CHAPTER – II
THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK:

Academic achievement refers to accomplishment or acquired proficiency in the performance of an individual in a given skill or body of knowledge. Academic achievement means "knowledge attained and skill developed in the school subjects usually designated by test scores or by marks assigned by teachers or by both."

Achievement can be measured on the basis of tests, verbal and written. Since academic achievement is the criterion for selection, promotion or recognition in various walks of life, the importance of academic achievement can not be ignored. There are several factors that influence the academic achievement of an individual like his personality, intellectual ability, environment etc.

The importance of intellectual ability in academic achievement cannot be defined, yet a large number of personality factors have been found to loom large in academic achievement.

Academic achievement in general, refers to the degree or level of success of proficiency, attained in some specific area, concerning scholastic or academic work. Academic or educational age, accomplishment quotient or achievement quotients are the most commonly used means to interpret the level of academic achievement of pupils in a specific given subject matter.
Good (1959) defines academic achievement as the knowledge attained or skill developed in the school subjects, usually designated by test scores or marks assigned by the teachers. Trow (1956) defined academic achievement as the attained ability or degree of competence in school tasks, usually measured by standardized test scores and expressed in grades or units, based on norms, derived from a wide sampling of pupils performance. Thus, academic achievement is the competence the students show in the school subjects in which they have received instruction.

Mehta (1969) explained that the word performance is a wider a term includes both the academic and the co-curricular performance of an individual. Achievement, is the learning outcome of a student. A level of achievement in the academic field of student is included in the performance of the individual. According to Christian (1980), the world performance generally indicates the learning outcome of the students. As a result of education through different subjects, the learning outcome change the behavior patterns of the students, learning affects three major areas of students: (i) cognitive, (ii) affective, and (iii) psychomotor. According to him, learning does not reach the same level in all three domains at a time, students may be at higher or lower level in any domain:

(i) Cognitive area is primarily concerned with the intellectual growth of the individual. Growth in the area includes the acquisition of basic
intellectual skills, such as reading, ability to add and subtract, as well as learning of facts, concepts and generalization. Bloom (1956) cognitive domain includes all those objectives, which deal with the recall or recognition of knowledge and development of intellectual abilities and skill. The taxonomy of educational objectives in the cognitive domain contains six major classes: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation.

(ii) Affective area deals with a student self-concept, personal growth and emotional development goal, such as ability peers, consideration of the elderly of willingness to listen to other peoples ideas, all fall within this domain.

(iii) The psychomotor domain is primarily concerned with development of muscular skill and coordination (Bloom, 1956)

    Dyer (1960) said that academic achievement is the attained skills, ability or degree of competence in school tasks usually based on norms derived from a wide sample of pupil performance. Pressery, Robinson & Horrocks (1941) have defined achievement as status or level of persons learning and ability to apply what he has learned.

    There are two ideas that can be used to pin down the notion of academic achievement. The first idea is that academic achievement refers to the identifiable operations, a student is expected to perform on the materials, of course, that is on the facts, theories, problems principles and points of views which he encounters while taking the
course. The second idea is that academic achievement refers to the difference between the number and kind of operations a student can and does perform at the beginning and at the end of a course. The emphasis on operations is supposed to suggest that, it is what the student actually does that count. And the emphasis on differences between what a student does at the beginning of the course and what he does at the end of a course, call attention to the fact the academic achievement is a dynamic not a static concept (Patel, 1987).

The term awareness means having knowledge of something that is not obvious or apparent. It is possession of more or less a continuous stream of knowledge of one's thought and feelings. The term awareness is used as synonym of cognizance, consciousness, realization or knowledge etc. in this study.

In the present study educational awareness has been operationally defined as the generalized awareness towards the education and being measured in terms of scores obtained by the individual on an awareness test constructed by the investigator for this purpose.

CONCEPT OF ANXIETY:

Anxiety is an emotional process which has several components. Spielberger\(^1\) specifies its components as follows:

1. An evaluative situation arises. This is a potential cause for anxiety.

2. The evaluative situation is perceived by the individual. Depending on the nature of the evaluative situation and the individual's prior learning, he may perceive it as dangerous, that is, as a situation in which he is likely to perform inadequately and perhaps fail and suffers a lose of self-esteem.

3. An anxiety-state reaction occurs if the individual regards the situation as dangerous. The anxiety-state reaction involves a state of physiological responses and a conscious preoccupation with these physical changes and with the stress or cause.

4. Cognitive reappraisal follows. The individuals reappraise the stressful conditions to find a way to deal with them. He may find a constructive coping mechanism for alleviating the stress, or may find a defensive or avoidance behaviour that enables him to escape the anxiety arousing condition.

5. Coping, avoidance or defensive behaviors is then engaged, for example, the individual may find a way to solve the problem effectively; deny his feelings of anxiety or leave the situation entirely.

Although anxiety is regarded as a response to certain conditions, it is known by inference. It is a subjective state of the
person, it cannot be directly observed. It can only be known through its causes and effects. It is known from what the person says, how he acts, or from the physiological changes that are associated with it. Thus, if one wishes to know whether or not an individual is anxious, he can be asked about it. His verbal report is a behaviour from which it is possible to infer whether or not individual is anxious. One cannot, of course, always depends on what he says, because there are many social situations in which he might prefer not to have the observer think he is anxious. Therefore, to check this inference, other effects of anxiety can be used, as for example, disturbances of speech, general nervousness or motor discharges such as tremors and physiological changes such as heart beats, respiration, blood pressure etc.

But one problem makes the concept of anxiety a somewhat complicated one to work with, and a source of controversy. The above mentioned effects are not specific to anxiety, but tend to occur in any state of emotional arousal-be it anger, fear etc. and the physiological changes may occur merely in physical mobilization such as walking up a hill or playing hockey. If there are specific reactions related to different affective states, these are not yet reliably known, so it is easier and safer to infer general arousal than it is to infer a specific emotional state.

In fact, the construct anxiety helps us to explain the adaptive behaviour that follows it. This way of thinking involves speculation
about the unseen processes taking place within the person that might account, in part, for what is observed. It is theory in the same sense as the postulation of atomic particles in physics. The particles and their motion are not observable but they help to explain the things that can be observed.

Anxiety, thus, is an intervening variable. It is a hypothetical or theoretical state, which is brought about by some stimulus and which, in turn, has certain further consequences. In other words it is inferred state, response which intervenes or stands between a stimulus and another response. It is not known directly through observations, it is known indirectly from its observable antecedents and consequences.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE CONCEPT OF ANXIETY:

Before we discuss how the conception of anxiety in educationally relevant situations developed out of more general conception of anxiety, it seems pertinent to enrich our ideas about the nature of anxiety by making brief discussion of philosophical and scientific ideas about it.

PHILOSOPHICAL CONCEPTION OF ANXIETY:

Existentialists usually use the terms "dread" or "anguish" in place of "anxiety". Kierkegaard¹ (1944), Heideger² (1949),

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Sartre\textsuperscript{1} (1956), and Schipp\textsuperscript{2} (1957) have mentioned that physical symptoms such as dizziness, nausea and sweating are part of anxiety and are salient in the thoughts of the anxious person. Each has characterized anxiety as a disturbing feeling that arises as a result of the lack of a clear standard of one's own, or of the possibility of failing to meet some perceived external standard (often one that is vaguely sensed rather than clearly defined). Each has emphasized that anxiety is a basic human emotion which cannot be avoided entirely. Finally each has characterized anxiety as having negative as well as well as positive consequences. The negative consequences of anxiety include discomfort and counterproductive striving often in the form of fear and avoidance of the unpleasant. Its positive consequences include the acquisition of new competence or the attainment of some higher stage of psychological development such as more satisfying perspective of one's life.

Kierkegaard\textsuperscript{3} (1944) conceived of a man as constantly striving towards a higher stage of existence in which he may overcome his alienation from God. He considers dread (anxiety) to be a natural emotion that pervades man's feelings and thoughts, and indicates to him when he is in an untenable position with respect to God. It is the

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{1} J.P. Sartre, \textit{Being and Nothingness}, New York: Philosophical Library 1956.
\item \textsuperscript{2} P.A. Schilpp, \textit{Philosophy of Karl Jaspers}, New York: Tudor, 1957.
\item \textsuperscript{3} Kierkegaard, Op.cit.
\end{itemize}
emotion that precedes and accompanies his desire to leap to higher state of existence. Kierkegaard distinguished between dread and fear; dread is experienced in the absence of a tangible source of danger, while fear involves a tangible source of danger.

Heidegger\(^1\) (1949) holds that each person's very existence in the world causes him to experience anxiety irrespective of his social, economic, or religious position. In response to this anxiety, each seeks assurance by merging his or her identity with that of others, or by becoming socialized. Socialization, however, brings a new source of anxiety, for when the individual merges so completely with society that he or she loses the sense of identity and integrity, he or she again feels a sense of dread and nothingness.

In his work Being and Nothingness, Sartre\(^2\) (1956) defines anxiety as a fear of failure to meet a standard, or fear that one does not hold the appropriate standard. He distinguishes between fear, which has an external object, and anxiety, which has an internal object, namely, distrust of one's own ability to react, well under duress. That is, anxiety has to do with holding values, and fear that one will not measure up to them. Anxiety also occurs when one examines one's values and finds that they are not acceptable or absolute.

\(^1\) Heidegger, Op.cit
Schilpp\(^1\) (1957) holds a more differentiated view of dread than Kierkegaard, distinguishing four kinds: (1) a kind of perplexity which occurs to people when they ask philosophical questions about the significance of their own being; (2) dread in the face of freedom, such as occurs when people are suddenly freed from old rules or social norms and recognizes that they must make basic decisions for themselves, (3) fear of death; and (4) existential dread or the sense of aimlessness and profound emptiness that arises when one feels uncertain that he exists in any meaningful way.

May\(^2\) (1969) holds that each of us has an inherent need to exist in the world into which we are born, and to achieve a conscious and unconscious sense of ourselves as an autonomous and distinct entity. The stronger this "being in the world" or Dasein (sein = to exist, or be alive, da = there), the healthier the personality.

Anxiety is the apprehension cued off by a threat to some value that the individual holds essential to his existence as a personality. It is the subjective state of the individual's becoming aware that his existence can become destroyed that he can lose himself and his world, that he can become "nothing".

Thus anxiety differs from fear in that it is ontological, or related

to human existence or being. Thus, May attributes anxiety not to some divisive intrapsychic conflict or external danger, but rather to the fundamental clash between being and the threat of nonbeing. A certain amount of anxiety is therefore a normal, inevitable, aspect of human nature.

Ontological anxiety confronts each of us with a major challenge. This unpleasant emotion intensifies whenever we choose to assert our Dasein and strive to fulfil our innate potentials, for emphatically affirming that we exist also brings a reminder that someday we will not. Therefore, it is all too tempting to repress or intellectualize our understanding of death, deny our Desein, and opt for the apparent safety of social conformity and apathy. That is we may try to deprive nonbeing of its sting by (consciously or unconsciously) treating our being-in-the-world as meaningless. The healthy course is to accept nonbeing as an inseparable part of being. This will enable us to live what life we have to the fullest.

**SCIENTIFIC CONCEPTION OF ANXIETY:**

Earlier Darwin, Freud, Adler, Homay and Sullivan studied anxiety scientifically. Subsequently, Hull, Spence, Taylor, Sarson, Spielberg and their respective associates transformed the concept of anxiety into a measurable and useful psychological construct.
Darwin\(^1\) (1872) described and documented the manifestation of anxiety and fear in man and animals. He pointed out that these emotions can be recognized by rapid heart beat, perspiration, dilation of the pupils, dryness of month, trembling, change in voice quality and so on. Darwin argues that the reason this pattern of expression is universally found in man and animals is that it is highly adaptive-only those having evolved this mechanism are able to cope with or flee from sources of danger as required for survival.

Although Sigmund Freud originally believed that anxiety stemmed from a physiological buildup of libido, he ultimately redefined anxiety as a signal of the presence of danger in the unconscious. Anxiety was viewed as the result of psychic conflict between unconscious sexual or aggressive wishes and corresponding threats from the superego or external reality. In response to this signal, the ego mobilized defense mechanisms to prevent unacceptable thoughts and feeling from emerging into conscious awareness. Psychoanalytic theories conceptualize panic attacks as arising from an unsuccessful defense against anxiety-provoking impulses. What was previously a mild signal anxiety becomes an overwhelming feeling of apprehension, complete with somatic system. Traumatic separations during childhood may affect children's developing nervous systems in

such a manner that they become susceptible to anxieties in adulthood.

Freud\(^1\) (1936) proposed that there is an objective anxiety and neurotic anxiety. Objective anxiety is somewhat more complex than fear, incorporating, in addition, a sense of helplessness and general malaise. Objective anxiety results from some source of danger in the external environment. It is usually based on a substantial history of learning about that danger. Neurotic anxiety has no source in the external world. Like fear, neurotic anxiety is a complex internal reaction to some perceived danger. It prepares the individual to flee or cope with the impending danger. However, it differs from fear in that it is based not on external danger, but on the individual's own history of traumatic experiences such as birth, the loss of loved one, or punishment of socially disapproved urges. Its source is some impulse to act, acquired sometime in the individual's part, that cannot now be perceived because it was punished and then repressed from memory.

Like Jung, Alfred Adler\(^2\) (1964) emphasized the future dimension of personality, stressing the importance of teleology. However, he emphasized man's social nature to a much greater extent than either Freud or Jung had done. He placed social needs at par with


Freud's instincts and Jung's archetypes as primary sources of motivation and personality development. Adler believed that there is one final goal which men seek and which gives unity to their personalities. At an early stage in his studies Adler called this fundamental striving the will to power, and conceived of man as driven by an innate lust for domination over others in order to compensate for deep-rooted but concealed feeling of his own inferiority. It was his thinking that gave us the term inferiority complex which is still widely used.

Later, however, as he realized more fully the importance of man's social context, Adler adopted the term striving for superiority as more accurately expressing the nature of man's most basic motivation. All man's various drives are not really separate urges, according to Adler, but manifestations of the striving for superiority. While the neurotic or chronically anxious person may seek power and self-aggrandizement, the normal person's strivings are social in nature and take into accounts the needs of others.

According to Horney\(^1\) (1945), children naturally experience anxiety, helplessness, and vulnerability. Without loving guidance to help children learn to cope with threats imposed by nature and society, they may develop basic anxiety. Basic anxiety is referred to as "the

feeling a child has of being isolated and helpless in a potentially hostile world. A wide range of adverse factors in the environment can produce this insecurity in a child: direct or indirect domination, indifference, erratic behaviour, lack of respect for the child's individual needs, lack of real guidance, disparaging attitudes, too much admiration or the absence of it, lack of reliable warmth, having to take seeds in parental disagreements, too much or too little responsibility, overprotection, isolation from other children, injustice, discrimination, unkept promises, hostile atmosphere and so on and so on."

Horney terms all these adverse factors as basic evil. In general, Horney suggested that anything that disturbs the security of the child in relation to his or her parents produces basic anxiety.

The basic evil experienced by the child naturally provokes resentment, or basic hostility. This in turn produces a conflict for the child, because expressing the hostility would risk punishment and jeopardize his or her receipt of parental love. Children deal with their hostility by repressing it. The repression exacerbates the conflict, leading to vicious circle. The anxiety produces and excessive need for affection. When these needs are not met, the child feels rejected and the anxiety and hostility intensify. Because this new hostility also must be repressed in order to protect. Whenever sense of security the child has, anxiety increases, and the need for repression leads to more hostility.
Then the cycle begins again. The child, and later the troubled adult, is locked into a circle of intensifying distress and unproductive behaviour.

The insecure, anxious child develops various strategies by which to cope with its feelings of isolation and helplessness. It may become hostile and seek to avenge itself against those who have rejected or mistreated it. Or the child may become overly submissive in order to win back the love that it feels it has lost. It may develop an unrealistic, idealized picture of itself in order to compensate for its feelings of inferiority. The child may try to bribe others into loving it or may use threats to force people to like it. It may wallow in self-pity to gain people's sympathy.

If the child can not get love, it may seek to obtain power over others. In that way, it compensates for its sense of helplessness, finds an outlet for hostility, and is able to exploit people. Or the child becomes highly competitive, in which the winning is far more important than the achievement. It may turn its aggression inward and belittle itself.

Sullivan\(^1\) (1950) says that anxiety is a product of interpersonal relations. It is transmitted originally from the mother to the infant and later in life by threats to security. To avoid or minimize actual or

potential anxiety, people adopt various types of protective measures and supervisory controls over their behaviour. One learns, for example, that one can avoid punishment by confronting to parents' wishes. These security measures form the self-system that sanctions certain forms of behaviour and forbids other forms.

He further holds that in large amounts, it reduces the efficiency of the individuals in satisfying their needs, disturbs interpersonal relations, and produces confusion in thinking. Anxiety varies in intensity depending upon the seriousness of threat and the effectiveness of the security operations that the persons have at their command. Severe anxiety is like a blow on the head. It conveys no information to the person but instead produces utter confusion and even amnesia. Less severe forms of anxiety can be informative. In fact, Sullivan believed that anxiety is the first great educative influence in living.

Anxiety is transmitted to the infant by the "mothering one", who is herself expressing anxiety in her looks, tone of voice, and general demeanour. This transmission is probably takes place by some kind of empathic process whose nature is obscure. As a consequence of this mother-transmitted anxiety, other objects in the surroundings become frightened with anxiety by the operation of associating contiguous experiences. The infant learns to veer away from activities and objects that increase anxiety. When the baby cannot escape
anxiety, it tends to fall asleep. Sullivan said that one of the great tasks of psychology is to discover the basic vulnerabilities to anxiety in interpersonal relations rather than to try to deal with the symptoms resulting from anxiety.

THE LEARNING THEORISTS' VIEW OF ANXIETY:

Anxiety is an inevitable by-product of socialization. In infancy the child has no way of knowing what behaviour society rewards and punishes. It responds in terms of selfish needs. Some of these are socially taboo and are punished by the parents. Quite obviously, from the point of view of the child, the adjective thing to do is to inhibit the unacceptable behaviour and, thereby, avoid punishment. Inevitably this is the child's solution to the problem. The solution, however, is, at best, imperfect for several reasons: (1) It leaves the original drive unsatisfied. It must be put aside and forgotten. This is a view which the psychoanalysts stress. (2) The reinforced and punished acts to be discriminated create real problems. The child must distinguish between rewarded forthrightness and punished aggression, between craven cowardice and graceful concession, between standing up for one's rights and selfish hostility. Probably no one learns to recognize all the necessary nuances in his own behaviour, or to achieve a satisfactory correlation of the ones he does discriminate to the requirements of the environment. (3) The origin of much anxiety is to be found in incidents which occurred before the child had learned to
talk. Punishment for soiling during toilet training, for infertile sexuality, for lapses of table manners, and for early aggression, all instill anxiety for behaviour which bears no verbal label. In later life such verbal labels are of great assistance in developing discriminations between tabooed and non tabooed acts. The labels are usually easier to discriminate than the stimuli arising from the acts themselves. In early childhood, however, anxiety may be conditioned to vague, poorly differentiated aspects of behaviour. (4) In a sense it is impossible for the child to make completely accurate discriminations and to develop responses perfectly calculated to avoid punishment. Too much depends upon the inconsistent moods and insensitive perceptions of parents and others in control of child's life. Sometimes certain acts are encouraged; sometimes they are punished. Beyond this, there is no guarantee that such consistency as parents show will be matched by a similar predictability in the behaviour of brothers, sisters, grandparents or teachers.

CLASSICAL CONDITIONING VIEW OF ANXIETY:

The distinguished Russian physiologist Pavlov\(^1\) (1927) discovered a type of learning that has become known as classical conditioning. Pavlov was able to demonstrate that through the simultaneous presentation of an unconditioned stimulus and a

conditioned stimulus, the conditioned stimulus would eventually elicit a response that originally could be elicited only by the unconditioned stimulus.

In the hands of a number of American psychologists this process of classical conditioning became a means of building an objective psychology that dealt only with observable. Watson\(^1\) (1925) was the leader of this movement. He seized upon Pavlon's principle of conditioning and, combining this with ideas he had already developed, presented to the world a position he called "behaviourism".

According to these theories, anxiety is a conditioned response to specific environmental stimuli. In a model of classical conditioning, people without food allergies may become sick after eating contaminated specific food in a restaurant. Subsequent exposures to that food may cause these people to feel sick. Through generalization, they may come to distrust all food prepared by others. As an alternative causal possibility, they may learn to have an internal response of anxiety by imitating the anxiety responses of their parents.

**OPERANT CONDITIONING VIEW OF ANXIETY:**

In operant conditioning, the presentation of a reinforcing or punishing stimulus is contingent on an appropriate response by the organism. Operant theorists focus their attention on avoidance

behaviour and its consequences such as attention from others, reduction in work requirements and momentary compensation, which can be primary determinants of maintenance and acquisition of symptomatic behaviour. Operant treatment of avoidance behaviour typically involves positive reinforcement of successive approximations of the desired approach behaviour. In operant conditioning perspective, the discriminative stimuli rather than conditioned stimuli are learnt and become persistent due to continued reinforcement in the past.

MOWRER'S VIEW OF ANXIETY:

Mowrer\(^1\) (1947) put forward a solution to the problem of persistence of avoidance behaviour (as anxiety was considered central to the understanding of avoidance behaviour) in his dual process theory including Pavlovian conditioning of fear to conditioned stimulus (the first process). Fear is an aversive state and motivates the animals to engage in escape behaviour. Animal is escaping from the conditioned stimulus and the fear it elicits, thus avoiding the shock. The avoidance behaviour is reinforced by the fear reduction (the second process). Animal engaging in avoidance behaviour exhibits very little emotional behaviour. It is only when the avoidance response

is prevented, the emotional behaviour is aroused. This model, however, is a traditional learning model used to explain symptomatic behaviour in human anxiety disorder.

According to Mowrer there is much in common between the views of Freud and Pavlov. According to Pavlov, the remote signs (signals) of objects can be easily recognized in the movement reaction of the animal. The main difference between the two is that according to Pavlov, the danger signal (the conditioned stimulus) comes to elicit the same trauma (simple stimulus substitution). On the other hand, according to Freud, danger signal may come to produce any of the infinite variety of reaction that are wholly unlike the reactions that occurs to the actual trauma.

The experience of anxiety has two components: the awareness of physiological sensation (such as palpitations and sweating) and the awareness of being nervous or frightened. In addition to motor and visceral effects, anxiety effects thinking, perception and learning. It tends to produce confusion and distortions of perception, not only of time and space but also of people and the meanings of events. These distortions can interfere with learning by lowering concentration, reducing recall and impairing the ability to relate one item to another that is, to make associations.

An important aspect of emotions is their effect on the selectivity of attention. Anxious people are apt to select certain things in their
environment and overlook and overlook others in their effort to prove that they are justified in considering the situation frightening. If they falsely justify their fear, they augment their anxiety by the selective response and set up a vicious circle of anxiety, distorted perception, and increased anxiety. If, alternatively, they falsely reassure themselves by selective thinking, appropriate anxiety may be reduced and they may fail to take necessary precautions.

**DOLLARD AND MILLER VIEW OF ANXIETY:**

Dollard and Miller\(^1\) (1950) view anxiety as a powerful secondary drive. The infant is born with a limited range of primary drives that develops into a complex system of secondary drives with growth and experience. The stimuli associated with acquired drives can serve as cues in the same manner as any other stimulus. The individual may learn to respond with the word "afraid" in fear evoking situations, that is, label the secondary drive, and this response-producing cue will then mediate the transfer of responses learned in the original fear-producing situation to the present situation. Individuals can learn to discriminate different intensities of drive stimulation just as in the case of other stimuli; so that the cue value of the acquired drive may depend on the intensity of the drive.

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They postulated that anxiety is generalized in two ways: Firstly the organism may learn to fear not only the stimulus itself, but also all other things associated with the stimulus and circumstances. Secondly, anxiety is extended through stimulus generalization: Organism learns to fear objects or conditions that are deceptively similar to the original fearsome stimulus.

**EFFECTS OF ANXIETY ON BEHAVIOUR:**

Anxiety is commonly recognized as an unpleasant experience and as a disrupter of behaviour. The learning theorist takes it as his task to explain these familiar influences within his own conceptual framework: (1) Anxiety is conceived as a drive, with anxiety reduction playing the role of reinforcer; and (2) As with other drives, anxiety has distinctive stimuli associated with it. These stimuli serve as cues to which responses can be conditioned, with the result that the individual whose anxiety is aroused may be expected to show a characteristic set of responses. Although individuals who favour one or other of these views sometimes have argued as to which is correct, it should be recognized that, as with other drives, anxiety almost certainly functions both as a motive and as a producer of stimulation.

Most of the research on anxiety carried out by psychologists interested in learning has been done to test the implications of the first of these propositions, the idea that anxiety is drive. The assumption of a multiplicative relationship between drive and habit strength leads to
the following predictions: (1) In simple, uncomplicated learning situations, such as classical conditioning, where only one response is elicited, anxiety should facilitate performance. This is because anxiety as an irrelevant drive, contributes to the total motivational level of the subject and increases the quantity obtained when habit strength and drive are multiplied. (2) In complex, even in two choice situations, the effect of increased drive depends upon two further considerations (a) the nature of the dominant habit evoked in the learning situation, and (b) whether the response which corresponds to this habit is right or wrong. If it is right, increased motivation (high anxiety) should facilitate performance, just as in the case of non-computational learning. If it is wrong, the situation becomes more complicated. Initially anxiety should interfere with performance, since it energizes incorrect responses. As the correct responses are mastered, however, there should be a point at which these latter responses become dominant; and from then on, anxiety again may be expected to facilitate. In complex learning situations, thus, the effects of anxiety upon behaviour may be facilitating, or first interfering and than facilitating, depending upon the correctness of the original response tendencies of the subject and the manner in which these tendencies change with practice.

Tests of these deductions about the effect of anxiety on learning have most often made use of Taylor's Manifest Anxiety Scale (MAS).
The MAS consists of items from an objective test, the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, judged by clinicians to be diagnostic of anxiety. In the main, the items are one sentence description of anxiety symptoms, and the subject is asked to indicate whether each is characteristic of him. The measure of anxiety is the number of such symptoms to which the individual admits. In typical studies, subjects with scores indicating very low and very high anxiety are compared in their performance on some learning task. Montague\(^1\) (1953); Taylor\(^2\) (1956) found high anxiety subjects performed better on non-competitional tasks and poor on competitional ones. But a more typical finding is simply that high-anxiety subjects are inferior on complex tasks, whatever the strength of correct and incorrect tendencies. This suggests that complex learning situations evoke interfering responses in highly anxious subjects, and this tends to override whatever beneficial affects anxiety may have upon learning in situations of this sort.

Must of the discussion in literature on anxiety has stressed the fact that the influence of anxiety on behaviour is exceedingly complex. It has been found that the effect of anxiety depends upon individual difference variables such as sex and the intelligence of the subjects.

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STATE AND TRAIT ANXIETY:

When anxiety is spoken of as a reaction to a situation, it is a state of the person. Presumably, he will react with anxiety whenever certain things happen, whenever certain things occur. He is anxious to some degree as long as these conditions are present.

In opposition to this, anxiety as a trait is comparatively stable attribute of an individual's personality. This person is spoken of as an anxious individual. This is the dispositional characteristic of person. He is capable of being threatened more easily or by a greater variety of situations. This is reflected in questionnaire measure of anxiety in the use of the expression "usually" or "often" as when the person is asked, "Do you often feel apprehensive or uneasy?" Thus, because it is a consistent or frequent reaction, he is said to have the trait anxiety. In anxiety state, interest is primarily directed at the specific stimulus conditions that bring it about, for example, criticism, failure, threat of injury.

Spielberger\(^1\) (1972) put forward a theory of anxiety which distinguished between state anxiety and trait anxiety. An anxiety state is transitory. It is evoked when the individual perceives a stimulus as potentially harmful to him; otherwise the level of anxiety is low. Trait

anxiety refers to stable personality differences in anxiety proneness. It is not manifested directly in behaviour, rather it is inferred from the frequency and intensity of the individual's anxiety states.

Individuals who are high in trait anxiety are disposed to perceive a wide range of stimulus situations as dangerous or threatening and to respond to such threats with high state anxiety. They are more concerned with the evaluation of their performance than with the details that are intrinsic to the performance itself. It is generally thought that this orientation is developed through a combination of observing the unpleasant consequences of other people's failure and harsh personal encounters with failure.

Spielberger\(^1\) (1972) has proposed that the relation of anxiety states to trait anxiety is as follows:

1. Anxiety states are evoked when the individual perceives that he is in a threatening situation.
2. The intensity of the anxiety state is proportional to the severity of the threat the individual perceives.
3. The anxiety state will persist as long as the individual perceives that the threat is continuing.
4. High trait-anxious individuals perceive threats of failure or self-esteem as more severe that do persons having low trait anxiety, and

\(^1\) Ibid.
perceive more situations as threatening than do low trait anxious persons.

5. Evaluation in state anxiety have stimulus and drive properties that may be expressed directly in behaviour or that may sense to initiate psychological defenses that reduce anxiety.

6. Stressful situations that are often encountered may cause the individual to develop coping responses or defenses that reduce or minimize state anxiety.

Saiason¹ (1960) found that the persons who are high in trait anxiety tend to be characterized by fear of failure and by a tendency to become upset by whatever kinds of situations pose a threat to their self-esteem. Persons who are low on trait anxiety but are currently experiencing high state anxiety respond differently to intellectual tasks than do persons who are high on trait anxiety and are currently experiencing high state anxiety. High trait-anxious persons perform best in non-evaluative situations, that is, in which failure or punishment are inevitable, or not contingent on performance. Persons who are low in trait anxiety perform best in evaluative situations in which their outcomes are within their control and do less well in non-evaluative and non-contingent situations.

CONCEPT OF SELF-CONCEPT:

Self-concept generally refers to the totality of a complex, organized and system of learned beliefs, attitudes and opinions that each person holds to be true about his or her personal existence.

There is a great deal of research, which shows that the self-concept is, perhaps the basis for all motivated behavior. It is the self-concept that gives rise to possible selves, and it is possible selves that create the motivation for behavior.

As far as we know, no one is born with a self-concept. It gradually emerges in the early months of life and is shaped and reshaped through repeated perceived experience particularly with significant others. The fact that self-concept is learned has some important implications.

Self-concept does not appear to be instinctive, it is a social product developed through experience; it possesses relatively boundless potential for development and actualization. Because of previous experience and present perception individual may be perceive themselves in ways different from the ways others see them. We develop and maintain our self-concept through the process of taking action and then reflecting on what we have done and what others tell us about what we have done, type reflect on what we have done and can do in comparison to our expectations and the
expectations of others and to the characteristic and accomplishment of others that is, self-concept is not innate, but is developed by the individual through interaction with the environment and reflecting on that interaction.

There are several different components of self-concept physical, academic, social and transpersonal. The physical aspects of self-concept relate to that which is concrete, what we look like, our sex, height, weight etc. Our academic self-concept relates to how well we do in school or how we relate to other people and transpersonal self-concept describes how we relate to the supernatural unknowns.

Self-concept influence how people act. Actions in turn change self-concept. As children accumulate experience, some aspects of their old self-concept are strengthened and where as others fall away and new ones take their place.

**Development of the Self concept:**

Super (1949) has shown that individual differ in abilities, values and personality characteristics. Self-concept of an individual changes with time and experience, making choice and adjustment a continuous process. An individual encounters in numbers of situations from the very childhood in which he has to adjust. The exploration of self is a process which begins early in life. The home and its social are the important factors influencing the process.
No experience in the development of a child's concept of self is quite so important or far reaching as his earliest experience in his family. It is the family which introduces a child to life which provides him with his earliest and most permanent self definition. The effect of the family on a person's self are likely to be particularly struck by the traumatize events in family life like births, death, family upheavals or extended period of happiness. These are, of course, vital experience and have important bearings upon a person's perception of self. Freud and his followers stressed on the traumatic events in the early years of a person's life as crucial determinants of personality.

Rogers (1959) described that the process is very satisfying but to know whether he is receiving or not he must observe his mother face genitures and other ambiguous signs. He developed a gestalt as to the way he was regarded by his mother and each new experience of love or rejection tends to alter the whole gestalt consequently each behaviors on his part such as a disapproval of specific behavior tends to be experienced as disapproval in general. So important is this to the infant that he comes to be guided in his behaviors not by the degree to which an experience maintains or enhances the organism but by the likelihood of receiving the maternal love. Soon he learns to view himself and in much the same way liking or disliking himself as a total configuration. To view himself and his behavior in the same way, they have. This means that some behavior are regarded positively
which are not actually experienced as unsatisfying. It is when he behaves in accordance with these interjected values that he may be said to have acquired conditions of worth, unless he lives in terms of these conditions. He now reach with achieve or avoidance towards certain behavior solely because of these behaviors. That is what meant by living in terms of interjected values. (The phrase formerly used) or conditions of worth.

Describing the process Byrne (1966) remarks between the conditions of worth as defined by the self-concept and are accurately perceived and symbolized in consciousness. Some experiences are contrary to his self-concept and are perceived selectively, distorted and denied to awareness either in sole or part. Whenever an incongruence exists between self and experience psychological maladjustment occurs and hence Vulnerability to anxiety, threat and disorganization is present, for example, if feelings of dependency are in consistency with an individual self-concept any situation which suggests the need for some one else's help is necessarily threatening through the person is not able to verbalize the reason why? Similarly, the person's own behavior may be, consistent with his self-concept and accurately perceived, or it may be inconsistent with the self-concept and thus subject to distorted perception and lack of awareness (p. 439).

Robins (1966), Medinnus (1965), Helper (1958), Jourard (1957)
and Bowlby (1953) pointed out that in his interaction with father, mother and siblings a young child begins his differentiations of self as liked or unliked, wanted or unwanted acceptable or unacceptable, able or unable worthy or unworthy, adequate or inadequate. Through these perceptions the individual is able to symbolize his own degree of adequacy or self-actualization. Skeels (1966) and Differ viewed that if the child acquires more positive self definitions the greater is his feeling of adequacy and need satisfaction, and conversely the more negative. Self-definitions he acquires the more frustrated and unhappy he becomes. Parish (1982) found that young adults evaluations of themselves and their parents is a function of family structure and disposition Sedalia, Foss and Cole best found that inconsistent discipline is the result of parental controlling techniques. In relation to sex role, self-concept and interpersonal understanding. However, sex role, self-concept did not intract with either grade or gender for interpersonal understanding (Weiver, Cinda, B. 1989).

Paull and Kaffer (1983) found that in recent years teachers and counselors have begun to implement class room training programme designed to enhance the self-concept of children as such programme assume an interactive relationship between cognitive and affective processes. Canfield and Well (1976), Dupont, Gardner and Brody (1974) pointed out its necessity and suggested to examine. Carefully the possible influence that the level of a child's cognitive ability has on
Shavelson et. al. (1976) examined an important developmental characteristics of the self-concept, the way it differentiates over time and into hierarchical structure. This hierarchical structure incorporates a relatively stable and enduring self-concept, super ordinate to a variety of minor self-concept. These minor self-concept are varying levels of stability, are associated with particular behavior domain and become increasingly less stable as they become situation specific. As the child develops he learns to differentiate among the minor self-concept and begin to learn about and accept their positive and negative self-concepts. Dusek and Flaberty (1982) on the basis of a longitudinal analysis found that adolescent's self-concept developed in a continuous and stable way and it is a result of continued and gradual growth based not only on social circumstances but also on emergent cognitive competencies and skills. Thus the differentiation process is crucial to the development of positive self esteems. As yet it is not established when such differentiation occurs. Piaget suggested that the progression from preoperational to operational thought at about seven years of age is an important stage in self-development.

In broad terms self-concept can be defined as person's perception of himself. These perception are formed and are influenced especially by environmental reinforcements and significant others. One's perception of himself are thought to influence the ways in which
he acts, and his acts in turn influence the way in which he perceive himself: Combs super and Coursen (1963) and Parker (1966) restricted self-concept to a person's report of self. Self-concept may be defined as, organized multifaceted, hierarchical, stable developmental, evaluative and differentiable.

**Theories (Self-concept):**

The concept of self has three major components the perceptual, the conceptual and the attitudinal. The perceptual component is the image the person has of the appearance of his body and of the impression he marks on others. It includes the image he has of the attractiveness and sex appropriateness of his body, such as his muscles, his build, his behavior and the prestige they give him in the eyes of others. The perceptual component is often called the "physical self-concept".

The conceptual component is the people conception of his distinctive characteristics his abilities and disabilities, his background and origins and his future. It is often called the psychological self-concept and is composed of such life adjustment qualities as honesty, self-concept, independence, courage and their opposites.

Similarly the attitudinal component of the self are the feelings a person has about himself, his attitudes towards his present status and future prospects, his feeling about his worthiness, and his feeling
regarding, self-esteem, self reapproach, pride and shame. A person's beliefs, convictions, values, ideals, aspirations and commitments compose his self by the time he reaches adulthood and lead him to form his philosophy of life.

Hall and Lindzey (1957) suggest that the term self has come to have two distinct meaning to psychologists (1) self as object and (2) self as process. Self as object is defined simply as the total aggregate of attitudes, judgments and values which an individual hold with respect to his behavior, his ability, his body, his worth as a person short how he perceive and evaluate himself. Self as process is defined in term of activities such as thinking and perceiving and coping with the environment.

The point presented by Hall and Lindzey is that the self-concept defined in terms of self as object is an important aspect of personality and that individual differences along this dimension are as meaningful as differences in attitudes, motives and abilities, self on process, often leads towards rectification and one finds that the self is responsible for behavior and things like qualities.

Snygg and Combs learn very heavily on a perceptual approach of explaining human behavior. According to their theory behavior occurs in terms of how an individual perceives himself and his surroundings. The individual view of himself is his "self-concept" who is he, the phenomenal self-includes the self-concept and those aspects
of life which are not a part of the "real-self" but are in some way related to it, one's family, carrier, home, school, clothing and the like. The environment that the individual perceives or notices is termed as the phenomenal environment.

What Snygg and Combs (1959) call phenomenal field "is called by other, psychological field" or life space (Koffka 1935, Lewin 1935) Prank (1939) called it as "private world'. Snygg and Combs pointed out that this phenomenal field or private world is reality for each though what he perceives and he perceives it is the "real world". This helps to explain why two person's in the same situation may behave differently, that is they behave differently because they perceive the situation differently.

Rogers suggested self as the nuclear concept of the personality. It is conceived as something that develops as a result of the interaction of the individual with his environment. It may interrogate the values of other people in either perceiving them correctly or in a distorted manner. The self strives for consistency. The individual acts largely in a way consistent with the self experience which are not consistent with the self structures are perceived as threats. The self is not a static, unchanged entity. It may change as a result of several factors, the most important of which are maturation and learning.

Self-concept is the central constructs of Roger's theory. It may be conceived of as an organized gestalt comprising:-
1. The individual's perception of himself the values attached to them.

2. The individual's perception of himself in relations to other persons and values attached to them.

3. The individual's perception of the various aspects of the environment and attached to them.

According to Rogers's self-theory self-concept is not self-awareness or consciousness. It is the conceptual gestalt concerning on self which need to always be in awareness but available to awareness. Sometimes an individual may not be aware of one's own self as it exists in its affective domain. A person may not always be aware of his feeling or attitudes which may lie deep in his unconscious repertoire on which he can fall back as and when he wants to use it. Perceptions and the values attached to the self-change from time to time.

The self-concept always is or in a state of change which is its most important characteristics from the Layman's point of view the self concept is the picture the individual has of himself and his evaluation of the picture change in an individual as behavior and attitudes to others seem to follow changes in his attitude towards himself. Needs are basically determines of behavior. For example the need for food when experienced as hunger leads to activity on the part
of an individual and he is satisfying on his securing the food by physical activity. However the individual will not steal food to satisfy his hunger if he considers himself as an honest person. The individual a behavior, will thus normally be consistent with his self-concept, the individual may adopt devices measures to find gratification of his behavior consistent with his self-concept. Perceptions to secure apparent consistency leads to maladjustment.

The core concepts of Roger's self theory are:-

1. The organism, which is the total individual.

2. The totality of experience, which is the phenomenal field.

3. The self, which is differentiated apart of the phenomenal field which comprises the conscious perceptions of T and 'ME' with the values attached to them.

The organism reaches as a whole to the totality of the situations or the phenomenal field to secure, satisfaction for its need.

The overriding basic motive or need is to actually, maintain and enhance it self in this process, it symbolizes experience which become conscious or it may ignore and deny summarization of certain experience and prevent them from becoming conscious. Such experience thus remains unconscious. Lack of congruence between experience and self-structure lead to male adjustment.

Roger's self-theory is basically phenomenological in nature and
depends heavily on the self as an explanatory concept. The theory looks upon congruence between the phenomenal field of experience and the conceptual structures of the self as essential to healthy adjustments.

Epstein (1972) submits that a self-theory. It is a theory that an individual has unwillingly constructed about himself as an experiencing and functioning individual and it is a part of broader theory which he holds with respect to his entire range of significant experience. Like most theories, the self-theories is a conceptual tool for accomplishing a purpose. The most fundamental purpose of the self-theory is to optimize the pleasure or pain balance of the individual over the course of a like time. Two other basic functions, not unrelated to the first are to facilitate the maintenance to the first are to facilitate the maintenance of self esteem and to organize the date of experience in a manner that can be coped with effectively. Those function were desired from the assumption that at its most basic level human behavior is organized b according to pleasure or pain principle and from an analysis of the conditions that produce total and sudden disorganization of the personality as in acute schizophrenia.

Epstein has made an attempt too different between self and non self. He suggested that the date of experience can be organized in to a self system and a world system. Not only are they cues for different self and Non self ubiquitous and normally impossible to ignore, but
these are over we heaving advantages in making the distinction for one, to act within a world of shared reality, it is necessary to distinguish what is subjective from what is common experience. Secondly the distinction between self and non-self is useful for the individual to exercise control of his behavior. Thirdly for humans to live harmoniously in social communities, it is necessary to give a concept of responsibility, and such a concept would be meaningless without a distinction between self and non self. It is thus apparent that in every day living, as well as in science it is important to distinguish the subjective world of self from the objective world of non self.

CONCEPT OF LEVEL OF ASPIRATION:

Aspiration levels play an important role in every day decision making. New York cab drivers are motivated to earn a daily target return (Cameral, Babcock, Lowenstein, Taller, 1997.) when manager has to decide which projects or achieving a target rate of return as well (Payne. Laughter & Crum, 1980, 1981) Common to all these examples is the presence of LOA. The cab and the manger are confronted with risky choices on a daily basis. Some of them are wily to take risks, but after they also want to win at least something earn a daily target income, or prevent themselves from family the subsistence level. Therefore, in making their risky choices, subjects focus on reaching a special outcome, the aspiration level. Once an aspiration level is included, the probabilities that the aspiration will be reached or will
fall short of.

We combine an aspiration level with expected utility (Von Neumann & Morgen steam 1944.) Given that it is intuitive to thank about an aspiration level in terms of the overall probabilities of success and failure.

**ASPIRATION LEVELS:**

**Motivation:**

Subject coder outcomes above the aspiration level as success and outcomes below the aspiration level as failures

Herbert Simon made the assumption that people had aspiration because they simplify their decision making. A 'LOA' was consequently a subjective objective of performance. It serves felling of a point success to solve a problem, a performance exceeding the LOA is a success, a performance that fails to reach this level is a failure, as put together by "Leon festinger" in 1942. For Simon (1955), if all objectives can be described in directly observable dimensions, all choices could then be synthesized in satisfying or unsatisfying alternatives, allowing the use of dynamic adjustment to produce nearly optional solutions.

Star buck seized the opportunity to introduce in his model the variation of level of aspiration as goals are matched or missed making a clear distinction between temporal horizons and the more or less
explicit quality of aspiration. Hence, he demonstrated that change in level of aspiration were mostly dependent on conditions of stability associated with goals (Starbuck, 1958). Someone who solves a problem may have general preference, vaguely defined and non-operational that from a super structure for his or her goals. As this ambiguous super structure becomes more clearly defined and as the individual learns more about his life space, his level of aspiration are going to change. New LOA will be established, older aspiration levels will be revised or discarded (Starbuck, 1963).

This was a major contribution first, it was becoming clear that building a theory on aspiration with a maximization assumption was misleading second, Starbuck’s essay suggest that people constant their preferences ex-post, hence enlightening a continuous interaction between behaviors and preferences.

In daily social life, it is well known that our judgments are influenced by our relationships with other persons, groups, institution and the like. It is common human experience that we tend to overestimate the potentialities and actual accomplishments of those high in our esteem, and tend to minimize the potentialities and accomplishments of our rivals, competitors, and enemies.

Chapman and Volkmann explicitly brought research on level of aspiration into functional relation with judgment. "The conditions which govern, the setting of a level of aspiration, in the sense of an
estimate of one's future performance in a given task, may be regarded as a special case of the effect upon a judgment of the frame of reference within which it is executed. This same conception of level of aspiration as an instance of the effect of the frame of reference within judgment is executed guided Sears study of academically successful and unsuccessful school children.

In accord with the earlier formulation of Chapman and Volkmann and of Sears, the authors conclude that such influence as temporary situational factors, standards on one's own and other groups etc. upon the setting of an aspiration level "May be conceived of as frames, involving a scale of values, within which the individual makes his decision as to a goal."

**Level of Aspiration:**

Hoppe¹ (1930) defined the level of aspiration (LOA) as a person's expectations, goals or claims on his own future achievement in a given task. On the basis of experimental analysis, Hoppe found that a given performance is accompanied by a felling of failure if it goes above the level of aspiration and a given performance is accompanied by a felling of success if it goes above the level of aspiration. Therefore level of aspiration according to Hoppe, was

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¹ Hoppe, F (1930), "Erfolg and misserfolg (unterguchungen Zur Handlung- Unaffected psychologies ix Ed. by Kurt Lewin) 1930, psychology forsch, 14, pp 1-62
essentially qualitative in nature, he ascertains level of aspiration through the following lines of evidence:

1. The subjective nature of an individual's goals,
2. The occurrence of success and failure experienced after the goal is achieved,
3. The influence of immediate past experience on the subsequent level of goal setting behavior.

Not only this, Hoppe also investigated the various factors which effect goal-setting behavior. He concluded that individual variations are found in level of aspiration. In his views, a realistic person always set a goal on the basis of his past experience keeping in view of his capabilities for doing a particular task. Thus Hoppe conceived level of aspiration as a technique for studying dynamic factor which operate in the prediction of feeling of success and failure.

Frank\(^1\) (1935) altered Hoppe's concept of level of aspiration (LOA) behavior in the light of his quantitative technique, where the goodness of performance was measured in terms of the times taken to complete the set task. He then redefined Hoppe's concept of level of aspiration as, "the term level of aspiration .......... is defined as level of future performance in a familiar task which an individual,

\(^1\) Frank J.D. (1935), 'Individual differences in certain aspects of the level of aspiration" Arner, J, psychology, 47,pp. 119-128.
knowing his level of past performance in that task exactly undertakes to reach."

According to Boyd\(^1\) (1952), "Level of aspiration" means an individual ambitions in a dynamic situations, that is it an individual's goal or expectation in regard to the goodness of his own future performance for a given task. "Backer and Seigal\(^2\) (1957) referred level of aspiration, as individual strives for a particular goal or level of achievement.

Joshi\(^3\) (1963) pointed out that level of aspiration individual strives positively towards the goal which is generally in keeping with his assets where as in wish fluffiest fantasies one is lost in them.

Ali and Akhter\(^4\) (1973) have used the concept of level of aspiration as a motivational construct to refer to the process of setting a goal by an individual in the activity to be performed. This depends on the individual's knowledge of past performance in that particular task.

In short many researchers have pointed out that level of aspiration


\(^2\) Backer and Seigal (1957), "Reference Groups, Membership Groups and Attitude change, J. Abnormal, Soc. psycho. 55, pp 360-364

\(^3\) Joshi, M.C. (1963) "Intelligence and level of vocational Aspiration, journal of Vocational and educational Guidance, a.p.p., 129-130

aspiration is the expected level of achievement of the individual where difference is obtained between person's performance in a task and his estimate of level of aspiration is taken in the present measure which is based on Humphrey and Argyle\(^1\) (1962).

Like other Psychological phenomena, motivational factor are important in directing individual behavior consciously and make him strive to perform certain types of activity in order to achieve a definite goal. Every one aims at reaching a definite goal or excellence in performance and in dying so, he sets a desire for distinction which has an inner structure known as level of aspiration" (LOA)

The level of aspiration is usually measured in term of goal discrepancy score, when GDS is very high or low, it may be claimed that one is merely imaginative, fantastic, unrealistic, below or above his self esteem, on the contrary when, actual performance and expectance of the individual is about the same, it may be said that person is realistic and practical in life. Thus setting of level of aspiration may itself motivate the individual to try his best level. Though sometimes acknowledge how well one has performance previously may equally be effective. The performance in the in the last trial makes one able to estimate how well he will do in the next trial whether. It is generally found that majority of the people tend to set

\(^1\) Humphrey G and Argyle M (1962) "Social psychology through Experiment."Bombay, Asia publishing House
their level of aspiration slightly above the previous and continued to
adjust the level on successive trail. If one has reached the level set by
him previously, he raises it on subsequent trail. If one has reached the
level set by him previously, he raises it on subsequent trail, but if one
failed to reach the previously set level, the number is lowered on the
subsequent trails. The greater the success, the stronger the tendency to
raise the level where as the greater the failure, the stronger the
tendency to lower it.

Level of Aspiration (LOA) is an individual's future expectation
or ambition. It refers to the estimate of one's future in a given task. In
today's world of competitiveness there is not a single individual who is
devoid of ambition in some or other form. A great deal of individual
variation is found with regard to goal setting behavior is found with an
equal amount of ability may also differ significantly in their goal
setting behavior. One may set it very high while, the other very low,
still others may set near to their performance level. Thus chousing life
goals and in doing daily activities people differ largely in their
expectations and aspiration.

The concept of 'level of aspiration' was first of all introduced in
1931 by Dembo\(^1\), one of Lewin's student, in the course of an
experimental investigation or anger. The first experiment directed

\(^1\) Dembo, T, & lewin, k, "Level of Aspiration", 1944, In J. Mev. Hunt (Ed),
personality and the Behavior Disorders, Vol. 1, New York, Ronald.
towards the analysis of the level of aspiration from a translation rom German world 'Ansprnch & Niveau' was performed by Hoppe\textsuperscript{1} in 1930. It is now a familiar concept to the psychologists, educationists, sociologists and other and having been the topic of extensive discussion and experimentation in this last quarter of the 20\textsuperscript{th} century.

Experimental situation has been used to, measure motivation particularly what is known as the level of aspiration. A subject performs a task where the performance can be expressed numerically. After each trail he is told his score and asked what he aims to get next time. The difference between the score aimed for and the last score obtained is found to be relatively constant for each person in a given task, and his difference is shown as the discrepancy score (D Score). This variable was intensive, studied some time ago:

The earlier literature is summarized by Lewin and others\textsuperscript{2} (1944). They have also revealed level of aspiration as below.

\begin{itemize}
\item Hoppe, F. (1930) "Erfolg and Misserfold (Undergo hunger) Zur H and lungr - Unaffected psychology, ix ed, by kurt Lewi)," 1930, psychology, forsch, 14, pp. 1-62.
\end{itemize}
Thus level of aspiration is a form of self-motivation involving competition with one's own past performance, when an individual is actively involved in a task, he sets himself a new standard or goal to achieve. He tries to gain excellence and attempts to do better than he did before raising his goal in every new attempt. If he succeeds in reaching the level he expected to reach or if he attains a higher level than the expected one's, he experience success which is not only satisfying him but also serves as a motivating force for further attainment, on the other hand, if he falls to attain his goal, he experiences a sense of failure which is normally followed by a lowering of the goal so that it may be achieved in the subsequent attempts. Thus, this setting of aspiration levels and the consequent feeling of success or failure resulting in either the raising or the lowering of the subsequent levels is a common characteristic of behavior in all goal setting situations.

**DETERMINANTS OF LEVEL OF ASPIRATION:**

Level of aspiration is usually influenced by two types of factors environmental and personal. In early childhood before the child is old
enough to know what his abilities, interests and values are his aspiration are largely shaped by his personal factors have a greater influence, but many of his aspiration, his values, for example are still environmental in origin.

**ENVIRONMENTAL DETERMINANTS:**

(1) **Parental Ambitions:** Parental ambitions influence the level of aspiration of the child parents always expect more from the first born, and there foe the level of aspirations may be higher for the first born than that of those born later.

(ii) **Social Expectations:** Society expects more from some people than others, it generally assumed that one who is successful in a particular are may also be successful in other areas if he wishes.

(iii) **Peer Pressure:** Friends may encourage or discourage a child for any thing, if they encourage him, it is possible that he will develop a tendency of high goal setting.

(iv) **Culture:** Cultural traditions are important factors for setting the goal better and rich culture background helps a child in fulfilling high expectations.

(v) **Social Value:** It also varies with the area of achievement, social rewards and prestige also work as reinforce.

(vi) **Competition:** Competitions with siblings and peers in the hope of showing better than others are also an affecting factor for level of aspiration.
(vii) **Group Cohesiveness:** It is also considered as a determinant of goal setting. One does better and sets high goal when he is acting in a group.

**Personal Determinants:**

(i) **Wishes:** If one's need to achieve something or he has high achievement motivation, his level of aspiration for achieving will be higher, and thus his wishes influence the level of aspiration.

(ii) **Personality:** The personality characteristic also determine the kind and strength of his aspirations.

(iii) **Past Experience:** The previous success strengthens one's aspiration where as failure weakness.

(iv) **Values and Interest:** Personal Values and interest also determine the extent of level of aspiration.

(v) **Sex:** It is generally found that boys have higher aspirations than girls because of their different interest, liking, goals and expectations of family and society.

(vi) **Socio Economic Background:** It is noticed that middle and upper groups have higher degree of aspiration than those of lower group.

(vii) **Racial Background:** Minority groups aspire higher than majority group. It is just a sort of compensation on the part of minority groups.