CHAPTER-I

Introduction and Conceptual Framework

Achievement-motivation is an important topic in psychology. A number of psychologists have devoted their attention to understand the process of development of achievement motivation in the complex area of everyday human life. Many attempts have been made to understand this complex human process during the recent past. Tremendous progress has been made in the Western World in this field. In 1953 McClelland shaped his laboratory and scientifically analysed the data. He then came to certain conclusions regarding the economic development and the role of achievement-motivation in stimulating social growth. Later on, a number of psychologists studied the problem in the Indian set-up and their conclusions show that in Indian society specially in its rural segments achievement-motivation is low. It is assumed that the socio-cultural ethos of Indian Society is not congenial for the healthy growth of achievement motive. We have to provide environments in the family to encourage children to do their works independently. All children do not get similar conditions even in one family. They grow and develop in different conditions. Even the child rearing attitudes of parents also differ. It is a well established fact that the personality of an individual is a complicated structure. Hereditary and environmental factors
are responsible for the development of the personality.

Society is a living entity. It is not static but is dynamic. There is always a change with the changes in technology, population, size, ideas, aspirations etc, our social order definitely changes. There was a time when "female sex" was taken as a separate entity as compared to their counterpart—"male sex". Naturally, the society expected each sex to perform different tasks. They demarcated "bounds of femininity" and "masculine personality". But with its onward journey, the social values and tasks have taken a new shape. Now in this present study it shall be my endeavour to study the antecedents of achievement motivation and its two components namely intrinsic and extrinsic orientation.

There is no doubt that the problem of achievement motivation has received a great deal of attention by the psychologists. It has been studied in two different angles (i) intrinsic achievement motivation and (ii) extrinsic achievement motivation. But, so far the antecedents of the achievement motivations and its two components has not been studied at length specially as it prevails in the Indian society. Hence, I feel the necessity of the present study which has been named as "Antecedents of Achievement motivation and its intrinsic and extrinsic components". It shall form the topic of my present study. It aims at discovering those experimental variables that facilitate
or retard the origin and healthy growth of achievement motive. It is not possible to study all the variables which influence the motivation. So investigator has to choose certain important variables and study and analyse them. The main variables involved in the present study with regard to achievement motivation and its special derivatives namely intrinsic or task orientation and extrinsic or success orientation are as under:-

a) Socio-economic status
b) Sex-Differences
c) Age
d) Birth-order
e) Child rearing practices: This involves parents attitude towards child-rearing practices i.e.

   1) Independence training (Father)
   ii) Independence training (Mother)
   iii) Achievement training (Father)
   iv) Achievement training (Mother)

1-1 Achievement Motivation

It is an established fact that human behaviour reflects variability, purpose and order. The concept of motivation has been propounded by psychologists to explain the dynamics of these behaviour properties. The current conception of human motivation derives its origin from the classical work
of Murray (1938). He advanced the view that personality is a configuration of some basic psychogenic needs and motives. 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. Literature of experimental psychology whether on learning, thinking or perception, is full of assumptions and hypotheses about the underlying motivational principles.

Achievement-motivation has been referred to as the need for achievement (and abbreviated n-Ach) since the beginning of its systematic study (McClelland, Clark, Raby, and Atkinson, 1949). An important and provocative book by McClelland (1961) maintains that the motivations of the dominant members of a society play a majority role in spurring economic and technological improvements. In a very simple terms, the achievement motive is generally regarded as the impetus to do well relative to some standard of excellence. A person with strong achievement needs wants to be successful at some challenging task, not for status or profit, but merely for the sake of doing well. It is an important determinant of aspiration, effort, and persistence when an individual expects that performance will be evaluated in relation to some standard of excellence. Such behaviour is generally called achievement orientated behaviour. As a motive force it functions in the form of a relative stable characteristic
of personality, after the period of early socialization during which it develops (Atkinson, 1958). In other words, the need for achievement means mastering, manipulating, arranging, organising one's own social and environmental factors in some direction of accomplishment or achievement.

McClelland's concept of "motivation" represents 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 reintegration 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 feeling to their success or failure in meeting those standards. At the 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 degrees of achievement motive, which in turn have different consequences. On this basis, Atkinson formulated a theory of achievement motivation in 1957. According
to him, the theory of need for achievement attempts to account for the determinants of the direction, magnitude and persistence of behaviour in a limited but very important domain of human activities. It applies only to those situations where the individual knows that his performance will be evaluated in terms of some standard of excellence and that the consequences of his action will be either a favourable evaluation. In other words, this theory is also known as achievement oriented performance.

McClelland (1951) has attempted to estimate the areas in which one should look for motives of importance, he and his associates have concentrated mainly on "the achievement motive", and to some extent on the "affiliation" and "power motives" (McClelland, Davis, Kalin, and Wanner, 1972; McClelland, 1975a, 1975b).

The term achievement motivation refers, in the first instance, to inner states or processes of the organism—need drives, etc.—which prompt and guide behaviour. Concepts of n-Ach have laid considerable stress on the working of inner dynamics. However, initially we can ignore these inner workings and to concentrate specifically and directly on the behaviour that is taken as indicative of motivation. The motive has been defined by Murray (1938) as:

.........the desired or tendency to do things as rapidly and independently as possible to overcome obstacles and attain high standard, to excel one's self, to rival and surpass others; to increase self-regard by successful exercise of talent.........
Murray's interest in need system heavily influenced David McCelland (1951,55) in his own motivation theory. McCelland focuses upon the effect associated with the achievement motive defining it as positive or negative effect aroused in situations that involve competition with a standard of excellence, where performance in such situations can be evaluated as successful or unsuccessful, and n-Ach as to excel in a wide variety of situations.

Achievement motivation is defined by McClelland et al. (1953) as an internalized tendency to strive for standards of excellence. When achievement is aroused, it is expressed in driving energy directed towards attaining excellence, getting ahead, doing things better, faster, more efficiently and finding solutions to different problems which require 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.

1-1.1 Theoretical Orientation

The theory of achievement motive has undergone extensive modifications and elaborations in the last two decades. Atkinson (1964) has added some corrections. He talks of n-ach in terms
of capacity for taking pride in accomplishment in 1957 and 1964. His analysis of the antecedents of achievement behaviour 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. Raynor (1969), Raynor and Atkinson (1974) have proposed major revisions. However, the original theoretical formulation of n-Ach has drawn inspiration from earlier work of Tolman (1955), Rotter (1954) and Edwards (1954, 55). 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. In other words, the strength of motivation to achieve, or tendency to approach success (Ts) through performance of certain actions, may be represented:

Ts x Ps x Is

The first variable Ms is relatively general and stable characteristics of the person which is present in any behavioural
situations. But the values of other two variables $Ps$ and $Is$, depend upon the individual's past experience in specific situations that are similar to the 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 special assumption: $Is=1-Ps$. A very important and special assumption based on a 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 difficult than when it has been easy. In a 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 low. In other words, the difficulty of the task as it appears to an individual equals $1-Ps$. 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 to begin with, is that, the incentive value of success at a task ($Is$) is equal to the apparent difficulty of the task, that is $Is=1-Ps$. If so when a task is very easy, as when
Ps equals .90. The incentive value of success (Is) is 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 n-achievement scores are high than when n-achievements scores are low. The further implications of difference in Ts attributable to high versus low n-achievement 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 expecting evaluation of performance and 'feeling of success' as in "relaxed" conditions. There is, according to the theory, no incentive to achieve. Hence there is no basis for predicting that performance of persons scoring high and low in n-achievement 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 might
be 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.

Stein and Bailey (1975) argue from a social learning viewpoint that motivational patterns for males and females are basically the same, but the observed differences in these patterns relate to the content of the activities. Females express achievement motivations, but in the area defined as feminine. There is some additional support for this view in the study, by Tangri (1969) and by Birnbaum (1977). Both researchers found that some women express their achievement motivation through their husbands and children rather than in their own careers or academic areas. McClelland (1964) points out that even high achieving professional women often express their achievement motives for striving for excellence as mothers.

Furthermore, Milton (1955) found that women did better on problems with feminine rather than masculine content even
though the underlying logic was the same. However, there are studies in which boys have been found with greater n-Ach than girls. Choksi (1973) found that boys have higher n-ach than girls. Chaudhary (1971), Gokulnathan (1972), Aggarwal (1974) and Rao (1975) found that girls have an overall significantly higher n-ach than boys. However, Desai (1970) and Pathak (1973) found no significant sex-differences on n-ach of the students.

It is viewed that females have high affiliative needs which influence their n-ach and behaviour, sometimes enhancing and sometimes blocking them. An important part of the theory developed by Hoffman (1974) is that experiences in infancy and early childhood, bearing on mastery and effectance are different for girls and boys. As a result, boys learn to respond to stress by utilizing their own resources, which is in keeping with current views about mastery and effectance. Girls, on the other hand, are more likely to learn to cope with stress by enlisting the aid of others. They develop less confidence in their ability to cope independently with the environment and instead retain more of their early fears of abandonment, security and effectiveness. Affective relationships, consistently are paramount in females. It is not due to the facts that their achievement motivation is low, but their affiliative motivation is greater.
The recent inclusion of cognitive factors as influential in achievement behaviour is highlighted by Frieze (1973a, 1973b). She presents an analysis of the expectations that women have about success and failure and whether success and failure experience are seen as due to one's own abilities and efforts or to external events such as chance or the nature of the task. There is some evidence, though it is not conclusive, that women, more than men, attribute their success to luck and their failure to lack of ability. This pattern and women's apparent lower performance expectations, would clearly have a negative effect on their motivation to achieve. This shows the origin of lower expectations for performance in women, as based on the stereotype that views women as generally less competent than men and on the lack of female representing competence and high achievement. It is further pointed out that while the content of the task cannot be overlooked, men and boys anticipate more success than women and girls, not only in clearly defined masculine tasks and apparently sexless intellectual tasks, but also, in some cases, for feminine tasks.

Veroff, McClelland and Ruhaland (1975) focus on issues similar to those considered by Frieze, such as expectations about success and the sense of personal causation. Women were found to be lower than men in "assertive competence motivation" and in "fear of failure", but higher in "hope of success".
Tangri (1969) draws on many of the special aspects of female achievement motivation in developing a measure of intrinsic achievement motive that may be more relevant in the study of women's accomplishment than past measures have been. The measure is designed to eliminate the competitive or social comparison aspects of the more conventional measures and to reduce the effects of women's lowered expectancy of success that Tangri feels is due to their tendency both to under-estimate their own abilities and to realistically perceive the sex bias in the occupational structure.

Dauven (1955) compared achievement motivation responsive in middle and working class high school students. She manipulated motivation by means of both monetary and symbolic deprivation and found the working class students to be affected by the former and not the later, whereas the middle class children were affected by both. Rural boys had lower educational aspirations than Urban boys, according to one survey by Haller and Sewell (1957).

Researches in the area of achievement motivation have amply demonstrated that this motive plays a crucial role in individual and group behaviours in a wide variety of situations. It will not be out of place to describe some of the major findings in this area. McClelland (1965) has found that n-ach predisposes people to seek entrepreneurial jobs. In a subsequent
studies, Andrews (1967) and Wainer & Rubin (1967) found evidence which confirms this finding. Rogers and Neil (1966) found that agricultural innovation is positively related to achievement motive. It is also been found that high n-Ach leads to moderate risk-taking and level of aspiration. It has been shown that upward social mobility (Crockett, 1962; Veroff, 1965; Litwin, 1966; Stacey, 1969) and high degree of future time perspective (Agarwal, 1980) are positively correlated to achievement motivation.

It has been repeatedly found that persons scoring low in n-Ach, lack confidence in themselves and are more anxious about failure than they are interested about success. Wainer and Kulka (1970) have suggested that high n-Ach persons are attracted to medium risk, because they want to know regarding their abilities. On the other hand, persons scoring high in n-Ach prefer tasks which provide information regarding their environment. Mahon (1960) has found that realism in vocational aspiration is positively related to strength of n-Ach. In Indian setting Sharma (1975) has also reported similar results.

1-1.2 Intrinsic (Task) and Extrinsic (Success) Achievement Motivational Orientations

Individuals may approach an activity with either an intrinsic or an extrinsic motivational orientations. Intrinsic achievement motivation (I-n-Ach) represents concern over
standards of excellance for its own sake. I-n-Ach orientatjon are characterized by preferences for activities that are relatively complex, challenging, and entertaining, whereas extrinsic achievement motivation (E-n-Ach) represents concern over social recognition. E-n-Ach orientation are characterized by preference for activities that are relatively simple, predictable and easily completed.

The current theoretical analysis have focused on how contingent reward effects the interpretation of initially interesting activities, and most of the research concerns now those changed interpretations affect the likelihood of selection of those same activities during subsequent free-choice periods (Lepper and Greene, 1978). But if these changes in self perceived motivation are as important as pervasive as they intuitively seem to be, then other implications of adopting one or other interpretation of motivation need to be identified and understood.

Some activities are inherently rewarding. In addition to basic consummatory behaviours associated with states of arousal and deprivation, such as eating, there are other activities that provide enjoyable stimulation and exercise, such as curiosity (Eerlyne, 1960; Harlow, Harlow and Meyer, 1950), effectance motivation (White, 1959) and optimal levels of stimulations (Hunt, 1965) refer to the kinds of rewards that are inherent in some interactions with the environment. The
pleasures of entertainment, new experiences, and competent interaction with the environment that can be derived from some activities are presumably experienced early in development. At the same time, the potential instrumentality of activities as mediators of or steps toward other rewards are also learned. It is perhaps inevitable, then, that activities come to be categorized anf approached as an end in itself; at other times, activities are categorized and approached as means to ends. These two different forms of categorization and approach can be thought of as intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations (Pittman, Boggiano, and Ruble in press).

In fact, need for achievement relates to accomplishment, astering, manipulating, and organizing the physical and social environment overcoming obstacles and maintaining high standards of work, competing through striving to excel one's previous performance, as well as revelling and surpassing others; and the like' (Lindgren, 1973). Individuals high in n-ach are more likely to approach achievement related activities than those low in this motivational disposition, because they tend to ascribe success to themselves and hence experience greater reward for goal attainment. It has also been observed that persons high in n-Ach persist longer, given failure, than those, low in this motivational tendency because they are more likely to ascribe the failure to lack of efforts, and less likely to attribute failure to a deficiency in ability.
Also, individuals high in n-Ach choose tasks of intermediate difficulty with greater frequency than individuals low in n-Ach because performance at those tasks is more likely to yield information about one's capabilities than selection of tasks which are very easy or extremely difficult. Thus, it can be easily discerned that n-Ach assumes a decisive status in organization of human behaviour. These differences are due to intrinsic and extrinsic components of achievement motivation.

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 play, entertainment, or leisure time periods. Their 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 Ss are given verbal rewards that convey competence information, intrinsic interest is enhanced (e.g. Deci, 1971; Pittman, Davey, Alafat, Wetherill, and Kramer, 1980), and when Ss 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 a 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 approached as a job, duty, or necessary evil. In studies in which the mode of interaction with the task was variable and under the Ss control, contingent reward (which presumably fosters an extrinsic motivational orientation) has led to a preference for simple versions of the task (Harter, 1978; Shapira, 1976) and decreased creativity (Amabile, 1979; Kruglanski, Friedman, and Zeevi, 1971) 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 over time, and are somewhat unpredictable. 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 individuals with either an intrinsic or an extrinsic motivational orientations. It is found that verbal praise increased females' and males' intrinsic motivation on
both a feminine and masculine task, and intrinsic task
was higher for sex-appropriate than sex-inappropriate tasks.
The sexes did not show a differential pattern of response to praise. People often pursue activities in the absence of external rewards. Many times, the simple satisfaction of challenging and conquering a problem or task is reward enough. Intrinsically motivated activities are those for which there is no apparent reward except the activity itself (Deci, 1975). Many studies have indicated that people's intrinsic interest in a given activity can be affected by extrinsic rewards such as money or praise. In a series of studies, Deci (1972, 1975) demonstrated that verbal praise enhanced males' subsequent interest for a task, while decreasing that of females. To account for this result, Deci proposed that positive verbal reinforcement strengthens males' sense of competence and self-determination, which in turn enhances intrinsic motivation. For females, the controlling aspect of verbal reinforcement is more salient, thereby decreasing intrinsic interest in the activity. According to Deci (1972, 1975), this difference is due to socialization processes that encourage females to be more dependent on and sensitive to social reinforcement i.e., extrinsic motivation. On the other hand, males are more heavily socialized toward competence and self-determination, thereby making the informational value of praise more salient, enhancing their feelings of competence and self-determination, and hence intrinsic interest. This interpretation has
considerable importance for understanding how the sexes may differ in their response to success and social reinforcement.

1-1.3 Measuring Achievement Motivation

Psychologists are more concerned with the study of consciousness or thoughts. The attempt to measure the need for achievement is a reversal of these research directions. The attractiveness of n-Ach. is indicated by the many different measures which have been devised. The initial studies of this motive were carried out in the experimental laboratory (Atkinson, 1958). There are three main types of measuring achievement motive: projective instruments; scales within comprehensive personality inventories; and specific questionnaire measures of n-Ach.

1-1.4 Projective Instruments

The McClelland et al. (1953) version of Murray's (1943) Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) is the most commonly used projective measure of need for achievement, and it is intrinsic to the development of McClelland's achievement motivation theory. McClelland argues that the analysis of 'fantasy' is the best approach to n-Ach measurement, and this is performed by content analysing subjects' written stories to picture cards designed to elicit achievement themes. The stories are scored according to a content analysis system described by McClelland et al. (1953) and Smith & Feld (1958)
and interscorer reliabilities of around 0.80 and 0.90 are usually reported (e.g. Atkinson, 1958a; Mitchell, 1961).

A projective technique closely related to McClelland's is a set of six pictures devised by Heckhausen (1967, 1969). Subjects' stories are keyed for hope of success and fear of failure, in a similar fashion to the TAT procedures.

French (1958) has constructed a "Test of Insight" on need for achievement measure based on McClelland's rationale but more structured than the TAT. A rather different projective approach has been taken by Aronson (1958), who has developed a non-verbal measure of n-Ach using graphic expression as the testing stimulus and response mode.

1.1.5 Comprehensive Personality Inventories

The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) (Edwards, 1959) is a 225-item inventory designed to measure 15 needs, one of which is n-Ach. Each item is a personally descriptive pair of statements which are matched according to their average social desirability ratings. Another 'Omnibus' personality inventory is the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) (Gough, 1957), a 480 item true-false questionnaire.

The personality Research Form (PRF) (Jackson, 1967) is also a very comprehensive instrument and contains 300 true-false
items. A final inventory is the Adjective Check List (ACL) (Cough, 1953). In this instrument 300 adjectives can be selectively self-checked according to their relevance to the subject's own behaviour. Heilbrun (1958) has developed 15 need scales for the ACL, one scale being based on Murray's n-Ach concept, comprising 38 adjectives.

1-1.6 Specific Questionnaire Measures of n-Ach

Mehrabian (1968, 1969) has constructed a male and female version of a 26 item n-Ach scale (MAS) where the extent of agreement or disagreement with items are recorded. Costello (1967) describes two scales which emerged from factor analytic studies of responses to yes-no questions in a prototype n-Ach scale (CAMS). Another factor-analytically derived scale is that of Lynn (1969) (LAMQ). Decharms, Morrison, Reitman & McClelland (1955) have constructed a nine-item measure based upon Murray's work, which concerns the value placed on achievement activities, hence abbreviated as 'V Ach'. A more complex approach has been taken by Mukherjee (1965).

The Sherwood Achievement Scale (SAS) (Sherwood, 1966) is a very short self-report questionnaire of n-Ach. There are three items, referring to competitiveness, striving for accomplishment, and goal-setting, each judged on seven point rating scales.
All of the foregoing instruments measure achievement motive; it is therefore reasonable to expect high statistical inter-relationships between different techniques. Some evidence on this has been provided by Weinstein (1969) who examined the published relationships between the TAT and FTI, TAT and Graphic, TAT and EPPS, TAT and V Ach, FTI and EPPS, and TAT and SAS. But 72 percent of the correlations have no significant relationship between pairs of n-Ach measures. The current status of the TAT certainly appears to reinforce McClelland's (1958a) opinion that if the n Ach score is measuring anything, that same thing is not likely to be measured by any simple set of choice-type items. But we can now go further to state that the TAT is also measuring something different from other projective techniques, and that there is as yet no evidence to suggest that alternative projective measures are tapping the same construct as the questionnaire measures. Furthermore, the questionnaire instruments are themselves tending to measure different things. The operationalization of n-Ach therefore seems considerably confused. This is because of psychometric adequacy of the various measures and because of whether n-Ach should be treated as an unconscious or conscious variable.

Reliability

A primary psychometric requirement of an n-Ach measure is that its items or parts are sufficiently homogeneous to
consider it as tapping a unitary construct. A measure which has poor internal consistency is very unlikely to be stable over time. This problem is seen more in projective instruments. Heckhausen (1967) method is somewhat more stable than the TAT, although, he himself concluded that it has 'serious disadvantages psychometrically speaking'.

McClelland (1958) mentions some of the problems of reliability in the TAT. The stability across time of the more structured projective methods is also largely disappointing. Some questionnaire measures of n-Ach have reported stabilities and they are all good.

**Validity**

It has been argued that the poor internal consistency and stability of the projective instruments—particularly the TAT—is itself a sufficient explanation of the lack of relationships with other n-Ach measures. Let us examine its validity.

The most direct type of validity study has been to seek a relationship within a performance criterion. The validity relationships so far mentioned are based on the assumption that a small direct link between n-Ach and performance should exist. There have been a number of studies relating to the aspects of the achievement motivation theory by Atkinson & Feather (1966) which concern the
construct validity of the TAT.

The reliability and validity of the projective instruments are considered to be very low, but even then they are used. McClelland (1958) assumes that individuals are unlikely to be able and willing to report accurately on their n-Ach level in questionnaires; but not so in the TAT. This type of problem was noted by Holmes (1971). The TAT will be generally less susceptible to such influences, but as some studies have indicated, it is by no means totally immune to voluntary distortion (Weisskopf & Dieppa, 1951; Summerwell campbell & Sarason, 1958; Kaplan & Eron, 1965).

1-2 Socio-Economic Status

During the early years of child research, the socio-economic status (SES) of parents was largely overlooked. It was not until the work of sociologists in the late 1930s that behavioural scientists had firm evidence that well defined behavioural trends were associated with various levels of SES. The study by Warner and Lunt (1941) was an important landmark during this period. Children grow up in different social classes which have economic, social and cultural component and which are determinants of where they live. Sociologists classify social classes into three major groups with subclasses in each. Thus people are said to be classified as lower, middle or upper class.
Adolescents' social relationships are more complex, and have more ramifications than other children. The adolescent's social situation is a particularly difficult one, since he lives simultaneously in the two worlds of children and adults, in a kind of marginal or overlapping status, not knowing where he belongs. At this stage he has many new urgent, conflicting demands put on him. For example, he is expected to choose a vocation and to achieve some independence from his family. In addition, his sex drive increases as a result of hormonal changes and he must cope with strong, forbidden impulses. It is said that sociogenic explanations of personality development suggest that factors pertaining to person's SES determine his goal's values, and basic personality orientations. People differ in status; some are perceived as being of a superior status, other of an inferior status. In most highly developed societies, there is a complex and elaborate status system. Within each of these status systems, persons are ranked in terms of the prestige or social worth they have. Generally, the members of an organized group behave differently in their interactions with others according to their status within that group.

Research on an individual status in an organized group has shown that persons of a high status are more likely to be the focus of attention than individuals of a low status. Furthermore, they are generally better satisfied with their
positions than those of lower status. There is some evidence to indicate that individuals of a high status have greater freedom for the expressions of attitudes and behaviours, which may deviate considerably from those of the group as a whole. The status of a person may therefore be viewed as the worth of a person as estimated by a group or class of persons. It may follow from personal accomplishments, a position of eminence, a prestigious occupation and so on, which are held in high esteem by the general members of a group.

The concept of social class is variously defined by social scientists. It should be noted that an individual’s needs, motives, goals, interpersonal response traits, values, and attitudes are heavily conditioned by this social environment which in turn, is determined by a social class to which he belongs. This is the reason why social class assumes great importance for social psychologists as an explanation concept. The pivotal role of the social class in the development of an individual is that it defines and systematises different learning environments in different classes and develops his personality with a specific brand of his class, culture, values, expectations, and attitudes.

It should however be pointed out that, in the more objective methods of class determinations, several criteria are used to determine an individual’s social class. Among the objective criteria most commonly used are the income, occupation, educational level, sources of income, and so on.
Among these criteria, the education and occupation of an individual are supposed to be more important. Classes differ with respect to need for achievement. Achievement motivation and socio-economic status variables are related significantly and positively with each other. Middle class parents in general stress achievement strongly and reward it frequently, but lower class parents do not. Consequently, middle class children are more interested in studying and in earning good grades in school than are children from lower class homes. The latter do not usually seem to be motivated to do well in school or, for that matter, in psychological tests. They are inclined to have academic difficulties, often find school work boring and are more likely to become "school problems" being troublesome to teachers and generally resistant to learning. It is said that middle class children have long-term involvement. In studies in which children must choose between the alternatives of a small, immediate reward and a large, delayed reward, lower class children, tend to choose the first alternative whereas middle class children prefer the second. Sociological analysis suggests that the lower class children develops little capacity to "delay gratification" because, for them, the future is uncertain. Due to this uncertainty of future, they have low achievement motivation.

Moreover, middle class children are highly motivated to achieve in school and in academic tasks, but this is not
so true of lower class children. Interestingly enough, if a lower class child moves into a neighbourhood with better educational opportunities, his IQ is apt to increase, even though his social class status remains low. This clearly shows that inadequate learning opportunities and unstimulating environments handicap the lower-class children's performance.

(A large number of research studies showed that education is the key value in middle class families. In other words, achievement motivation is found to be higher in middle class than in higher class or lower class.

1-3 Sex-Differences

Physical differences between males and females are caused by complex physical changes. But physical changes are not the only differences developing between males and females. Although physical variances between the sexes tend to be fairly obvious and universal, a number of psychological and behavioural differences also emerge. Most individuals satisfactorily accept the gender to which they are assigned at birth. They consciously or unconsciously acquire the behaviour appropriate to the sex-role to which they have been assigned.

On various test instruments, people have been asked to rate the masculinity and femininity of certain behaviours. It was found that masculine traits included adventuresomeness,
aggressiveness, assertiveness, boldness, competence, competitiveness, dominance, forcefulness, and independence. Males are expected to be more active, explorative, goal-directed, instrumental and "outer-directed" than women. They are supposed to strive for achievement and excellence, to control their emotions. On the other hand, women are expected to be more dependent. Women derive their status first from fathers and later from husbands.

Traditional beliefs about sex-differences claim that the differences are innate and, consequently, inevitable. Because the two sexes are physically different and because the differences become increasingly pronounced after puberty, therefore, it is assumed that psychological and behavioural differences are automatic accompaniments of physical changes. According to traditions, men are less emotional than women. Many researches revealed that sex-differences are found in achievement-motivation, social behaviour and intellectual abilities. It is said that girls are more affected by heredity and boys by environment.

No significant sex-differences in motor development have been found during the early years if boys and girls are given equal training, encouragement, equipment, and opportunities for practice. As a result of cultural pressures, sex-differences in motor skills begin to appear around the Kindergarten age, however, and become more and more marked as children grow older. It was found that males scored higher
scores than females on n-Ach-measures. Sex has been considered as an important personality and behavioural determinant.

1-4 Age

Whenever we are interested in correlating child's behavioural manifestations with his age, that means we are dealing with developmental phenomena. Many people use the terms "growth" and "development" interchangeably. In reality they are different, though they are inseparable; neither takes place alone. Growth refers to quantitative changes—increases in size and structure. But development refers to qualitative changes. It may be defined as a progressive series of orderly, coherent changes. "Progressive" signifies that the changes are directional, that they lead forward rather than backward. "Orderly" and "coherent" suggest that there is a definite relationship between a given stage and the stages which precede or follow it. This relationship can be expressed in a formula R=f(A), in which R is what ever behaviour the investigator is studying, and A represents chronological age. This formula therefore reads "behaviour observed is a function of age" (Kersen, 1960).

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 years of age. At this stage, 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. Signs of achievement motivation have been observed among Ss with a mental age of 36 months, providing that tasks are appropriate to their mental level. Bialer (1961) observed the tendency to overcome failure over a period from 4 to 14 years of age. This tendency is connected with high and success oriented achievement motivation as Coopersmith (1960) was able to show for 11 to 12 years olds. It is said that as the child interacts with his environment the undifferentiated need structure begins to differentiate into specific motives. Differentiation is a continuous process. Available evidence suggests that differentiation continues to some extent into one's adult life so that the strength, for particular motive, while reasonably stable, does change over time. This theoretical position has been variously proposed by White (1959), Kagan (1972), has stated that through life experiences of interactions with the environment specific
differentiated motive develops. According to Deci (1975) 'need for achievement is specific motive which differentiates out of basic needs for feelings of competence and self determination'. Thus one might expect that achievement motive will grow with age, provided that the relevant experiences are available. Many research studies found positively significant correlation between age and need for achievement.

1-5 Birth-Order

The relation of one child to another in family may produce lasting effects on personality. Researchers have paid a great deal of attention towards the birth-order effects. Some researchers have found that students who were first born were more inclined to volunteer for psychological experiments (Capra & Dittes, 1962). Such findings suggest that birth order is a psychologically significant variable.

Adler (1945) was one of the earliest writers to describe the effects of birth-order (that is, whether a child is the first born, a middle child, last, or an only one) on personality development. Based on his clinical experience, he described first borns as achievement oriented and more sensitive than later born children. He described
first borns as being more comfortable with adults than peers, since the first born is the only child in a family who for a period of time has the adults (parents all to him-or herself). Middle children he saw as more peer oriented, more sociable and more independent of the parents. According to Adler (1945), youngest children are most likely to be indulged and allowed to remain dependent. The first born child is considered as the responsible child than later born. These findings are not to be interpreted as a biological effect of order of birth, but rather as a consequence of the differences in circumstances under which the first child and the second child are socialized. First borns are treated differently by their parents than are children who came later. First born has a monopoly of parental attention and love until the appearance of the second born child. It is well known fact that individuals who were first born in their families are likely to be more socialized, more responsible and more favourably disposed to persons in authority than later-born.

Family size influences the frequency and intensity of jealousy and envy. First born children display jealousy more often and more violently than their later-born siblings. The social environment of the home plays an important role in the development of the young child. The differences in
personality between first-born children and their siblings have also attracted considerable attention from psychologists. In a review of research relating to the relationship between order of birth and success, Jones (1954) found that the number of successful individuals who were first born in their families considerably exceeded chance expectations.

The following represent empirical studies reporting birth order differences statistically significant at or beyond the 0.05 level of confidence. Research findings suggest five psychological positions, i.e., first, second, middle, last and only born child in the family.

First-Born

First-borns have better school grades than the later-born students (S Schachter, 1953); are most vulnerable to stress (Schulman & Kosak, 1977); attend college in greater number than their later-born peers (R.L. Greene & J.K. Clark, 1968); and show the greatest representation among problem children (Adler, 1956).

Second-Born

The second born child represents a distinct birth order category (F. Deutsch, 1975). Such children manifest greater dependency behaviour than either first or later borns; seek more adult help and approval than first or later-borns; spend more time in individual activity, etc.
generally more talkative and express more negative affect than other Ss (McGurk & Lewis, 1972). The majority of the effeminate boys are first or second born, more of being second born than first. Second borns in same-sex dyads appear to imitate the same sex parent more than their older sibling (Hodapp & Lavoie, 1975).

**Middle-Born**

Middle children tend to be better adjusted emotionally if from large families (Bossard, 1956); have the greatest feeling of not belonging; are most sensitive to injustices and feelings of being slighted (Eckstein, 1978); are most successful in team sports (Sutton-Smith, 1980); are most likely to study music and languages and to practice the creative arts; have aesthetic interests (if male) and are over-represented among actors (W.D. Bliss, 1970).

**Last-Born**

Last borns affiliate with a fraternity more than first-borns and only children (F. Baker & G.M. O'Brien, 1969); appear to have the highest self-esteem (H.E. Kaplan, 1970); are best adjusted if from large families (W.D. Altus, 1966); have the greatest over-representation of psychiatric disorders if from small families (Barry & Barry, 1967); and are most
likely to have the lowest i.q. a and to experience school failure (Belmont, 1977). Later-born females tend to have significantly lower self-esteem than expected (Eisenman & Schussel, 1970).

Only-Born

Growing up without siblings has no unusual impact on personality development (Falbo, 1981). Only borns are over-represented as regards emotional disturbance (H.L. Kanter, 1970), and the only son has the strongest need for nurturence. Only borns appear to assume less responsibility for success than do first or later-borns (Newhouse, 1974); are most likely to be referred for clinical help (Ko, Y & Sun, L; 1965); and are most likely to return for more clinical help (Howe & Madgett, 1975).

First-borns report higher parental control than those of later-borns. Older siblings are perceived as more powerful, while younger siblings are perceived as showing more resentment and appealing more to parents for help (Sutton-Smith & Rosenberg, 1968). College students who were among the first-borns of their families have less expectancy of affiliative rewards (Conners, 1963). Both first and later-born females tend to be more socially oriented than first and later born males.
There are two major effects that the home has on the life of a child. First, it provides the conditions that facilitate some kinds of behaviour and inhibit others. A home environment may be rich or poor in stimuli. Some homes are rich in stimuli and also have order and focus—that is, the stimuli may be directed at the child in the form of conversation, attention, fondling, and playing. Ordinarily such stimuli have a facilitating effect on the appearance of more mature forms of behaviour. Other homes are also rich in stimuli, but the stimuli are more diffuse and are not focussed on the child's needs. Such an environment have an inhibiting or confusing effect on the child's cognitive and affective development.

The second effects consists of the ways in which the child's personality is shaped. Here, we are concerned with the interaction between the parents and the child, and secondarily, between the child and his or her siblings. It is the area of parent-child interaction that has received the greatest amount of attention from researchers. Some parents give independence training to their children in early age and some parents provide dependent training to their children.

In a course of growth during early phase of life, human child is over dependent upon family members, and this dependence puts the family members in a position to shape the personality
of a child in a particular manner. Through the mechanisms like discriminative reinforcement, identification and modelling the child acquires a set of characteristics which constitute his personality. Dependency is ordinarily not a troublesome behaviour. The vast majority of mother-infant interactions are pleasurable. This is true of the majority of mothers and infants, although cases of deep maternal hostility and rejection sometimes exist. Most children have plenty of early pleasant interactions and so develop strong, good relationships with their mothers. Then, there are few children who develop extremely strong needs of this kind, whose intense demands for reassurance become real problems as they grow older. During the child's first year or two, mothers tend to respond to either of these kinds of dependency with warmth, affection and delight. Occasionally, the child's demands are met with exasperation, but by and large mothers are pleased and deeply flattered to discover that they are important to another human being. Dependency, in short, is a form of behaviour that mothers in our culture deem change worthy. There is every reason to believe that the young human being needs to remain emotionally dependent on a mothers figure for a considerable number of years. Without this attachment, we know that children have difficulties in forming early relationships with other children and other adults. So the goal is to change, and possibly reduce the child's early dependence,
not to eliminate or ignore it.

The child's motivation to be dependent will undoubtedly be reduced if his conflicts concerning seeking of 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 feelings of mothers regarding independence have recently been probed by a series of questions in a study (Desai, 1974a 1974b).

Theory can often be most economically developed by dealing with children whose parents are extremely authoritarian, considered as one group, and with the children whose parents are extremely equalitarian, considered as another group. Similarly, marital parent-child relationships in nuclear families are often described as democratic. It is assumed that child rearing practices for two groups will differ sharply according to social class. A number of research studies have confirmed the existence of behavioural differences between social classes. Some studies reported significant differences in child-rearing practices on the part of middle and lower class mothers.

Numerous studies conducted have witnessed social marked
class differences in familial conditions, in child rearing practices, in parent child interactions, in parental roles and in value systems. Middle class parents are seem to be more exacting in their expectations. They begin training earlier, supervise their children's activities more closely and put greater emphasis on individual's achievement than parent from lower classes.

It was found that parental attitude ideals 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. In a review of social class differences in child rearing practices, it has concluded the middle class families are more permissive than the lower class families. The lower class mother tries to discipline the child's behaviour by physical punishment, whereas, the middle class mother by including internalized standards of conduct and action.

Middle-class child rearing practices are characterized by psychological discipline, symbolic reward and maternal self-control foster conceptual style in children. The middle class mothers talk more to their children than lower class mothers.

Many psychologists are also approaching the problem of achievement of adults, from the point of view of a need
for achievement, a spirit of enterprise, rather than from the viewpoint of ability. 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-confirmatory as confirmatory results regarding the alleged influence of achievement and independence training on the development of achievement needs (Callard, 1964; Chance, 1961). Because of conflicting data and some cross-cultural discrepancies, McClelland (1961) proposed an '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 & Smith 1966; Smith, 1969).

Thus it is clear that child rearing practices vary in relation to social class, SES, and culture. Various aspects of child rearing practices were found to be related with differences in personality characteristics.