CHAPTER-II

Historical Resume, Purpose, Problem and Hypotheses

Literature related to achievement motivation and its intrinsic-extrinsic components is reviewed in this chapter, with emphasis on some controversial issues sought to be probed in this study. Earlier work is scrutinised for the suggested relationships between n-Ach and other variables which are included in this study.

In recent years much attention has been devoted to the study of achievement motivation and its intrinsic-extrinsic components. Generally, achievement motive is defined as a desire for attaining some specific standard of excellence. Since achievement motive is a learned disposition the manner through which, and the extent to which, it is learned, is largely determined by the society in which one grows up. Therefore, the attempts at studying the factors governing origin and growth of n-Ach have been focussed at identifying environmental factors which are empirically related to variation in achievement orientation.

2-1 Historical Resume

The number of reviews written and treatment given, in different books and journals, to research on "achievement
motivation" and its related topics is multitudinous. Fairly comprehensive reviews have been made by a number of authors (Crandall, 1963; Klinger, 1966; Heckhausen, 1967, 1968; Birney, 1968; Klinger and McNeilly, 1969; Fineman, 1977) and others have devoted substantial portions of their works to achievement motivation (Musstein, 1963; Berkowitz, 1964; Cofer and Appley, 1964; deCharms, 1968; Garai and Schienfield, 1968; Pervin, 1970; Weiner, 1972; Byrne, 1974; Bank et al., 1977; Battistich et al., 1982; Durand, 1983; Pandita and Sethi, 1986).

Pioneers in the field have themselves brought out books and collections on the topic (Mc Clelland et al., 1953; McClelland, 1955a, 1961; Atkinson, 1958, 1964; Atkinson and Feather, 1966; McClelland & Winter 1969; McClelland and Steele, 1973; Atkinson and Raynor, 1974).

In the present review the attempt is not only to review exhaustively the complete work on achievement motivation but also to deal with its intrinsic and extrinsic components.

This review is made under the following categories:

1. Age related to achievement motivation and its intrinsic-extrinsic components.
ii. Sex related to achievement motivation and its intrinsic and extrinsic components.

iii. Birth-order related to achievement motivation and its intrinsic and extrinsic components.

iv. Socio-economic-status related to achievement motivation and its intrinsic-extrinsic components.

v. Child-rearing practices related to achievement motivation and its intrinsic and extrinsic components.

i. Whenever we are interested in correlating the child's behavioural manifestations with his age that means we are dealing with developmental phenomenon.

A series of investigations on the development of the achievement motive have led to the tentative conclusion that it is first evident somewhere between three and three and a half years 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/she has had opportunities to observe competence in others. This 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/herself, so that he/she is pleased by his competence and disappointed with incompetence (Kagan and Moss, 1962; Heckhausen, 1967).
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. (Heckhausen and Wagner, 1965, as reported in Heckhausen, 1967).

Kagan et al. (1958) and Kagan and Moss (1959) found that achievement motivation remained stable during early adolescent and adulthood. Eialer (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 Coopermith (1960) was able to show for 11 to 12 year olds.

Kagan and Moss (1962) pointed a remarkable stability from the age of 3 into adulthood for individual levels of achievement behaviour. Achievement motivation measured by TAT method shows moderate but significant stability between the ages of 8 and 11 years and between the ages of 14 and 28 years (McClelland, 1964).

Crandall et al. (1964) also tried to clarify the developmental process via cross-sectional studies. They reported that kindergarten children, striving more strongly toward achievement, turn less often to an adult for help and support and that achievement behaviour at home and in Kindergarten shows a certain consistency in this age group. In the case of 3 and 4 year olds, according to Zurich (1964)
girls attempted to overcome failure in a more independent and persistent way while boys reacted in an ineffective and inadequate way. Kohan and Deo (1974) studied the development of achievement motivation of adolescents and reported the stability in this age group. Christian (1979) indicated that female subjects need for achievement was high but was unaffected by age. Pandita and Sethi (1986) also found that achievement motivation and its intrinsic-extrinsic components remained stable during 11 year: to 16 years old subjects.

In contrast to all these researches, Feld et al. (1979) found that achievement motivation increases with the increasing age. Hecker et al. (1979) presented results from several longitudinal studies of the development of need for achievement and motivation. Results showed consistent improvements among subjects.

Maehr et al. (1981) found that more extrinsic patterns of achievement give way with age to more intrinsic, task oriented patterns and that, with an aging population, this shift may be reflected in the culture as a whole.

Tiwari (1984) found positively significant correlation between age and n-Ach. In other words, with the increasing age, achievement motivation also increases.
On various test instruments, people have been asked to rate the masculinity and femininity of certain behaviours. It was found that masculine traits include adventuresomeness, 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 parents and later from husbands (Osofsky and Osofsky, 1972; Hoffman, 1977). But Gokulnathan and Mehta (1972) have examined higher need for achievement in girls than boys.

Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) reviewed numerous research studies revealing sex-difference in achievement motivation, social behaviour and intellectual ability. It was found that girls are more affected by heredity and boys by environment. Banks et al. (1977) conducted a study on task liking and intrinsic-extrinsic achievement orientations in Blacks. It was found that Black subjects exhibited a greater orientation toward level of effort in tasks with high intrinsic value and a greater orientation toward success or failure in tasks with high extrinsic value. No differences were found for participants' sex. Schneider et al. (1977) investigated sex as a potential moderator of the need for
achievement. Results indicated that the performance of high
n-Ach females appears inconsistent with the achievement
orientation of males. Singh et al. (1977) studied the differ-
ences in need achievement in relation to sex and other
personality dimensions. No significant relationships was
indicated between sex-differences and need for achievement.

Pande and Panda (1978) studied the relationship between
intellectual achievement responsibility and sex and found that
females had a stronger feeling of internal responsibility
than males.

Chandler et al. (1979) found that there were signifi-
cant sex differences in the aspects of need for achievement.
Differences favoured females in achievement behaviour.
Craulock (1979) pointed out that female Ss were found to
aspire to less demanding occupations than male Ss. Schroth
(1979) found no difference in regard to need for achievement
in males and females.

Hoefert et al. (1980) concluded that sex differences
were obtained concerning the structure of motivation as
well as the estimations, especially those regarding the
numerical and complex information proceedings tasks. Kelemen
(1980) said that males have been viewed as achievement
oriented and females as affiliation oriented. Lao (1980)
found sex-differences in his study. Females Ss had significant higher grades. There were also two significant sex interaction effects, indicating that some factors that influence achievement operate differently for males and females.

Sid et al. (1981) found significant differences in male and female subjects of undergraduate level. Males scored higher scores than females. The same findings were reported by Battistich (1982).

Agrawal et al. (1983) found that females have higher affiliation scores than males, significant age-sex interactions were found. Adolescent females showed higher scores on indices related to need whereas adolescent males showed higher scores on instrumental activity. Bhattacharya et al. (1983) indicated the significant difference of scores in terms of sex. In general boys have been found to be more achievement oriented and have high need for achievement than the girls irrespective of their environment. Christian (1983) indicated no significant differences between scores of males and females on achievement motivation. But Ludwing (1983) conducted a study and found that female students tend to show more test anxiety, more study difficulties, and more conflicts between affiliation and achievement motives than do males.

Van Hecke et al. (1983) tested the hypothesis that
females are motivated to succeed in order to obtain social approval, whereas males are motivated because of achievement features intrinsic to the task. The results were: when approval and objective success were in conflict, females opted for approval, whereas males opted for success. However, when Ss were unrewarded, both sexes appeared motivated by task success. Neither the Ss grade level nor the sex was significantly related to the Ss response.

Steinkamp et al. (1984) found that sex-differences in motivation and achievement are smaller than is generally assumed, but they do occur and with few exceptions, they tend to favour males. Pandita and Sethi (1986) found no sex-differences for achievement motivation and its intrinsic-extrinsic components.

iii. Family structure varies from country to country and a number of variables like order of birth, presence of father, education of parents, etc. influence motivational development. Atkinson and Miller (1956) have obtained evidence showing that first born children tend to have higher n-Ach presumably because this achievement oriented parents can set higher standards, be more affectionate etc. with one child than with several. But in samples of Indian students, the correlation between n-Ach and birth-order was .10. It suggested that younger children may have higher
n-Ach in India.

Hilton (1967) observed the behaviour of pairs of mothers and their four years old children drawn from different birth-order position. The mothers of first-born children, in contrast to later borns, were more likely to start the child working on puzzles, to offer suggestions, and generally interfere with the child's activities. Mothers of other children were more inclined to let them start puzzles on their own—mothers of first borns were more likely to make overt gestures of love or emotional support, especially when the child was succeeding on the task assigned by the experimenter. As far as the children themselves were concerned, first-borns tended to be more dependent than later-borns.

Rothbart (1971) conducted a similar study with first and second born five year olds, in which mothers supervised a number of tasks. All the first borns had same sex-siblings two years younger than they. Results showed that mothers were inclined to put more pressure to achieve on first borns.

Hall et al., (1980) found that first born subjects demonstrated a significantly greater need for achievement than later-borns. Hornbostel et al., (1980) also concluded that competition facilitated high achievement motivation for
first-borns and inhibited it for second-borns.

Marjoriebanks (1981) examined relationship between birth order and family learning environments. Findings indicated that although there were moderate separation among environmental profiles for girls and boys of different birth-order positions, there was also an extreme overlap of profiles among the groups. Girls born earlier in the birth order usually had parents with greater academic aspirations for them than girls born later. While parents had higher academic aspirations for earlier born boys, they placed more emphasis on independence on later born boys.

Empirical studies of birth order have involved a search for correlates between personality variables and ordinal position in the family. Birth-order data is so readily accessible that, as one reviews the extensive birth-order studies, one suspects a tendency to collect birth-order information incidentally in connection with other research interests. The typical research procedure is to ask for birth-order, without accounting for variables in the order itself such as age, separation between siblings, sex-differences and so on. The most critical need is that a birth-order research model be established. It should be considered as a determinant of personality.

iv. Social class differences in parental roles have been
reported by several researchers. Several studies have shown that the SES is an important determinant of motivational level. Leshan, 1952; Douvan, 1956; Rosen, 1959; Mischel, 1960; Fraser, 1961, McClelland, 1961; and Mehta, 1966.

In general, middle class children are found significantly higher in n-Ach than lower class children. Middle class parents, for instance, are more exacting in their expectations, they begin giving training earlier, supervise their children's activities more closely and put greater emphasis on individual achievement than parents from the lower class (Klatskin, Jackson and Witkin, 1956; Livson and Missen, 1957).

Bronfenbrenner (1958) reported that in lower social class the repressive and indulgent patterns of upbringing alternate which make the child confused and ambivalent to parents while middle class parents are consistently more permissive to child's spontaneous desire and express affection more freely.

In a number of studies evidence has been accumulated from different culture and countries i.e. U.S.A. (Rosen, 1962; Indian (Srivastava and Tiwari, 1967), and Africa (Morsbach, 1969) to the effect that subjects coming from low socio-economic stratum of society show low level of achievement motivation.

Ausubel and Ausubel (1963) found the two main characteristics in low-socio-economic status families: first
harsh authoritarianism of parents expressed in physical
punishment of children and social and emotional distance
between parents and children and second, early relaxation
of close parental supervision. These two characteristics
combined with the child's awareness of social stigma and
rejection result in feeling of unworthiness, lack of self-
control which results in low need for achievement.

Clausen and Williams (1963) have reviewed the liter­
ature on social class differences. The main differences
reported by them include quality of family relationship,
patterns of affection and authority, conception of parenthood
held by parents. Children's perception of parents and
parents expectations for their children. Lott and Lott (1963)
have reported that whites have reliably stronger n-Ach than
the Negroes. They have explained this difference on the
basis of background factors i.e. socio-economic and cultural
factors.

Srivastava and Tiwari (1967) demonstrated that highest
need achievement score was present in the middle class,
moderate in upper class and lowest in the lower class.

Pareek (1970) has argued that poverty produces low­
need for achievement and high need for dependency. Turner
(1970) proposed that the nature of the father's occupation
was the crucial factor that produces high need for achievement.
in their off-spring. It was seen that sons of entrepreneurial fathers are much higher in achievement need than sons of fathers with routine jobs. Chaudhary (1971) also found positive relationship between need for achievement and fathers socio-economic status. However, Desai and Trivedi (1972) found that father's socio-economic status was not related to children's need for achievement. Metha and Metha (1974) have noted that the results on the relationship between social class and 'need for achievement' are not very conclusive. However, there seems to be a tendency in favour of a positive relationship between social and economic prosperity and need for achievement.

A large number of research studies showed that education is the key factor in the middle class families. In other words, achievement motivation is found to be higher in middle class than in higher class or lower class (Ojha, Hardeo, Jha and Parveen, 1975). Castenell (1983) found that there were significant differences in social class and need for achievement.

Snow (1983) concluded that variations in the levels of literacy in the home are responsible for social class differences in school achievement.

Lloyd et al. (1984) indicated that positive relationship between intrinsic intellectual motivation and scholastic achievement, whereas need achievement showed no relationship.
Intrinsic intellectual motivation was only moderately related to I.Q. and was weakly related to socio-economic status. When I.Q. was controlled, no relationship between intrinsic intellectual motivation and socio-economic status appeared. Results show that intrinsic intellectual motivation contributes significantly to academic achievement.

Numerous studies have witnessed socially marked class differences in family 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 achievement than parent from lower classes (Klatskin, Jackson, and Witkin, 1956; Livson and Missen, 1957).

Davis and Havighurst (1945) in their classic study of child rearing found social class differences to be more important than ethnic differences.

In an attempt to delineate the origin of n-Ach, McClelland and Friedman (1952) observed that the degree of independence training is positively related to achievement imagery in folk literature. The number of experiences in mastery are characterised as an important of n-Ach.
Whiting and Child (1953) and Sears et al. (1957) have shown that the nature and type of social experience under which an individual is brought up consistently set in certain patterns for personality development. In fact they provide the basic core of personality. Heckhausen and Kemmler (1957) confirmed the importance of early independence training given by parents.

Two early investigations provided the models for the great bulk of subsequent research in this area. In one of these studies, Winterbottom (1958) obtained TAT achievement scores for a group of 8 to 10 years old and also interviewed the mothers to ascertain their prior attitudes toward independence training. She reported that the mothers of sons high in achievement needs expected earlier independence than did the mothers of boys scoring low in need for achievement. The second influential study, conducted by Rosen and D'Andrade (1959), related the present behaviours of parents to the need achievement scores of their sons, rather than relying on parental retrospective reports. The children were given tasks to complete, but the parents could interact with the children and come to their aid. They found that the parents of the achievement oriented sons were more involved in the task, gave more reward and punishment and had higher expectations than the parents of children scoring low in need for achievement. They, therefore, contended that
achievement training (doing something well) rather than independence training (doing something by oneself) is the important antecedent of the development of achievement needs.

Miller and Swanson (1960) have started that the 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. Mischel's (1960) findings suggested that father's absence is significantly associated with lower n-Ach.

McClelland (1961) has made a large scale study of the growth pattern of achievement motive-across a large number of countries and cultures. He has concluded that race and environment as such, are not essential factors for growth of achievement motive. However, degree of environmental challenge can be considered as an essential factor. Dealing with child-rearing practices, he says that 'early training of children to be independent and to master certain skills, promotes high n-Ach, if that training does not indicate rejection of the child by the parents'. McClelland (1961) also observed that 'mother-child households are associated with low-n-Ach, because son stays dependent on the mother larger and does not get the strong emphasis on independent
achievement needed to develop n-Ach. He has proposed that the relationship between the age at which parental demands are made and the strength of n-Ach is curvilinear.

Rosen (1962) found that combination of excessive protectiveness, and early indulgence is more responsible for markedly low achievement motivation. Moss and Kagan (1963) found in a study that n-Ach is determined by achievement training given by the parents.

In a review of social class differences in child rearing practices Caldwell (1964) has concluded that the middle class families are more permissive than the lower class families. The lower class mothers tries to discipline the child’s behaviour by physical punishment, whereas, the middle class mothers by inculating internalized standards of conduct and action (Gray and Klaus, 1964). Cross cultural results reported by Child, Storm and Veroff (1965) also found that achievement training determines growth of n-Ach and its intrinsic-extrinsic components.

Veroff (1965) has stated that the prototypical learning situation for n-Ach consists of mastery of motoric and intellective skills. He has further stated that the main supporting conditions for growth of this motive consist of free environment for exploration as well as emotional reactions to success. He contends that there is a critical stage
for learning the affective associations attendant to the
development of specific motives and motivational expectancies.
If the environment supports learning these associations
during the critical period, then a strong motivational
disposition will develop, on the contrary, if the environment
supports a time earlier than the critical time, anxiety
connected to these motivations would develop. If the
environment fails to support learning at the critical time,
n-Ach will not develop to the proper extent.

In Indian setting Kehta (1966a and 1968) has reported
a curvilinear relationship between boys achievement motivation
and their father's education. It was found that boys of
fathers with high education and of fathers with low education
showed higher level of n-Ach than boys of fathers with secondary
school education.

Davids and Hainsworth (1966) found the relationship
between patterns of reward training and need for achievement.

Bartlett and Smith (1968) found that mothers of high
n-Ach boys make fewer demands for achievement and independence.
The age at which demands are made was not related to the
strength of n-Ach.

Zigler and Child (1969) have shown that achievement
motive is greater in those Ss whose parents value achievement
and activity train their children towards an achievement
orientation.

Epps (1970) found that need for achievement is related to pattern of reward training given by the parents. The absence of one or both parents has been found to be significantly associated with low achievement tendency. (Santrock and Woheford, 1970).

Kayhan (1976) examined the association of independence training with both individualism and need for achievement and the association among personality variables namely individualism, need for achievement and concern for others. Kayhan found that background characteristics of the subjects influenced the association between independence training and need for achievement. Results indicated that there was a positive association between independence training and need for achievement only for urban subjects.

Manley (1977) studied parental warmth and hostility in relation to achievement motivation and found that parental warmth seemed to operate differently for girls' and boys' achievement orientation. Moderate but not high maternal warmth and even slight hostility were related to strong achievement orientation in girls, while high maternal nurturance and affection were associated with strong achievement orientation in boys. Pandy (1977) has done an extensive study of values and behaviours in child-rearing as an aspect of
individual modernity and traditionalism. The results suggested that parents' general attitudes have a direct, casual relationship with their achievement orientation. Sauer et al. (1977) showed the importance of a father or father substitute for the development of male achievement motivation. Tiwari and Misra (1977) indicated that the parents of high achievement reported a significantly higher degree of independence attitude and indicated more early demands and fewer early restrictions compared to parents of other groups of subjects. Holman (1978) found that father's absence in childhood has no impact on achievement motivation in women.

Prasad et al. (1979) found that perception of father's expectations appear to be crucial determinant of high achievement motivated subjects.

Kalra (1980) indicated that in addition to the influence on achievement of parents and the immediate family environment, an important role was played by teachers and other family members not in the immediate environment.

Durand (1983) found that achievement motivation training improves achievement motivation in subjects. Farmer et al. (1983) illustrated the importance of including both environmental and psychological variables in research on the achievement motivation of college women. Vanvaria et al. (1983) indicated that a majority of the motivational variables were
significantly related to maternal child rearing attitudes.

Fry et al. (1984) showed that father absent Ss, compared to father present Ss, declined in achievement motivation dimensions of competitiveness, desire for mastery and willingness to endure negative consequences. In this study it was shown that father's absence had more adverse effect on boys than on girls.

Thus it is evident that achievement motive is an acquired motive and grows under the effective control of individual's experiences in certain realms of social interaction. The cross-cultural differences in achievement motivation provide considerable data to this effect. Cultures are distinguishable in terms of the extent to which they nourish different personality dispositions.

2-2 Purpose of the study

1- The purpose of this investigation is to study the growth of achievement motivation and its intrinsic-extrinsic components in early, middle and late adolescents.

2- To study the differences in achievement motivation and intrinsic-extrinsic components among boys and girls.
3- To study the birth order effect on achievement motivation, and its intrinsic and extrinsic components.

4- To study the effect of socio economic status on Achievement motivation, and its two orientations namely intrinsic-extrinsic orientations.

5- To study the effect of child rearing practices on n-Ach and its two components namely intrinsic-extrinsic orientations.

Findings of this research will provide useful background in facilitating understanding of achievement motivation. Parents and teachers, in particular will be greatly benefited since this investigation hopes to clarify determinants or antecedents which are responsible for high or low achievement motivation and its intrinsic and extrinsic orientations.

2-3 Statement of the Problems and the Hypotheses

It is evident from the preceding review of pertinent studies that the origin and growth of n Ach and its two components still occupies a central place in contemporary motivational researches and a number of problems are still awaiting serious attention of researchers in this area. For the purpose of present investigation following problems and hypotheses were selected:
1. The first problem is concerned with the study of developmental patterns of achievement motivation and its intrinsic-extrinsic orientations.

In the light of review of studies it appears that age is one of the important variable in the growth of achievement motivation. With the increase in age, opportunity for mastery and independence activities also increases. This is more true in Indian set-up where majority of parents permit for freedom to their children with increasing age. Therefore, it is expected that within certain limits the necessary experiences involved in growth of n-Ach are likely to have great probability in higher age groups than in the lower age groups. With increasing age, it is said that parents provide independence training to their children. That way, it is expected that child has extrinsic motivation at early age and it turns into intrinsic as the age increases.

An attempt was made in present piece of research at investigating the growth of n-Ach and its intrinsic-extrinsic components among early adolescents, middle adolescents and late adolescents. The following hypotheses were formulated for the first problem:

a) The strength of n-Ach should be greater in the higher age groups as compared to its strength in the lower age groups.
b) The strength of extrinsic motivation should be greater in the lower age groups. With the increasing age there will be an increase in intrinsic motivation.

2. The second problem undertaken for study was to bring out the pattern of relationship between the socio-economic status and n-Ach and its two orientations namely intrinsic and extrinsic components.

Researches indicate that members of low socio-economic status and undeveloped groups show weaker strength of n-Ach. Unfortunately between these two sets of variables is not very clear. Age alone is not responsible for growth of n-Ach but there are so many important variables i.e. socio-economic status. In view of the fact that n-Ach is largely determined by early experiences of the individual, it can be presumed that individuals grown with differential economic backgrounds will also show different levels of n-Ach. Because parents from different socio-economic backgrounds give training to their children differently. Middle class parents give more emphasis upon independence training than high class or lower class. So intrinsic motivation will be found in middle class children. The children coming from higher socio-economic status are not dependent but are given more freedom and children coming from lower socio-economic status are dependent upon parents, so they develop extrinsic motivation.
keeping the review in mind, the following hypotheses were proposed:

a) There will be a positive relationship between socio-economic status and strength of n-Ach. In other words, middle class subjects will register high scores on n-Ach than working class Ss.

b) The middle class Ss will manifest higher intrinsic achievement motivation whereas the working class Ss will show higher extrinsic achievement motivation.

3. The third problem was concerned with an examination of n-Ach and its two components among boys and girls.

Numerous research studies reveal that sex differences are found in achievement motivation. Males scored higher than females because males are given independence training during early age than females. Males are high in n-Ach while females in Affiliation. From this it can be concluded that females want social approval and males don't care for that. So the following hypotheses were formulated for this problem:

a) Males will register significantly higher achievement motivation than females.

b) Males and females will differ in intrinsic achievement motivation and extrinsic achievement motivation.
4. The fourth problem was concerned with an examination of the relationship of birth-order and n-Ach and its two intrinsic and extrinsic components.

Researchers have paid a great deal of attention towards the birth order effects. It is seen that first-borns are treated differently by their parents than are children who came later. 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.

In India it is seen that mothers give independence training to later borns and first borns are seen more dependent than later one's. It is also seen that parents expect more from first borns than later ones. In conclusion, we can say that because of independence training to later borns, will score more on intrinsic and first borns because of parents expectations and pressure to achieve, will score more on extrinsic motivation. Regarding this problem the investigator formulated following two hypotheses:

a) Achievement motivation will be higher in first-born children than in later borns.

b) Intrinsic motivation will be higher in later borns and extrinsic motivation in first borns.
The fifth and final problem dealt with the role of child-rearing practices as a determinant of n-Ach and its two components i.e. intrinsic and extrinsic.

Studies of child-rearing practices provide data to the effect that independence training is antecedental to the growth of n-Ach. The study of child-rearing practices in India has been scarecely done. However, the available evidence shows that traditional Indian culture lacks the experience related to the growth of n-Ach. Children who become successful as they grow older mostly belong to homes were parental attitudes towards them were favourable and where a wholesome relationship existed between parents and child. On the other hand, unsuccessful children are found to be usually the products of unfavourable parent-child relationships.

It is needless to emphasize that attitudes are social products and are formed in socio-cultural atmosphere. Therefore, it can be reasonably assumed that different parents will differ with regard to demands for mastery and restrictions imposed on children which in turn works as a basic determinant of n-Ach. Therefore, an attempt was made here to examine parental attitudes towards independence training and achievement training and following hypotheses were formulated:

a) There will be positive relationship between achievement motivation and child-rearing practices.
Parents of intrinsically motivated Ss will be perceived as providing independence training and encouragement to develop internal standards of excellence whereas parents of extrinsically oriented Ss will be perceived as emphasizing achievement training.