CHAPTER- II

Conceptual Frame Work
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CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. OVERVIEW

Conceptual framework is a theoretical structure of assumptions, principles and rules that holds together the ideas comprising a broad concept. This chapter provides a detailed conceptual framework based on which the study has been undertaken and the theories related to the variables namely, ‘achievement motivation, altruism and social intelligence’ of professional course students. The design of the conceptual framework flowchart is given in the next page for better application and direction of this study.

2.2. DEFINITION OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Achievement motivation is defined as striving to increase or to keep as high as possible, one’s own capabilities 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).

2.3 MEANING OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Achievement motivation typically refers to the level of one’s motivation to engage in achievement behaviors, based on the interaction of such parameters as need for achievement, expectancy of success, and the incentive value of success. Our construct of motivational orientation refers to the type of motivational stance which the child adopts towards
classroom learning. Thus, one may engage in schoolwork for intrinsic reasons, because work is challenging, enjoyable, and interest of one’s curiosity, or alternatively, one may engage in schoolwork for extrinsic reasons, either to obtain external approval or because the educational system requires it. (Harter & Connell, 1984).

Fig.1: Conceptual Frame Work - Flowchart

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Combination of all the three Variables, Principles and Definitions
Achievement is task-oriented behavior that allows the individual’s performance to be evaluated according to some internally or externally imposed criterion that involves the individual in competing with others, or that which otherwise involves some standard of excellence.

2.4. DEFINITION OF NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT

The term ‘Need for Achievement’ was used for the first time and introduced into psychology by H. Murray in Explorations in Personality (1938). The author defined it as an intense, prolonged and repeated efforts to accomplish something difficult; to work with singleness of purpose towards a high and distant goal; to have the determination to win’. According to McClelland, the achievement motivation is a constant drive to improve one’s ‘level of performance’, to accomplish success in contention. The need for achievement is the result of emotional conflict between the hope to approach success and the desire to avoid failure (Steinmayr, Spinath, 2009).

2.5. PSYCHOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT

McClelland’s (1987) research led him to formulate psychological characteristics of a person with strong need for achievement. Those individuals assign realistic goals and consistently strive for its implementation. They also prefer difficult but not overly - tasks and are capable of prospective thinking. According to Mc Clelland and Winter (1995), following features accompany high level of achievement motivation:
• Moderate risk propensity;
• Undertaking innovative and engaging tasks;
• Internal locus of control and responsibility for own decisions
• And behaviours;
• Need for precise goal setting.

The measurement of need for achievement by Atkinson’s opinion is, strong need for achievement is not the only explanation of the people activity but individuals with strong need for achievement select tasks of an intermediate level of difficulty, whereas failure oriented subjects avoid this level of difficulty (Atkinson, 1966).

2.6. NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT

The need for achievement is characterized by the wish to take responsibility, for finding solutions to problems, master complex tasks, set goals, and get feedback on the level of success. Originally, the need for achievement was the greatest concern for McClelland (1987). He was particularly interested in this need and associated behaviors because most organizations want their employees to achieve. The 'need achievement' refers to an unconscious disposition to energize and drive. High need Achievement individuals are constantly 'competing with standards of excellence (Wilf H. Ratzbug).
The term was first used by Henry Murray and associated with a range of actions. These include: ‘intense, prolonged and repeated efforts to accomplish something difficult. To work for one purpose towards high and distant goal, the concept of need for achievement was subsequently popularized by the psychologist David McClelland (2013).

The need for achievement is related to the difficulty of tasks people choose to undertake. Those with low Need achievement may choose very easy tasks, in order to minimize risk of failure, or highly difficult tasks, such that a failure would not be embarrassing. Those with high Need Achievement tend to choose moderately difficult tasks, feeling that they are challenging, but within reach. People high in Need Achievement are characterized by a tendency to seek challenges and a high degree of independence. Their most satisfying reward is the recognition of their achievements. Sources of high Need achievement is

- Parents who encouraged independence in childhood
- Praise and rewards for success
- Association of achievement with positive feelings
- Association of own competence and effort and not luck
- A desire to be effective or challenged one
- Intrapersonal strength and desirability
- Feasibility and goal setting abilities
2.7. AVOIDANCE ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

In everyday life, individuals strive to be competent in their activities. In the past decade, many theorists have utilized a social-cognitive achievement goal approach in accounting for individuals striving for competence. An achievement goal is commonly defined as the purpose for engaging in a task, and the specific type of goal taken on creates a framework for how individuals experience their achievement pursuits. Achievement goal theorists commonly identify two distinct ideas toward competence: a performance goal focused on demonstrating ability when compared to others, and a mastery goal focused on the development of competence and task master. Performance goals are hypothesized to produce vulnerability to certain response patterns in achievement settings such as preferences for easy tasks, withdrawal of effort in the face of failure, and decreased task enjoyment. Mastery goals can lead to a motivational pattern that creates a preference for moderately challenging tasks, persistence in the face of failure, and increased enjoyment of tasks (Elliot & Church, 1997).

Most achievement goal theorists conceptualize both performance and mastery goals as the "approach" forms of motivation. Existing classical achievement motivation theorists claimed that activities are emphasized and oriented toward attaining success or avoiding failure, while the achievement goal theorists focused on their approach aspect. More recently, an integrated
achievement goal conceptualization was proposed that includes both modern performance and mastery theories with the standard approach and avoidance features.

In this basis for motivation, the performance goal is separated into an independent approach component and avoidance component, and three achievement orientations are conceived: a mastery goal focused on the development of competence and task master, a performance-approach goal directed towards the attainment of favorable judgments of competence, and a performance-avoidance goal centered on avoiding unfavorable judgments of competence. The mastery and performance-approach goals are characterized as self-regulating to promote potential positive outcomes and processes to absorb an individual in their task or to create excitement leading to a mastery pattern of achievement results. Performance-avoidance goals, however, are characterized as promoting negative circumstances. This avoidance orientation creates anxiety, task distraction, and a pattern of helpless achievement outcomes. Intrinsic motivation, which is the enjoyment of an interest in an activity for its own sake, plays a role in achievement outcomes as well. Performance-avoidance goals undermined intrinsic motivation while both mastery and performance-approach goals helped to increase it (Elliot & Church, 1997).
2.8. APPROACH AND AVOIDANCE GOALS

Achievement motivation theorists focus their research attention on behaviors involving competence. Individuals aspire to attain competence or may strive to avoid incompetence, based on the earlier approach-avoidance research and theories. The desire for success and the desire to avoid failure were identified as critical determinants of aspiration and behavior by a theorist named Lewin. In his achievement motivation theory, McClelland proposed that there are two kinds of achievement motivation, one oriented around avoiding failure and the other around the more positive goal of attaining success. Atkinson, another motivational theorist, drew from the work of Lewin and McClelland in forming his need-achievement theory, a mathematical framework that assigned the desire to succeed and the desire to avoid failure as important determinants in achievement behavior (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996).

Theorists introduced an achievement goal approach to achievement motivation more recently. These theorists defined achievement goals as the reason for activities related to competence. Initially, these theorists followed in the footsteps of Lewin, McClelland, and Atkinson by including the distinction between approach and avoidance motivation into the structure of their assumptions. Three types of achievement goals were created, two of which being approach orientations and the third avoidance type. One approach type was a task involvement goal focused on the development of competence and
task mastery, and the other being a performance or ego involvement goal directed towards attaining favorable judgments of competence. The avoidance orientation involved an ego or performance goal aimed at avoiding unfavorable judgments of competence. These new theories received little attention at first and some theorists bypassed them with little regard. Motivational theorists shifted away and devised other conceptualizations such as Dweck's performance-learning goal dichotomy with approach and avoidance components or Nicholls' ego and task orientations, which he characterized as two forms of approach motivation (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996).

2.9. INTRINSIC MOTIVATION AND ACHIEVEMENT GOALS

Intrinsic motivation is defined as the enjoyment of an interest in an activity for its own sake. Fundamentally viewed as an approach form of motivation, intrinsic motivation is identified as an important component of achievement goal theory. Most achievement goal and intrinsic motivational theorists argue that mastery goals are facilitative of intrinsic motivation and related mental processes and performance goals create negative effects. Mastery goals are said to promote intrinsic motivation by fostering perceptions of challenge, encouraging task involvement, generating excitement, and supporting self-determination while performance goals are the opposite. Performance goals are portrayed as undermining intrinsic motivation by
instilling perceptions of threat, disrupting task involvement, and creating anxiety and pressure (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996).

2.10. THEORIES OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

The theory of achievement motivation is a miniature system applied to a specific context, the domain of achievement-oriented activities, which is characterized by the fact that the individual is responsible for the outcome (success or failure), he anticipates unambiguous knowledge of results, and there is some degree of uncertainty or risk (McClelland, 1961).

A. THE NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT THEORY

One branch of the theory is called the need for achievement. McClelland believed that humans develop their need for achievement during early childhood based on their parents' habits regarding reward, warmth and affection, Education.com notes. People with a high n Ach are unconsciously motivated to be leaders and to solve problems based on their own ingenuity. People in this category tend to work hard and enjoy being recognized for their hard work, Lussier and Achua state. About 10 percent of the population falls into this branch of the Achievement Motivation Theory's strata.

B. THE NEED FOR POWER THEORY

Some people have an internal need for power that overrides their need for achievement (Loori L.Moor Dustin K. Grabsch Craig Rotter, 2010). People
who fall into this category of the theory, also called need for power, want to be leaders and have control over other people. Individuals who have the unconscious desire to be powerful wish to influence other people and hold positions of authority such as political office or the boss in a corporation. While some people who wish to be powerful might also be motivated to achieve, it is not necessary to actually gain power. In fact, some people only put in the effort necessary to become powerful and don't attempt to achieve more after that.

C. THE NEED FOR AFFILIATION THEORY

The final branch of the Achievement Motivation Theory is the need for affiliation; People who fall into this category are concerned with gaining and maintaining friendships. These individuals tend to join groups and organizations and thrive on social relationships, according to Lussier and Achua. Those with the internal desire to be affiliated struggle with confrontation and want to be liked by everyone around them. These individuals don't necessarily want to be leaders, but they do enjoy teaching and influencing others.

D. MURRAY'S THEORY

Murray considered that the need for achievement forms is one of the important motives for humans. He determined that the achievement motivation is an internal motive which occurs in doing something for enjoyment. If it is an
external motives which occur in doing something to obtain an award or to avoid punishment (Abouerse, 1995).

E. HIDER'S THEORY

Hider's theory concentrates on the attribution of causal concept and its effect on the achievement behavior and motivation. Four theoretical constructs were identified from experimental findings on aspects of attribution theory (Brennen, 2007; Graham, 1991; Weiner, 1986):

- Teachers should refrain from providing unsolicited help during performance of easy tasks because low achievers perceive this behaviour as a cue to their low ability. This in turn lessens their effort in performing a task.
- Students' initial desire of efficacy to perform well can motivate them to act in ways that enhance performance.
- Students involved in self-regulated learning are closely tied to students' efficacy beliefs about their capability to perform classroom tasks and their beliefs that, these classrooms tasks are interesting and worth learning.
- Students' prior academic self-concept influences to a great extent their subsequent academic achievement.
F. ATKINSON’S THEORY

Atkinson point out that achievement motivation consists of three points such as motive strength, possibility of a person’s success, and the value of motive itself. Atkinson puts the aspects of achievement motivation according to its strength or weakness (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000)

- Perseverance and determination to reach the objectives goals.
- Competition with others.

This theory believes that people want to achieve and experience levels of aspiration. The concept of these levels says that people like to succeed at the highest possible level with avoidance of the possibility of failure. People increase the need for achievement when they experience success, so if they experience success their need for achievement will be strengthened (Brennen, 2007).

G. NICHOLLS’S THEORY

Nicholls was interested in the personal awareness process for capacity, effort and difficulties of work in achievement, so he defined the achievement behaviour as the behaviour which is directed to indicate or which promotes the person's high capacity and helps to avoid the promotion of low capacity. Nicholls distinguished between two concepts of achievement motivation: Task involvement and ego involvement (Nicholles & Duda, 1992).
H. HERTZBERG’S THEORY

Hertzberg is constructed two dimensional paradigms of factors affecting people’s attitudes about work. He concluded that such factors as company policy, supervision, interpersonal relation, working conditions, and salary are hygiene factors rather than motivators. According to the theory, the absence of hygiene factors can create job dissatisfaction, but their presence does not motivate or create satisfaction. In contrast, Hertzberg determined data which the motivators were elements to enrich a person’s job; he found five factors in particular that were strong determiners of job satisfaction: achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, and advancement. These motivators (satisfiers) were associated with long-term positive effects in job performance while the hygiene factors (dissatisfics) consistently produced only short-term changes in job attitudes and performance, which quickly fell back to its previous level (Gawel,J, 2007).

I. WEINER’S THEORY

Weiner focused his attribution theory on achievement by identifying ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck as the most important factors affecting attributions for achievement. Attributions are classified along three causal dimensions: focus of control, stability, and controllability. The focus of control dimension has two poles: internal versus external focus of control. The stability dimension analyses whether causes change over time or not. For
instance, ability can be classified as a stable, internal cause, and effort classified as unstable and internal. Controllability contrasts causes one can control, such as skill efficacy, from causes one cannot control, such as aptitude, mood, others’ actions, and luck (Weiner, 1986). Weiner’s theory has been widely applied in education, law, clinical psychology, and the mental health domain.

J. SELF-WORTH THEORY IN ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Self-worth theory states that in certain situations students stand to gain by not trying and deliberately withholding effort. If poor performance is a threat to a person’s sense of self-esteem, this lack of effort is likely to occur. This most often occurs after an experience of failure. Failure threatens self-estimates of ability and creates uncertainty about an individual’s capability to perform well on a subsequent basis. If the following performance turns out to be poor, then doubts concerning ability are confirmed. Self-worth theory states that one way to avoid threat to self-esteem is by withdrawing effort. Withdrawing effort allows failure to be attributed to lack of effort rather than low ability which reduces overall risk to the value of one’s self-esteem. When poor performance is likely to reflect poor ability, a situation of high threat is created to the individual’s intellect. On the other hand, if an excuse allows poor performance to be attributed to a factor unrelated to ability, the
threat to self-esteem and one's intellect is much lower (Thompson, Davidson, 
& Barber, 1995).

2.11. DISCUSSION ON MOTIVATIONAL NEEDS

The motivational theory developed by Mc. Clelland (1987) was selected 
for the theoretical foundation of the study. Mc.Clelland's theory described three 
different types of motivational needs: the need for achievement, the need for 
affiliation, and the need for power. His theory suggests intrinsic motivators as 
being critical to meeting the needs of students because they describe a pattern of 
how a person may behave. He proposed that people have either one or a 
combination of three needs which motivate them toward a certain pattern of 
behavior. McClelland (1961) described the person with a high need for 
achievement as one who likes situations in which he/she takes personal 
responsibility for finding solutions to problems. They set moderate achievement 
goals and take calculated risks. People with a high need for achievement like to 
make things better. This is indicated by a willingness to compete with standard 
of excellence as a guideline to evaluate personal performance.

McClelland and Steele (1973) also wrote that they want concrete 
feedback on how well they are doing. A student with a high need for 
achievement does not like work that is too easy or too hard (McClelland, 1987). 
If a task is too easy, then there is no 'real' improvement. If the task is too hard, 
then by not completing the task, no improvement was accomplished.
A person with a high need for affiliation tends to think often about the quality of his/her relationships (McClelland, 1987). This person will cherish the positive experiences while worrying about any shortcomings in a relationship. A person with a high need for affiliation will seek the companionship of others and take steps to be liked by them, as well as wanting to project a favourable image. This person will tend to be the peacemaker by smoothing out disagreements and often chooses to work and make decisions in a group. The characteristics of a person with a high need for power are control and influence (McClelland, 1987). This person will spend more time thinking about how to obtain and exercise power and authority.

A person with a high need for power needs to win arguments, persuade others, to prevail, and to obtain positions where they can exert influence (McClelland & Steele, 1973). McClelland (1987) suggested that there are two faces of power. The first face has a negative connotation, one that is concerned with having one's way by controlling and dominating others. The other face of power is called 'social' or 'institutional'. It reflects the process of leadership that uses persuasion and inspiration to help people achieve, to be happy, and to learn. This type of person is one who helps people form and attain goals while not dominating them. If the motivators can be identified, then behaviour may be predicted.
2.12. DEFINITION OF ALTRUISM

According to a standard definition, an act is psychologically altruistic if the agent is acting with an ultimate intention to advance the interest of others at the expense of his own interests. In a number of displace the existence of psychology altruism has been vehemently denied. Moreover, it became usual to think that a purely self-interested reason was uncovered beneath an apparently altruistic act the behaviour in question remained incompletely understood or even somehow unintelligible, it is exactly this kind of genuine inability to make sense of a truly non-egoistic motivation that was ridiculed (Neven Sesardic, 1999).

A. EARLY THEORIES OF ALTRUISM

The development of biological and evolutionary theories had an impact on some early psychological theories concerned with parental care and self-sacrifice. Psychological theory arguments states that, human altruism is ultimately selfishly motivated. Many early psychological theories, such as those based on psychoanalysis, were influenced by the belief that all human motivation is inherently selfish or egotistical.

Thus, Freud (1856-1939) (Sorrentino, RM, et al, 1981) argued that all actions ultimately occur to meet the needs of the self. Human nature is thus hedonistic with the aim of seeking pleasure and avoiding pain. As a result, the existence of altruism was not actively researched for much of the early 20th
century. The argument that all human motivation is inherently selfish has long been dominant, but the alternative proposal that the existence of unselfish motivation directed towards benefiting the ‘other’ and not the ‘self’ was first referred to under the heading of ‘benevolence’, in 1851, Auguste Comte introduced the term ‘altruism’ to distinguish this form of unselfish motivation from acts which were selfishly motivated. The existence of ‘true’ altruism however, remains contentious and theories on human motivation continue to be characterized by egoistic or altruistic undercurrents.

B. PSEUDO-ALTRUISTIC APPROACH

The pseudo-altruistic approach has been a dominating force in psychological theory. Its defining feature is that so-called altruistic behavior is ultimately egoistically-motivated, the end goal being one’s own welfare. Altruism is thus redefined to fit the argument that all human action is self-serving, differing from Comte’s definition.

By this definition altruism is seen to be motivated by the attainment of internal rewards even when these rewards are not directly observable. Some argue that through an internalization process, adulthood altruism acts as a self-reward mechanism. This mechanism eventually fosters self-satisfaction and self-esteem in adolescence. This is not to diminish the importance of vicarious empathic emotion, seen as a major criterion of altruistic behavior. If however the person develops a reliance on material rewards then the internalization of intrinsic motivations to help may not be very successful. This view is probably
the most popular among those psychologists who adhere to the pseudo-altruistic argument.

C. NORMATIVE THEORY

According to normative theory (Svetlana Feigin et al., 2014), there are three basic influences on altruism - the intensity of moral (personal) obligation, a cognitive structure of norms and values, and the relevance or appropriateness of feelings of moral obligation. Moral personal obligations or norms are influenced by shared group expectations about appropriate behavior and social rewards, varying from individual to individual. People help because they perceive it as the appropriate social response either due to previous experience or observation of others. In essence, people are socialized in society to adopt the norm of social responsibility and help others. Related to this are fairness and the need to see the world as 'just'. These are central concepts to the 'just world hypothesis' proposed by Lerner. According to this hypothesis there is a shared belief that the world is fair and people get what they deserve and vice versa. Thus, we help those who have helped us and not those who have denied us help. Personal norms also play an important influential role both cognitively and affectively. For example, people may possess expectations of behavior based on personal standards or experience emotions (such as guilt) when meeting or not meeting these.
2.13. DEFINITION OF SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE

Thorndike (1920) defined social intelligence as “the ability to act wisely in human relations”. Ford and Tisak (1983) defined social intelligence in terms of behavioural outcomes and were successful in supporting a distinct domain of social intelligence. They defined social intelligence as “one’s ability to accomplish relevant objectives in specific social settings”. Marlowe (1986) equated social intelligence to social competence. He defined social intelligence as “the ability to understand the feelings, thoughts, and behaviours of persons, including oneself, in interpersonal situations and to act appropriately upon that understanding”. More recently, Goleman’s (2006) definition divides social intelligence into two broad categories: social awareness and social facility. He defined social awareness as “what we sense about others” and defined social facility as “what we then do with that awareness (Qingwen Dong Randall J.et.al, 2008).

A. IMPLICIT THEORY APPROACH

The implicit theory approach examines lay person’s’ conceptions about a psychological construct. The common procedure asks people to identify and describe the behavior of persons who are, according to their implicit theory, high scorers in the respective construct. Sternberg et al. (1981) factor-analyzed the descriptions of intelligent people and found three factors labelled practical problem solving abilities, verbal abilities, and social competence. Behaviors
classified as the social competence factor included, accepts others for what they are, admits mistakes, is on time for appointments, thinks before speaking and doing, is sensitive to other people’s needs and desires, etc. Kosmitzki and John (1993) applied the implicit theory approach only to the concept of social intelligence. They extracted three factors labelled social intelligence, social influence, and social memory. Social intelligence consists of the following components: understanding people, social insight, perspective taking ability, knowing social rules and norms, good at dealing with people, being warm and caring, open to new experiences and ideas, social adaptability, and being compromising and fair. Social influence includes motivation and leadership, influence on others, dominance and activity, manipulating others. Social memory consists of memory for names and faces. Amelang, Schwarz, and Wegemund (1989) used the implicit theory approach to develop a self-report inventory on socially intelligent behaviour.

**B. SOCIAL LEARNING PERSPECTIVE**

The social learning perspective argues that our moral responses are acquired through the ‘laws of learning’. Internalization of values is facilitated by observational learning Parental models have been proposed to exert the strongest and most prolonged influences on the internalization process. Some theorists also propose that behavior-contingent learning influences the development of altruistic behavior during childhood and this in turn serves as
an internal reinforcement. Others argue however that social learning does not explain altruism entirely; ignoring genetic influences and high-order reasoning such as role-taking abilities, and thus that social influence is insufficient in explaining moral reasoning.

2.14. CONCLUDING REMARKS OF THIS CHAPTER

This theoretical background looks forward to reflect the ideas, principles in educational implications, suggestion, and discussion parts with main reference to the findings of this study. The various points and theories, principles, definitions of achievement motivation altruism and social intelligence gives a broad idea of the variables and how it works in general and how it will be applicable in the future study also. Without the basic idea of the variables one cannot become a completely thoughtful in the field of study takes up for study the investigator. It will be helpful for the researcher and new learners in this field.