Chapter-2

Review of Related Researches
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There has been a very significant increase in the field of motivation research in the past few years. One of the most important changes in experimentation on motivation has been a shift from a primarily biological orientation (done mostly through extrapolation studies on animal motivation) to greater attention to characteristics of human motivated behaviour. This has led to two major changes in assumptions in motivational theory, namely, that ‘the important psychogenic motives are learned (not instinctual), and that they are somehow acquired by association with primary biological pleasure and pain’ (McClelland, 1951). A second major change has been a shift of emphasis from learning the ‘how’ of things (a process-oriented approach) to learning the ‘what’ of things (a content-oriented approach). This change is reflected in the relatively greater concern of contemporary psychologists to look for clues of human behaviour in the family, social, economic, religious and political systems surrounding humans. The important place given to a content-oriented approach has also affected the methodology of motivational research. There is more and more faith now in fantasy behaviour as a source to look for mental content in humans. Indirectly this has helped to bring the topics of unconscious motivation and defensiveness under more experimental control for their analysis and investigation. A third major change relates to the increasing emphasis now being attached to particularistic empirical approaches in studies on motivation in preference to a global approach. The present
research was undertaken keeping in view these major changes as they have
affected one area of motivational research—the achievement-related motivation.
The review of research presented below would show how the aforementioned
changes in motivational research have affected actual research on achieve-
ment-related motivation.

Research on achievement-related motivation has comparatively a short
history of development. But as a subject matter of importance in personality
dynamics it finds a place in the works of Adler (1927) Adler’s concept of
‘inferiority complex’, ‘masculine protest’ and ‘striving for superiority’ all
point to the gratification of achievement needs as an important goal of human
behaviour. In Murray’s (1938) system of personality study also an important
place is accorded to human needs. The essence of Murray’s conception of
personality is the idea of a hierarchy or configuration of basic psychogenic
needs or motives. It was he who first used the form $n$ Achievement to refer
to achievement needs. Lewin (1935) also emphasised the importance of
achievement motivation in human experience. He was among the first to study
the ‘upward striving’ nature of human achievement aspirations and behaviours
Of special significance to later research on human aspiration and achievement
behaviours was his ‘level of aspiration’ paradigm.

As a special area of interest the study of achievement motivation was
initiated when a technique was developed to assess individual differences in
the need for achievement ($n$ Achievement) or the desire to perform in
competition with a standard of excellence. The instrument used was an
adaptation of Murray's (1943) Thematic Apperception Test (TAT). The experimental paradigm followed to test whether the TAT reflects the strength of a need was to arouse the need in the subject by depriving them of concomitants of that need. The first successful experiment was conducted by Atkinson and McClelland (1948) in case of the need for hunger. Latter McClelland et al. (1949) applied the arousal technique to the achievement need through ego-involving instructions to American college boys and found that achievement-related imaginative responses provide a measure of the heightened state of motivation. This finding was confirmed by using similar or more sophisticated arousal variables with American college male students by McClelland et al. (1953), Wendt (1955), Martire (1956), Haber and Alpert (1964), O'Connor (1960), and Klinger (1967). The suitability of this technique for application with American high school boys was reported by Veroff (1950), Veroff, Wilcox, and Atkinson (1953), Ricciuti and Clark (1954).

The results obtained using similar arousal techniques with American female subjects have shown neither consistency with the findings for men nor internal consistency with each other. Thus Veroff (1950), Wilcox (1951), and French and Lesser (1964) failed to produce consistent increases in $n$. Achievement scores following achievement arousal instructions that stress intelligence and leadership qualities. Lesser, Krawitz and Packard (1963) found increases in $n$. Achievement scores following such arousal instructions with a group of achieving American High School girls, but not with the
underachieving ones. Feld (1967) supplied some clarification of the experimental arousal issue by demonstrating that, although manipulating achievement orientation by reference to intelligence and leadership does not increase *n* Achievement scores in female subjects, experimental conditions which arouse a concern about social acceptance produce increases in their achievement motivation scores. Following this finding, Lesser et al. (1963) and French and Lesser (1964) have attempted to explain the differences in the reactions of American boys and girls to similar arousal instructions by reference to the male and female social roles in American society.

Several cross-cultural studies using TAT adaptations of *n* Achievement under arousal conditions have shown the promise of the instrument to tap achievement motivation in boys and girls. Angelini (1955) reported successful findings on Brazilian college boys and girls. Hayashi and Habu (1962) successfully tried the test on Japanese college boys and girls, while Tedeschi (1962), using Persian graduates, reported success with the instrument. In India also the technique was used with success by Tamhankar (1967) and Sinha (1970). Later Mehta (1969) developed a test of achievement motivation for use with Indian children. The test consists of six pictures of the TAT type. The scoring system adopted is the one developed by McClelland and his associates (1953). The test has since been used as a measure of achievement motivation in several Indian studies (Desai, 1970, Chaudhary, 1972, Mohta, 1973, Lyngdoh, 1975, Pandarpande, 1972; 1976). By and large TAT is the most widely used instrument in studies on achievement motivation.
The validity of \( n \) Achievement score on the thematic apperceptive instrument has been studied by relating it to actual performance in achievement oriented situations. The first study to test this question was conducted by Lowell (1952) by comparing the performances of persons with high and low \( n \) Achievement scores (divided at median) on an arithmetic and verbal task. He found that persons having high \( n \) Achievement scores showed a higher level of performance on both tasks than persons having low \( n \) Achievement scores. Similar results were reported by Atkinson (1953), French (1955), Atkinson and Raphelson (1956), Wendt (1955) showing a positive relationship between performance in laboratory experiments and \( n \) Achievement scores. In all these studies the TAT was administered under neutral conditions (no experimental procedures employed to heighten or weaken motivation prior to the writing of TAT stories) to obtain a measure of the stable personality disposition called the achievement need. However, it is assumed that the task or performance situation contains cues leading to the expectancy that performance would lead to a feeling of accomplishment. These findings of several earlier studies showing the relationship between \( n \) Achievement scores and various indices of achievement-oriented behaviour are summarised by Weiner (1967, p.54) “Persons scoring high in need for achievement appear to be striving for achievement related goals and to engage in activities which will lead to these goals. These individuals also have greater ability to delay gratification. They tend to forego a smaller immediate reward to obtain a larger reward at a later time. This behaviour is not exhibited as
frequently by subjects low in need for achievement”

The relationship studies between TAT $n$ Achievement scores and other responses, such as learning, perceptual sensitivity, and task recall reported mostly during 1950-56 paved the way to formulate empirical laws. These laws made it clear that any theoretical formulation to explain a person’s tendency to achieve at a task must include the disposition called the achievement motive and the arousal variables in the task situation. Atkinson formulated a theoretical model of achievement motivation in 1957. He postulated that knowledge of three factors is necessary to predict the strength of an approach tendency toward an achievement-oriented goal: the motive to achieve success (Ms or the need for achievement), the probability that one will be successful at the task (Ps), and the incentive value of success (Is). Atkinson himself acknowledged (Atkinson, 1964, p. 239) the contribution of Tolman’s Expectancy X Value theory and the classical Lewinian equation of $B=f(P,E)$. In his formulation, Atkinson defines the tendency to achieve success thus:

Tendency to achieve success ($Ts$) = Motive to achieve success ($Ms$) × Probability of success ($Ps$) × Incentive value of success ($Is$).

If any sample of achievement behaviour is considered, then the inadequacy of this formula becomes clear, for inherent in every such behaviour is the possibility of failure. That is, there are at least two critical events which terminate a given sequences of behaviour namely, success and failure. This possibility was first proposed by McClelland and Liberman (1949) in connection with a relationship study between $n$ Achievement and recognition of words. Brown
(1952) also suggested that persons with low $n$ Achievement scores, and who showed greater rigidity in problem-solving in his experiment possibly showed evidence of greater anxiety about failure. When this dimension is included in the perview of achievement-related motive, its connotation becomes wider. Heckhausen's definition reflects this view. He defines achievement motive as "the striving to increase, or keep as high as possible, one's own capability in all activities in which a standard of excellence is thought to apply and where the execution of such activities can, therefore, either succeed or fail."

(Heckhausen, 1967, pp. 4-5) Atkinson's model, therefore, includes a tendency to avoid failure which is conceived in similar terms as the approach tendency. He defines it in terms of the motive to avoid failure ($M_{AF}$) or anxiety about failure, a probability of failing at the task ($Pr$), and a negative incentive associated with failure ($Ir$). According to the theory of achievement motivation the resultant tendency to undertake achievement activities is the resultant tendency to undertake achievement activities is the algebraic sum of the tendency to approach success ($Ts$) and the tendency to avoid failure ($T_{AF}$).

In this formulation Atkinson has conceptualised these relationships as a strict dependency of incentive on expectancy of goal attainment. Incentive ($I$) for him is simply the linear complement of subjective probability of success ($Ps$). That is $I = 1 - Ps$.

After the formulation of the theory of achievement motivation several studies have been conducted to test the implications of the theory by studying the relationship between performance variables like risk-taking, level of
achievement, and persistence and achievement-related motivation. A direct comparison of results from these studies cannot easily be made because the measures of the two achievement-related motives used in them are different. Atkinson and associates have used TAT $n$ Achievement score as a measure of $M_s$ and the Test Anxiety Questionnaire (TAQ) by Mandler and Sarason (1952) as a measure of $M_{AI}$. Heckhausen (1967) uses the terms ‘hope of success’ ($H_s$) and ‘fear of failure’ (FF) to correspond to Atkinson’s $M_s$ and $M_{AI}$ respectively, and both these measures he obtains by administering his set of TAT pictures. Birney et al (1969) use the original TAT pictures of McClelland and associates to measure hope of success and their TAT Hostile Press (HP) to measure fear of failure. However, taken together, these studies provide a fund of useful information with possible scope for application in education, sociology and economics.

On the basis of Atkinson’s model of achievement motivation certain predictions can be made regarding the relationship between achievement-related motives and the performance variables of risk-preference, level of performance and persistence in achievement-oriented activity. Thus, given the assumptions of the theory, “$n$ Achievement would be positively related and test anxiety negatively related to preference for intermediate risk, level of achievement-oriented performance, and persistence in achievement-oriented activity before clear knowledge of results had been attained” (Atkinson, 1964, p 248). Following similar reasoning it can be predicted that when persons are simultaneously classified on the two motives into High and Low groups (using
the median as cut-off point), the group High in Ms and Low in M_{AF} should have the strongest resultant tendency to approach success and the group High in M_{AI} and Low in M_{s} should have either the weakest tendency to approach success or a resultant avoidance tendency. Hence predictions about the nature of performance of these groups can also be made.

Almost all risk-taking studies reported involve decision-making under uncertainty. In certain cases the amount of risk taken is known to the subject prior to choice-selection, and in others, it is not known. Several studies (McClelland, 1958, Atkinson, 1958, Litwin, 1958, Vitz, 1957, Atkinson and Litwin, 1960, Atkinson, Bastian, Earl and Litwin, 1960) reported that there is a curvilinear type of relationship between n Achievement and risk-taking, with high n Achievement associated with intermediate risk. Results showing the relationship between test-anxiety and risk-taking behaviour exhibit different trends. Several studies (Atkinson and Litwin, 1960, Mahone, 1960, Atkinson, Bastian, Earl and Litwin, 1960, Atkinson and O’Connor, 1966, Issacson, 1964 Litting, 1963) reported that the highly anxious person avoids the intermediate range of risk and prefers either a lower risk or a higher one. However, several others (deCharms and Dave, 1965, Litwin and Ciarlo, 1960, Hancock and Teevan, 1964, Alker, 1967) did not find such results in their studies. Atkinson and his associates also reported findings showing the preference of achievement-oriented subjects (M_{s}>MAF) for intermediate range probabilities in risk-taking studies as compared to those in whom the anxiety motive is stronger (M_{AF}>M_{s}). However, in many of these studies the subjects with high
Achievement-low anxiety scores did actually choose probabilities either below 50% (P, between 25% and 40% as in McClelland, 1958, Litwin, 1958, Atkinson, Bastian, Earl and Litwin, 1960, Atkinson and Litwin, 1960, Meyer et al., 1965) or above 50% (as in Pottharst, 1955, Kausler and Trapp, 1958, Brody 1963, Feather, 1965) The preference of approach-motivated subjects for lower than 50% probabilities is also reported by Heckhausen (1963), and deCharms and Dave (1965).

Inferences about risk-taking are also made from studies involving vocational choices or choice of educational courses. Here the discrepancy between the goal aspired and the personal equipment to attain the goal is often taken as an index of the risk-taking pattern Mahone (1960) found that persons with strong approach-motive tendency tend to be realistic in their vocational choice with respect to both ability and interest, as against those with strong avoidance motive tendency. Morris (1966) found that individuals with high Achievement-low anxiety scores chose occupations as if they were attempting an intermediate degree of risk, while those with high anxiety-low Achievement scores avoided such choices Issacson (1964) applied Atkinson’s (1957) model of resultant motivation to curricular choices of students and found such choices following the predictions of the model in case of boys, but not in case of girls. Tamhankar (1967) did not find any definite relationship between Achievement of high School boys and the discrepancy scores between their marks obtained in a past school examination and their expectancy at an ensuing examination.
It would thus appear that the probability bias hypothesis based on Atkinson's model of achievement motivation is not well-supported by research findings. Kogan and Wallach (1967) after surveying the literature dealing with the effect of individual difference variables on risk-taking, suggest the necessity of controlling such factors as incentive definition, social context and task history in risk-taking studies for a better understanding of motivational effects on risk-taking behaviour.

Of more practical significance are the studies showing the relationship between achievement-related motivation and academic achievement. Some studies have reported a significant positive relationship between achievement and academic achievement (Morgan, 1951, McClelland et al., 1953, Rosen, 1956, Clark and McClelland, 1956, Strodtbeck, 1958, Weiss et al., 1959, Littig and Yeracaris, 1963, Tamhankar, 1967, Mehta, 1969, Sinha, 1970; Mohta, 1973), some others have reported from low to moderate positive correlation (Lowell, 1952, Morgan, 1952, Ricciuti and Sadacca, 1955, Atkinson and Litwin, 1960, Pierce and Bowman, 1960; Uhlinger and Stephens, 1960, Smith, 1964, Caplehorn and Sutton, 1965); and still others have found negative relationship (Atkinson, 1950, Morgan, 1952, Parrish and Rethlingshafer, 1954, Laazaus et al.; 1957, Broverman et al., 1960; Cole et al., 1962) In two other studies (Silber et al., 1961, Field et al., 1963) it was possible to infer the positive correlation between academic performance and n Achievement from the TAT stories written by two samples of highly competent students, from the United States and the other from Puerto Rico. The relationship
between the motive to avoid failure and academic achievement also shown
different trends. Atkinson and Litwin (1960) reported significant negative
relationship, Sarason and Mandler (1952) and Birney et al (1969) obtained
positive correlation, while Smith (1964) obtained low, insignificant negative
relationship. In some Indian studies it was possible to infer a low positive,
insignificant relationship between test anxiety and academic achievement
(Pdah, 1977, Medhi 1977, Gupta 1978). There are a few studies (Ryan and
showing positive relationship between approach motivation ($M_s > M_{AF}$) and
level of performance, the same was not found to be true of avoidance-
motivation ($M_{AF} > M_s$).

The other performance variable to receive a place of importance in
achievement motivation research in persistence in performance at a task. In
some studies (French and Thomas, 1958, Winterbottom, 1958) achievement
was found to be positively related to persistence. But test-anxiety and
persistence do not show consistent results. In many studies (Mandler and
Sarason, 1952, Sarason, Mandler and Craighill, 1952), highly anxious subjects
were reported to be performing slowly at the task indicating greater
persistence. But Atkinson and Litwin (1960) found negative relationship
between test-anxiety and persistence; Weiner (1965) who studied persistence
in subjects simultaneously classified on the two achievement-related motives
found the $M_s > M_{AF}$ group persisting at a task following failure as opposed to
the reaction of the $M_{AF} > M_s$ group.
The research findings reviewed so far probably show that there is much more to know about the performance situation. The exact role of motivational variables in performance is probably hidden by the complexity of the performance situation. In the present research an attempt is made to look for some of these unknown factors in the context of a real life academic performance situation.

The research findings accumulated over years regarding the determinants of achievement-oriented behaviour in terms of motives, expectancies and incentives have helped to check the validity of Atkinson’s model. One of the major criticisms against the model relates to the theoretical simplification adopted in the model delegating incentive to the position of a direct complement of the probability term. Following this there have been attempts to look for incentives that are independent of success probabilities. One such attempt is made by Feather (1967). He has supplemented Atkinson’s model by a factor C, representing the degree of perceived responsibility for the outcome of one’s own achievement-related activities. Heckhausen (1969) and associates have also made a beginning with the self-responsibility dimension in order to obtain new insights into the relationship between motives, arousal conditions, and behavioural data. He reports a result obtained by Wulf-Uwe Meyer (1969) showing the goal setting pattern of boys and girls possessing different amounts of self-responsibility for their successes and their failures. He found that those who felt highly responsible set goals of intermediate difficulty, while those who did not feel very responsible did not show any
pronounced preference He also reports correlation studies between responsibility and ‘hope of success’ (HS) as well as with ‘fear of failure’ (FF) measures. In 10-year-old boys HS showed correlation between 50 to 60 with responsibility for success as well as for failure. This suggests that the HS personality accepts every feedback seriously. FF did not show any definite correlation with responsibility for success or failure, but there was a curvilinear relationship. People with medium high FF scored highest on responsibility for failure, and low FF as well as high FF people scored significantly lower. Heckhausen (1969) predicts that self-responsibility might turn out to be a moderator variable of the relationship between motive and performance variables. Raynor and Rubin (1971) have suggested the need to include contingent and noncontingent conditions as moderator variables in explaining the relationship between achievement motivation and performance.

deCharms (1968) has suggested ‘desire of group approval’ as an incentive which may function in task performance situation independent of the incentive to do the task well. Mukerjee (1974) has put forward conscientiousness as an important value incentive in an achievement-related situation. Veroff (1969) has gone a step further by suggesting the possibility of two types of achievement motivation—one, ‘autonomous achievement motivation’ which brings internalised personal standards into play and second, ‘social achievement motivation’ which brings standards of excellence based on social comparison into play.

The exact role of anxiety or fear of failure determining the relationship
between achievement-related motivation and performance is not fully understood yet. The accumulated research findings seem to suggest that anxiety does not always act as a debilitating influence as regards achievement-related behaviour is concerned. Thus Heckhausen (1975) has suggested that fear of failure may act as self reinforcing motive system. Gokulnathan and Mehta (1976) have suggested the possibility of situational and organisational variables in creating moderately high level of anxiety which may help in academic achievement. Mehta (1977) stresses the need to undertake research on problems like perceived task difficulty, knowledge of results, success and failure experiences, cognitions concerning incentive and values, responsibility concerning the outcome, anxiety for achievement, and personal and social achievement goals in order to sharpen our understanding of theory of achievement motivation and its application for socio-economic development.

An important field which has witnessed much progress in recent years relates the origin of the achievement-related motive. The bulk of research in this area has tried to look for clues in child-rearing practices leading to an understanding of the origins of achievement striving in children. The starting point was a study by Winterbottom (1958) who made comparison between mothers of 8 to 10 years old boys of high and low n Achievement scores. She found that mothers of the high expected independence and mastery of the environment at an earlier age than mothers of the lows. Serverla other independent studies (Moss and Kagan, 1961, Feld, 1967) have confirmed the importance of early independence training. However, in a cross-cultural study,
Hayashi and Yamaushi (1964) failed to confirm Winterbottom's findings in Japan. They found that Japanese mothers expect self-reliance from their children much earlier than American mothers, and that these children exhibit comparatively lower achievement levels. Veroff (1965) has presented theoretical considerations regarding the effects of parental demands that miss the optimal development stage in the child's life. His theoretical stand might explain the paradoxical finding obtained with Japanese mothers and their children.

As regards the mechanics of achievement motive origin there are at least two well known views. Crandall and associates (Crandall, Katkovsky and Preston, 1960, Crandall, Preston and Rabson, 1960) take the view that the achievement motive develops somehow from ontogenetically earlier motives. Once the achievement motive emerges then its goal becomes obtaining parental approval and avoiding their disapproval. Thus they take the view that achievement motivation is exclusively a product of social learning and that achievement behaviour originates entirely in reinforcement by social sanctions. Heckhausen (1969) thinks that social reinforcement by approval or disapproval is not a necessary condition in the acquisition and the continuous building up of the achievement motive. According to him the experience of produced effects has in itself a reinforcing value for the child which is sufficiently and intrinsically rewarding. To him the very origin of achievement motivation is identical with the first appearance of a self-reinforcement contingent on an activity requiring a certain mastery. If, on the other hand,
social approval or disapproval is aspired to, or avoided, exclusively for its own sake, it becomes achievement-related behaviour in the service of the approval motive, Heckhausen is inclined to believe that social approval or disapproval provide information yielding measures of success which can be internalised as standards of excellence. Such building up of a reference system by social information ordinarily goes along in addition to an immediate success feedback by the ongoing task activity.

Several researchers have reported the findings regarding parental antecedents of children’s beliefs in internal-external control of reinforcement in achievement situations. Rosen and D’Andrade (1959) who observed parents’ behaviour in reaction to problem-solving activities of their sons, found mothers of high n Achievement boys reacting with warmth to successes and with rejection to failures. In addition, fathers of low achievement-oriented sons appeared to be dominant and to interfere with the son’s attempts at achievement. In a cross-cultural study, Bradburn (1963) found boys separated from their dominant fathers at a relatively early age showing higher n Achievement. Heckhausen (1969, pp. 133-134) mentions a recent study of McGhee and Teevan (1965) where it was found that “Children whose mothers were neutral following satisfactory behaviour and punishing following unsatisfactory behaviour had higher fear of failure motivation than those subjects whose mothers were rewarding and neutral respectively.” He summarises the results from yet another study (Katkovski, Crandall, and Good, 1967) thus “parent behaviours characterised as warm, praising,
protective and supportive were positively associated with children’s beliefs in internal control. Conversely, negative parental behaviours such as dominance, rejection, and criticism were negatively associated with beliefs in internal control” (Heckhausen, 1969, p. 129). Studies conducted in India do not show consistent results as regards parental behaviour and development of achievement behaviours in children. Thus whereas Murridharan and Topa (1970) found parents of high n Achievement children reward frequently for compliance behaviour, Pandaripande (1976) found the opposite trend in his study. In both studies it was found that the standards adopted by parents towards their sons and daughters were not the same.

Alongside the studies on the origins of achievement motivation research interest grew to study the relationship of several familial, sociocultural, educational, and economic factors to motivation development. In many of these studies the socialisation process and socialisation agents have received ample attention. The family variables and their relevance to motivation development in children is reported among others by Rosen (1965, 1956, 1961), Norman (1968), and Sewell and Shah (1968). Parental values like emphasis upon standards of excellence in achievement of children and actual parental involvement in children’s performance are reported as determining forces in achievement training of children (Rosen, 1955). Also related to achievement motivation development in children are the demographic factors—family size, ordinal position, mother’s age and social class. Rosen (1961) found all these factors relevant to the development of achievement
motivation in children, but he thinks that their effects are complicated, interconnected and interdependent upon one another, and difficult to assess individually. However, he confirmed his earlier finding (Rosen, 1956) that social class is consistently related to achievement motivation, it being significantly higher in middle and upper class children than in lower class ones. In several other studies (Strodtbeck, 1958, Veroff, 1960, Temhankar, 1967) similar results were obtained. But some other studies (McClelland, 1961, Mehta, 1969) reported practically identical $n$ Achievement levels among children of upper-middle and working classes.

Among the socio-cultural factors studied in the context of achievement motivation development are the general cultural milieu and racial religious and ethnic factors. Comparative studies (McClelland and Friedman, 1952; Child, Storm, and Veroff, 1958) of different cultures in terms of their folk-tales show cultures with $n$ Achievement satiated folk-tales initiated independence training of their children earlier, and both rewarded self-reliant activities and punished the lack of such efforts to a greater degree. Religion, through its tenets and values, probably causes variation in $n$ Achievement. Thus McClelland, Rindlisbacher and deCharms (1955) and Strodtbeck and Sultan (1955) found Jews and Protestants as distinctly over-achieving groups than Catholics. In Rosen's (1959) study were included samples from six different ethnic backgrounds. He found significant differences in the $n$ Achievement scores of some of these groups. These studies mark the beginning of research in achievement motivation with its social consequences. In the present study
the origin and development of achievement-related motives was not studied, but the findings in this area of research were used to show probable causes of individual differences in motivation levels among different groups of secondary school pupils included in the present study.

Perhaps that most provocative work related to need achievement is the one reported by McClelland and associates (McClelland, 1961, McClelland and Winter, 1969) which is concentrated on the role of achievement motivation in economic development, particularly with respect to entrepreneurship. The data have ranged from the analysis of historical documents to cross-cultural studies of businessmen. Their studies have demonstrated the significance of achievement concern in the literary production of culture for the future economic development of that culture.

McClelland (1965) has opened up a new field with the evidence explaining how certain kinds of short-term training courses serve to generate a stronger achievement motive in adults. His method involves giving suggestions from a prestige figure in a therapeutic atmosphere and using the principles of reinforcement. This training programme was tried by Kolb (1965) with American underachieving school boys and by Mehta (1969) with Indian underachieving boys. Kolb found in a follow-up study that underachieving boys from middle and upper class homes improved their school grades while Mehta reported significant academic gains in case of low SES boys following the training programme. Similar training programmes given to Indian businessmen resulted in increased entrepreneurial activity in their job.

The past years have also witnessed a number of researches (Agarwal, 1976, Litwin and Stringer, 1968, Pareek and Banerjee, 1976, Mehta, 1976, 1977) on human motivation conducted in various work organisations. Here the attempt have been to explain worker and managerial behaviours, work satisfaction, inter-personal behaviour and organisational climate in terms of the motivational equipment of various human elements within the organisation. Based on findings of these studies, Mehta (1977) has suggested the possibility of a ‘social achievement motivation’ as distinct from ‘personal achievement motivation’. He has conceptualised the ‘need for personal achievement’ (n PA) or personal achievement motivation as a “desire for competing for personal success in relation to certain standards of excellence”. The need for social achievement’ (n SA) or social achievement motivation, on the other hand, is indicated by a “desire for some kind of collective success in relation to some standards of excellence” (Mehta, 1977, p 224). The description of social achievement motivation given by Mehta is similar to the concept of ‘group achievement motivation’ described by Forward (1969) and Zender (1971), but is different from what Veroff (1969) calls by the same label. Mehta (1977) has discussed the relevance of these concepts to understand the functioning of work organisations.
Hundal and Singh (1979) adopted Rogers and Neill’s sentence Completion Achievement motivation scale for use with Indian entrepreneurs. Other researchers have used these and similar scales to study the psychological correlates of social acceptance among children (Chatterjee 1979), achievement motivation in relation to masculinity of femininity (Pillai 1983), some correlates of extension motivation measures (Pareek and Dixit 1976), and interrelationship among risk taking, self-esteem, achievement motivation, fatalism and dependency (Yousuf and Saha 1976).

Middle class nuclear family system and entrepreneurial occupations appear to be associated with high achievement motivation, while upper and lower class, joint family system and bureaucratic occupation appear to be associated with low achievement motivation (Ojha and Jha 1979).

Kalra (1981) has presented data on some of the mediating variables between child-rearing practices and need achievement training in skills of independence, responsibility taking and planning quite early in their life were characteristic of high achievers among his subjects. High achievers in this study were those who had joined their organization as clerk and had risen to senior positions when compared to low achievers who had remained as clerks. The high achievers emphasized achievement oriented values. Low achievers on the other hand emphasized qualities such as being God fearing, obedient and attached to the family. Supportive data on the association between need achievement and maternal dominance, internal locus of control, independence and intelligence comes from a study by S. Singh, Bhandari and Vanvaria.
Specific focus on the influence of socio-cultural deprivation on need achievement indicates that the level of occupational aspiration was arranged in a hierarchical order corresponding to the SES level of the subjects among the scheduled caste groups and adivasis studied (Jha and Grewal 1976), and was significantly higher in the non-deprived group as compared to the deprived group (B. Mohanty 1980) Among the disadvantaged groups parents of high achievement and low anxiety subjects reported a significant higher degree of independence attitude and indicated more early demands and fewer restrictions when compared to parents of other subjects (Tiwari and Mishra 1977).

Grishwar Mishra and Rekha Singhal (1985) Collected a large data set based on the responses of 922 subjects They concluded that achievement motive should be defined in terms of subjective purposes rather than overt behaviours The structure of achievement cognitions revealed that the Indian youth had not assimilated the modernisation and individual centred view of the west and still retained reflections of the agrarian and rural values (Agarwal and Mishra 1989).

Saha and Krishna (1991) examined the association of risk taking behaviour with motivational factors. The high risk takings significantly lower on achievement and order motives and higher on autonomy and affiliation motives compared to low risk takers Risk taking had a significant positive relationship with achievement, order and abasement motives and a significant
negative relationship with autonomy and affiliation motives

Panda (1991) examined the effect of achievement status and sex on creative potentiality and found that in general high achieving subjects were more creative than low achieving ones. Alam (1992) investigated the impact of socio-economic status and culture on achievement motivation and found that subjects from urban high socio-economic status scored high on achievement motivation. Irfan, Iqual, Sandhu and Singh (1993) examined the influence of school adjustment and achievement motivation on 72 truants and 72 non-truants. Non-truants obtained higher scores on achievement motivation.

Shukla (1994) examined the relationship between vocational interest, general mental ability and achievement motivation and found the insignificant positive relationship were observed in 9 out of 10 components of need for achievement. There was an insignificant negative relationship between need for achievement and household interest. Nayak (1995) examined the interrelationship between achievement motivation and level of aspiration in the context of social class and results revealed that the relationship between achievement motivation and level of aspiration was negligible. Geetha and Karunanidhi (1995) examined the relationship between religious attitude, locus of control and achievement motivation of students belonging to different religious groups. Results indicated a difference among the religious groups in terms of religious attitude and achievement motivation and a difference between boys and girls in terms of religious attitude.
Rangan and Raja (1995) studied the influence of perceived parental acceptance on the self-confidence and achievement motivation of adolescent girls and investigated whether self-confidence affects the achievement of adolescents. Results indicated that there were significant differences in the self-confidence scores of respondents who perceived themselves as rejected. However, no significant difference was found in the achievement motivation scores of those who perceived themselves as accepted by their parents and those who perceived themselves as rejected by their parents. Ragani and Reddy (1995) investigated the relationship between the rate of learning and achievement motivation among high school boys. Results found that fast learners were significantly high in achievement motivation compared to slow learners. Angira (1994) investigated the effect of family structure and gender on achievement motivation and found a higher degree of achievement motivation among males than among females and among subjects belonging to nuclear in comparison to those from joint families.

Mathew and Kunhikrishnan (1995) explored the relationship between need for achievement and level of aspiration among 40 post graduate female students. Findings indicated that high need for achievement was related to high level of aspiration. Mittal (1997) compared the self-concept and scholastic achievement of girls of working and non-working mothers. Results showed that daughters of non-working mothers were relatively higher on achievement and confidence but they suffered from greater inferiority feelings as compared to daughters of working mothers. Tickoo and Jagdish (1997)
studied the relationship between achievement motivation and mental health among 100 male students in a senior secondary school. Results revealed a significant positive relationship between achievement motivation and mental health.

Sankthiğnanaval (1998) compared the achievement motivation of sports school and non-sports school students. A group of 50 sports school and another group of 50 non-sports school students studying in classes 8 to 12. Results indicated a higher degree of achievement motivation among sports school students than non-sports school students. This difference was evident irrespective of age level of education, areas of interest and urban-rural background. Mukhopadhyay and Kumar (1999) investigated the role of academic pressure and achievement motivation in the impairment of mental health of children (Class VIII). Results indicated that the group which was high on achievement motivation showed greater mental health impairment than the group low on achievement motivation. The high achievement motivation group had low academic pressure and obtained lower scores on hopelessness and suicidal ideation. It was pointed out that high achievement motivation interacting with academic pressure produced mental health impairment.

Gyani and Bhatia (2002) studied the effect of mental health on temperamental qualities of Intermediate 45 male and 49 female as joyful living, autonomy, emotional stability and social maturity significantly effect the temperamental qualities of the students. Recently, Niranjan (2004) studied the personality and self-concept of male and female students and
found that male students have significantly high self-confidence and dominance personality. The male students have significantly high self-concept as emotional stability, health and physical appearance than female students. The female students have significantly high temperamental quality as persistence.

Chamoli and Chauhan (2004) found out the comparison between general people and sportsmen in terms of emotional maturity. The finding shows that sportsmen are emotionally mature as compared to general people and have good management of it.