept of traditional coping can be explained from two different theoretical backgrounds. Lazarus & Folkman (1984) indicated that these two backgrounds are the traditional animal experiment and the psychoanalytic ego psychology model. They described coping in the animal model as the acts that control evasive environmental conditions in order to avoid, escape, or overcome threat conditions. In the animal model, coping focuses on avoidance and escape behaviors and a lack of cognitive-emotional complexity, which is normally an integral part of human functioning. The same authors described coping in the psychoanalytic ego
psychology model as realistic and flexible thoughts and acts that solve problems and reduce stress. The psychoanalytic ego psychology model focuses on the person’s relationship with the environment in terms of perceiving and thinking; the animal model describes the biological processes involved in the person’s relationship with the environment.

Moreover, the psychoanalytic ego psychology model focuses on coping as a style or trait rather than as a dynamic ego process. According to Lazarus & Folkman (1984), coping traits refer to personality characteristics that dispose individuals to react in certain ways. Styles refer to broad ways of relating to particular types of people or situations.

*Lazarus* (1999) pointed out that an understanding of coping strategies could help us understand the constant effort of some individuals to adapt themselves to chronic stresses due to changing life conditions. Additionally, coping has been viewed as motivated by emotion. Coping flows from emotional distress, and directly follows an initial appraisal of harm, threat, or challenge. Coping can also influence the quality and intensity of subsequent emotions (Lazarus, 1999).

According to Monat & Lazarus (1991), coping aims to change the conditions of the emotion or the emotion itself and affects the emotion process in two ways. First, the coping process changes the actual relationship. Coping occurs when an individual obtains information about the resource and mobilizes to change the troubled person-environment relationship. If the coping process can solve the problem, the emotional distress should reduce. Sometimes the coping activity fails to reduce the source of stress and this leads to further stress. This type of coping has been described as problem-focused coping (approach-oriented coping), which aims at changing the source of the stress. For example, if a student is stressed about an upcoming exam, the problem-focused approach for the student would to devote more time for studying. The student may also ask friends and teachers for help. This method is called problem-focused coping. Secondly, coping can be utilized to alter the perception of the person-environment relationships. This type of coping aims toward reducing or managing the emotional distress related to a situation and is described as
emotion-focused coping (avoidance-oriented coping) or cognitive coping strategies. For example, some students might release the stress state by going to see a movie.

Nou (2002), studied the stress, social support, coping, and psychosocial adjustment of the college students in Khmer University, Cambodia. The results showed that using an emotion-focused coping style was related to psychological symptoms, lower psychological well-being, somatic symptoms, and lower quality of life.

As stated earlier, coping strategies are important in terms of coping effectively with stressful situations. Fromme & Rivet (1994) tested trait coping styles as a predictor of alcohol use in young adults. The researchers studied the coping styles of young adults’ as a predictor of their alcohol use and response to daily events. The results indicated that both emotion-focused and avoidant coping students were found to consume more alcohol than students with coping styles characterized as non-avoidant. Furthermore, poor emotion-focused coping, which represents a failure to cope with the negative emotions associated with stress, seems to be an important determinant of young people’s alcohol use and misuse.

Watson & Sinha (2000) investigated the relationship between personality disorder and coping strategies across a variety life event. Interestingly, the results indicated that stress and negative emotion were associated with personality disorders. The results also indicated that a personality disorder was positively related to escape-avoidance and negatively associated with problem-solving and positive reappraisal. In examining these two kinds of coping strategies, it appears that the problem-focused coping approach is generally more effective than emotion-focused coping. More importantly however, the effectiveness or functionality of the coping strategy used is most important in determining stress and health outcomes.

1.1.8 Stress Coping Styles

Many studies have examined gender differences in problem-focused and emotion-focused coping (e.g. Day & Livingstone, 2003; Renk & Creasey, 2003). For example, a study from Day & Livingstone (2003) supported the idea that females seek and use more emotional support than men. Day & Livingstone (2003), examined
gender differences in perceptions of stressors and utilization of social support among university students. The results indicated that when students were stressed, women reported that they would utilize emotional support (friend and family) to a greater degree than men.

A study from Renk & Creasey (2003) indicated that females used emotion-focused coping strategies more than their male counterparts. The results confirmed that females endorsed greater use of emotion-focused coping strategies than males. The results further indicated that late adolescents who were high in masculinity tended to use higher levels of problem-focused coping than those who were low in masculinity do. Also, they documented that males used more problem-focused coping strategies and that females used more emotion-focused coping strategies. The researchers pointed out that young males may have remained reluctant to use emotion-focused coping strategies because of gender stereotypes related to these strategies. Based on this study, gender identity was a more valuable predictor of coping strategies than gender.

Ager & MacLachlan (1998) explored the psychometric properties of the Coping Strategy Indicator amongst 415 the first year undergraduate students at Chancellor College, the University of Malawi. The results of this study indicated that male students had scored higher on problem solving and female students higher on avoidance. The researchers pointed to traditional sex role stereotypes (men as ‘active’, women as somewhat more ‘passive’) for explanation.

In contrast, Beasley et al. (2002) found that males and females did not differ significantly on their use of emotion-focused and problem-focused coping strategies. They studied the resilience in response to life stress of 187 undergraduate and postgraduate students studying at the University of Tasmania. This cross-sectional study found no significant gender differences in coping style. This finding is contrary to those obtained from other studies, where males used more problem-focused coping strategies than females. It seems that while gender is associated with coping strategy, gender identity is a better predictor of coping style.
1.1.9 The Concept of Stress Management

Coping strategies aim to treat the stress problem by managing internal and external demands from environment, which individuals appraised as endangering their resources. In McNamara’s opinion (2000), coping strategies are defined as the defense mechanisms aimed at resolving internal conflict. According to Lazarus & Folkman (1984), stress management referred to the formal programs to prevent or ameliorate debilitating stress for people in general. Monat & Lazarus (1991) described stress management as a general treatment approach to a wide variety of adaptations and health problems. Stress management, as a treatment, is universal with no one for whom treatment is unneeded or inappropriate. Edelman & Mandle (1998) stated that stress management is a critical component of a healthy lifestyle. They stated that healthy behaviors, such as good nutrition and exercise, might help strengthen individuals’ resistance to stress. Peiffer (2001) pointed out that dealing with stress in a positive way is another way for managing stress. From all of the viewpoints, coping strategies are focused on reactions to stressed outcomes. In contrast, stress management is focused on not only dealing with stress as it occurs but also building resilience and preventing stress. There are a wide variety of stress management strategies for individuals to use.

Sutherland & Cooper (2000) described a tripartite approach to stress management within an organization. Primary level stress management is ‘stress directed’ and aims to prevent stress by controlling the source of stress, such as engaging in sporting activities. Secondary level stress management is a ‘response directed’ strategy that helps individuals respond to stress in a way that is not harmful to them. It suggests that using techniques aimed at improving stress coping processes could minimize stress. This level is concerned with increasing self-awareness, improving stress management skills, such as education, training to develop stress resistance, and coping strategies. Tertiary level stress management is ‘symptom directed’ and aims to rehabilitate the stressed person. Tertiary level stress management is a curative approach for individuals that are suffering from the effects of exposure to stress, which might involve counseling services.
Pender (1996) divided the primary modes of intervention for stress management into three groups: minimizing the frequency of stress-inducing situations, increasing resistance to stress, and counter conditioning to avoid physiological arousal. Minimizing the frequency of stress-inducing situation consists of four subcategories, namely: changing the environment, avoiding excessive change, time blocking, and time management. Many environmental conditions are hazardous to individuals’ health with direct physiological and psychological effects that lead to stress. If possible, environmental management is the best approach to minimize the frequency of stress-inducing situations. According to World Health Organization (WHO, 1988), a commitment at all levels of government is required to ensure achieving a supportive environment. Avoiding excessive change means that any unnecessary changes should be avoided during a period of life change as this can result in a negative tension state. Time blocking technique is a set time for an individual to adapt to various stressors. Individuals use this time to consider specific changes and to develop strategies to modify it. Sutherland & Cooper (2000) indicated that in the concept of stress management, developing a personal sense of time was important.

**Developing resistance to stress**

In his strategies for stress resistance, Pender (1996) focused on both physical and psychological conditions. Physical condition focuses on promoting exercise and psychological health. Many researchers indicated that exercise gives rise to positive effects, such as better health, higher quality of life, lower distress, and control of stress (e.g., Edelman & Mandle, 1998; Schafer, 1996). According to Pender (1996), there are three ways that exercise promotes positive effects. Firstly, cardio respiratory fitness improvement can promote psychological changes. Secondly, “changes in exercise-related self-efficacy and mastery generalize to other situations, resulting in improvements in the self-concept and coping ability” (Pender, 1996, p.243). Finally, exercise can reduce a stress response by blunting a person’s psychophysiology responsiveness to stressors. The author stated that further research is needed to determine in what conditions exercise can actually enhance stress-resistance.
Besides promoting exercise, promoting psychological well-being indicators, such as enhancing self-esteem, enhancing self-efficacy, increasing assertiveness, developing goal alternatives, and building coping resources are other important strategies for preventing stress (Pender, 1996). For example, self-efficacy is a better predictor of performance than actual ability. Bandura (1977) indicated that the stronger the efficacy is, the more active the efforts are. Bandura pointed out that enhancing self-efficacy could be achieved through facilitating performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal. Pender (1996) indicated that assertive behaviors could increase the individual capacity for psychological stress resistance. During assertiveness behaviors, individuals can share their perceptions and feelings with other people that are facilitating personal or group productivity. In developing goal alternatives, individuals should develop goals in which accomplishment will be rewarded. They also should be flexible so if one goal is not completed; other options are available to permit achievement.

1.2 CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Shifting attention from stress, another important variable achievement motivation has very much influence on student’s wellbeing away from stress. Achievement motivation is defined as, “the tendency to endeavor for the attaining of goal, it is specific motive which is concerned for a specific type of good and excellence”. It is satisfaction seeking tendency while doing harder task with higher rate of risk. It is foreword looking tendency and attitude on the ground of reality for all possible adjustment. The theory of achievement motivation was developed by Mc Clelland (1953) at Howard University and J.W. Atkinson (1958) at university of Michigan. The desire to succeed and excel is called achievement motivation. Achievement motivation is the bone of good and productive life. According to Atkinson (1966), “one of the characteristics of achievement motivations is to be more anticipatory or forward looking tendency.” It has been proved by various researches that the level of achievement is high among the students having high level of achievement motivation. There is higher level of achievement demonstration in students with higher level of achievement motivation. French (1958) & Thomas
(1958) pointed achievement motivation refers to satisfaction in doing difficult things well and this satisfaction increased with difficulty. It is combination of desire to do well by achieving something difficult. Achievement motivation is “a desire to accomplish something difficult: to master, manipulate or organize objects. People or ideas; to do this rapidly and independently to overcome obstacles and attain high standards to excel one, to rival and surpass others, to increase self regard by successful exercise of talent” pointed by Murray (1938). In words of McClelland (1969) “achievement motivation is an urge to improve or, a kind of spontaneously recurring concern to do things better.” Hyland (1988), added to the literature on motivation an excellent synoptic paper in which he attempted to integrate the major concept and historical development of behavior theories. The four main branches mentioned by Hyland began in 1918 with Woodworth’s dynamic psychology followed by Tolman’s purposive behavior in 1938 then Kurt Lewin’s (1935) goal setting and finally Murray’s theory of personality in 1938. Hyland in 1988 invested a broad concept which he called.” Motivational control theory” which he heuristically suggests could be vehicle for integrating the framework of motivated behavior.

Achievement motivation also known as, “achievement need” and “need for achievement” or “nAch”, was first measured by means of Thematic Apperception Test (TAT). McClelland defined achievement motivation as, “the urge to improve” or a kind of spontaneously recurring concern to do things better (McClelland 1969). McCleland, Atkinson, Clark & Lowell (1953) redefined the construct of achievement motivation. Atkinson (1957-1964) formulated a dominant theory of achievement motivation which Atkinson viewed as a conflict between approach and avoidance tendencies. According to Atkinson theory, people have a tendency to seek situation which they expect will bring them pride and avoid situation which they expect will bring them shame.

Four different theoretical approaches attempt to explain achievement motivation through extrinsic or intrinsic motivation. The Behavioral approach posits that consistent use of consequences (rewards or punishments) following a certain behavior can create motivation (Bandura, 1997). This approach focuses on extrinsic motivation. The Humanistic approach suggests that striving for personal growth and
self-determination are sources of intrinsic motivation (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991).

1.2.1 The Cognitive Approach

The cognitive approach proposes that people determine what behavior they perform by thinking, which may include intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation (Schunk, 1991, Stipek, 2002). In this approach, student’s decision involves systematically weighing the options of what he wants to do and factors that might influence his options. Student’s behavior is influenced by both intrinsically motivating possibilities and extrinsically motivating behaviors (his mother’s behaviors as they relate to his choice).

1.2.2 The Social Learning Theory

This approach combines both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as well as elements from the behavioral and cognitive approaches. In this model, the individual’s motivation is related to the value of his or her goals and his or her expectations of attaining goals. Social learning approaches are generally regarded as learning vicariously through extrinsic and intrinsic reinforcement, and are influenced by the value of goals and expectations of obtaining a goal.

Achievement motivation can be defined as the desire to excel or an innate force in which an individual wants to succeed (Woolfolk, 1998). People who demonstrate high achievement motivation are driven to achieve. Achievement motivation theories differ with regard to emphasis on intrinsic motivation (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 1985) or emphasis on extrinsic motivation (e.g., Jackson, Ahmed, & Heapy, 1973). These theories are pivotal in understanding achievement motivation. They provide the foundation for current conceptualizations of achievement motivation.

1.2.3 Self Determination Theory

The self-determination theory is a popular theory that focuses on students’ interest in learning and the value they place on education (Deci, et al. 1991). Intentional and motivated behaviors are a large part of the self-determination theory. Intentional behaviors are defined as behaviors controlled by some interpersonal factor. Intentional behaviors are typically controlled by external forces such as
rewards or expectations. Motivational behaviors are self-determined behaviors that are performed because they contribute to one’s sense of self. This theory holds that people have an inherent motivation to learn. It makes a strong connection between a desire to learn and an individual’s intrinsic motivation to perform a task. Tasks that pique interests are likely to motivate in meaningful and lasting ways.

1.2.4 Expectation Value Theory

The expectancy-value theory posits that an individual’s beliefs can explain or predict behaviors and academic choices (Nagy, Trautwein, Baumert, Koller, & Garrett, 2006). An individual’s motivation is based on two factors: his or her expectation of meeting a goal and the value the individual places on the goal. In this model, an individual’s motivation is the result of a belief that the valued outcome is something he or she can attain (Atkinson, 1966). Task value is comprised of four domains: intrinsic value, attainment value, utility value, and cost (Nagy et al. 2006). Intrinsic value is the person’s interest and sole enjoyment from performing a task (in other words, intrinsic motivation). Attainment value is how an individual assigns importance to completing a goal. Utility value refers to the relationship between the task and goal, and cost value refers to the perceived negative consequences of participation in a task (Nagy et al. 2006).

1.2.5 Attribution Theory

Attribution theory focuses on how people explain the behavior of themselves and others (Weiner, 1985). The application of attribution theory to motivation relates to how people understand successes and failures. Ability, effort, task difficulty or ease, and luck are four attribution variables often used for understanding the way an individual explains successes and failures. Weiner (1979) suggested that these four common factors could be classified into three different dimensions: locus, stability/instability, and controllable/uncontrollable. Locus comprises factors that are internal (e.g., effort or ability) or external to the person (e.g., luck or difficulty level of task). Stability comprises factors that are stable (e.g., ability) or unstable (e.g., luck) over time. Controllability includes features that are controllable by the individual (e.g., effort) and uncontrollable by the individual (e.g., difficulty level of task). These attributions relate to an individual’s motivation. An individual that believes he
is not smart enough (internal, stable, uncontrollable) to pass calculus probably has little motivation to work hard in that class.

1.3 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

The students come to the educational institution with certain explicit and implicit expectations from the school and schooling and are endowed with certain characteristics at the point of entry. Achievement in schooling system is very essential for satisfaction or dissatisfaction of students. In contemporary modern society, students are exposed with various challenges – mental, physical and social. There are various researches on student to interpret educational achievement of students in respect of stress and achievement motivation.

A high level of stress has been recognized as cause of depression and suicidal ideation in young people (Dixon, Heppner, Burnett & Lips, 1993). Stress has been reported to lead the development of negative effect and a reduction in psychological well-being (Beasley, Thompson, & Davidson, 2002; Lange & Byrd, 1998). In researches of behavior and social systems of stress, it have been found that stressful experience motivate individual to engage in a variety of behavioral method, many of which are considered to be Negatively motivated. Research of Rawson, Bloomer & Kendall (2001) pointed out that the stress contributes to physical illness such as chronic illness and a decrease in immune functioning. Stress of facts the sympathetic nervous system leading to behavior change including increased arousal and alertness (Mc Namara 2000). With long term exposure to stress, an individual's eating, sleeping, drinking physical activity and social functioning can be disrupted. In the researches of Hunter 1999, Mc Namara 2000, it have been found that in the last two decades there is dramatic increase in the level of stress of student and young people. Recent researches indicate that stress in highly prevalent in adolescent and young adult population. In research of McNamara (2000) it has been found the one in four young men in the USA are at risk of developing stress decease related illness. Fletcher, Higginbothass & Dobson (2000) found in their researches that highest prevalence of felt needs for men in Newcastle of Australia was stress. Dinon (2001) also found in his research that male university student of USA had high level of depression. The rapid changes in the physiological state such as biological and
hormonal changes are resulting into high level of stress risk in the students (McNamara, 2000). It was also found in the research of McNamara (2000) social changes such as increasing parental relationship home environment social relation etc. also enhances level of stress of students. According to Heaven (1995) “it is now widely accepted that the period of adolescence is highly stressful. It is a period when there is a serious risk of developing stress related problems. In his research Heaven also described adolescence and early adulthood as a time of ‘storm and stress” because it was a time of emotional turmoil and major changes in all areas of functioning. In research of Hershberger, Russell & Markert (2001) it has been found that 30 per cent of the undergraduate students in Canada reported elevated psychological distress. Gacad & Babiera (2002) pointed out that high level of stress will lead to low health promoting behaviors. The research further explores that if the student had less well develops ability to resolve stressful life events when they arose. Sawyer et al. (2000) found that fourteen percent of young student have a higher prevalence of mental health problem. Stress typically describes a negative concept that can have an impact on one’s mental and physical well being.

Stress is a common element in the lives of every individual regardless of race or cultural background. Over the past few decades there has been significant investigation on the issue of stress and management of stress (Dziegiele Wiskie, et al. 2004). College students have been shown to possess a unique set of stress (Garrett, 2001). In other words as demands are made on an individual or as situation arise. The body attempts to adjust or adapt to the situation in order to re-establish normalcy (Selye, 1974). Nathan (2002) founds in his researches work that prolonged and severe stress may be psychologically damaging and may hinder a person’s ability to engage in an effective behavior. Lazarus & Folkman (1984) stated. “Stress is more than response environmental demands but is also related to personal perception. If an individual perceives a situation as stressful then it is indeed stressful. Also, if an individual is susceptible or vulnerable to the negative effect produced by stressor, the situation may pose a threat or may be harmful to the individual”. Furthermore, an individual’s well being may be at risk whenever their resources to manage the stressful situations are limited or depleted (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). All in all, when multiple demands are made on an individual they usually experience intense
feeling of stress related to role- ambiguity, role Strain and role overload (Dziegielewski et al. 2004). Frazier & Schauben (1994) used psychological Distress Inventory to obtain information regarding stress experienced by group of female college students, experienced stress related to financial problems, test pressers, failing a test, rejections from Someone, Dissolutions Of relationship depressions and feeling of low – self esteem.

Ross et al. (1999) conducted a study on college students among of both genders and found a different set of stressors that were common among all college students – those experiences associated with Stress included a change in eating and sleeping habits, now responsibility, heavier workloads and breaks of relation. Phinney & Haas (2003) reported a unique set of stressful experience among ethnic minority. First generation college freshman Murray et al. (2001) and Ver Ploeg (2002) found in their researches- the Negative effects of stress can be experienced both directly and indirectly. Students from non intact households deal with many indirect stressors that often go unnoticed. Due to, the many disruption in their daily lives these students may not view their situation as stressful. Stress in an inevitable aspect of every individuals’ life. On top of daily hassles, college students are particularly prone to other stressors (Ross, et al. 1999). For many college students stress can take various forms in their daily life and many students come unprepared for the challenges of keeping the proper balance responsibilities and maintaining a healthy life style while in the feel of pressure. Ross et al. (1999) described dynamic relationship between the person and environment in stress perception and response, much like Lazarus & Folkman’s model, which is especially magnified in the collage students population.

It has been commonly found in the literature, that college students are faced with a unique cluster of stressful experiences (Ross et al. 1999: Murff, 2005; Phinney & Haas 2003). Students just entering college feel much transitional change for many students. They must adjust from being away from home for the first time, maintain high academic standards and adjust to a new social environment (Ross et al. 2003). Ross et al. (2003) found that changes in eating habits increased work load and new responsibilities were among the top five sources of stress for college students. Phinney & Haas (2003) found the main sources of stress for college students all financial challenge domestic responsibilities and responsibilities related to holding a
job while in school and maintaining an academic work load. Feven et al. (2007) stated, there is a strong relationship between cognitive abilities and stress. This is found in researches that students displaying higher level of stress also display lower levels of cognitive abilities. Contradicting these researches Ross et al. (2003) notes that it is important to explore which sources of stress are detrimental and which sources are motivational and beneficial. Moderate amount of stress helps to motivate students and increases performance of student (Ross et al. 2003).

A study by day and Livingstone (2003) showed that females would turn to their partner and friends to greater extent than man would if they perceives stressful. Females also seek emotional support to a great degree those man is stressful circumstances. Day & livingstone (2003); Renk & Creasoy 2003), and Jon et al. (2000) found in their research that when student in tertiary education experienced stress, they offer restored to drinking alcohol in order to relive their stress. Jon et al. (2000) also reported in his research that students often assume harmful activities to cope up with their stress such as alcoholism, violent behavior and sexual assault. A study from Lightsey & Hulsey (2002) showed that non impulsive male university students with emotion focused coping have high conditions, most likely result in gambling.

Achievement motivation the tendency to endeavor for attaining of goal is specific for the achieving goal which in proportionally complex and need motives risk taking. There have been studies which show cause and effect relationship of achievement motivation and to be more active in college and community activities (De charms et al., 1955; McClelland, 1957). Dyson & Renk (2006) found in his study that the students with high level of achievement motivation also have high levels of academic achievement. Field, Diego & Sanders (2001) observed in their study that high achievers differ from low achievers due to their level of achievement motivation and academic interest. Ligon (2006) studied college students (male) and found their achievement motive to be significantly related to the cumulative grades. Burger (1985) also found relationship between achievement motivation and grades of college students. Weiner (1979) defined achievement motivation as. “Account for the determinants of the direction, magnitude and persistence of human behavior in activities in which the individual believes of his performance will be escalated against
some standard of excellence and achieve the outcome is clearly one of success or failure”. Byrnes, et al. (2001) defined achievement motivation as, an individual’s tendency to desire and work toward accomplishing challenging personal and professional goals.” The main goal of operating in achievement motivation is derive to demonstrate high ability in order to full competent. Achievement motivation has been hypothesized as one of the driving for us for the development of achievement in education. McClelland documented well concept of the achievement motive in his classic landmark book “The Achievement Motive (1953)”. Duveck (2002) pointed in his research work that motivation is the key to outstanding achievement. Rabideau (2005) finds in his research that achievement motivation is based on reaching and achieving of all people’s aspiration.

The studies conducted in field of stress of students are manifestation of the research conclusion that stress has positive as well as negative influence on achievement of students. On other hand studies on achievement motivation of students also concluded that achievement motivation is also playing significant influential role on students. There are still very less studies on conducted on effect and integration effect of stress and achievement motivation on academic achievement of students. Base of this study arises out of the consideration of achievement as an independent variable and judging the level of stress and achievement motivation of high and low achievers. It is directed to see the stress level and achievement motivation of high and low achieving students, especially visual need students. There being a knowledge gap in this area some questions got raised in the mind of the researcher. They are:

1.3.1 Research Questions

1. What is the level of achievement motivations of visual need students?
2. What is level of stress of visual need students?
3. What are stress management techniques of visual need students?
4. What is the effect of achievement on achievement motivation of visual need students?
5. What is the effect of achievement on stress of visual need students?
On the basis of above research questions the title and objectives of the study have been formed as

1.4 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

On the basis of rational and research question in hand the title of the research can suitably be stated as follows.

Achievement Motivation, stress and its management of High and low achieving visual need students.

Consequently, the researcher framed five major objectives and two pre-requisite objectives for his research which have been delineated as follows:

1.5 OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

The researcher in accordance with research questions constructed the objectives into following categories:

1.5.1 Pre-requisite Objectives

This research has the following pre-requisite objectives:

1.5.1.1 To develop stress assessing tool for school students.

1.5.2.1 To develop stress management Module for students.

1.5.2 Major Objectives of the study

1.5.2.1 To find out the Achievement Motivation of class IX visual need students in comparison to General students.

1.5.2.2 To find out stress level of class IX visual need students in comparison to General students.

1.5.2.3 To find out significance of the difference in mean scores of achievement motivation of high and low achieving Visual need and General students of class IX.

1.5.2.4 To find out significance of the difference in mean stress scores of high and low achieving Visual need and General students of class IX.

1.5.2.5 To find out the effectiveness of the developed stress management module.
1.6 HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

The researcher has constructed followings research hypotheses to achieve the objectives of the study as followings:

1.6.1 Research Hypotheses for Pre-requisite Objectives

1.6.1.1 An effective stress assessing tool can be developed.

1.6.1.2 An effective stress management module for students can be developed.

1.6.2 Research Hypotheses for Main Objectives

H1: Achievement motivation of class IX visual need students can be computed with the help of proper tool.

H2: Stress of class IX visual need students can be found out with a proper stress tool.

H3: There is significant difference in mean scores of achievement motivation of high and low achieving visual need and General students of class IX.

H4: There is significant difference in mean scores of stress of high and low achieving visual need and General students of class IX.

H5: Stress management module will reduce the stress of visual need and general of class IX students.

1.6.3 Null Hypotheses of Major objectives

To test the above motioned research hypotheses following Null hypotheses have been formulated for statistical signification of concerning objectives.

H03: There is no significant difference in mean scores of achievement motivation of High and low achieving visual need and General students of class IX.

H04: There is no significant difference in mean scores of stress of High and low achieving visual need and General students of class IX.

H05: Stress management Module has no effect on stress level of visual need and general class IX students.
1.7 OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

1) Stress

In the present research work stress is that score which can be measured by stress Assessing Tool, constructed by the researcher. The score obtained by students on the stress assessing tool are stress scores.

2) Achievement Motivation

In the present research work Achievement Motivation is that which can be measured by Dr.T.R.Sharma's tool of Academic Achievement motivation scale for students.

3) Visual Need Students

The term, visual need students, is relatively new. This term has been used in the present research work on the ground of educational and behavior identification and denotation of those students who are in need of visual assistance. There are several terms like ‘Visually impaired’, ‘Visually challenged’ etc. But these terms are emphasizing recognized inability of the child not adoptability and readiness of whole systems for education of the child. Should child be known and recognized by his/her disability? Or should the child be known by the duty and readiness of whole system for the child? The popular terms, mentioned above, are laying emphasis on only disability of child not modification and preparedness of contemporary education system. The Etymological meaning as well as epistemological meanings, of the terms like ‘visually impaired’ or ‘visually challenged’, is connotative resonance of lacunae of the students i.e. the child is either impaired or challenged. The term ‘impaired’ is an adjective which means ‘weakened, diminished, or damaged’, (www.dictinary.com, retrieved on 23 jan. 2016). According to Merriam-Webster dictionary, the term ‘impaired’ means diminished or damaged’. These references are making pejorative connotation on the strength of the students. Cambridge Dictionary (2008, edited by Daniel Jones) defines the term ‘Impaired’ as the term has been derived from the verb ‘impair’ which means ‘to spoil something or to make something weaker so that it is less effective’. The term has been defined in online dictionary Thesaurus as ‘injured, faulty’, ‘broken, defective, imperfect’ etc.’, like terms has been given in synonyms of the terms impaired . Similarly Oxford Advance Learners Dictionary (2007, edited by
A S Hornby) also gives the epistemological resonance the same meaning and defines the term as ‘damaged or not functioning normally. The question arises, is itlogistically right to call the child visually impaired? Is it not devaluation or debasement of dignity of the child? Similarly, ‘challenged’ word is also connotation the sense that someone or something is lacking or deficient in a specified respect. This term ‘challenged’ has been euphemistically coined and used to convey the sense that ‘someone suffers disability in specific respect’ (www.dictionary.com, retrieved on 20 January 2016). In the light of RTE Act 2009, National Curriculum framework 2005, Recommendations of UNO for human rights (1948 to 12th March 2007), fundamental right to live with dignity as recommended by Constitution of India in act no 21 and article 21(a) which defines education as fundamental right of the students, it can be said that education system is constructed or stand for the students not students is expected to make himself or herself ready for education system. Right to education Act 2009 defines education as ‘Protection of the right of students is the duty of central government state government and local community and parents’ (RTE, 2009, Chapter III). RTE Act 2009 further made education as fundamental right of students without any discrimination and barrier. In this context education of the students is liability and duty of whole system, which comprises parents, community, teachers, Principals State government and central government (RTE Act 2009, chapter IV). For the education of child whole education system’s readiness has been expected not merely of child.

National curriculum framework 2009 recommends that education system should be flexible, dynamic, and progressive and child centered. In this connection the education systems cannot be child centered unless it will entertain the need of child (National Curriculum Framework as given on www.ncert.nic.in- 2005 reports pp.7-9).

Right to education Act (2009) allows students with special need to pursue mainstream of education calling it as Inclusive Education. The Act points out that all students should be educated in mainstream schools (RTE, 2009, Chapter 2). In this connection it is necessary to use the term like ‘Visual need student’.

The term, visual need, is the functional educational term for those students who are to be given support for education by modification, reduplication, adaptation
of curriculum in inclusive setting of education. In the present research work Visual Need students are those students who are in need of visual appliances for educational performances or modification of visual Information, who are studying both in special education system and Inclusive Education System of New Delhi. Visual Need students were considered with followings functional characteristics:

- Students with complete absence of Visuality.
- Students with magnifying glass to perform their Academic work.
- The students who studying in inclusive Education setting of New Delhi and special Educational setting of Varanasi.

4) Achievement
Achievement is the academic score of the students in their Summative Examination.

1.8 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

Stress is very vital phenomenon in contemporary education system for students. This study is helpful in understanding stressors students concerned to school environment for designing curriculum. This study describes domains of stress which are disadvantageous for harmonious development of personality. This study is exploratory for understanding causes of stress for the both types of students. Stress management module and coping style of the study has multidimensional importance in the teaching of students. In this study there is a multidirectional investigation of stress as well as achievement motivation of visual need students. Thus this study is expected to have very positive impact on understanding of educational need of the students. There are also very dynamic considerations of educational problems of students regarding stress and achievement of students. This study will help in strengthening child centered dynamic approach of teaching.

1.9 THE DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY
The present study has been delimited in following terms.

1) This study has been conducted in Varanasi District of U P .and Central district of New Delhi.

2) The educational session of students who participated in the research is 2013-14 of Varanasi and 2014 -15 of New Delhi.
3) The age group of the visual need and General students who participated in the research is 14 years to 18 years.

4) Those visual need students has been considered in the study who study in Inclusive Education setting of Delhi and special educational setting of Varanasi.