



INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF CREATIVE RESEARCH THOUGHTS (IJCRT)

An International Open Access, Peer-reviewed, Refereed Journal

RETROSPECTIVE VIEW REGARDING NEED AND ANXIETY

Dr. Kapil Sharma

Assistant Professor

Department of Physical Education

Government College, Bhiwani (Haryana)

This review attempts to present studies that are directly or indirectly relevant to the concepts of need and anxiety. The information included is drawn from both primary and secondary sources. Every effort has been made to incorporate pertinent literature that has a direct bearing on the subject.

The Concept of Need

The concept of “need” was introduced in the early 1930s as a central motivational force that releases energy to fulfill a specific desire. This idea was primarily propounded by Mr. Lewin (1935) who provided one of the most comprehensive explanations of needs in psychological theory.

The term “need” is closely related to other English words such as drive, motive, want, urge, and desire. While the concept has been widely utilized in psychology, no other theorist has offered as detailed an account as Murray (1962).

Inherent in his definition are several key points. He described a need as a construct that represents a force within the brain, one that organizes action in a specific direction to transform an unsatisfactory situation into a more fulfilling state. In essence, a need arises from dissatisfaction and directs behavior toward achieving a state of satisfaction.

Human needs have been classified in various ways to better understand motivation and behavior. One such classification, known as the Structure of Twenty Needs, has been presented by Murray's (1962).

These needs encompass a wide spectrum of human desires and drives, reflecting both psychological and physiological dimensions. The twenty identified needs are as follows:

1. Need for Abasement – The tendency to accept blame or punishment.
2. Need for Achievement – The drive to accomplish goals and excel.
3. Need for Affiliation – The desire to form social bonds and relationships.
4. Aggression – The tendency to assert oneself forcefully.
5. Autonomy – The need for independence and self-direction.
6. Counteraction – The drive to overcome obstacles and recover from failure.
7. Defendance – The need to protect oneself from blame or criticism.
8. Deference – The inclination to yield to others and show respect.
9. Dominance – The desire to exert influence or control over others.
10. Exhibition – The need for attention and self-expression.
11. Harm Avoidance – The instinct to avoid physical or psychological danger.
12. Infavoidance – The tendency to avoid humiliation or embarrassment.
13. Nurturance – The impulse to care for and support others.
14. Order – The preference for structure, organization, and precision.
15. Play – The need for recreation, enjoyment, and amusement.

16. Rejection – The inclination to distance oneself from others or situations.
17. Sentience – The drive to seek sensory and aesthetic experiences.
18. Succorance – The need for support, sympathy, and reassurance.
19. Understanding – The thirst for knowledge and comprehension.
20. Sex – The natural drive for intimacy and reproduction.

The Basis of Different Types of Needs

Beyond these twenty needs, human motivation can also be categorized into primary and secondary needs based on their origin and essentiality.

- **Primary Needs:** These are fundamental to survival and include physiological requirements such as air, water, food, sex, lactation, urination, and defecation. They are innate and biologically driven.
- **Secondary Needs:** These emerge from social, psychological, and cultural influences. They include needs for acquisition, achievement, autonomy, construction, exhibition, deference, dominance, and recognition. Unlike primary needs, secondary needs are not directly tied to survival but play a significant role in personal growth, social interaction, and emotional fulfillment.

Understanding these classifications of needs provides valuable insight into human behavior, helping individuals and organizations foster environments that support well-being, motivation, and personal development.

Overt and Covert Needs (Manifest and Latent Needs)

Overt needs, also known as manifest needs, are those that are openly expressed through motor behavior and observable actions. In contrast, covert needs, or latent needs, often remain hidden within an individual's thoughts, fantasies, or dreams. These covert needs arise due to the influence of the Superego, which defines what is considered proper or socially acceptable behavior. As a result, individuals may suppress certain desires or channel them in ways that align with societal norms.

This refined version makes the ideas more precise and readable while maintaining the original meaning. Let me know if you'd like any further adjustments!

Focal Needs and Diffuse Needs

Focal needs are specific and closely tied to particular environmental objects or situations. They arise in response to a limited range of external factors. In contrast, diffuse needs are more generalized and broadly applicable across various environmental settings. These needs are not confined to specific stimuli but are relevant in a wide range of situations.

Proactive Needs and Reactive Needs

Proactive needs originate from within an individual and are largely self-driven, arising from internal motivations rather than external influences. These needs shape a person's actions independent of immediate environmental factors. On the other hand, reactive needs emerge in response to external stimuli. They are activated by environmental conditions, leading an individual to act based on external triggers.

Murray applies these concepts to interpersonal interactions, where one individual assumes the role of the proctor, initiating actions based on proactive needs, while another individual functions as the reactor, responding to the stimuli provided by the proctor. This dynamic highlights the interplay between internally driven behaviors and those shaped by external influences in social interactions.

Process Activity and Model Needs

Murray (1962) emphasizes the equal importance of process activity and model needs, highlighting the innate tendencies that drive individuals to perform certain actions for the sake of the performance itself.

Process activities encompass fundamental functions such as vision, hearing, thought, and speech—abilities that occur naturally from birth. These activities are essential to human existence and operate continuously without conscious effort.

In contrast, model needs involve engaging in activities with a focus on excellence and quality. These actions are not merely performed but are pursued with the intent of achieving a certain level of perfection. The fulfillment derived from such activities comes not just from their execution but from the degree of skill and precision with which they are carried out. Recognition and reward follow only when these endeavors meet a high standard of performance.

By balancing both process activity and model needs, individuals can cultivate both innate abilities and refined skills, leading to greater personal growth and accomplishment.

Prescott (1938) classified needs into three types (i) physiological needs (primary needs) are some basic in born biological drives such as sex, hunger and thirst etc. (ii) Social needs are those on which, to a greater extent social behavior is based such as affiliation, achievement and change etc. (iii) Ego-integrative needs include such as need for contrast, with real harmony, with reality increasing self-direction etc.

Maslow (1954) envisaged five levels of needs :- (a) Physiological Needs: They are the basic bodily needs such as food, sleep, stimulation and activity etc. (b) Safety Needs include protection from bodily harm or injury and security from threat. (c) Love and Belongingness Needs :- These are the needs that include need for acceptance, warmth, affection and approval. (d) Esteem Needs are for adequacy, worth, status and self-respect. (e) self-actualization (fulfillment) needs :- These needs are for personal growth and the realization of potentialities.

Rotter (1970) classified these needs into six broad categories such as (i) Recognition: (the need to excel or better than others) that is the need to obtain high position in a socially valued competitive scale than others in school, occupation, profession, athletics, social position and physical appeal etc. (ii) Dominance: This is the need to control the actions of other persons. (iii) Independence:- To rely on oneself, to develop skills so as to obtain satisfaction and goals can be achieved without the help of others. (iv) Protection:- This is the need to have other persons help to obtain other desired goals. (v) Love and affection and (vi) physical comfort: it is the desire for avoidance of pain and the desire for bodily pleasures. Thus, further Murray argued that for understanding human behaviour, more importance should be given to the psychogenic needs. It was emphasis on psychogenic needs that led Murray to have a detailed study of these needs. The present study implies mainly the conception of psychogenic need as defined by Murray.

The Concept of Anxiety

The concept of anxiety enjoys central position in the theories of human behavior and personality. Anxiety as defined by the English in their Dictionary of Psychology is “an unpleasant emotional state in which a present and continuing desire or derive seems likely to miss its goal; a fusion of fear, the anticipation of future evil, marked and continuous fear with of low intensity; a feeling of threat, especially of a fear some threat without the person’s being able to say what he thinks threatens ...” The American Psychological Association (1952) defines it as, “a danger signal felt and perceived by the conscious portion of the personality. It is produced by a threat from within the personality ... with or without stimulus from ... external situations ...”

In the dictionary of psychology, James Drever has defined anxiety as, “a chronic complex emotional state with apprehension or dread as its most prominent component, characteristic of various nervous and mental disorders.”

Fear and Anxiety have long been accepted as basic human emotions. Sigmund Freud (1936) is undoubtedly the first psychologist who brought the significance of anxiety to the foreground of psychological research.

Different Approaches to Anxiety

There are various approaches to anxiety. Some of them are given as below :-

- (i) **The Psychoanalytic Approach :** Sigmund Freud (1936) the originator of this theory, attempted to explain and explore the meaning and nature of anxiety within the context of psychological theory. In his opinion the experience of anxiety is an everyday phenomenon. He mentioned two types of anxiety. The one was Realistic anxiety and the second one was Neurotic anxiety or non-realistic anxiety. Freud regarded anxiety as an effective state which is characterized by, "all that is covered by the word 'nervousness', apprehension or anxious expectations, and efferent discharge phenomenon." The efferent discharge phenomenon is concerned with heart palpitation, disturbances of respiration, sweating, tremor and shuddering, vertigo and a number of other physiological and behavioural manifestations. Freud further defined anxiety as a, "special state of unpleasure with act of discharge along particular path" (1926, p. 133). He has described two stages of development of anxiety: primary anxiety and subsequent anxiety. The essence of primary anxiety is the 'traumatic state'. The concept of subsequent anxiety is co-related with the differentiation of mental apparatus of ego, super ego and id processes.
- (ii) **The Neo-Freudian Approach :** Sullivan (1953) reveals the Neo-Freudian Approach in the interpersonal theory of psychiatry which deals with the development of person-necessary environment processes. The person-necessary environment complex has different degrees of equilibrium and disequilibrium. The causes of disequilibrium are tensions which are associated with anxiety. Sullivan has, however, emphasized only two types of anxiety i.e. mild anxiety and severe anxiety. The degree of anxiety experienced by the individual depends upon the significance of the disapproving person and the severity with which the disapproval is expressed.
- (iii) **The Ego-Psychological Approach :-** In the view of Jacobson (1964), anxiety is both a signal and adaptive phenomenon. When the ego is unprepared to meet the instinctual urges, anxiety works as a signal and the ego uses it to mobilize its defenses against these urges. Anxiety is adaptive in the sense that its emergence facilitates the development of new discharge pathways and new means of ego control. According to this approach, anxiety develops in the ego and a state of unpleasure arising from inter-systemic between the ego and the id.
- (iv) **Psychological Approach :** Martin (1971) after assuming anxiety as fear or pattern of bodily processes expressive of anxiety. Anxiety is expressed in various processes like increases in the heart rate, high blood pressure, cardiac beats, respiration rate, muscle tension, fore-head temperature and blood sugar level. It indicates decreases in peripheral resistance, diastolic blood pressure, hand temperature and salivary output.
- (v) **Learning-Approach :-** Among the various learning approaches such as Mowrer (1939, 1950), Dallard and Miller (1950), Eysence (1965) Tyalor (1956) and Spence (1966) learning theorists have identified anxiety in different ways in their experimental researches . Mowrer distinguished his conception of anxiety from that of Freud's. He translated Freud's theoretical views on anxiety into stimulus response terms and highly influenced the empirical research on human activity. Dallard and Miller (1950) believed that all behaviours are the outcome of drives. They differentiated between primary and innate drives (i.e. hunger, sex, thirst etc.) and secondary drives are those which are formed out of necessities of our social living. Fear and anxiety are regarded as extremely important secondary or learning drives. In their opinion fear and anxiety are not synonymous. In their view anxiety results under conditions of neurotic conflict. All neurotic fear is anxiety. Since fear is a drive, it is the main motivating factor in conflict, symptom formation, and repression.

Another theorists who applied the learning theory approach to the phenomenon of anxiety was Eysenck (1965). He stressed on the personality factors in the development of anxiety. He has postulated two major dimensions of personality, namely, neuroticism and introversion-extroversion.

- (vi) **The Existential Approach :-** Whenever the person is faced with the problem of making a decision, he experiences anxiety. Kierkegaard believed that one must experience anxiety when one tries for self development to advance because by facing anxiety awareness is increased. As summarized by Epstein (1972) existential psychologists may have enumerated the properties of

anxiety in the following manner :- such as it is a diffuse apprehension, it differs from fear, it is unspecific, vague and objectless, it is associated with feelings uncertainty and helplessness, it involves a threat to the core or essence of the personality.

Types of Anxiety

There are three types of anxiety :

- (i) **Reality Anxiety :-** Wolman (1979) visualizes that anxiety is a sign of the ego weakness, when the ego is hard-pressed by external reality, it develops reality anxiety. It is a reaction to external danger or anticipated threat as a signal of danger which the individual faces.
- (ii) **Neurotic Anxiety :-** It is usually felt some sort of general apprehensiveness, dreadful expectancy and uneasiness. This is caused by undiscouraged excitation and the unsatisfied libido energy. Neurotic anxiety takes place in hysteria and some other severe neuroses.
- (iii) **Moral Anxiety :-** Moral anxiety is a reaction to pressure, which is exercised by the superego. It is experienced as a guilt or shame or a feeling of one's inferiority and in adequacy. Spielberger (1972) acknowledged two types of anxiety i.e. state anxiety and trait anxiety.

State anxiety is a transitory condition that differs from person to person and from one condition to another. All conditions are not equally threatening to all individuals or persons.

Trait Anxiety, on the other side, defines the personality of a person who frequently experiences anxiety. It refers to the propensity of the individual to feel anxiety. Its level of anxiety differs individual to individual. Anxiety can also be classified into two other types like (i) General Anxiety and (ii) Test Anxiety. General anxiety is related with social environment (anxiety related with home, sickness of family members, feelings of mental and physical discomforts etc.). Test Anxiety, on the other hand, is associated with a state of tension and mental conflicts. It is related to the quality of performance. It has been noticed that a too much anxious school child or college student often becomes confused in examination and remains unable to recall answers to test questions which he has learnt.

The above review of anxiety's meaning, nature approaches and types reveal that cognitive factors are important in the arousal of anxiety. It is reflected in the form of stress or threat. It is a stage of displeasure. In consonance with above conceptualization the present attempt is rooted in the conceptual distinction between Anxiety as a state and Anxiety as a trait.

REFERENCES

1. Dayal, D. (1992). "A Study of Need Patterns and Anxiety Level of University Students." Ph.D. Thesis, pp. 41-42.
2. Epstein, S. (1972). "The Nature of Anxiety with Emphasis upon its relationship to expectancy."
3. Eysenck, H.J. (1965). The Causes and cures of Neurosis, San Deigo : Knapp.
4. Freud, S. (1936). "The Problem of Anxiety, New York, W.W. Mohton, Original Published in German, Under the title Inhibition, Symptom and Anxiety.
5. Jacobson, e. (1964). "The Self and the object world." New York : International University Press.
6. Martin, B. (1971). Anxiety and Neurotic Disorders." New York : Wiley.
7. Maslow, A.H. (1954). "Motivation and Personality." New York : Harper.
8. Mowrer, O.H. (1939). "A Stimulus Response Analysis of Anxiety and its Role as a Reinforcing Agents." Psychological Review.
9. Murray, H.A. (1962). Explorations in Personality. New York : Science.
10. Spielberger, C.D. (1972). "Anxiety as an Emotional State." New York : Academic Press.
11. Sullivan, H.S. (1953). "The Interpersonal Theory of Psychiatry." New York, Norton.