CHAPTER-II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In the previous chapter the problem was formulated to study sex-role orientation, locus of control, risk taking tendency, vocational maturity, values and interests as predictors of achievement motivation. In the present chapter main emphasis would be laid upon providing theoretical explanation of the variables used and their relationship with the nAch.

Concept of Achievement Motivation

Motivation is the main motor of movement of all human activities. It is an expression of set of feelings, thoughts and conditions or a mental disposition or preparedness to act in a particular pattern. So motivation has come to be regarded as one of the major domains of psychology and education. It constitutes an integral part of the scientific endeavour to interpret human and infra-human behaviour. Motivation is a fundamental part of the psychologists effort to achieve a valid psychology of social behaviour of all forms. The motive has been defined by Murray (1938) as "the desire or tendency to do things as rapidly and independently as possible to overcome and attain a high standard, to excel one's own self, to rival and surpass others to increase self-regard by successful excercise of talent." A motive is defined as "Something (as a need or desire) that causes a person to act" (Webster, 1967). Motive explains the
direction, vigour and persistence of the individual's actions.

Motivation to achieve is integrated when an individual knows that he is responsible for his outcome of venture when he anticipates explicit knowledge of results that will define his success or failure and when, there is some degree of risk i.e. some uncertainty about the outcome of his effort. The goal of achievement oriented activity is to succeed to perform well in relation to a standard of excellence, or in comparison with others who are competitors (McClelland, 1961 and Atkinson, 1964).

McClelland's concept of 'motivation' represent an attempt to get behind the surface behaviour of the roots of human action. Basic to this idea of "root" or "cause" is the notion that it may have different surface effects. A motive is defined as "the redintegration by a cue of a change in an affective situation (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell, 1953). This would mean that a motive is "a strong affective association, characterized by an anticipatory goal reaction and based on past associations of certain cues with pleasure or pain" (McClelland 1951). In a society we find individuals who set high standards for themselves, work very hard to achieve them and respond with considerable feelings to their success or failure in meeting those standards. At other extreme, there are individuals who set very low standards, make little effort, have little concern about their
accomplishment and remain indifferent. Obviously these two types of individuals have different consequences on this basis, Atkinson formulated a theory of achievement motivation in 1957.

Motivation has been shown to be affected by one's attributions of events to perceived causes (Weiner, 1980) and associated with behaviour leading to educational achievement (Atkinson, 1980). Bentancourt and Weiner (1982) found that the attribution of success to internal causes decreases self-esteem. Dweck (1975) reported, however, that attribution to one's ability result in less effort to alter future patterns than attribution to effort. Further, it was found that when failure is attributed to an internal stable causes future failure is anticipated (Andrews and Dalus, 1978).

The formulation of achievement motive construct derives primarily from the work and theory of Murray (1938). Achievement motivation has been reported to as the need for achievement (and abbreviated as nAch) since the beginning of its systematic study (McClelland, Clark, Roby and Atkinson, 1949). Every one has a need for achievement (or competence) in some area or other, but this need is stronger and deeper in some people than it is in others. Moreover, a person might have a rather high need for achievement, but unless that need is somehow aroused- unless the person is somehow challenged or
stimulated to activity it might remain dormant or submerged and have little or no effect on his behaviour (Kolesnik, 1923).

Achievement motivation is defined by McClelland et al. (1953) as an internalized tendency to strive for standard of excellence. It attempts to account for the determinants of the directions, magnitude and persistence of behaviour. It applies only when an individual knows that his performance will be evaluated (either by himself or others) in terms of some standard of excellence and consequences of his action will be either a favourable evaluation (success) or unfavourable evaluation (failure). Such performance is generally called achievement. When achievement motivation is aroused, it is expressed in driving energy, directed towards attaining excellence, getting ahead, doing things better, faster, more efficiently and finding solution to difficult problems which requires ingenuity and persistence. Individuals high in achievement motivation are more likely to approach achievement related activities than those low in this motivational disposition because they tend to ascribe the failure due to lack of efforts and less likely to attribute failure to a deficiency in ability. McClelland (1976) stated achievement motivation as "the desire to do well, not so much for the sake of social recognition or prestige, but to attain an inner feeling of personal accomplishment."
Achievement motivation may be defined as dissatisfaction with the present condition and an urge to improve upon the same condition of life (Mehta, 1962).

Alkinson (1957, 1964) talks of nAch in terms of the capacity for taking pride in accomplishment. His analysis of the antecedents of achievement focuses upon not just the motivation to achieve but also on the motivation to avoid failure. Together, these motivational tendencies determine whether a person will ultimately approach or avoid an achievement task. Each of the motives therefore is seen as a function of two situational variables, the perceived expectancy of success and the incentive value of the task activity. Heckhausen (1967) also developed a two motive theory of achievement behaviour. His motives are defined, 'hope of success' and 'fear of failure.' Hope of success is defined as 'the striving to increase or keep as high as possible, one's own capability, in all activities in which a standard of excellence is thought to apply and where the execution of such activities can, therefore, either succeeded or fail (Heckhausen, 1967). Heckhausen (1967) described achievement motivation as "the striving to increase, or keep as high as possible one's own capability in all activities in which a standard of excellence is thought to apply and where the execution of such activities can, therefore, either succeed or fail."
Atkinson (1957) defined achievement motive as a disposition to strive for success and / or the capacity to experience pleasure contingent upon success. It involves a concern for competition with some standard of excellence. Early child rearing practices exert the most direct influence upon the acquisition of achievement motivation (McClelland, 1967; Sears, Maccoby and Lewin, 1957 and Winterbottom, 1958).

**History of Achievement Motivation:**

The concept of achievement motivation has its antecedents in earlier psychological studies conducted under a variety of different rubrics, particularly "success and failure" (Sears, 1942) "ego-involvement" (Allport, 1943), and "level of aspiration" (Lewin et al., 1944). At that time, there was little basis for a meaningful integration of knowledge because research findings were not anchored by the use of common method for assessment of motivation. This is less true today as a result of methodological innovation shortly after World War II, namely the experimental validation of a method of measuring achievement motivation, followed by systematic use of new tools in behavioural and societal studies (McClelland et al., 1953). McClelland and his coworkers combined the traditional clinical assumption that human motives are freely expressed in imagination with procedures developed by strength of motivation, it was demonstrated first with hunger then with concern over achievement and other human motive, that the
motivational state of an individual can be diagnosed by means of content analysis of his fantasy or imaginative behaviour (Atkinson, 1958) as revealed, for example, in the thematic apperception test.

Achievement imagery in fantasy takes the form of thoughts about performing some task well, sometimes being blocked, of trying various means of achieving, and of experiencing joy or sadness. Particular diagnostic signs of achievement motivation were identified by experimental fact. The results of validating experiments have been replicated in other social groups and societies. Together these experimental findings specify what is counted in an imagination protocol to yield the need achievement score, an assessment of the strength of achievement motivation (McClelland et al. 1953, 1958).

To study antecedents or effects of individual differences content analysis is applied to the analysis of imaginative stories written by different persons under standard conditions. The same method has been successfully applied to stories obtained in a national survey study (Veroff et al. 1960) folk tales, to children, readers' and to other samples of the imaginative behaviour of whole societies (McClelland, 1961).

**Development of Achievement Motivation:**

A series of investigations on the development of the achievement motive in Germany have led to the tentative conclusion that it is first evident somewhere between three and
three and a half year of age. At this time, in a predisposing environment, the child begins to show a concern about competence for its own sake, particularly if he has had opportunities to observe competence in others. The motive is said to be present when the child's reaction to an activity is not concerned solely with the outcome success or failure— but also with regard to some sort of standard which he sets for himself, so that he is pleased by his competence and disappointed with incompetence (Kagan and Moss, 1952 and Heckhausen, 1967).

In a course of growth during early phase of life, human child is overdependent upon family members, and this dependence puts the family members in a position to shape the personality of a child in a particular manner. The child's motivation to be dependent will undoubtedly be reduced if his conflicts concerning seeking affection are lessened. The demand or the permissiveness of mothers for independent behaviour on the part of their children has been considered by many psychologists as an important aspect of child rearing. Independence, however, is not simply the absence of dependency on the mother. In fact, the feeling of mother regarding independence have recently been probed by a series of questions in a study (Desai, 1974a, 1974b). It was found that parental attitude towards independence are present in high magnitude in the parents of high need for achievement subjects. On the other hand, parents of low need for achievement Ss reported low
degree of independence attitude.

Psychological studies of the need for achievement in children have drawn attention on two aspects of the problem: procedure for mastering the strength of the achievement need in children and identification of the practice of mothers, which seem to bring about a high need for achievement. It is seen that high achievement motivation in adults is related to the severity of independence training in childhood. The child who is forced to be on his own early develops a high motivation toward accomplishment.

But subsequent research has produced as many non-conformatory as conformatory results regarding the alleged influence of achievement and independence training on the development of achievement need (Chance, 1961 and Callard, 1964). Because of conflicting date and some cross-cultural discrepancies, McClelland (1961) proposed as 'optimal level' theory, suggesting that independence training, if too early, would be just as inhibitory on the development of achievement needs as overly protective parental behaviour. However, research investigations have failed to yield clear support for this position (Bartlett and Smith, 1966 and Smith, 1969).

Some support for this view has been obtained in studies of mentally retarded individuals. Signs of achievement motivation have been observed among Ss with a mental age of approximately 36 months providing that tasks are appropriate to their mental level (Heckhausen and Wasner, 1965, as reported in Heckhausen, 1967).
Theoretical Orientation:

The theory of achievement motive has undergone extensive modifications and elaborations in the last two decades. Achievement-oriented behavior is concerned as invariably influenced by the strength of an individual's tendency to achieve success and in addition, by his tendency to avoid failure which is also inherent in situations involving evaluation of performance. Atkinson's analysis of the antecedents of achievement behavior focuses upon not just the motivation to achieve, but also on the motivation to avoid failure. These motivational tendencies determine whether a person will ultimately approach or avoid an achievement task. However, the original theoretical formulation of nAch has drawn inspiration from earlier work of Rotter (1954), Edwards (1954, 1955) and Tolman (1955). The general principle of the theory of achievement motivation given by Atkinson (1957) is simple one. It assumes that motive to achieve success (Ms), which the individual carries about with himself from one situation to another, combines multiplicatively with the two specific situational influences, the strength of expectancy or probability of success (Ps) and incentive value of success at a particular activity (Is) to produce the tendency to approach success that is overtly expressed in the direction, magnitude and persistence of achievement-oriented performance. It is assumed that the three variables combine multiplicatively to determine the strength of the tendency to achieve, i.e.,
Ts = Ms x Ps x Is. The first variable Ms is relatively general and stable characteristics of person which is present in any behavioural situation. But the value of other two variable Ps and Is, depends upon the individual's past experience in specific situation, that are similar to one he confronts. These variables change as the individual move from one life situation to another and so are treated as characteristics of particular situations and particular tasks.

A very important and special assumption based on proposal first suggested in early work of Escalona, Festinger and Lewin (1940) on level of aspiration, Escalona and Festinger had noted that accomplishment of a difficult task is more attractive to an individual than accomplishment of some trivial or easy task.

In other words, persons take greater pride in accomplishment when the task has been easy. In the theory of achievement motivation, this idea is given further specification. This difficulty of task as it appears to a person may be represented in terms of the strength of his expectancy of success, Ps. When a task appears difficult, the Ps is very high. In other words, the difficulty of the task as it appear to an individual equals I-Ps. So the idea that incentive value of success is greater the more difficult a task can be now stated more precisely as a relationship between Is and Ps. A simple assumption begin with, is that, the incentive value of success at a task (Is) is equal to the apparent difficulty of task, that is Is = I-Ps, if so when a task is very easy, as when Ps
equals .90. The incentive value of success (Is) is very-very low i.e. .10. However, when a task appears very difficult as when Ps appears .10, then Is is very high i.e. .90.

McClelland (1964) had observed that tendency to approach success (Is) should always be stronger when Ms is strong than when it is weak, no matter what the Ps at a task. It is supported by all results which show achievement oriented performance (or some indicator of strength of motivation like recall of interrupted task) to be greater when nAch scores are high than when nAch scores are low. The further implications of differences in Is attributed to high versus low nAch will be slight when tasks are very easy or very difficult, when there is no expectancy that performance will lead to pride of accomplishment, i.e. when Ps = 0 because instructions or other cues rule out the possibility of expectancy evaluation of performance and 'feeling of success' as in "relaxed" condition.

There is, according to theory incentive to achieve. Hence, there is no basis for predicting that performance of persons scoring high and low in nAch will differ under relaxed conditions.

It is assumed in the theory in addition to general disposition to seek success called achievement motive, there is also a general disposition to avoid failure called motive to avoid failure. Where the motive to achieve is characterized as a capacity for reacting with pride in accomplishment, the motive to avoid failure can be conceived as a capacity for
reacting with shame and embarrassment when outcome of performance is failure. When this disposition is aroused within a person, as it is aroused within a person whenever it is clear to a person that his performance will be evaluated and failure is a distinct possibility, the result is anxiety and a tendency to withdraw from the situation. This motive has a detrimental effect on the performance. The tendency to avoid failure is conceived as an inhibitory tendency.

Need achievement is a trait which varies among the population, those with a high need achievement are more ready to approach achievement related tasks (Mishel, 1961) and have a stronger motivation to achieve success than they have to avoid failure (Atkinson, 1964). McClelland et al. (1953) has suggested that the development of need achievement begins in infancy as a result of the reinforcement of successful activities. A number of such reinforcements are likely to be interpreted from a number of different situations. Similarly individuals have been shown to differ in reactions to similar situations. Some may believe that these activities produce the reinforcements, others that reinforcements are received at the discretion of other influential persons. The same reinforcement in the same situation may be perceived by one individual as within his own control and by another as being outside.

In recent years numerous researchers (e.g. Bar-Tal and Frieze, 1975; McMahan, 1973; Simon and Feather, 1973 and
Veler, et al. 1971) have used an attributional model to interpret individual difference in achievement related beliefs and behaviours. Weiner et al. (1971) proposed that achievement motivation and expectation of success or failure depended upon how individual explained their own performance. Weiner et al. (1971) classified four possible explanations (ability, effort, task difficulty and luck) in a r x r model with stability and locus of control as the two dimensions. Ability was considered as internal unstable attribution, effort was considered as internal stable attribution, and luck was considered an external stable attribution. These four attributions were then linked to elements in classic theory of achievement motivation (Atkinson, 1974 and McClelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell, 1953). According to Weiner (1974), the locus of control attributions leading to greater feelings of pride and shame, while the stability dimension influences expectancy of success, with stable attributions encouraging consistent expectations and unstable attribution encouraging expectations of change. Weiner proposed that individuals with high achievement motivation attribute their success to ability and their failure to unstable or external factors. Individuals with low achievement motivation attribute their failure to ability and their success to unstable or external factors.

Smead and Chase (1981) found that there was no relationship between achievement and sex role stereotyped expectations. Most Ss reported that females and pears had
expectations similar to their own, and females expressed higher expectations for their sex than did males. Kleinbeck, Klaus and Carlsas. (1985) examined the effect of difficulty of goal on achievement behaviour. Their results show that higher goals affected higher achievement only in the case of Ss who had high achievement motivation especially when they had previously not been asked to guess the probability of their success. No such difference occurred among the Ss with low achievement motivation. Differences in the achievement behaviour of the Ss with high and low achievement motivation was shown to be due to the degree of freedom to attribute the results of various sources.

Silvestri (1987), reviews the literature on motivation to achieve in males and females. This quality was traditionally considered to be male oriented but current literature disputes this assumption. Data suggest that due to early conditioning and child rearing practices children perceive activities as either masculine or feminine and attempt to achieve activities that are specific to their sex. Males choose difficult tasks while females pursue activities cautiously and consider social factors.

Martina Horner (1972 and 1973) found the majority of women felt that achievement would threaten their femininity and possibly lead to social rejection. Janice Gibson (1976) believes that males develop a stronger need to achieve than females because they are taught from an early age to be competitive, to value independence and to be self-reliant etc.
Alpes (1974) shows a decrease in differences between the sexes in achievement motivation.

Maccoby and Jacklin (1974, 1977) regard the idea that "girls lack motivation to achieve" as one of several common myths about sex differences that they challenge.

Rubovits (1975) found that within the same families girls were found to receive different social learning experiences from boys while boys were encouraged to be competitive, initiating, achieving, and independent, girls were often encouraged to be dependent, conforming, cooperative and unconcerned with grades.

**Intrinsic and Extrinsic Achievement Motivation:**

One may approach an activity with either an intrinsic or an extrinsic motivation orientation. (I-nAch) represents concern over standard of excellence or doing something well for its own sake i.e. to attain an inner feeling of personal accomplishment without regard to other benefits (Jerath, 1981). I-nAch oriented persons are characterized by preferences for activities that are relatively complex, challenging and entertaining. Where as extrinsic achievement motivation (E-nAch) represents concern over success in competition with others involving social competition and social recognition (Jerath, 1981). E-nAch orientation are characterized by preference for activities that are relatively simple, predictable and easily completed.
Extrinsic motives are so called because they arise from a source outside the individual. We are said to be motivated, extrinsically when we do something, because someone else wants us to do it, when someone somehow will reward us for doing it, or when we simply want to please or impress someone else. The example of E-nAch is the practice of working for grading.

And we are motivated intrinsically when we do something because we want to do it. We enjoy the activity as an end in itself or we are sufficiently interested in doing it so that external inducements are unnecessary. An example of an intrinsically motivated student is one who reads novels simply because he likes to read novels because he readily perceives that it is somehow to his advantage to do so (Kelesnick, 1923).

An attributional model of intrinsic motivation, Lepper and Dofoe (1979) applied this model to the classroom setting. The model has been based on Bem's (1972) self perception theory. According to Lepper and Dofoe, students in classroom make attributions regarding reasons for engaging in various activities. If a student who is engaged in an activity perceives his / her actions to be controlled by salient powerful extrinsic contingencies such as a promise of tangible reward or the teacher's surveillance he / she will be likely to attribute his / her behaviour to those extrinsic factors. But if such extrinsic constraints are not salient or are insufficient to explain this engagement in the activity. The
student will attribute his / her behaviour to intrinsic factors. This conception implies that inappropriate use of tangible rewards in the classroom may have detrimental effect on performance and subsequent interest in the task after a rewards in such situations may decrease students' intrinsic motivation to engage in this activity.

Intrinsic motivation concerns the performance of activities for their sake in which pleasure is inherent in the activity itself (Berlyne, 1965, and Deci, 1975). Intrinsic motivation should be associated with pleasure derived from the learning process itself (Berlyne, 1971, and Maw, 1971, the bearing of challenging and difficult tasks (Lepper, 1983 and Pittman, Boggino and Ruble, 1983), and high degree of task involvement (Brophy, 1983 and Nicholls, 1983). A great deal of experimental research has been oriented to understand the development of intrinsic motivation in children (e.g. Pittman et al. 1983). When an individual adopts an intrinsic motivational orientation features such as novelty, complexity, challenge and the opportunity for mastery experience are sought and preferred. These qualities are usually present in some form during enjoyable plays, entertainment or leisure time periods. This absence can lead to boredom. Research on the effects of rewards on interest has shown the importance of the competence and mastery aspects of intrinsic motivational orientations. When subjects are given verbal rewards that convey competence
information, intrinsic interest is enhanced (e.g. Deci, 1971 and Pittman, et al. 1980), and when subjects are given appropriate direct feedback about absolute or comparative competence, the detrimental effects of contingent reward are eliminated (Boggiano and Ruble, 1979).

When an individual adopts an extrinsic motivational orientation features, such as predictability and simplicity are desirable, since the primary focus associated with this orientation is to get through the task expediently in order to reach the desired goal. The absence of these characteristics can lead to tension and frustration when one is operating with an extrinsic motivational orientation. These kinds of preferences and concerns are common when an activity is appeared as a job, duty or necessary evil. In studies in which the mode of interaction with the task was variable and under the subjects' control, contingent reward (while presumably fosters an extrinsic motivational orientation) has led to preference for single variance of the task (Shapira, 1976 and Harter, 1978) and decreased creativity (Kruglansks, Friedman, Zeevi, 1971 and Amabile, 1979) while the contingency was in effect.

When operating from an intrinsic motivational orientation, then, there will be a preference for tasks that are difficult and challenging (but not impossible), are likely to show a gain in competence overtime and somewhat unpredictable and fun. In contrast, when operating from an extrinsic motivational
orientation tasks, that are relatively simple and predictable will be preferred.

A particular activity can, of course, be approached by different individual's with either an intrinsic or an extrinsic need achievement. It is said that an early adolescence, one tackles an activity with extrinsic approach but in late adolescence extrinsic approach changes into intrinsic approach.

The results of some studies suggest that high nAch scores reflect extrinsic motivation, instead, or in addition to achievement motivation (Mischel and Gilligon, 1964; Smiths, 1966; Klinger and McNeillly, 1969 and Jerath, 1981). Mischel and Gilligan (1964) report that the high nAch group tended to falsify their scores when they thought that they were not being observed. Klinger (1971) considers this as evidence that nAch scores were extremely concerned with appearances, that is with others assessment of their performance (cf. Klinger and McNeillly, 1969), apart from being concerned with accomplishment for its own sake. The implication that the nAch scores reflects both intrinsic and extrinsic concerns over achievement is obvious. So this provides sufficient ground for perusal of the scoring system developed by McClelland (1953) to separate the criteria which solely express concern over standards of excellence (intrinsic components) from criteria which express concern over other than standards of excellence (extrinsic components). Keeping these contentions in view Jerath (1981) has successfully been able to develop separate scoring systems
for E-nAch and I-nAch components of nAch. Through separate scoring systems for I-nAch and E-nAch, Jerath (1981) has successfully demonstrated that I-nAch and E-nAch have separate psychological correlates and determiners.

**Concept of Sex-Role Orientation:**

The individual is born into a social enterprise which is a growing concern with different positions and roles. Role is a structured mode of participation in social life (Allport, 1961). The role of culture brought forward a concept of sex-roles conceptualized in terms of masculinity and femininity. Categorizing people by gender is one of the most common and rudimentary process that occur in social interaction. Once categorization occurs, gender based personality attributions often follow (Broverman et al. 1970 and Mckee and Sherriffs, 1957).

Ever since his birth, man has been classified into male and female. This obvious distinction is based on the basic physiological differences between the two sexes (Eysenck and Wilson, 1976). The term sex-role does not simply mean biological defined categories of males and females, rather that, masculinity and femininity results from complex processes of socialization. Sex roles differ from one culture to another, and different child rearing practices results in different definitions of males and females roles within a society. The sex-role depends upon cultural definitions and conditioning, without the influence of society; people's
sex role would not define their identities or determine their personality styles." (Matterson, 1975). The distinction between male and female serves as a basic organizing principle for every human culture.

Sex roles refers to the psychological characteristics and behavioural pattern characteristics of each sex. It consists of behaviours socially defined as appropriate to one's status as male or female. "Sex-roles" are conceptualized in terms of masculinity and femininity and "sex-role orientation" is the difference among individuals as how confident they feel about their sex identity. Every society expects males and females to differ in psychological characteristics and expects each sex to perform different tasks. Garnents and Pleck (1979), define sex-roles salience as "the extent to which individuals do or do not experience and organise personality characteristics as parts of larger constructs as masculinity and femininity." These roles are different in different places and times. (Mead, 1935) but there are certain biological limits within which these roles can vary.

In the words of English and English (1974)-----
Masculinity is defined as a state or condition of an organism that manifest the characteristic, appearance and behaviour of a male and femininity as a state or condition of an organism that manifests the characteristic, appearance and behaviour of female.

Learning to be a psychological male or female is one of the earliest and most pervasive tasks imposed upon the
individual by his culture. Though the process of sex-role typing children acquire the values, motives and behaviour appropriate to either male or female in a specific culture. As children grow older, sex differences become even more pervasive. Males grow more competitive and co-operative and motivated towards achievement and power, while females become more co-operative and motivated toward affiliation and dependency (Oetzel, 1966).

Most individuals learn being a "psychological male or female at a very early age. By nursery school age, normal children are already behaving in accordance with their assigned sex roles. Boys are more aggressive, both physically and in fantasy, whereas girls restrict themselves to verbal and "pro-social" form of aggression (Sears, 1965). Lots of research and theory has been generated to understand the developmental process whereby little boys become "masculine" and little girls become "feminine." The three major theories of sex-role development are social learning theory (Mischel, 1979 and Sears, Rout and Alpert, 1965), cognitive development theory (Kohlberg, 1966) and the identification theory (Kagan, 1964 and Sears, Raw and Allport, 1965). Kagan assumes that sex-role attributes acquired during early and middle childhood through sex typed identifications, reinforcement and attribution by others give rise to sex-role identity. Kohlberg's cognitive development theory postulates that achievement of a stable cognitive judgement of gender identity
provides an early and fundamental organizer upon which later sex-role development builds. Through the process of sex-role typing children acquire the values, motives and behaviours appropriate to either males or females in a specific culture.

Baken (1966) associates masculinity with the agentic orientation, a concern for relationship between one's own self and others and femininity as concern for the self in relation to others (communal). Erikson's (1964) anatomical distinction between 'inner' (female) and 'outer' (male) space represents an analogue to a quite similar psychological distinction between a masculine fondness for what works and for what man can make, whether it helps to build or to destroy and a more ethical feminine commitment and devotion in healing.

Parson and Bales (1955) associate masculinity with instrumental orientation, cognitive focus on getting the job done and femininity with expressive, supportive and effective orientation.

Both historically and cross culturally masculinity and femininity have represented complementary domains of positive traits and behaviour (Erikson, 1964 and Parson and Bales, 1965). The two domains of masculinity and femininity are both fundamental. At present, they are treated as two independent dimensions of personality. According to Bem, "Masculinity femininity construct is a functional sex-role identity and is empirically and logically independent of biogender i.e.
maleness and femaleness." Bem believes that masculine subject will display primarily instrumental behavioural and feminine subjects will display primarily expressive behaviour, regardless of the nature of the situation. Although Parson and others have conceived of these complementary behaviours as appropriate to different roles and hence to different situations and hence to the same person at different time.

Sex-role development or stereotyping is process whereby children acquire the behaviours, attitudes, interests and emotional reactions and motives that are culturally defined as appropriate for their sex (Perry and Burrey, 1983). The differences between boys and girls are evident very early and become even more apparent during development. For example, infant boys prefer robots and infant girls stuffed animals (Jacklin, Maccoby and Dick, 1973). By Kindergarten these sex differences have extended even further so that boys prefer to play with aeroplanes, balls, blocks, cubes, puzzles, motors, logs, tinker toys, trucks and wagons; girls prefer crayons, doll play, kitchen activities, musical instruments, painting, playing records, serving and telephoning (Corner and Serbin, 1977). According to social pattern men and women have to play different roles in society and family, so social and cultural pressure try to train them for their respective roles since their early childhood. Under these pressures they develop differences in their roles as well as attitudes, interests, motives and values etc. Thus both the sexes begin to behave
differently under the similar situations or circumstances and develop different behavioural patterns.

Sharma (1979) suggests that high level of sex-role development does not necessarily facilitate general psychological or social adjustment. Studies of certain researchers have shown that traits associated with masculine personality are independence, assertiveness, aggression, power, smartness, rationality, stability and intelligence, while femininity is associated with sociability, warmth, submissiveness and peacefulness (Sharma, 1979).

Review of literature suggests that high level of sex-role development does not necessarily facilitate general psychological or social adjustment. Rather, it is now the "androgynous" person capable of incorporating both masculinity and femininity into his or her personality who is emerging as more appropriate sex-role ideal for contemporary society. According to Maccoby (1966) greater intellectual development seems to be associated with cross-typing i.e., with masculinity in girls and femininity in boys. Maccoby (1966) shows a curvilinear relation between M/F and intelligence. Sex-typing can also produce defensive trait like consistency whereas androgynous self-concept may enable person to modify his behaviour to be effective in particular situation without worrying about his sex-role appropriateness. Masculine and androgynous persons should both "do well" when the situation calls for instrumental behaviour, and feminine and androgynous
subjects should do well when situation calls for expressive behaviour.

Androgyny has evolved as a new concept that they interrelated a wide range of findings on sex-role behaviours. It refers to the extent male and female characteristics are incorporated into one's personality.

On most inventories items were empirically defined as feminine or masculine on the basis of differential endorsement by females and males and a person filling out the inventory was said to be either masculine or feminine as a function of which sex she or he closely resembled. Although it is possible for a person to earn a score that falls halfway between the two extremes and thereby reveal that she or he does not closely resemble either sex, a person cannot make the strong statement on such as inventory that she or he is androgynous. Now femininity and masculinity are treated as two independent dimensions rather than as two ends of a single dimension, thereby enabling a person to indicate whether she or he is high on both dimensions (androgynous), low on both dimensions (undifferentiated) or high on one dimension but low on the other (either feminine or masculine).

Bem (1975) is of the belief that it is possible for an individual to be both masculine and feminine, both instrumental and expressive, both agentic and communal depending upon the situational appropriateness of these various modalities, i.e.
Psychological Androgyyny. In the present society, the concept of androgynous individual is emerging as more sex role ideal because now a days both masculine and feminine activities are being made available to both the sexes. According to Mead (1969) "Men are behaving a little more like woman and women are behaving more like men, in short both are behaving more like people."

Bem (1974, 1975) is of the opinion that internalizing a culturally imposed "appropriate" sex role may inhibit the development of full and satisfying behavioural repertoire. But androgynous individual who identifies with both desirable masculine and desirable feminine characteristics is capable to engage more comfortably in both masculine and feminine behaviours across a variety of social situations. In number of studies (Bem, 1975, Bem and Lenny, 1976, and Sahu, Rout and Rout 1985) it was found that androgynous individuals were behaviourally and emotionally more adaptable than rigidly sex-typed individuals because of their greater behavioural flexibility. In general androgynous Ss were better adjusted than feminine subjects (Haglaund, 1977 and Orofsky and Windle, 1978).

The concept of androgynous individual is in accordance with changing society. Now a days both masculine and feminine activities are being made available to both sexes. Some people are androgynous because they are not subjected to strong
stereotyped pressures as, others may overcome sex-typing (Hefner et al. 1975).

Sex-Role Orientation and Achievement Motivation:

A number of investigations related to the study of sex role orientation and achievement motivation have been conducted in the past. Review of literature suggests that high level of sex-role development does not necessarily facilitate general psychological or social adjustment. Rather it is now the "androgynous" person capable of incorporating both masculinity and femininity into his or her personality who is emerging as more appropriate sex role ideal for contemporary society. The effect of early socialization patterns in the family has been found to affect motivation in boys differently from girls (Moss and Kogan, 1961).

As children grow older sex differences become even more pervasive. Males grew more competitive and co-operative and motivated towards achievement, while females becomes more cooperative and motivated towards affiliation and dependency (Oetzel, 1966).

Veroff (1966) assesses in achievement oriented behaviour of children in either a relaxed setting, in a setting, in which the experimenter pressed for achievement. Preschool girls responded positively to pressure and increased their achievement oriented behaviour, while preschool boys reported negatively and decreased their achievement oriented behaviour.
Nowicki (1973) found that both males and females who presented themselves as masculine and androgynous obtained highly internal scores, subjects who presented themselves as feminine scored high in an extreme external direction. He also found that internality has been related to achievement and school grades for boys but not for females.

In other studies (Ludwig, 1983; Castenell, 1983; Schroth, and Andrew, 1987; Gill, 1988; Callahan, 1989 and Singh, 1989) also reviewed that males are more achievement oriented than females. It is because, as Horner (1968) proposed that the typical women as a result of sex-role training has developed the belief that achievement striving is incompatible with femininity and that successful achievement can be accomplished only at the price of loss of femininity and social rejection.

In a study Rubovits (1975) found that within the same families girls were found to receive different social learning experiences from boys. While boys were encouraged to be competitive, initiating, achieving and independent, girls were often encouraged to be dependent, conforming, cooperative and unconcerned with grades.

Dweck, Davidson, Nelson and Enna (1978) have reviewed the research on classroom behaviour which has been found to influence girls to lower their achievement motivation especially related to a career. These researchers found that teachers' behaviour subtly reinforce boys for achievement
behaviour, whereas reinforcing girls for trying hard and being nice. Janice, Gibson (1976) believes that males develop a stronger need to achieve than females because they are taught from an early age to be competitive, to value independence and to be self-reliant. So these are socialization and adjustment factors which affect the nAch in females.

Maccoby and Jacklin (1974, 1977) regard the idea that "girls lack motivation to achieve" as one of several common myths about sex differences. If in child rearing practices both the roles are provided to the females than perhaps sex differences viz-a-viz nAch may be narrowed down.

In his study Brenda (1979) found that women who are androgynous would be more achievement motivated as compared to feminine and undifferentiated women. So the evidence by and large indicates that the girls who score higher on androgyny and masculinity would be high on achievement motivation as compared to who are high in feminine traits. The enigmatic problem of lower nAch in females may be partially due to the fact that females are by and large feminine which hinders their aspiration for achievement.


In conclusion it may be inferred that nAch is related to masculinity and androgyny as the bulk of the evidence
indicates irrespective of the biological gender. Alongwith the query of achievement differences may be partially settled through the study of sex-role orientation in the two sexes i.e. females by and large especially in traditional societies find it incompatible to compete with males because of their stronger sex-role training.

**Concept of Locus of Control:**

The judgement that we make about the causes (or sources) of events that we experience, including our success and failure as well as our assignment of credit or blame for those events depends on our idea of how much control we have over the things that happen to us, hence, of course, it is the concept of locus of control (Solomen and Oberlander, 1974).

Locus of control, a concept advocated by Rotter (1966), deals with an important belief system inherent in an individual's mode of thinking viz., the extent to which the individual believes that he is self-motivated, directly or controlled (internal frame of reference) or that the environment (luck, fate, chance, powerful others) plays an important role in influencing his behaviour and in determining the rewards and punishment that he obtains. Formulated within the framework of the social learning theory (Rottor, 1954). It forms one of the elements of a behavioural prediction formula, the other element being situational determinants, reinforcement, value and behaviour potentials (Rotter, 1954 and Rotter, Chance
Internal and external control refers to the degree to which an individual perceives that the events that happen to him or her are dependent on his or her own behaviour or are the result of fate, luck, chance or powers beyond one's personal control and understanding. Finally, in social learning theory (Rotter, 1954 and Rotter, Chance and Phares, 1972), stresses the role of both expectancy and reinforcement value in behaviour, beliefs about internal and external control of reinforcement have been found to be predictive of, and related to a wide range of behaviours across numerous situations with diverse groups of people. Lefcourt (1976) maintains that a person's belief that one can control one's own fate is necessary to resist tyranny and to survive and enjoy life. He argues that a belief is internal control even if an illusion leads people to live adaptively. Carlson (1975) remarks that locus of control is "undoubtedly the single most popular topic in current personality research." She states, that "the internal-external control variables appears to be one of the fads which periodically captures the field." Rotter (1966) defined the concept of locus of control as "when a reinforcement is perceived by the subject as following some action of his own but not being entirely contingent upon his action then, in our culture, it is typically perceived as a result of luck, chance, fate as under the control of powerful others, or as unpredicitble because of the great complexity of
in novel or ambiguous situations and relatively less important when an individual finds himself in a situation, similar to experiences, he has had in the past about which he has understanding specific expectancies in certain situations. Similar to those encountered in the past lead to the greatest degree of prediction, while generalized expectancies may be predictive across were diverse situations of behaviour.

In Rotter's theory a person's action is predicted on the basis of his values, his expectancies and the situations in which he finds himself. According to him a person's behaviour is directional or goal directed (Rotter et al. 1972).

The factors which influences locus of control are family, child rearing practices, interpersonal relations and socio-economic status, babying, protectiveness and affectionateness are in a family are related to internality for failure and approval leads to internality for success. Similarly it is seen that the lower one goes down on the socio-economic scale, the more one finds evidence of external beliefs.

Phares (1957), James (1957) and James and Rotter (1958) were able to demonstrate that an individual's expectancies about response reinforcement contingencies influenced behaviour in typical learning extinction tasks. Subjects who believed that reinforcement was a formation of their own personal skills in completing a task performed differently than subjects who perceived reinforcement to be choice determined.
The concept of internal versus external control of reinforcement (Locus of control) holds that people, through a lifetime of social learning acquire a generalized expectation about the source of reinforcement for their action (Rotter, 1954 and Rotter, Chance and Phares, 1972). Rotter (1966) proposed that this expectation can be represented on an internal-external control continuum. At one end are "internals" who believe that reinforcement derives from within their own personalities; at the other end are externals who see reinforcement to be determined by fate, chance or powerful others.

Those people who perceived themselves as the primary determiners of their own fate are said to hold internal control expectancies. Those who perceive chance or fate as the primary determinants of their destinies are said to hold external-control expectancies (Lefcourt, 1976). An internal orientation has been found to be positively associated with such psychological adjustment indicates as resistance to influence the ability to defer gratification, infrequent feelings of helplessness and the ability to cope with failure (Lefcourt, 1976).

Although locus of control is fairly stable overtime, it has been found to change in certain naturally occurring situations as well as experimentally induced ones. One of the more influential intervention is the acquisition of higher status (Harvey, 1971), for example, has demonstrated upward status mobility is associated with shifts in locus of control.
toward the internal direction. It comes as no surprise that different environments, experiences, and social conditions lead to variations in personality characteristics, those who express high degree of internal control.

Weiner (1972) has introduced the notion of causal stability to complement locus of control. He argues that subject utilize not only an internal-external dimension to explain their performance but also a stable-unstable dimension. Indeed, he contends that much research has confounded locus of control with stability. He employs four factors as determinants of perceived achievement: ability (internal-stable), effort (internal-unstable), task-difficulty (external-stable), and luck (external-unstable). He further asserts about the causal stability dimension influences expectancy for success and that of locus of control dimension influences affective responses to success and failure.

Rotter considered the issue of whether an individual's behaviour had primarily internally or externally determined. Phares (1976) suggested that the most basic characteristic of internal individuals appeared to be their greater success in coping with or in attaining mastery over their environment. Externals, in contrast, perceive a lack of control over their world.

In his recent attempt to classify the construct of internal versus external control of reinforcement. Rotter (1975) claimed that failure to consider reinforcement value as a separate variable is a major conceptual problem. Rotter is
concerned by attempt to predict an individual's behaviour directly from knowledge of his internal-external orientation, regardless of the value the individual himself attaches to the corresponding reinforcement. Consider, for example, the contingency "if I work I will be promoted" knowledge of a person is internal, external orientation may improve prediction of his expectation of reinforcement (promotion) gives a specific behaviour (work). Also required, however, is knowledge of the value the individual places on the reinforcement, promotion in this case.

Locus of control is an expectancy variable which describes a person's perception as to how rewards and reinforcements are distributed. Internal locus of control is associated with the perception of events, whether positive or negative, or being a consequence of one's own actions and thereby potentially under personal control (Lefcourt, 1976). External locus of control on the other hand refers to the perception of negative or positive events as being unrelated to self behaviour and accordingly beyond personal control (Lefcourt, 1976).

Many studies investigating the developmental trend of the locus of control have found that individuals, increase in their sense of internal control from early childhood to the thirties (Miligan et al. 1971 and Ryckman, 1975). This is to be determined since internal-external control (I-E) is determined by one's experience and during these years individuals usually
increase in mastery and competence, thus leading to a feeling of having more control.

Research by Rotter (1966) and Phares (1957) and other suggested that internals, who believe that their acts are primarily voluntary are more likely than externals to accept responsibility for their activities and are more highly motivated to carry them out. Internals have also been found to receive higher grades and achievement test scores than externals and their overall attitude towards education is more favourable. Externals, who see little relationship between what they do and what happens to them, are likely to regard their own efforts as futile consequently they are disinclined to get forth much effort.

An individual might, of course, be internal in some respects and external in others. As Weiner and Kukla (1970) point out, we tend to attribute our success to ourselves and failures to others. Those with high levels of achievement motivation are especially likely to regard success as resulting from their own abilities or efforts and their failure as due to luck or some others factors outside themselves.

The relationship between I-E and measures of need for achievement, is that people high in need for achievement (nAch) are very likely to be internally oriented, but there is no reason to expect all low need achievement people to be external.

Relationship in this area are all often clouded by sex differences. Relationship often appear for males but not for
females. Perhaps because of cultural differences in the expectations for achievement arousal early in boys and girls. It is perhaps such considerations that are responsible for the findings that in women, fear of success is associated with an external locus of control (Midgley and Abrams, 1974).

Another facet of achievement is the attribution of responsibility for success and failure if one consistently attribute his performance outcomes to external forces, than he is denied the experiences of pride and satisfaction that are so necessary to sustain achievement effort over time (Karabenick, 1972). Unwillingness to assume responsibility for personal failure should also impede achievement (Phares, Wilson and Klyver, 1971; Davis and Davis, 1972 and Krovetz, 1974).

Numerous studies of causal attribution to achievement outcome have indicated a tendency for individuals to make internal attributions for their own positive behaviours and external attributions for their own negative behaviour. It has been argued that motivational factors introduce biases into causal attributions in favour of protecting self-esteem (Bredley, 1978; Forsyth, 1980, McCarrey, Edwards and Razario, 1982; Miller and Ross, 1975 and Zuckerman, 1979), by denying responsibility for failure, and by taking excessive credit for success (Forsyth and Schlenker, 1977). Luiginbuhl, Crowe and Kahan (1975) suggested that people are biased towards attributing behaviour with positive consequences to internal factors and behaviours with negative outcomes to external
factors. They argued that positive outcomes are derived and are perceived by subjects as implying personal control whereas, failures are treated as relatively uninformative. These explanations assumed that attributors share similar cognitive and effective mechanisms having considerable generality across cultures, tasks and performance situations.

The concept of internal Vs external control reinforcement (also referred to as locus of control) hold that people, through a lifetime of social learning acquire a generalized expectation above the source of reinforcement for their actions.

Rotter (1966) considered the issue of whether an individual's behaviour was primarily internally or externally determined. Phares (1976) suggested that the most basic characteristic of internal subject appeared to be their greater success in coping with or in obtaining mastery over their environment. Externals, in contrast, perceive a lack of control over their world.

In his recent attempt to classify the construct of internal Vs external control of reinforcement. Rotter (1975) claimed that failure to consider reinforcement value as a separate variable is a major conceptual problem. Rotter is concerned by attempts to predict an individual's behaviour directly from knowledge of his internal external orientation regardless of the value the individual himself attaches to the corresponding reinforcement.
A major premise of educational programmes designed with learner-controlled features is that students who believe they can influence and control their learning and school environments tend to demonstrate more positive learning processes and outcomes than students who depend on powerful others (e.g. teachers, other relevant adults and peers) to control their schooling. Introduced by Rotter (1966), the conceptualization of "locus of control" as an individual's perception of the internal-external causation of environmental events has greatly influenced investigations of both the theory and instructional processes. This research generally has had two major foci: conceptual analysis of locus of control process determinants and their effect on the nature and patterns of students psychological and academic functioning; and the design of educational progress and practices aimed at fostering student's sense of personal control, as well as the study of the resulting implications for instructional design and school improvements.

Research on the relationship between locus of control beliefs and learning for both children and adults suggests that internal locus of control tends to be associated with motivation towards the mastery of skills; the acquisition of knowledge, and the development of competence in self-management and self-evaluation. Furthermore, school learning and the development of perceptions of control are considered to be interactive and mutually reinforcing processes (Bandura, 1981;

Level of anticipation has been studied on school children by Sears (1940), Stake, (1973), specifically on girls by Gjesme (1973). When girls underestimate their subjective probability of success. Dececco and Cranford (1977) have reported that person may have high anticipation, achievement or failure on a given task which depends on the perception of his own ability and control over the situations, so far as the locus of control is concerned, it is an assessment of one's behaviour being controlled by himself (internal) or by unforeseen events beyond his control (external).

Rotter has postulated that the potential for any behaviour is a function of (a) the expectation of that, the behaviour will lead to reinforcement and (b) the perceived volume of that reinforcement. A person is said to have internal control if he usually believes that reinforcements are contingent upon his own actions and therefore under his control. By contrast, a person is said to have external locus of control if he usually believes that reinforcement are not contingent upon his own actions and therefore not made his own control (Rotter, 1966 and Rotter, Searman and Liverant, 1962).

Psychological studies pioneered by Rotter (1966) have reported a wide range of individual differences in a person's perceptions of outcomes resulting from his or her behaviour. Some people tend to believe that what happens to them is
largely a matter of external forces that are beyond their personal control. Others tend to think that what happens to them is indirectly contingent upon their own control this psychological variable has been called "internal Vs external control of reinforcement."

According to Davis and Davis (1972) externals show greater defensiveness and evince a "sourgrapes" approach to attributing achievement outcomes.

**Locus of Control and Achievement Motivation:**

The degree to which perceived locus of control can be used to predict achievement motivation has received considerable attention in the last few years. In their study Bedeian, and Hydes (1977) found that tendency for nAch to increase as feeling of external control decrease. Dudley (1978), Rajamohan (1978) and Borger, Marilyn and Laning (1979) found that subjects who are more in internal control would be high in nAch as compared to external controlled subjects irrespective of biological gender. Gordon (1977) found out that internal control is related to high achievement for males but not for females.

Gllejs and Corinne (1981) investigated that internality was significantly related to achievement motivation. Stipek and Weisz (1981) found that there is a positive relationship between achievement and locus of control. Swanson (1981) examined that subjects who perceived a relationship between their own behaviour and result of consequences obtained high
achievement scores.

Erwee and Pottas (1982) found out that locus of control and achievement motivation are separate but intercorrelated constructs. Bosworth and Murray (1983), found a significant relationship between internal locus of control and achievement motivation.

Best (1975) and Trice and Sherrywood (1984) investigated that subjects who have an external control orientation respond better to extrinsic motivation while internals responds better to intrinsic motivation.

Rao and Murthy (1984), Raj (1984) and Ahmed (1985) found out that there is a positive relationship between need achievement and internal locus of control. Arnold (1985) found that level of task performances significantly related to perceived competence and attributions which were in them significantly related to intrinsic motivation. Locus of control was significantly related to external attribution of the causes of task performance.

Halpin et al. (1985) found that subjects who had a high internal locus of control realized that they were influential in the classroom accepted the responsibility for their actions and worked hard to achieve educational goals and subjects who had a high external locus of control felt that they had little control over what happened.

Ismail and Kong (1985), Sehilit (1986), Verma (1986), Young and Shorr (1986) and Brog (1986) found that who are more in
internal control would be high in need achievement as compared to external controlled subjects irrespective of the biological gender.

Basgall and Snyder, (1988) and Corry (1988) found that there is a significant relationship between locus of control and achievement motivation.

In conclusion it may be inferred that internality may be significantly related to nAch irrespective of the biological gender.

Concept of Risk Taking Tendency:

It is common place that life in its aspect of action involves a liability to error. This liability, interpreted to include the occurrence of results entirely unforeseen as well as those imperfectly allowed for, is ordinarily expressed by the remark that men take risks. Risk-taking has been an important area of research for the psychologists, for the last three decades. McClelland and his followers (1958) noted the differences between subjects with high and low (or strong and weak) achievement motives. Many of these differences centered on risk-taking. When we are attracted by a goal and know that there is a chance of failure in attaining it, we face a risk. Whether or not we take the risk depends to a considerable extent on whether we are motivated primarily by the expectation of success or the dread of failure (Atkinson, 1957, 1966). So to take risk in different environmental situation is an
interesting phenomenon in human life. Risk taking behaviour has its own importance in human life, whereas on one side it prepares a person in coping with dangerous situations, at others it help in channalization of abundance body energy in various creative ways.

Generally, by the term risk, we mean a dangerous element or factor where an individual is put willingly or unwillingly in that situation. Risk is a condition where there is a possibility of the occurrence of loss as a result of a deviation from the intended expected situation (Hobrin, 1974). Chaubey (1974) is of opinion that risk is a condition where both the aspects of a thing are clear to entrepreneur and the outcome clearly defines success and failure. Yusuf (1974) and Hofrin (1974) defines the term risk as a part of broader aspect of decision making.

Success oriented people tend to avoid both high risk and low risk situations preferring those with a moderate risk. Their moderate risk situation provides them with goal that are significantly challenging but not as difficult, that they seriously threaten them with the prospect of failure (Atkinson, 1958 and Atkinson, Bastian, Earl and Litwin, 1962).

A theory of achievement motivations has generated a vast amount of empirical research, some of its bearing directly on the issue of risk taking (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell, 1953). An elaboration of Atkinson's theory of
achievement motivation is proposed to include standard setting as a determinant of risk preference and motivational tendency. When the personal standard is located at an intermediate level of task difficulty (probability of success = .5), the elaborated theory reduces the original theory. In subjects having a motive to avoid failure ($M_s > M_f$), a shift of the peak of the preference function is predicted from moderately difficult to more difficult tasks if the standard is more difficult and to easier tasks if the standard is easier. In failure oriented subjects ($M_f > M_s$) an inverse relationship between difficulty of standards and preferred difficulty level is predicted. The experimental results confirm these predictions. It is concluded that some of the inconsistent findings concerning the preference functions of success can be explained by individual differences in personal standards of excellence (Kuhl, 1978).

Subjects who are motivated primarily by fear of failure tend to take a chance if the odds of being successful are very great or very small. If the odds are moderate, such subjects tend to abandon the goal. For example, the high school or college student who is fear oriented might be expected to select courses that he believes will be either very easy or very hard. The reason for selecting courses is obvious enough. He can always rationalize failure on the grounds that the course was unreasonably difficult and that any one might have failed. He might expect to be recognized for his courage in
undertaking so difficult course, but has protected himself in a
advance against any feeling of shame or frustration if he
should not succeed in it. In this respect, he is similar to the
student who, after repeated failures sets a level of aspiration
for himself that is higher than the one he had before his
failure (Maehr and Sjorgren, 1971).

A person can, of course be motivated simultaneously by
a fear of failure and a desire for success. In such a
situation, the individual experiences, what we have referred to
as an approach-avoidance conflict. The person with a high
degree of achievement motivation might be willing to risk
failures provided that the risk is not perceived as too great.

The person in whom the achievement motive is stronger
should set his level of aspiration in the intermediate zone
where there is moderate risk. To the extent that he has any
motive to avoid failure this means he will voluntarily choose
activities that maximize his own anxiety about failure. On the
other hand, the person in whom the motive to avoid failure is
stronger either should select the easiest of the alternatives
or should be extremely speculative and set his goal where there
is virtually no chance for success. These are activities which
minimize his anxiety about failure.

In other words, irrespective of whether the stronger
motive is to achieve or to avoid failure, the strength of
motivation to perform a task when no alternatives are offered
and the individual is constrained should be greatest when Ps is
.50. This is the condition of greatest uncertainty regarding
the outcome. But when there are alternatives which differ in difficulty, the choice of level of aspiration by persons were disposed to avoid failure is diametrically opposite to that of persons more disposed to seek success. The person were motivated to achieve should prefer a moderate risk. His level of aspiration will fall at the point where his positive motivation is strongest, at the point where the odds seem to be 50-50. The fearful person, on the other hand, must select a task even though all the alternatives are threatening to him. He prefers the least threatening of the available alternatives, either the task which is easy he cannot fail or the task which is so difficult that failure would be no cause for self-blame and embarrassment (Atkinson, 1957).

Variations in risk-taking between cultures should be expected in view of the relationship of this behaviour to achievement motivation and evidence that the strength of this motive differ according to culture (McClelland 1961 and Mead, 1972). Although McClelland (1961) offers some data on the similarity of the approaches taken by high and low achievers in a number of different countries to situations involving rests, there have been no investigations reported in which the risk-taking behaviour of individual from more than one culture has been directly contrasted.

According to Atkinson (1957) strength of tendency to achieve success is a multiplicative function of these variables, viz. motive to achieve success (Ms), individuals estimate of probability of success (Ps) and incentive value of
that goal for individual (Is). His account of risk taking also involve these three variables, McClelland (1958), Issacson (1964), Atkinson et al. (1960) and Wish and Hasazs (1974) provide striking conformation of the prediction made by the theory of achievement motivation that person having high nAch scores prefer intermediate risk (or difficulty) to greater extent than persons having low nAch scores.

Success oriented people, tend to avoid both high-risk and low-risk situations performing those with moderate risk. Then moderate risk situations provide them with goals that as sufficiently challenging to satisfy their need for achievement but not so difficult that they seriously threaten when with the prospect of failure.

Risk Taking Tendency and Achievement Motivation:

Results of (Atkinson, 1958; Atkinson, Earl and Litwin, 1962; Atkinson and Litwin, 1960, 1962; Litwin, 1959 and McClelland, 1958) found that a curvilinear relationships exists between achievement and risk-taking; with high achievement being associated with intermediate risk.

Individuals high in achievement motivation prefer task of intermediate difficulty while the low motive groups tend to select tasks which are relatively easy or relatively difficult (Scodel et al. 1954; Meyer et al. 1961; Atkinson, 1964; Weiner and Kukla, 1970 and Weinstein, 1969).
Males and females were found to differ significantly with regard to risk taking behaviour (Krishna, 1972). Boys who were highly motivated and high achievers in school demonstrated a moderate risk preference patterns in which uncertainty was not avoided and challenge was viewed positively (McClelland, 1971). Poor achievers, were found to exhibit either a "high risk" pattern or "low risk" pattern. This pattern did not hold for girls and women (Harner, 1978). High achieving girls with high motivation did not always exhibits the moderate risk patterns found for boys.

Many psychologists (e.g. Weiner et al., 1971, Schneider, 1973 and Meyer et al. 1976) contend that a major reason for an individual's preference for moderately difficult tasks is the personal, skill-related inspiration such tasks provide. In addition it has been shown that achievement oriented people select an easy or intermediate task to begin with and choose tasks of progressively greater difficulty whenever they experience success (Jopt, 1974; Kuhl and Blankenship, 1979 and Schneider and Posse, 1982). These findings suggest that the achievement oriented individual is interested in (a) identifying his highest level of competency (b) extending that level, and (c) minimizing failure.

McClelland and Watson (1973), Michael and McDavid (1972), Ahmed (1985) and Clifford (1988) investigated that there is a positive relationship between achievement motivation and risk taking tendency. In conclusion it may be inferred that nAch is related significantly to risk taking tendency irrespective of biological gender.

**Concept of Vocational Maturity:**

Vocational maturity is one of the primary constructs of vocational psychology, which allows to assess both rate and level of an individual's development with respect to vocational choice. The problem of facilitation of vocational maturity can be said as very important problem. It seems very necessary that one chooses his occupation according to his abilities, interests and personality traits etc. It has individual as well as social significance to an individual, it would bring greater feeling of happiness and worthwhileness through enhanced vocational as well as general adjustment, satisfaction and success (Mehta, 1987).

In extension of his theory, Super (1963) elaborated upon the concept of vocational maturity (Super et al. 1957, 1960). Vocational maturity allows the observers to assess the rate and level of an individual's development with respect to career matters. Vocational maturity is the readiness of an individual to deal with age-appropriate vocational tasks. In other words, an individual is vocationally mature if he/she
is successfully coping with vocational tasks appropriate for his / her chronological age. It is to be expected that vocationally mature behaviour will assume different shapes depending upon the context provided by an individual's life stage. The vocationally mature 14 years old will be concerned with assessing his interests and abilities to reach the goal of deciding on an educational plan, while the vocationally mature 45 years old man will be concerned with ways he can maintain his career status in the face of competition from younger men. In view of the fluid nature of vocational maturity, Super defined the concept normatively in terms of the congruence between an individual's vocational behaviour and the expected vocational behaviour at that age. The closer the correspondence between the two the greater the individual's vocational maturity.

Vocational interest are attitudes of the likes and dislikes towards things and attitudes of vocational significance. These attitudes play a significant role in the life of an individual. They influence the life adjustment in general and vocational adjustment in particular. Vocational adjustment leads to dissatisfaction with one's life and person engaged in a vocation met directly or indirectly to satisfy his or her need disposition facts to fulfill the vocational expectation. The vocationally maladjusted individual is nuisance in the organisation (Rewal, 1984).

Making appropriate vocational choice is not an easy task. Individual should have knowledge about himself and the
world of work. He can have many problems in this regard. Whatever problems an individual is facing, it is closely related to his vocational maturity. Person's having problems would have lesser degree of vocational maturity. Vocational maturity and appropriateness of vocational choice have been found closely related to each other (Mehta, 1987).

Super (1955) derived the concept of vocational maturity from (Buehler's) study of mature and other adults. The general definition of vocational maturity was "readiness to make the prevocational and vocational decisions required by school curricula (Super and Overstreet, 1960).

The construct of vocational maturity appears applicable to adulthood. Vocational development tasks change with chronological age, civil status, experience, changing social and economic conditions and the physical and mental changes that take place with other changes. The role change that come with middle age and with old age confront people with developmental tasks, throughout their entire life time, and readiness to cope with vocational development tasks continues to be important as the tasks change.

**Model of Adult Vocational Maturity:**

Heath's work on personality maturity begin in the 1960's and continuing with attention to vocational maturity. In the 1970's he constructed a model of vocational maturity for adult (Heaths 1965, 1975). He gave the five dimensions in a
general model of personal maturity.

(1) The ability to symbolize experience and aspects of the environment (symbolization).

(2) The ability to appreciate varied viewpoints (allocentrism).

(3) Which the individual can then integrate with other experience (integration).

(4) The ability to organize information into stable forms (stabilization).

(5) And the capacity to perceive information about self and environment in a continuous way (autonomy). These dimensions are similar to the process identified, by Tiedman and O'Hara (1963).

The five attitudinal dimensions which Crites (1965, 1973), had identified in his model of Adolescent vocational maturity were as follows:-

(1) Involvement in the choice process or the extent to which the individual is active in the process of making a choice.

(2) Orientation towards work, or the extent to which the individual is task or pleasure oriented, in his attitudes towards work and the values he places upon it.

(3) Independence in decision making or the extent to which an individual relies on others in the choice of an occupation.
(4) Preference for vocational choice factors or the extent to which the choice is based on a particular factor.

(5) Conceptions of the choice process on the extent to which accurate conceptions are made in choosing an occupation.

Crites applies Havighurst's (1953, 1964) theory that success in dealing with early tasks is positively related to success with later ones; the role of career maturity in his model of adjustment is conceptualized in line with the individuals who show greater career maturity in their decision making during the exploratory stage are likely to be better adjusted (and therefore more satisfied and successful in the early years of work than those who were less mature in exploring). Early career adjustment, therefore, is dependent upon late Adolescent vocational maturity as shown by Career Pattern Study (Super, Kowalski, and Gotkin, 1967) attitudes and competencies at the initial decision stage are important determinants of later adjustment. Crites recognizes that the process of adjustment is continual, and that adjustment has different meaning at different stages in an individual's career. The dimension of adult vocational maturity illustrate the process by which vocational maturity might be achieved in adulthood.

**Vocational Maturity and Achievement Motivation:**

Studies have shown that males and females differ significantly with regard to their vocational interest. Boys
were found to like more adventures and active job, than the girls (Strong, 1945; Yum, 1942 and Woods and Mararet Elines, 1971).

Ziller (1957) regarded occupational choice as a "decision making situation in which risk plays an major role and therefore, individual's risk taking tendencies determine, in part occupational choice." Sinha and Shanker (1970) compared vocational choices among tribal and non-tribal university students concluded that "Backwardness level lead tribals to choose those occupations which require economic gain, less responsibility and which are satisfiers of immediate needs, on the other hand, better educational backgrounds and high educational level makes the non-tribal subjects to prefer occupations which require more responsibility, powers and authority.

Krishna and Ansari (1971) found that college students showed preference for such occupations which involve greater risk but higher income prospect.

Miller (1974) found that achievement was positively associated with vocational maturity. Gade and Peterson (1977) found that vocational maturity was more related to intrinsic values and was unrelated to extrinsic values irrespective of biological gender.

Many studies have shown mature career attitudes relates to career progress such as emotional adjustment in adolescent (Karayanni 1981) and internal locus of control (Gable, Thompson and Glanstein 1978) and scholastic aptitude (Westbrook and
Parry Hill 1973 and Westbrook and Arcia, 1980). Vocational maturity has been determined by socio-economic status and sex (Super and Nevill, 1984).

Very few attempts have been made to study vocational maturity and need achievement. On the basis of theory of nAch it can be indirectly inferred that vocational maturity may play an important role in striving for achievement of vocationalization and hence may contribute to higher nAch.

**Concept of Values:**

The value structure of the individual might play an important role in the endeavor of achievement of the individual hence the two might be intensely related. The value for daily living for family members serves as a paradigm because values is a social phenomena which has an effect on the lives of the family members. The individual is received as a member of the society more precisely of a particular system. His values, behaviour and opportunities are in part determined by social milieu which he lives and his parent place in the hierarchy of society (Cotton and William, 1959).

The term "value" may refer to interests, pleasures likes, preferences, duties, moral obligations, desires wants needs, aversions and attractions and many other modalities of selective orientation (Pepper, 1958). Value in the other words are found in the large and many other modalities of selective orientation.
According to Lovejoy (1956) values are enduring beliefs that a specific mode of conduct or a state of existence is personality and socially preferrable to alternative mode of conduct. Moreover, a value unlike an attitude is an imperative to action not only a belief about preferrable but also a preference for the preferrable.

In the broader view, anything good or bad is a value Pepper (1958) or a value is anything of interest to a human subject (Parrey, 1958). Allport (1961) defines value in significant possible words "a value is a belief upon which a man acts by preference." A value is defined by Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachig (1962) as an especially important class of beliefs shared by members of one language, culture, community, concerning what is 'good' or 'desirable' that can be measured as a rank order of preference for certain cognitive events," Jules Henry (1963) defines it as something desirable such as "love, kindness qualities contentment, fun, honesty, decency, relaxation, simplicity." Raths, Harmins and Simon (1966) state that "out of experiences may come certain general guide to behaviour these guides tend to give direction to life and may be called values." Carl Rogers (1969) views "Valuing is the tendency of a person to show preference."

Robert Coghlan (1969) gives a summary definition that "Values have been variously viewed as preference, criteria, objects and possessions, personality and status characteristics and state of mind that are absolutes—-inherent in object-
present in man and / or identical with his behaviour."

Values are considered to be organizing factors within personality and especially to morals and characters. In the words of Roscher (1969) valuing is considered with the worth, a subject attached to a particular object phenomenon or behaviour. They have been described as ideas tied to feelings. Anything that satisfies a human need becomes thereby a value is an enduring belief, that a specific mode of conduct or end state of existence is personally or socially preferrable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end state of existence."

Values play an important role in shaping individual behaviour in social context. They are socially approved or disapproved, desires or goals, conception or standard by which things are composed and approved or disapproved. Values are "things in which people are interested, things they want and desire to be or become, feel as obligatory,, worship and enjoy" (Allport, 1951). Ordinarily attitude should be enjoyed when the disposition is bound to an object or value that is to say when it is around by a well defined class or stimuli and when the individual feels towards these stimuli definite attraction, repulsion.

Values are a type of norm and are closely related to attitude. At the same time they are kinds of motives, since they represent orientation or striving towards a given goal.
In the broadest way, we may think a values as attitude-related attributes that are projected upon people, objects and situations. Values have been defined as "desirable" i.e. anything "desired or chosen by someone sometimes." Generally however, we tend to think a values as the more enduring clusters of wants that is given. Individual or group works towards family consistently with attitudes, they are basic to personality and yet may be distinguished from traits. Because values are related to the individual's life organization of central self they tend to be less inconsistent than in the case of attitudes. The single most influential classification of values have been made by Spranger (1928), who proposed six basic value types: theoretical, economic, political, social, religious and aesthetic, we can say "The value is the product of feeling, set and action."

One of the more widely accepted definitions consider "values to be conception of the desirable, influencing, selective behaviour in this restrictive definition a distinction is made between what is desired and what is desirable, the latter being equated with what we ought to desire; values regulate" impulse satisfaction in accord with the whole array of hierarchial enduring goals of the personality, the requirements of both personality and sociological system for order, the need for respect of the interests of others and of the groups as a whole in social living (Kluckhohn 1951). This is a highly sociological view of
values, which rules out, for instance, purely hedonic values.

Accordingly, we look first to the common features of all values contain some cognitive elements, that they have a selection or directional quality and that they involve some effective components. Values serve as criteria for selection in action, when most criteria for judgement, preference and choice, when implicit and unreflective values nevertheless perform as if they constituted grounds decisions in behaviour. Men do not prefer somethings to others, they do select one course of action rather than another out of a range of possibilities, they do judge the conduct of other men. Evidently purposive actions fall within the boundaries of evaluative action. Within purposive actions we can identify three main kinds of values, conative (desire, liking) achievement' (success versus frustration) and affective (pleasures versus pain or unpleasantness). Within any purposive act, these values may be strungout or distributed along the total history of the act (Pepper, 1958).

In ordinary speach the term 'value' is used interchangeably in two senses that must be kept separate here. In one meaning, we refer to the specific evaluation of any object, as in "industrialized countries place a high value on "formal education" or "governmental regulation is worthless." The second meaning of value refers to the criteria, or standards in terms of which evaluations are made as in
"education is good because it increases economic efficiency" values as criterion is, usually the more important usage for purposes of social scientific analysis (Williams, 1951, 1960).

The definition of value we use for purposes of anchoring and classifying the discussion of values is a descriptive definition which is continually being confronted by the test of adequacy imposed by the test of adequacy imposed by actual behaviours. Thus the description must be empirically verified or it must be changed. "The value facts themselves are the ultimate evaluative criteria" (Pepper, 1958). The value facts are implicit in evaluative acts; therefore explicit definitions of values are always potentially open to reformulation in the face of new evaluative acts.

Clearly, there is no point in extending the meaning of the term so broadly that there is no way of distinguishing between values and other determinants of behaviour. Human social behaviour is the outcome of philosophical states and capacities of the organism of the stimulus field to which it reacts, of the conceptual schemes within which it interprets its environment and of "motives" or "needs" which are not identical with the value elements which enter into them. Values contribute only one among several classes of factors that should be taken into account if one seeks to predict and understand human behaviour.
Although it is difficult in specific instances to distinguish between values and such related concepts as beliefs, needs or motives reasonably clear distinction can be drawn in general terms. When for example, we think of values or components of personality, it is clear that values are not the same as well as needs or desires. Needs derives from deficiency or disruption. Desires are wishes or competitions directed towards certain objects or states. Desires may become so intense as to become needs, and needs are typically intermingled with corresponding desires. In any case, however, it is possible for those to be a need or a desire (for example, for food) in which values are not the only or even the most important, component. On the other hand, values themselves may be a source of needs and desires, as when one seeks to remove the pangs of not fulfilling "one's duty" or positively aspires to live up to high standards of craftsmanship.

Values are not motives. Many particular motives may reinforce commitment to a given value, "A given value may have a strength that is relatively independent of any particular motive, though it remains in some sense, a formation of the total motivational system (Kleukehohn, 1951).

Test of Values:

One interesting approach to the measurement of values or what might in everyday terms called "philosophy of life," is based upon the philosopher Spranger's types of men (Spranger,
1928). According to Spranger people have six basic values in life: theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political and religious. A test which was devised to measure the relative importance of these six basic motives is an individual's personality in the study of value Test (Allport, Vernon and Lindzey, 1960).

The men predominantly motivated by theoretical values has as his primary aim in life the discovery of truth. In pursuing this goal he characteristically seeks to observe, to reason, and to organize his knowledge in a systematic manner, without being influenced by the beauty or the utility of the objects he is studying.

The economic man, on the other hand, is primarily concerned with what is useful and thus with the practical affairs of business: productive, marketing, credit, wealth. Often this attitude conflicts with other values. Since the economics man regards pure science as opposed to applied, as worthless and has little regard for art except as it serves commercial ends. He tends to confuse luxury with beauty.

In contrast, the aesthetic man places forms and harmony above all other values, regarding commercial activity as distractive of these. Even though he may not be a creative artist himself, he finds his chief interest in the events of life as artistic episodes from which he derives aesthetic enjoyment. The aesthetic, with its emphasis on diverse impressions to be savored is also in contrast to the
theoretical, which emphasizes the identities of experience. The aesthetic man tend to be a strong individualist, not a "company man."

Love of people is the highest value for the person in social values. He tends to support social welfare programs and to be personally warm and helpful to others.

Whether in the field of politics as such or not, the political man is most interested in power over others, desiring to influence their opinion and to gain renown as a leaders of man.

Although not necessarily orthodox in his beliefs, the religious man has as his highest value the unity of the universe. This classification of man includes the "imminent mystics," who find their religious experience through active participation in life as a whole, and the "transcendental mystics" who seek the highest through withdrawal from the ordinary lane of living and become ascetics or monks.

Naturally, there is no such thing as a pure aesthetic with no interest in worshiping, helping others or making a living. Nor is the most dollar minded businessman completely insensitive to beauty or to the needs of others. Every one has a mixture of these six basic values by measuring which are most dominant in his personality and to what degree the possesses the others, a picture of his temperament in terms of philosophical may be attained. The Allport,Vernon- Lindzey
study of value is an Ipsative test, a high score on one set of values can be earned only at the expense of gaining low scores on another set. So both the tests Spranger (1928) and Allport Vernon and Lindzey study of value (1960) are ipsative in nature. In the present study, to measure values of college students, Allport-Vernon and Lindzey's test of values has been used because this test has been successfully used on Indian graduate and postgraduate samples (Jerath, 1981) with high degree of reliability and validity.

Values and Achievement Motivation:

Very few studies had been done on values viz-a-viz nAch. Girijesh (1978) investigated that Ss who have theoretical values were more highly motivated towards achievement. In a study Jerath (1981) investigated that economic value is significantly related with nAch and religious and economic values are significantly related with E-nAch oriented persons. There is no significant relationship of these six values (theoretical, economic, political, social, religious, and aesthetic) with I-nAch oriented persons in this study.

Very few attempts have been made to study the relationship of nAch and value. The present study may suggest the relationship of nAch and its components (i.e. I-nAch and E-nAch) with values in non-tribal and tribal students of both sexes.

From the different orientations in values as emphasized through varied theoretical formulation (Spranger, 1928 and
concept of interest:

Interest is commonly thought of as somehow, involving amusement, enjoyment or fun. Though this is frequently the case, it is not always or necessarily, so, certainly the pleasure factor might help to explain our interest in music, art, good food, or the opposite sex. But some of the things in which we might have a strong interest are really not very pleasant at all. In fact, we might be very much interested in certain matters that are actually quite repugnant. For example, I believe that most of us are genuinely interested in the threat of war, crime, disease, poverty, unemployment, natural disasters, accidents, pollution, corruption, and other matters that are hardly a source of enjoyment. The reason for this interest is our feeling, somehow these events or situations might affect us personally. Somehow we believe, these matters could have some bearing on our own welfare or happiness.

Interest, then, seems to depend not so much on the pleasure that we believe from an experience as on the
perception of a relationship between ourselves and some object or event, a situation or possibility outside us. Interests can be defined as feelings of like, dislike or indifference towards an activity, object or occupation (Strong, 1951).

In general psychology the interest takes place in the context of attention. Interest has been regarded as an aid to attention. Some psychologists are of the view that there is no attention without interest.

According to William McDougall (1919) "A man is said to be interested in a certain object or topic, even though he may be thinking of other things. But we know that if he is interested in it, his attention can readily be drawn to it and, when so drawn, will usually be sustained and keen or as we say, contracted, that, in fact, is what, we mean by saying that he is interested in the object. Being interested is, then, an enduring condition of the subject."

According to Bingham (1937), "An interest is a tendency to become absorbed in an experience and to continue it. Thus Bingham emphasised an interest in terms of a tendency. All interests are in the manner tendencies. According to Bingham, "We therefore, define interest not only in terms of the objects and activities which get attention and yield satisfaction, but also in terms of the strengths of the tendencies to give attention to and seek satisfaction in these competing objects of interest."

According to Lowell (1958), "In essence interest consists of a set of subjective feelings about some rather
concrete matter such as cricket, stamp collecting or needle work and a tendency to behave towards the topic in certain ways." In this definition subjective feelings have been emphasized. Wrightstone et al. (1956) states, "interest is defined in variety of ways."

According to Guilford (1964), "when an organism discovers that certain objects and responses lead to the satisfaction of motives, it shows interest in those objects or response--interests are inclinations to attend to and to seek certain stimuli or to indulge in certain activities."

English and English (1958) have stated that interest was a term of "elusive meanings." Then they give several meanings in term of attitude on set of attending." The second meaning regards interest as "the tendency to give selective attention to something." In the third meaning an interest is regarded as "an attitude or feeling that an object or event makes a difference or is of concern to oneself. The feeling is generally characterised as being unique or unanalysable." The fourth meaning of interest is in term of "a striving to be fully aware of a character of an object." The fifth meaning of interest given by English and English is in terms of "the feeling without which a person is said to be unable to learn." The sixth meaning of interest emphasises, "a pleasurable feeling that accompanies activity proceeding unhindered towards its goal." Here we find an interest being regarded as a
pleasurable feeling. The seventh meaning of interest is in terms of "a tendency to engage in an activity solely for the gratifications of engaging there in; or the activity thus engaged; in a man of varied interests."

Further, English and English points out that, "By a curioust twist this means that in interest is what one pursues-----." Thus we find that there are many meanings and definitions of an interest and that is why is extremely difficult to define an interest specifically.

According to Super (1940), the nature of an interest can be understood by keeping in view the fact that nature and nurture and many other intervening variables are involved in the development of interest. In the words of Super "an objective theory (of interest) would recognize the fact of multiple causation, the principle of interaction, and the joint contribution of nature and nurture." In other words, Super believes that in the study of interest one has to keep in view the social and cultural environment as well as the many types of activities in which the individual, whose interest is under study, is involved.

**Definition of Interest:** There have been four major interpretation of term interest, Super (1947) classified them as expressions, manifestation, tests and inventories of interests.

**Expressed interest** is the verbal profession of interest in an object, activity, task or occupation, what Fryer (1931) called
"specific interest." The subject states that he likes or dislikes something. The importance which may be attached to expressions of specific interests clearly varied with the maturity of the individual. Manifest interest is synonymous with participation in an activity or occupation. Objective manifestation of interest have been studied in order to avoid the subjectivity of expressions or the implication of a static quality of interest. Thus Kitson (1925) urged that the verb "to be interested" be used, indicating that a process and activity are involved. In this approach it is assumed that the high school youth who was active in the dramatic club has artistic or literary interests, and that the accountant who devotes his time to building and operating a model rail board system is interested in mechanics. It is generally appreciated that such manifest interests are sometimes the result of interest in the concomitants or by products of the activity rather than in the activity itself.

Tested interest used to refer to interest as measured by objective tests, as differentiated from inventories which are based on subjective self-estimate. It is assumed that, since interest in a vocation is likely to manifest itself in action, it should also result in an accumulation of relevant information. Thus, interest in science should cause a person to read about scientific developments whether in science course or in the daily paper, and to acquire and retain more
information about science than would other people.

**Inventoried interest** is assessed by means of lists of activities and occupations which bear a superficial resemblance to some questionnaires for the study of expressed interests for each item in the list is responded to with an expression of preference (Super and Crites 1962).

The term *interest* is also used to convey other concepts, the most relevant of which are degree of interest or strength of motivation and drive or need, when it is said that some one is vitally interested in attaining a goal, this statement is concerning the degree of some inventoried interest or the strength of some drive.

The strength and direction of the individual's interests, attitudes, motives, values and related variables represents an important aspect of his personality. These characteristics materially affect his educational and vocational adjustment, his interpersonal relations, the enjoyment he derives from his vocational pursuits and other major phases of his daily living. Although certain texts are typically directed towards the measurement of or another of these variables, the available instruments cannot be rapidly classified according to such discrete categories as interests, attitudes, values and the like overlapping is the rule. Thus questionnaires designed to assess the relative strength of difficult values such as the practical, aesthetic or
intellectual may have much in common with interest inventories. Achievement is resultant of aptitude and interest.

**Origin And Development of Interest:** The first attempt to synthesis into a theory of the development of vocational interests was made by Caster (1940). The individual derives satisfaction from the identification with some group, by which means he attains status. Caster stated that the interest patterns of adolescents tend to become increasingly practical, that in the beginning many adolescent interest patterns provide very unsatisfactory solutions of the problem adjusting their aspirations to personal abilities and social demands. Caster (1940) writes "In this process of trying to adjust to a complex culture, the individual finds experiences which offer some basis for the integration of personality. The pattern of vocational interest which gradually forms, becomes closely identified with the self, the pattern of interest is in the nature of a set of values, which can find expressions in one family of occupations but not in others."

The environmentalistic theory which attempts to take into account the stability of inventoried interests has been advanced by Bordin (1943), he put it, "one of the major facts which Strong has established concerning his blank is the continuity of interest patterns. In general he has found that these patterns become more stable as the group studied is older. Reading is between the lines of most of the discussions of the interest test phenomena, this fact is taken to mean that
Strong interest patterns are fixed, once developed, and therefore any actual changes are due to unreliability or other types of error. It would be acknowledged as a psychological and sociological fact that the older the individual is, the more likely it is that he will have established himself occupationally and the less likely it is that conditions will require a change in his occupation.... In answering a Strong vocational interest test, an individual is expressing his acceptance of a particular view on concept of himself in terms of occupational stereotypes."

Bordin's basic assumption, is that in answering an interest inventory a person is guided by his self-concept and by occupational stereotypes, Bordin hypothesized that interest and preference will tend to agree when the occupation is one with a clear and well-known stereotypes, will be less likely to agree when the occupation is not well-known and has an unclear stereotypes. Similarly, he hypothesised that changes of occupational preferences are accompanied by changes of inventoried interests.

An adequate theory of interests must build on the findings concerning the relationship between general aptitude and interest which imply that in some instances aptitude probably does come first, resulting in approval, satisfaction and interest. It seems probable that ability plays a part in the development of personality traits, as in certain studies of the effects of social skills on adjustment (McLaughlin, 1931,
Jack, 1934 and Page, 1936), and therefore in the development of interests as these are affected by personality. The theory recognize the fact that as there are relationships between interests and the deeper layers of personality such as values, temperament, personality traits, and needs (Weinstein, 1953, Segal, 1954 and Nachmann, 1960).

Interests are the product of interaction between inherited neural and endocrine factors, on the one hand and opportunity and social evaluation on the other. Some of the things a person does well as a result of aptitudes bring him the satisfaction of mastery or the approval of his companies, and result in interests. His needs and his mode of adjustment may cause him to seek certain satisfactions, but the means of achieving these satisfaction vary so much from one person, with one set of aptitudes and in one set of circumstances, to another person with other abilities and in another situation, that the prediction of interest patterns from needs and from modes of adjustment is hardly possible. By adolescence most young people in developed areas have had opportunities to explore social linguistic, mathematical, technical and business activities to some extent, they have sought to identify with parents, other adults. Interest patterns begin to crystalize by early adolescence. Vocational interest patterns generally have a substantial degree of permanence at this stage for most persons.

In the present study to measure interests of the college students Chatterji's Non-Language Preference Record has
been used. This test is useful for Indian Sample because this is a stick figure test, so they can accurately depict activities in terms of active participation. The correlation of this test with Kuder Preference Record is very high. Both tests are 'ipsative tests, i.e., a high score on one set of interests can be earned only at the expense of gaining low scores on another set.

**Interest and Achievement Motivation:** Interest is related to intrinsic motivation such as incentives are to extrinsic motivation. A person is said to be interested when he recognizes the value that is inherent in a particular activity in and of itself. A person acts because of motives from within when he derives pleasure or some sort of satisfaction from the very process of engaging in the activity. Thus an intrinsically motivated person does not need any external pressures or inducement, promises or threats to behave as he does (Kolesnik, 1923).

Vijay (1984) attempted to study the vocational interests of subjects, it was observed that students belonging to science group show their interest in technical and scientific vocations whereas arts students in artistic and literacy vocations.

For pursuing on interest one requires motivation to achieve. In this regard no systematic attempt seems to have been made to study its relationship with need achievement.
There are areas of interest in which a person tries to accomplish by working alone and in other where a person comes into contact with other. Hence, the expectation may follow that E-nAch may be related with outdoor interests and indoor interests with I-nAch.