Psychosocial Maturity

The term maturity signifies a developmental process and has been generally used in conjunction with physical, emotional or moral development. While physical maturity is easily discernible and can be clearly differentiated from the other two, the terms emotional maturity and moral development often covering the same or similar ground, have been used synonymously or as two complimentary aspects of a general area of "mental" maturity or development (O'Connor and Wrightsman, 1972). Psychologists of cognition like Piaget and of emotion like Freud and Erikson have proposed theories of development couched in terms of stages. The discussion in this chapter, includes a review of studies on emotional maturity, and maturity in its connotation of moral development (Piaget, 1948), and the present form of "psychological" maturity (Stewart, 1973; Rao, 1975; Rao and Stewart, 1976).

Emotion Defined

Emotional development begins early in life and stems from the generalised, undifferentiated reactions of the infant to stimulating situations. These situations vary with the child but are usually related at first, to his physical well being. The generalised responses become more diversified and specific as the child learns to
discriminate between experiences and situations that give him satisfaction and those that do not (Hawkes and Pease, 1962).

Emotional Maturity

Many attempts have been made to define "emotional maturity". In psychological writings the definition of maturity has frequently been a rather negative one. That emotional maturity essentially involves emotional control and has been a prominent feature in some definition. According to Jerald (1964), the emotionally mature person is able to keep a lid on his feelings. He can suffer in silence; he can bide his time in spite of present discomfort. He is not subject to swings in mood, he is not volatile. When he does express emotion, he does so with moderation, decency, and in good order. He is not carried away by his feelings. He has considerable tolerance for frustration and so on.

A definition of emotional maturity that is in keeping with the facts of development and the potentialities involved in the process of development must stress not simply restriction and control but also the positive possibilities inherent in human nature. According to this view, emotional maturity involves the kind of living that most richly and fully expresses what a person has in him at any level of his development. Garrison (1965) says that the transition from childhood to adulthood is not sudden. During this transition period, the individual displays many child-like characteristics, even though he is striving to be grown up in nature. During this transition from childhood to
adulthood, therefore, the subject is referred to as an adolescent.

From Adolescent to Maturity: During the period of growth and development new needs are continuously appearing in the individual life. While certain earlier needs are modified or lose their potency, the development into adolescence introduces a different self and different concepts of self; old goals are recognized and new goals are introduced. Growth toward maturity brings with it increased abilities and independence along with increased demands and responsibilities. Certain developmental tasks appearing with the onset of adolescence are extended. At the same time, the maturing adolescent is confronted with other developmental tasks. Some of the tasks appearing during late adolescence and post-adolescence which will be presented in this chapter relating to vocational adjustment, marriage and marital adjustments, becoming a citizen in a democratic society and developing a more unified philosophy of life.

Growth toward Maturity: Psychologically and sociologically, adolescence ends when the individual attains a consistent and comparatively widespread level of maturity in his derived interests and behavior patterns. The development of such maturity is gradual in nature, so that one cannot state a specific time when this is reached for a particular individual.

The Mature Adolescent: It has been emphasized that as the child grows into the period of adolescence following that of childhood, he is truly entering upon a new sphere of activity. He is reaching
into a new social atmosphere, his maturing physiological nature is asserting itself along new channels, and new impulses are arising.

Reaching Social Maturity: Maturity is often looked upon as full physical development. A conception of adolescence that pervades much of our culture is the one that is based upon social maturity. The degree of one's development beyond the self and his ability to enter into the activities of the group cooperatively is a good measure of social development. The typical adolescent tends to display these characteristics to an increased degree as he passes into the post-adolescent stage. Some characteristics of the socially mature person may be listed as follows:

1. Exercises mature judgement on crucial problems and issues.
2. Is able to carry on cooperative activities on a fair and sound basis.
3. Assumes personal responsibility for his actions.
4. Has a wide range of friends, chosen on a sound basis.
5. Displays independence in judgement and actions, but with due regard for the rights and opinions of others.
6. Is able to take an objective attitude toward self.
7. Is able to adjust to different situations and practice a certain amount of "role flexibility".
8. Thinks and plans in terms of long-term goals rather than the immediate ones.
9. Is not self-centered in his conversation and actions.
10. Evaluates issues and problems in terms of the welfare of the group rather than how it is going to affect self. Garrison (1965) mentioned that an overly ambitious parent may be an important factor in determining the social and emotional development of adolescents towards maturity.

**Intellectual Maturity:** It has been emphasized throughout that the adolescent develops as a whole a unified personality. Intellectual maturity cannot be separated from other aspects of maturity. One of the outstanding differences between the child and the mature individual is the way they react to remote or long-term goals. The immature individual is best motivated by goals that are within his reach over a relatively short period of time. The more mature individual is able to maintain a steady course of action for a longer period of time.

**Maturity and the Concept of Stages**

To give meaning to the concept of maturity as applied to children, it has been felt necessary to take into account maturity at various developmental levels, thereby dividing the process of development into stages. This notion of stages of development would suggest at one and the same time, both transitory and a mutable stage and an orderly succession rather than chaotic or accidental growth. Freud (1905) posited the theory that stages of emotional development are tied to physical or zonal areas of gratification, and they occur in the period upto the age five.

In developing his emotional, motivational approach to personality and morality, Freud postulated that three systems of energies operate within the individual, the Id, the Ego and the Super-ego and the
interaction of these energy systems account for the character and morality shown by a person in his dealing with others.

After this time, further evidence of "oral" and "anal" behaviour is taken as evidence either of fixation of libido (an inadequate movement through the stages) or of regression (a slipping backward into familiar, safe and satisfying vestigial behaviour). Later, both Freud (1908) and Abraham (1921, 1924, 1925) held that it was possible to have an oral or anal 'character' - what we would now call personality (making a psychology of individual differences possible), but they still held to the notion that this 'character' was predicted on the abnormal or immature clinging to developmentally inferior strategies of coping.

Freud arrived at the following four stages, centering on parts of the body and related needs:

**Oral stage**
- Oral stage is concerned with sucking and biting needs

**Anal stage**
- Anal stage is centered on toilet training and the regulation of elimination

**Phallic stage**
- Phallic stage which may give rise to the oedipal complex centers on an attraction to the parent of the opposite sex, envy of the parent of the same sex

**Genital stage**
- Genital stage where there is an emergence of unselfishness and love for others.

Thus, according to Freud, all later behaviour throughout life depends on the successful (or unsuccessful) negotiation of these four stages in early childhood.
McDougall (1908) conceptualized the problem in the following ways:

The fundamental problem of social psychology is the moralization of the individual into the society into which he is born as an moral and egoistic infant. There are successive stages, each of which must be traversed by every individual before he can attain the next higher.

1. The stage in which the operation of the instinctive impulses is modified by the influence of rewards and punishments.
2. The stage in which conduct is controlled in the man by anticipation of social praise or blame.
3. The highest stage in which conduct is regulated by an ideal that enables a man to act in the way that seems to him right regardless of the praise or blame of his immediate social environment.

The psychoanalytic theory of Freud has utilized emotional and motivational constructs to explain the development of personality and character, while the cognitive approach of McDougall has concerned itself with the development of rules, violation of moral norms and learning of universal principles (O'Connor and Wrightsman, 1972).

Piaget’s (1948, 1960) methodology was very similar to that of Freud. Piaget used the term, cognitive stages that possessed the following characteristics:

1. They imply that children of different ages possess qualitatively different ways of thinking or solving the same problems.
2. These different ways of thinking may be ordered in an invariant sequence, i.e., there is a consistent series of steps in the sequence, along which each child must progress.
Each successive cognitive stage is hierarchical integration of what has gone before. Higher stages do not replace lower stages, but rather, reintegrate them. Previous ways of doing things are maintained for the functions they serve but increasingly a solution at the highest level available to the person is preferred. In his theory of mental development, Piaget proposed that the child moves through four stages of increasingly abstract reasoning progressing to a higher stage of mental development. This is a necessary, but not a sufficient condition for shifting to a higher stage of moral development. Piaget proposed the presence of only two stages.

i. Heteronomous stage: The stage of moral realism, the child accepts rules as given from authority.

ii. Autonomous stage: The stage of morality or moral independence, the individual believes in modifying rules to fit into the needs of the situation.

Kohlberg (1958, 1963, 1968) using Piaget's approach extended the basic theory. He mentioned the three moral levels. The pre-conventional level is the first of the three levels of moral thinking, the second level is conventional and third post-conventional or autonomous. Within each of these three levels there are two discernible stages:

1. Pre-conventional level: The child is often "well behaved" and is responsive to cultural labels of good and bad; he interprets these labels in terms of their physical consequences (punishment, reward, exchange of favours) or in terms of the physical power of those who enunciate the rules and labels of good and bad. This level is usually occupied by children aged four to ten. At the pre-conventional
Stage 1: Orientation low and punishment and unquestioning deference to superior power. The physical consequences of action regardless of their human meaning or value determine its goodness or badness.

Stage 2: Right action consists of that which instrumentally satisfies one's own needs and occasionally the needs of others. Human relations are viewed in terms like those of the market place. Elements of fairness or reciprocity and equal sharing are present, but they are always interpreted in a physical pragmatic way. Reciprocity is a matter of 'you scratch my back and I will scratch yours', not of loyalty, gratification justice.

2. Conventional level: This level is described as conformist, but that is perhaps too smug a term. Maintaining the expectations and rules of the individual's family, group or nation is perceived as valuable in its own right. There is a concern not only with conforming to the individual's social order but in maintaining supporting and justifying this order.

Stage 3: Good boy - good girl orientation. Good behaviour is that which pleases or helps others and is approved by them. There is much conformity to stereotypical images of what is majority or 'natural' behaviour. Behaviour is often judged by intention - 'he means well' becomes important for the first time and is overused, as by Charlie Brown in Peanuts "no seeks approval being nice."

Stage 4: Orientation toward authority, fixed rules and the maintenance of the social order. Right behaviour consists of doing one's duty, showing respect for authority and maintaining the given social order for its own sake. One earns respect by performing dutifully.
3. **Post-conventional level:** This is characterized by a major trust towards autonomous moral principles which have validity and application apart from authority of the groups or persons who hold them and apart from the individuals' identification with those persons or groups.

**Stage 5:** A social contract orientation, generally with legalistic and utilitarian overtones. Right action tends to be defined in terms of general rights and in terms of standards which have been critically examined and agreed upon by the whole society. There is a clear awareness of the relativism of personal values and opinions and a corresponding emphasis upon procedural rules for reaching consensus. Aside from what is constitutionally and democratically agreed upon, right or wrong is a matter of personal 'values' and 'opinions'. The result is an emphasis upon the 'legal point of view', but with an emphasis upon the possibility of changing law in terms of rational considerations of social utility, rather than freezing it in terms of stage 4 'law and order'. Outside the legal realm, free agreement and contract are the binding elements of obligation. This is the "official" morality of American government, and finds its ground in the thought of the writers of the constitution.

**Stage 6:** Orientation toward the decision of conscience and toward self-chosen ethical principles appearing to logical comprehensiveness, universality and consistency. These principles are abstract and ethical (the Golden Rule, the categorical imperative), they are not concrete moral rules like the Ten Commandments. Instead, they are universal principles of justice, of the reciprocity and equality of human rights, and of respect for the dignity of human beings as individual persons.
Later psychologists within and outside the psychoanalytic tradition, questioned the notion that all important psychological development could take place in the earliest years of childhood. While arguing that development in the earliest years (when ego and cognitive development are weak) may have unique shaping power (McClelland, 1951), many felt that nonetheless important emotional changes could and did occur later.

Anna Freud (1946) proposed that while it was true that during the period of adolescence the issues of the Oedipus complex got resolved, there were two important differences - genital maturity, and a coping and strengthened ego. Further, Sullivan (1953) and Erikson (1950) proposed that there were in fact further important psychological changes throughout adulthood. Their contribution - no small one - was a recognition that mere successful negotiation of the issues arising up to age five was no guarantee of either a lack of later issues or successful negotiation of later issues. Thus the phenomena of adult and adolescent stresses and coping were recognised.

Erikson (1950) divided the human life cycle into eight stages in the following manner:

Stage 1 - Oral: The central issue here is that of basic trust versus basic mistrust, and the solution of this nuclear conflict is the first task of the ego. The final outcome of the conflict depends on the constant testing of the relationship between inside and outside. If the testing leads to positive balance the resultant feeling
is that of hope.

Stage 2 - Anal: The issues here relate to autonomy on the one hand and shame and doubt on the other. This stage becomes decisive for the ratio of love and hate, cooperation and willingness, freedom of self-expression and its suppression, a positive ratio in this stage, leads to self-control and will power.

Stage 3 - Genital: The chief issue of this ambulatory stage of infantile genitality, is the conflict between initiative and guilt. Taking the word 'initiative' as 'making' or 'being on the make', thereby suggesting pleasure on attack and conquest, the danger of this stage lies in a sense of guilt over the goals contemplated. A positive ratio leads to feeling of direction and purpose.

Stage 4 - Latency: Industry Versus inferiority are the issues related to this stage. The child's danger at this stage, when he sublimes the necessity to 'make' people by direct attack, by learning to win recognition and by producing things, lies in a sense of inadequacy. The successful negotiation of the issues of this stage leads to method and competence.

Stage 5 - Puberty: With puberty, comes to conflict between identity and role confusion. This stage heralds the advent of youth. The integration of the identity is "the accrued experience of the ego's ability to integrate all identifications with the vicissitudes of libido, with the aptitudes developed out of endowment and with the opportunities offered in social roles." The danger of role confusion
of this arises due to strong previous doubts as to one's sexual identity. An effective solution to the problem can lead to devotion and fidelity.

**Stage 6 - Young Adulthood:** The young adult emerging from the search for and the insistence on identity, now faces the conflict of intimacy versus isolation. He has now reached a stage where true genitality can fully develop. Achievement of favourable balance leads to affiliation and love.

**Stage 7 - Adulthood:** This is the stage which is the longest and involves the conflicts between generativity and stagnation. Generativity is primarily the concern in establishing and guiding the next generation, where it overcomes stagnation and personal impoverishment, it leads to production and care.

**Stage 8 - Maturity:** In this stage of ego integrity versus despair, the ego's accrued assurance of its proclivity for order and meaning conflicts with a despair that the one and only life cycle at an individual's disposal is not acceptable as the ultimate of life. The successful integration of the ego leads to renunciation and wisdom.

Sullivan (1953) developed a stage theory dividing the period between birth and adulthood into six stages.

**Stage 1 - Infancy:** This is the stage of total dependence. All the needs of the child are fulfilled by others.

**Stage 2 - Childhood:** This is the stage where the child begins to develop a sense of individuality and becomes aware of his existence.

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no...
as separate from that of his mother. It is the beginning of the "self-system".

Stage 3 - Juveniles: The child's self-system is now consolidated enough for it to start becoming social and interact with other people and its environment in a more active way.

Stage 4 - Pre-Adolescence: The child in this stage forms close alliance with peer members of the same sex. Sullivan calls this the stage of "chums".

Stage 5 - Early Adolescence: For the first time interaction with peers of the opposite sex take predominance. In this stage sexual lust and a need for experimentation with its satisfaction emerge as major motivators.

Stage 6 - Late Adolescence: In this stage are established mature, reciprocatory interpersonal relationships based on a feeling of maturity.

Figure 1 shows the theories discussed in a diagrammed form.

Moreover, Sullivan introduced perhaps the highly significant notion that "warps" in personality, caused by improper early development could be corrected under the right conditions, without direct or planned intervention. He believed that there was no once - for all final development, and that the proper confluence of people, social structure, experience, and personal "warp" could lead to unwarping, the unhampering of personality limitations.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Stage Name</th>
<th>Related Issues</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Infancy</td>
<td>ORAL</td>
<td>Receiving, getting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HETERONOMOUS</td>
<td>More realism, accepts rules as given from authority</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PRECONVENTIONAL LEVEL</td>
<td>Punishments and obedience orientation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CONVENTIONAL LEVEL</td>
<td>Instrumental relativist orientation</td>
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<td></td>
<td>POST-CONVENTIONAL LEVEL</td>
<td>Interpersonal concordance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Law &amp; Order orientation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Social-contract logicalistic orientation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Orientation of universal ethical principles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child</td>
<td>ANAL</td>
<td>Trust, autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HETERONOMOUS</td>
<td>Moral independence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PRE-GENITAL</td>
<td>More realism, accepts rules as given from authority</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>Social-contract logicalistic orientation</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PRE-GENITAL</td>
<td>Orientation of universal ethical principles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Juvenile</td>
<td>GENITAL</td>
<td>Identity, initiative, industry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adolescence</td>
<td>LATENCY</td>
<td>Identity, initiative, industry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PUBERTY</td>
<td>Identity, initiative, industry</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YOUNG ADULTHOOD</td>
<td>Identity, initiative, industry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ADULTHOOD</td>
<td>Identity, initiative, industry</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MATURE</td>
<td>Identity, initiative, industry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Generativity, socialization, intimacy, isolation, stagnation, despair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adolescence</td>
<td>EARLY</td>
<td>Emergence of lost social identity, social identity, social integration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LATE</td>
<td>Establishment of fully human or mature identity</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Reciprocity of interpersonal relationships</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
The limits of those important advances, however, seem to be that, generally they represented a kind of "tacking on" of later stages, which seemed reasonable or sensible within certain cultures, like the United States, but did not appear to have the same universalistic explanatory power that Freud's original biologically based stages had. Thus "identity crisis" in adolescence, or the "juvenile era" may look and sound, and be experienced very differently in cultures only moderately deviant from U.S.A. cultures in which, for example, roles, and therefore social identity, are relatively more fixed and immutable. Thus, Stewart (1975) pointed that the mere tacking on of additional stages that may "fill out the whole life cycle" is not a solution to the problem of personality development, despite the fact that it is an important advance in the recognition of the problem.

Stewart (1975), on the other hand, proposed that the Freudian stages may in one sense be "enough". That the four stages initially proposed by Freud, later elaborates by Jones (1916), Abraham (1921, 1924, 1925) and Reich (1928) are in fact all of the stages. Her divergence from this tradition, however, is that she suggested that the individual progresses through these stages - negotiates the issues associated with them not once, but several times in the course of the life cycle. This position borrows to some extent from the Piagetian notion of vertical decalage. According to this view, a repetition in mastery of a cognitive skill may occur at a new and different level.
There is a formal similarity between the structures at the two levels on the one hand, and a similarity of identity in the contents to which the structures are applied, on the other. The crucial differences concern the level of functioning; different kinds of operations are involved in the two cases (Flavell, 1963).

Thus, for example, a child may learn spatial relationships in a motoric sense quite early, he can avoid bumping into things. However, it is only much later that he can, for example, represent them on a map (Piaget, 1954 and Piaget, Inhelder and Szeminska, 1960).

Similarly, according to Stewart (1975), the human being may negotiate the issues of receiving and getting (trust and mistrust) and taking and giving (autonomy and shame and doubt) on one plane as an infant, but that he is required by events of life to renegotiate these issues repeatedly at different levels throughout life. To be more precise, she proposed that the initial experience that throws us all into the first negotiation of the stages - birth - is operationally defined as the sudden and enormous increase in stimulation to be mastered, an onslaught of sensation or experience to be assimilated - in short, "blooming, buzzing confusion". It seems likely then, that later similar "onslaughts" or "enormous increases" will again throw, or force, the human being into a reliving - possibly on a different plane - of the issues of these stages again. These experiences, may occur something like this:
- Birth (stages lived through in the context of family relations)
- School (stages lived through in the context of peers and teachers; this may handle the problem of "latency" so inadequately dealt with in psychoanalytic theory)
- Puberty (stages lived through in the context of individual sexual maturity and opposite sex peers)
- College (for some, stages lived through in the context lack of family; first period of solo responsibility for self among peers)
- Marriage/Career (stages lived through in the context of intimate interpersonal relationships, work setting, and coworkers/competitors)
- Failures in Career/marriage
- Career changes
- Moves
- Retirement

It may be that a simple operational definition of these life crises or stage - affecting experiences may be taken from the high stress experiences proposed by Rane (1971) for estimating the potential of experiences to generate physical wear and tear on the organism, marriage, work, failure, moves, pregnancy, birth of a child - all of these are specified as physical stress including experiences. They may be so stressful precisely because they are experiences of an enormous increase in the stimuli to be mastered, and because they do initiate a sensation of "back-to-square-one" in terms of emotional life.

The theory outlined above is diagrammed in Figure 2.
A PROPOSAL CONCERNING THE REPEATED NEGOTIATION OF THE SOCIO-EMOTIONAL STAGES INITIATED BY MAJOR LIFE CHANGES

LEVEL/ROLE

Retirement 0 A P G

Job/Marital Failures 0 M V 1

Marriage and/or Career 0 A P G

College 0 A P G

Adolescence (Puberty) 0 A P G

School 0 A P G

Birth Oral Anal Phallic Genital

Reversion to initial stage issues, due to situation/role changes involving substantial increase of unfamiliar stimuli.
It is a theory which draws on the valuable and illuminating aspects of emotional and cognitive development, but which strives to encompass childhood and adult social-emotional development in a single, comprehensive theory which can be tested, without merely tacking on later stages tied largely to role-related, rather than subjective experience-related changes (as Erikson's).

This theory has important theoretical and applied implications. Theoretically, the theory and its empirical testing may lead us away from the notions of fixation and regression, and clarify the role of experience, and external life changes in individual's emotional lives. Thus Rapaport (1960, pp. 45-60) argued that psychoanalysis as a genetic psychology deals with the genetic roots of behaviours, with the degree of autonomy behaviours attained, and with the genetic roots of the subject's relation to the reality conditions which co-determine in the appearance of a behaviour at a given point in the person's life.

It is this last - the co-determination of reality and personality in governing the appearance of behaviour - which psychoanalysis has not expanded precisely. The approach presented here, however, should make it possible to specify:

1. The effect of prior highest level of development in speed of negotiating the stages under new conditions

2. The effect of immediately prior level of development in speed of negotiating the stages under new conditions
3. The possible differential effect of new life changes on individuals at different stages of development in their old situation.

4. The kinds of environments which may facilitate or slow movement through the stages, either universally or for specific kinds of people.

5. The kinds of experiences, or life crises, which do have major and substantial impact on the individual, throwing him into a new reliving of the life cycle of stages.

6. The relative increase in consciousness of reliving the life cycle of stages, and its effect on the movement through the stages does the fact of previous experience, and greater cognitive skill, increase the self-consciousness, and therefore the speed, of movement through the cycle.

7. The kind of environments which may tend to help the individual, "unwarp" previous warps (Cf. Sullivan)

The greatest advantage of Stewart's theory is that it has been, and can be tested empirically through a scoring system especially evolved for the theory.

Development of the Stewart Scoring System

For developing this scale Stewart (1975) selected a series of behavioural criteria for classifying an individual under "oral, anal, phallic and genital" stages. The individual was required to exhibit all of the criterion behaviours for one stage, and no more than one for any other. The behaviours were all chosen to be closely related to the Freudian zonal definitions of the sources of stage-related feelings and fantasies. That is, the selection was limited to strictly defined zonal-related stage behaviour. In a few cases,
it was difficult to be quite so stringent, but in all cases Stewart chose behaviours which even a superficial understanding of the Freudian stages would cause to be classified under one stage rather than another.

The choice of criterion behaviours was limited in two ways:
i) from a large body of available archival data on college students, sample meetings the relevant stage criteria were selected, and ii) as the subjects were college students only some kinds of behaviours were available to them within the social role and setting of college students and college. The criterion behaviours are listed in Table 2.1.

Subjects were required to meet all criteria in one group for inclusion, and were not permitted to meet more than one criteria for inclusion in any other group. In fact, no subject meeting all criteria for any one group also met all criteria, for inclusion in another group.

The TAT stories written by six subjects from each stage were taken, with the intention of testing Freud's view that stage related behaviour stems from a psychological substratum. Using the McClelland, Atkinson method of empirical derivation described by Winter (1973) a scoring system was derived which captured the differences among the four groups.

Once the scoring system was derived the stories were scored blindly for all 24 subjects for all stages. The results seem to indicate that the scoring system did in fact tap major differentiating concerns of the four groups.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CRITERION BEHAVIOURS USED FOR CLASSIFICATION INTO DIFFERENT GROUPS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>ORAL</strong> All subjects must meet all of these criteria:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. report a regular (not occasional) after dinner snack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. which is more substantial than a &quot;beverage&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. smoke more than ½ hour/day (more than pipe, 1 cigar, or 6 cigarettes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. eat breakfast on all class days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ANAL</strong> All subjects must meet all of these criteria:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. report more than 10 rituals performed each night before</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>going to bed, including</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. all those connected with cleaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. report regular time of getting up and going to bed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PHALLIC</strong> All subjects must meet all of these criteria:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. sex or enhancement of reputation reported as principle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>motivation for dating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. dated in high school at least 2 to 3 times a month</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. &quot;played the field&quot; in high school (no girl friend)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GENITAL</strong> All subjects must meet all of these criteria:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. date only their &quot;steady&quot; (vs. reporting a steady, but</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reporting dating others too)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. studying and talking reported as major activities with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>steady</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. &quot;making love&quot; reported as major activity with steady</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Additionally, the pilot research (Stewart, 1975) found evidence that there may be stage-related change during college, consistent with the theory of vertical decalage (i.e., stage shifts initiated by life change). In two samples, a significant difference was found in mean stage level between Freshmen and Seniors (with Freshmen lower, Seniors higher).

An Indian adaptation of this system was used in this study (Rao, 1975). Test-retest reliabilities have been worked out and this test has been used in India on various occupational groups (Rao and Vijayashree, 1976).

**Achievement Motive**

Among the empirical investigations on motives, probably no other motive got as much attention of psychologists as achievement motive. This is because researches have demonstrated the importance of this motive in building societies (McClelland, 1961; McClelland, 1965b; McClelland and Winter, 1969). Researches in the past also demonstrated that achievement motivation can be developed through influencing the language, through designing special programmes for school boys (Mehta, 1967, 1976) as well as for people intending to be entrepreneurs (McClelland and Winter, 1969; Rao and Pareek, 1978). A study by Kagan and Moss (1962) indicates a moderate amount of stability in occurrence of achievement stories from adolescence to adulthood. A brief review of the relevant researches is presented below.
Early Research

As early as 1938, Murray and his collaborators tried with their pioneering book, "Explorations in Personality", not only to define need achievement but also to obtain individual differences in motive strength by means of a questionnaire. Using a six-part scale, the subject was asked to agree to, or reject, ten (somewhat crude) achievement oriented statements. This questionnaire as well as an improved one similar to the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS, A.L. Edwards, 1954) seem to isolate motivational variables less than general culture dependent valuations of achievement abilities and the like which are desirable but not necessarily obligatory for oneself. At any rate, these questionnaire data show very little correlation with behavior in which competition with some standard of excellence is expressed; this is contrast with content analytic procedures that utilize the TAT method, which so far have shown no correlation worth mentioning with the questionnaire data that provide more or less direct self judgments (McClelland, 1958; Marlowe, 1959).

However, it would be premature to consider questionnaire method as basically unsuitable for measuring motivation. Using very carefully selected items for various achievement oriented responses, Yukovich, Heckhausen, and Von Hatzfeld (1964) have found a number of relations with Heckhausen's TAT measure (1953b) of achievement motivation.

Ratings by others as well as experimentally obtained performance data have not yielded up to now a conclusive assessment of achievement motivation (McClelland, 1958).
Origin and Development of Achievement Motivation

Only in 1960s researchers began to look for a pervasive achievement-related motivational characteristic in the development of children's accomplishments as they have been recorded in great numbers by classical developmental psychology. White (1959, 1960) has impressively explicated how a child's development is furthered by "effective motivation"; by the drive to deal with the environment, to influence it actively, and thus to experience, to expand, and to maximize his own effectiveness and competence. Paradoxically, the obviousness of these phenomena seems to be the reason for their belated consideration because the powerful fascination of psychoanalytic theory has led more and more to the conviction that really important motives ought to be very much hidden in early childhood.

General Course of Development

Concentration and persistence in the pursuit of achievement goals increase with age, clearly from 4½ years on, and failures are tolerated better and more frequent attempts are made to overcome them (Hackerhoven and collaborators, 1962, 1965). Detailed longitudinal studies for four age periods from 0 to 14 years and into adulthood have been undertaken at the Fels Research Institute. Various aspects of achievement-related behaviour were judged by observation of a child and from statements of an adult in an interview. As reported by Kagan and Moss (1962), a remarkable stability exists from the age of 3 into
adulthood, for individual levels of achievement behaviour (especially in the intellectual area) and for the disposition toward competition. Striving for achievement-related recognition and fear of failure were noted from the age of 6. Also, achievement motivation measured by the TAT method (n-achievement) shows moderate but significant stability between the ages 8 and 11 and between the ages of 14 and 24. For age periods 14 and 25 (but not age periods 8 and 11) it correlates with achievement performances at the same age-periods.

Individual Differences: Parental Influences

Hayashi, et al. (1962) have demonstrated that in Japan parents of highly motivated children attach more value to good education and to more education. Japanese mothers appear to expect more achievement related self-reliance from children than fathers do (and both parents expect more from their sons than from their daughters). They did not find a correlation between parental insistence on self-reliance and their children's achievement motivation.

McClelland (1961) found that mothers with moderate level of n-Achievement tend to have sons with highest n-Achievement.

Rosen and D'Andrade (1959) wanted to observe parental influence directly and, therefore, arranged for 9-11 year old boys to work at achievement tasks (such as building a tower with irregularly shaped blocks) at home in the presence of their parents. The boys were blindfolded and allowed to use only one hand in order to make it more likely
that they would get help from their parents. On the basis of a preliminary TAT, the boys were divided into groups of high and low on n-Achievement that were carefully matched for other factors, such as intelligence and socioeconomic status. Both the parents of the highly motivated sons, as compared to the parents of the sons with low motivation, set higher levels of aspiration with respect to their son's abilities to achieve. The parents, particularly the mothers, showed more appreciation and warmth. The mothers of the sons with high motivation, in contrast with fathers, rebuked them for failure, broke in with hints, instructions, and efforts to urge their sons on. The fathers looked on in more detached and bonevolent way. According to these findings, strong achievement motivation in boys is promoted in families characterized by high achievement oriented levels of aspirations and by warmth and harmonious personal relations; and in families in which the mother stimulates achievement competence directly by positive and negative sanctions, while the father, on the contrary, respects and furthers the son's autonomy which he stimulates by a sympathetic attitude toward self-reliance.

Changes in Adulthood

Kolb (1965) was able to improve school grades of underachieving high school boys (IQ's above 120 and school grades below C) by giving them training programme designed to teach characteristics of the person with high achievement motivation. The improvement became manifest with students of high social class in a follow-up 1.5 years after
the training, but failed to appear with students of low social class. A control group took part as did the experimental group, too in an academic summer school programme only. No grade improvement was noted in this group.

McClelland and Winter (1969) demonstrated that by raising achievement motivations in adults through courses increases their business activities.

**Definition of Achievement Imagery (AI)**

An achievement situation is one which involves an achievement goal. References to such goals are called Achievement Imagery, and the presence of such imagery in a story is the basis for inferring achievement motivation in the writer. The definition of an achievement goal is "success in competition with standard of excellence", in the "Test of Imagination". This means that the explicit or implicit goal of a character in the story is to compete successfully with a standard of excellence in some line of endeavour. Even if the person should fail to achieve this goal, his concern over competition with the standard enables us to identify the presence of an achievement goal. Also sometimes when a story does not include explicit mention of an achievement goal, there may be certain types of imagery present which allow the scorer to infer that competition with a standard of excellence is implicitly meant.
**Affiliation Motives**

If a person spends his time thinking about establishing, maintaining or restoring positive and affectional or emotional relationship with another person, or group, then we say that he has a need for affiliation. That means he is concerned with friendship and other related affective interpersonal relationships. He derives satisfaction from having such relationships. This may be due to deriving satisfaction from establishing new relationships, restoring old relationships and maintaining (or planning to maintain) old or new relationships.

**Power and Power Motive**:

English word 'Power' derives from the old Latin root potoro, which means "to be able" thus Locke and the British Associationist philosophers argued that from our idea of power from observation of our abilities - from observing in ourselves, that we can at pleasure move several parts of our body which were at rest" (1960, II, 7 VIII).

Freud described the differentiation of the ego and the world in terms of the awareness of power or ability. The child "must be very strongly impressed by the fact that some sources of excitation - can provide him with sensation at any moment, where as other sources evade him from time to time" (1930).

The power motive means a disposition to strive for certain kinds of goals, or to be affected by certain kinds of incentives. People who have the power motive, or who strive for power, are trying to bring
about a certain state of affairs — they want to feel "power" or "more powerful than ..." Power is their goal. Ho would expect that they tend to construe the world in terms of power and to use the concept of "power" in categorizing human interaction, but they do more than that. Not only do they categorize the world in terms of power, but they also want to fool themselves as the most powerful (Duijker, 1961).

Power and Related Concepts

The literature on power is full of discussion about the differences between power and other related concepts such as "influence", "leadership", "authority", "dominance", and "control". From one writer to the next, different words are often used for the same concept and the same word is used for different concepts as Schopler (1965) points out. Russell (1938) differentiated priestly power, kingly power, naked power, revolutionary power, and economic power. Weber (1947) analyzed power (Herrschaft) according to the way in which it was legitimized among followers by appeal to rationality, by tradition, or by the transcendent claims of charisma. French and Raven (1959) distinguished five different kinds of power according to their bases — reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, and expert power. Murray (1938) included dominance, aggression, and autonomy as presumed distinct concepts. Lasswell and Kaplan (1950) considered both the base and the goal of influence in order to generate 64 different forms of the influence process (or power). Duijker (1961) discusses those cases
where person P anticipates the intention of person O and acts accordingly. Such P often says that they acted of their own free will, out of love, friendship, respect, cooperation, or service - but not because of the power of O. Yet, the whole behaviour sequence fits the definition of power. An element of moral evaluation runs through many of the typologies of power. What a particular writer thinks of as "good" power is usually described as "leadership", "guidance", or perhaps "authority", while "bad" power is called "authoritarian dominance", or "coercion".

Winter (ibid) perhaps prefers to think of the broad definition of social power as, "The ability or capacity of "O" to produce consciously or unconsciously intended effects on the behaviour or emotions of another person "P" (The Power Motive, p. 5).

He prefers to think of the broad definition of social power as a semantic space, in which are located all of the power concepts and many others that are not so obviously power related, such as respect, cooperation and loyalty. He describes that three dimensions are enough for most purposes.

First dimension (A) suggests the "Relative inequality of states of strength of "O" and "P".
Second dimension (B) refers to the location of the action sequence in a moral nexus.
Third dimension (C) the resistance of "P".
The Origin of Power

Is power a property of persons or of situations?

In everyday language, power is something that a person or persons have. It is easy and natural to attribute power to people in this way, for we usually perceive power through the effects of specific persons on other specific persons. He might conclude that leaders have power because they have some special uncommon characteristics that successful men of influence have a special kind of power "skill." Just as scholars have a special mental ability or athletics have physical prowess, and that history is the record of actions of "greatmen" who influenced and led the people of their tribes, their faith or their nation. This way of thinking about power has great appeal, both because it is close to our phenomenal experiences of power, and because it allows us to reduce the complexities of human interaction and social structure down to a contest of persons—weak and strong—heroes and villains. This is the personal or "psychological" interpretation of power.

Opposed to such an analysis is the situation interpretation of power. Leaders have power because they are in the right position, or because they happen to have abilities that are required by the situation at the moment; men of influence are drawn from the upper social classes and other small elite groups; the "greatmen" of history are merely symbols of the emergence of growth and decline of such broad social groups or of inevitable historical trends. Those who accept the situational perspective on power often disparage the personal
perspective, because to them it merely reflects the naive ideology of bourgeois individualism and neglects the great impersonal forces of history. In the extreme version of the situation analysis, the powerful man is just the man who happens, scarcely of his own choice or effort to be riding the crest of the right wave at the time when the search light of public attention flickers past in brief illumination.

Studies of the Origin of Power

After World War I, psychologists began to study leadership in a systematic way. They usually accepted the personal interpretation of power, and for several decades they tried to discover that set of physical and personality characteristics that would predict leadership - leadership of almost any sort of group, at almost any sort of task. The results were rather meager (Manr, 1959; Gibb, 1969). There were small positive correlations of leadership (or leadership status) with height, weight, intelligence, and a variety of rather vaguely defined personality traits such as "self confidence", "personality integration", "dominance" and so forth. Results varies considerably from study to study and on the whole were not very impressive.

The Power Motive: Power motive means a disposition to strive for certain kinds of goals, or to be affected by certain kinds of incentives. People who have the power motive, or who strive for power, are trying to bring about a certain state of affairs - they want to feel "power" or "more powerful than ..." Power is their goal (Duijker, 1961).
The sense of internal control of reinforcement, or personal causation, can also be distinguished from the power motive. A person who feels that he controls his own fate may feel power although internal control of reinforcement strongly suggests autonomy, while power seems more akin to "control of the fate of others ..." Thus, the sense of fate control refers to a present state of affairs, a feeling, or an expectancy about attaining a goal. The power motive suggests a striving toward a goal or incentive and such striving could occur in the presence as well as the absence of the goal itself.

Both Machiavellianism and authoritarianism appear to be sentiments about the nature of power, or power as an aspect of man's nature, rather than disposition to strive for power.

Winter (1973) wants to distinguish the power motive from the empirical fact of whether a person occupies a position of power or such positions may be initially allocated on the basis of characteristics such as membership in elite groups. However, over time there is usually some dropping out (non-using of power) at the top, and some recruitment to the ranks of the powerful from below (in common with other analysts, Domhoff calls this ... "cooptation", 1967). The status of having power is the goal of the motive. He would expect that (other things being equal) those high in the power motive will tend to move into positions of power, and that those low in the motive may move out of the positions of power that they have inherited or that they occupy by accident. He thinks that a person's power
status at any one time and his power motive are very different concepts.

Researches on n-Achievement, n-Affiliation, n Power and Personality Variables

Barlow (1961) supported the hypothesis SS with moderate motivation as reflected by an index combining the three motive scores obtained higher sensitivity scores than either highly motivated or relatively unmotivated SS. Need for power and n Affiliation, taken separately showed a similar relationship to interpersonal sensitivity scores despite the fact that the distributions of scores were not positively related.

Mehta (1967) shows that the working class boys tended to show a higher level of n Achievement than the lower middle class boys. The n Achievement subcategories I and N were expressed in large number of stories whereas Ga, Ga, G and G were found in very few stories. A significant low positive relationship was found between n Achievement and total school marks.

Pal (1967) found that engineering students had higher scores on achievement and autonomy. Medical students had higher scores in abasement and nurturance. No difference was found in deference, aggression, succorance and affiliation, etc.

Mehta (1969) found that n-Achievement level in Delhi school boys seemed to compare well with n achievement levels reported of German and US boys, but it was lower than that of Brazilian and Japanese boys. The rural and urban boys showed no difference in their n Achievement.
levels. The composite socio-economic status and the fathers' income showed no difference in r-Achievement level. The boys of fathers with education showed the highest level of r-Achievement. The boys from the semi-professional group (top most on the scale) showed nearly the lowest of r-Achievement with education controlled the working class boys showed a higher level of r-Achievement than that shown by boys from the lower middle class white collar workers group. The r-Achievement showed positive correlation with the total performance at the school annual examination as well as with the performance in individual subjects. The self-expectancy of school success showed a positive correlation with actual success in the annual examination. Motive to avoid failure showed negative correlation with r-Achievement, total school performance and self expected vocational success. Individuals with high r-Achievement and low motive to avoid failure tended to show greater performance at some competitive task of intermediate difficulty.

Siddiqi and Akhtar (1969) revealed that disciplined students scored high on r-Achievement than the indisciplined students, while the indisciplined students scored high on r-Affiliation and r-Powers. Greater variability was observed in disciplined students than the indisciplined students on the three motives.

Gangrade (1970) studied the inter-generational conflict in Indian youth. It shows that younger generation has developed some value framework for its behaviour, modified traditional values and
behaviour may increasingly influence the values of parents in the direction of liberalism. For many parents and their children, the inter-generational conflict will continue to be characterised by the parents in the direction of liberalism. For many parents and their children, the inter-generational conflict will continue to be characterised by the parents playing to ostrich and the youths trying to keep the saved from blowing away. This has led us to conclude that the values of both generations are in tradition.

Gokulnathan (1970) found that in n Achievement and social class, there was a negative and non-significant relationship. The 'r' value shows very significant positive relation between educational achievement and social class. Educational achievement was positively correlated with n Achievement for both boys and girls. Among the socio-economic variables, education of the main wage earner was negatively (non-significant) related to n Achievement of the boys and girls separately. The second SES variable, income of the main wage earner was positively correlated to n Achievement, significant in the case of boys and non-significant in the case of girls. In the case of occupation of the main wage earner the relationship was negative for boys and girls.

Dave (1972) found that each picture of the American set aroused higher achievement motivation, as a result of the Indian set may miss many who in fact have high n Achievement orientation. The reliability quotients for the Indian set were lower than those for the American set.
The correlational indices between the scores on each picture and the total scores for the Indian set was lower than those of the American set.

Desai (1972) found a definite positive correlation between IQ and n-Achievement. n-Achievement scores were found progressively increasing with IQ. The n-Achievement score showed positive relationship with school SES. n-Achievement mean scores of Madras pupils scores was higher than that of German pupils, whereas the Brazil pupils scores and Japan pupils mean n-Achievement scores were much higher than Kaira pupils scores. School achieving status had a positive relationship with pupils n-Achievement score. The n-Achievement scores of pupils of illiterate parents, primary education parents, secondary education parents and graduate parents indicated definite positive and statistically significant relationship between n-Achievement and parental education. The wards of those who were in white collar job, IV class service and business scored significantly higher than those of others.

Uleman (1972) shows in his data that characteristic of n-Power was not real "dominance", but merely "argumentativeness", heavily linked with a fear of being influenced and over compensations for that, as well as expressing greater hostility. It could also be said that it largely resembles the need for status and recognition. Uleman showed in addition that high n-Power persons in situations where power and the possibility of initiative were in question turn rigid, and show their inability to adapt. This explains why this fact was shown
by the third hypothesis though it has not been possible to prove the facts beyond a limited probability that high Power persons tend to spoil the project on which they took the initiative.

Gallimore (1974) found a significant degree of association between STEP-R (Scholastic Test of Educational Progress—Reading) and Affiliation for both boys and girls. STEP-M (Maths) and Affiliation were marginally correlated for boys. Girls Affiliation and Achievement scores were significantly correlated while the boys scores were not, adding another instance of variations within sexes in the pattern of relationship. The girls scored high on STEP-R than boys, but not on STEP-M or number of words written. Girls scores on Maths achievement were marginally higher than reading and with no difference for boys.

Kureshi (1975) studied the adolescent fantasy and youth motivation. It appears from the results that the Achievement of the adolescent differs with sex and the SES variable also contributes to the difference in this motive. It was evident in Affiliation that the main effects of religion and sex were significant at 5 per cent level which shows that Affiliation differs with these two variables. It shows in Power motive that the main effect of religion was significant at 5 per cent level which was indicative of the fact that Power differs with regard to the variable of religion. The aggression motive results indicated that the main effect of age was significant at 1 per cent level. The interaction of age and sex, and age and SES were significant at 5 per cent level. It means that age, sex, SES contribute to the difference in the strength of Aggression. The security motive results show that
main effects of SES was significant at 5 per cent level. The interactions of age and sex were significant at 1 per cent level. The interactions of religion and sex, religion and SES, and sex and SES were significant at 5 per cent level. The Hindu and Muslim adolescents differ considerably with regard to the goal oriented tendency in relation to Aggression and with regard to the threat oriented tendency in relation to Affiliation and Security. The male and female adolescents show appreciable difference in the goal-oriented tendency in relation to Power and Aggression, in the threat oriented tendency in relation to Security and in both the tendencies in relation to Achievement. The older and the younger adolescents differ markedly with regard to the goal oriented tendency in relation to Aggression. The adolescent of the USS group differ considerably from those of MSS group with regard to the goal oriented tendency in relation to Aggression and with regard to the threat oriented tendency in relation to Power. The adolescents of the upper and lower SES group differ considerably with respect to the threat oriented tendency in relation to Achievement and with respect to both the goal-oriented and threat-oriented tendencies in relation to Security. The adolescents of the middle and lower SES group differ appreciably with regard to the threat oriented tendency in relation to power. The mean values of the five motives indicated that Affiliation was the strongest motive, aggression the next strongest, achievement and security moderately strong and power the weakest motive in the sample of the adolescent. Intercorrelation appears only in three of the ten combinations.
significant relationships exist in Achievement and Affiliation, and have an inverse relationship and Affiliation, Power and Power and Aggression have positive relationships. The reason why Affiliation was the strongest of the five motives was that the adolescents were basically sociable and found much delight in coming into contact with other people. Moreover, adolescents being still very much in need of support of others naturally tend to develop a strong need for dependency. It was this need that seems to strengthen Affiliation.

Need for achievement and need for power occupy lower position in the order of intensity. Since the goals to which those motives, as defined in this study were directed respectively imply social recognition and social prestige, they were acquired at a later stage of development and maturity than were the goals relating to security, affiliation and aggression.

Ramirez and Price-Williams (1976) studied the achievement motivation in children of three ethnic groups in the United States. It was found that Mexican-American and Black subjects scored higher on family achievement than did Anglo children, while Anglo children scored higher than Mexican-American and Blacks on Achievement. ANOVA revealed significant ethnic effects for both the family achievement and the achievement data. Sex and SES effects were insignificant for both the Achievement and family achievement. Females in all the three ethnic groups scored higher than the males on family achievement. Results of post-hoc comparisons showed that Mexican-Americans scored
significantly higher than Black Americans on $n$ Achievement and significantly higher than Anglos on family achievement. There was no significant difference between Anglos and Mexican-Americans on $n$ Achievement. Also, Anglo subjects scored significantly higher than Blacks on $n$ Achievement, but Blacks scored significantly higher than Anglos on family achievement.

Stewart and Winter (1976) shows that the use of two different procedures for arousing need for power in men produced the same motive arousal in females. Utilizing TAT type pictures with female and male or female only stimulus figures, data were obtained which suggest that whatever the reasons for previous difficulty with the arousal of $n$ Achievement in women, there was no comparable difficulty with $n$ Power.

Bhargava and Singh (1978) observed that the distribution of scores on $n$ Affiliation were skewed negatively as the median falls below the mean. It can also be observed that academic attainment scores were normally distributed value of mean and median being 191.00 and 190.00 respectively. Skewness value being zero. It also reveals that $n$ Achievement was significantly and positively related to the total school academic attainment. It also indicated that $n$ Affiliation was also significantly related to the academic attainment (.01). It was evident that $n$ Achievement scores and $n$ Affiliation scores were significantly related to the scholastic attainment.
Eggleton (1978) revealed that administrative personnel in libraries were found to be higher in need for achievement than non-administrative but not different in need for affiliation or power. Staff specialists as a group (computer specialists, personnel managers, etc.) were higher in need for achievement and lower in need for affiliation, a finding which was interpreted as a source of possible difficulty as libraries continue to employ more diverse individuals. Evidence was presented which strongly suggested that women librarians were being discriminated against men in terms of salary.

Tewari (1978) indicated that woman managers are significantly different from women in general in their need for achievement and power. Second, women managers' need for affiliation was not significantly different from that of women in general and women managers employed in the manufacturing sector were significantly different from women managers employed in the service sector in their needs for achievement, affiliation and power.

Studies on repr. Affiliation, repr. Achievement and Personality Variables

Byrne (1961) found that experimental conditions and affiliation needs interacted to influence the anxiety self-ratings. In the experimental group, subjects high in affiliation rated themselves significantly more anxious than did those subjects low in affiliation in the control group, affiliation need was unrelated to anxiety ratings. Manipulations designed to arouse affiliation need thus appear to evoke anxiety in persons whose fantasy productions give evidence of concern.
Singh and Kaur (1976) found that primary school teachers with lower educational qualifications tended to score high on anxiety and project the test of achievement. There was low correlation between achievement, affiliation and power and there was zero correlation between achievement and aspirations between achievement and anxiety.

Parameswaran (1958) studies indicate that it did not appear to be any general difference between the two groups of early and late adolescents. In the aspect of dominance submission the late adolescent group showed a significantly higher degree of resentment of parental authority. This rebellion appeared to reach its height during the middle adolescent years of 16 to 18, with its peak at 17 years. In the aspect of acceptance rejection, a significant increase in the maladjustment score indicated a feeling that the parent did not have enough interest in the welfare of the adolescent. The late adolescent group was better emancipated than early tendency, however, to lose interest in studies with age.

Shrivastava and Tiwari (1967) found that highest need achievement score was found in middle class, second in the upper class and lowest in the lower class. The differences between the means was not significant for upper and middle and lower classes, but it was significant between middle and lower class subjects.
Sharma (1960) found that needs of abasement and achievement exist in a greater degree in pre-adolescent students as compared to other needs. Needs of dominance and counteraction were reflected in a very low degree in the inner dynamics of the personality of the pre-adolescent. Need of succorance exists in a greater degree as compared to the need of nurturance. Needs of aggression and intragression have been found to be present in almost equal degree among pre-adolescents. Anxiety was rather more dominant among pre-adolescents as compared to other emotions. Feeling of affection, inferiority and dejection were also dominant in the inner dynamics of their personality. Feeling of guilt exists in a very low degree as compared to other emotions.

Tabackman (1977) found that the families in the study were significantly higher than the norm on a factor of "adult-orientation" compared to the average family. Families with a gifted adolescent saw themselves as more independent, permissive, intellectual, unstructured and harmonious in their interactions. Students perceived the ideal family to be significantly more "child-centered" than their own families. The ideal family environment would be more structured by the parents, would be more supportive and would allow for more recreational activities than do their current family environments. It was found that several of the variables did discriminate significantly between high and low achievers. The families of high achievers were more likely than families of low achievers to perceive their family environment as
cohesive structured and conflict free. They perceived themselves to be less communicative and less active socially and recreationally than did the families of low achievers. High achievers were more likely than low achievers to be congruent with their parents in perceptions of family environment, real-ideal congruence of perceptions was also generally higher among the high achievers. Verbal IQ, but not non-verbal IQ, was higher for high achievers, and high achievers were more likely than low achievers to be female. Grade level and ethnic group membership did not differentiate between high and low achievers.

Prakash (1977) found a significant difference in personality traits at different levels of socio-economic status. There was no significant difference in n Achievement in adolescents between upper middle strata and lower middle strata. Similar was the case with upper-lower strata and lower-middle strata but not true at all with upper-middle strata and upper-lower strata. Personality traits were found to be not related with n Achievement of any level of socio-economic status.

Maturity and Personality Dimensions

Saha (1960) studied the school maturity of high school students. It was found that individual who were socially mature according to Vineland Social Maturity Scale were also highly sociable as indicated by the modified Bernreuters Personality Inventory scores of the male and female subjects which did not show any significant difference either in the SMS or MBPI. But one significant finding was that individuals having high scores in SMS or MBPI were both male and female of the
age group considered in the present study. It was inferred that factors like economic condition and education of parents as well as accommodation and attack of disease have direct bearing on the teen-aged students so far as Social Maturity was concerned.

Suman and Jones (1966) studied that anxiety played its role both in the emotionally mature and immature workers. It was not necessary that a worker who was emotionally mature or immature will be anxious.

Guha and Chakrabarty (1969) found that emotional maturity and neuroticism scores were found to have negative correlation. Chi-square value was also not significant.

Valle and Koescska (1974) found that college students did not support a simple and general relationship of self-actualization, internality, and moral reasoning maturity. Self-actualization was significantly related to internality only for males. Internality was not related to moral maturity. Oloza and Goldman (1975) studied the relationship between self-actualization and psycho-social maturity. It was found that the overall score for psycho-social maturity correlated significantly, in the positive direction with the major scores of the P01 and 8 of 10 complementary scales of the P01. The hypothesis that one's overall levels of psychosocial maturity was positively related to one's level of self-actualization was supported.

Josselson, Greenberger and McConochia (1975) studied the phenomenological aspects of psycho-social maturity in adolescence. The interviews data were analysed to contrast the phenomenological and
psychodynamic forces in the levels of S3 that influence the current state of psychosocial maturity. The growth of impulse control increases in self-esteem, and gain in autonomy were all found to contribute to greater maturity. Heterosexual behaviour by contrast, bore a more complex relationship to psycho-social maturity in adolescence.

Goldman and Olczak (1976) studied the psycho-social maturity and interpersonal attraction. In experiment I, psychosocial maturity and proportion of attitude, similarity were varied. The personality variable failed to affect attraction. In experiment II, psychosocial maturity and proportion of attitude similarity were manipulated in a within SS design. High psychosocial maturity SS rated the stranger significantly higher in attraction at high levels of similarity and significantly lower in attraction at low levels of similarity, when compared to low psychosocial maturity individuals. Results were discussed in terms of design differences in personality research and potential mechanisms by which psycho-social maturity affects attraction (self-esteem and/or competence).

Josselson, Greenberger and McConochie (1977) found a difference between adolescent boys who score at the high and low extremes of the psycho-social maturity inventory were examined. The development of psycho-social maturity was viewed against the background of adolescent ego development. The freedom from impulse, the gains in self-esteem, among others all contribute to a higher degrees of individual and social adequacy. The growth of heterosexual was complex and non-linearly
related to psycho-social maturity.

Josselson, et al. (1977) explored the phenomenological and psychodynamic differences between girls who score at the high and low extremes of the psychosocial maturity. Ability to tolerate anxiety and the developmental use of interpersonal relationships were discussed as central to identify information.

**Birth Order Position and Personality Needs**

Sampson (1962) found a greater need for achievement among first born men as well as women. A number of investigators have however put forward evidence in direct or indirect support of the hypothesis that first borns have a greater need for affiliation than later born persons.

Becker, Lerner and Carroll (1964), in a study of judgements, concluded that first borns were more dependent on others for social support whereas later born persons rely more on others for validation of their beliefs.

Schachter (1964) found first borns choosing more popular people and exhibiting greater similarity of choice than did later borns, they were also less popular than later borns.

Masing (1965) however did not find birth order related to need for affiliation and concluded that situational factors must be taken into account in understanding the influence of birth order on behaviour.
Sinha (1967) studied the birth order and sex differences in need Achievement and need Affiliation. The study confirmed the hypothesis, that need for affiliation was negatively correlated to the need for achievement, actual achievement and the projected level of aspiration.

Mukherjee (1968) found that the first borns coming from the middle class had a significantly higher average need Achievement scores than later borns. The relationship was just opposite for the upper class and no differences were found for the lower class. The study demonstrated that the ordinal position and economic class were joint determinants of need Achievement.

De and Singh (1970) found that persons with high academic motivation had better adjustment as revealed by the significant negative correlation between the two. Family size was not related to academic motivation. The academic motivation appeared to be higher with increased number of siblings. The non multiple range test has proved that only the difference between groups having 3 and 8 siblings was significant, whereas the other 20 comparisons, as there were 7 groups of siblings, were not significant. Birth order was not related to academic motivation.

Sinha and Hassan (1973) revealed that first born students were more authoritarian and had a greater need for achievement than the later born. There was a significant relationship between authoritarianism and need for achievement.
Jawa (1973) conducted a study on birth order and age related changes in anxiety among adolescents. It was indicated that there was no significant relation between ordinal position, age and total anxiety. Anxiety, paranoid tendency factor was found to be significantly related to ordinal position and age. Birth order and age were compared with overt and covert anxiety, the results demonstrated that both the factors (age and birth order) were related to overt anxiety. Subjects were classified on the basis of birth order and age level on covert and overt anxiety, all the groups consistently scored highest on overt anxiety. The middle born group was high on overt anxiety which can be explained due to child rearing practices and attitude of parents in general low and middle born siblings. The reason of 13 years age group to score high on overt anxiety can be explained due to changes in roles and psychological changes.

Psychosocial Maturity and Personal and Social Orientation

Winter (1973) revealed that the male high in n-Power has an emotionally assertive approach to life, whereas the female high in n-Power focuses on building up the self which may be the object of that assertiveness. He found strength in action, she is being a strong resource. This is an over simplified picture, dealing largely with stylistic approaches transcending the level of maturity.

Stewart (1975) on the basis of the data collected at Harvard found that i) successful businessmen are more likely to be genital than less successful ones, ii) genitality among college female is associated
with academic achievement, iii) orality among college students is associated with eating and smoking as well as telephone use, iv) sexuality among college students is associated with ritualistic work behaviour, and detailed style in recounting facts, v) phallic college students report that they drink liquor, talk louder than others, prefer the idea of having several simultaneous relationships rather than just one, and cut classes, and are often late, vi) genital college students report that they like to debate issues with their friends, spend time with the opposite sex at parties (rather than same sex) and like to give gifts to people and social causes.

In a pilot research, Stewart (1975) found encouraging evidence that there may be stage-related change in college (consistent with the theory of verticle decalage, i.e., stage shift initiated by life change). In two samples, a significant difference was found in mean stage level between freshmen and seniors (with freshmen lower, seniors higher).

McClelland and Burnham (1975) have observed high maturity coupled with high power, low affiliation and high inhibition turn out to be entrepreneurial managers.

Rao and Vijayashree (1976) studied management students at IIMA using several measures of psychological needs and personality orientations along with this TAT measures of psychosocial maturity was conducted in 1975-76. The following results were observed:
1. When differences between subjects with different modal stages were analyzed; a) subjects of modal stage I got higher scores on ego-achievement need than those in modal stage II, b) impulsiveness and pleasure seeking activities were reported more in the stage III subjects than others, c) n achievements was higher in first stage subjects than the third stage subjects, d) stage IV dominant subjects reported more involvement in achievement oriented activities and more understanding than the stage I dominant subjects, e) mean n Affiliation score of stage I subjects was higher than that of stage IV subjects.

2. When the differences between subjects under the different dominant content areas were analyzed; a) respondents who depicted object relations dominantly scored low or emotionality and objectivity as compared to those who depicted feelings and action-orientations dominantly, b) n Achievement was higher in those who depicted action-orientations dominantly than in those who depicted feelings, c) those depicting feelings dominantly had higher external-control orientation and high intolerance for ambiguity as compared to those who depicted action-orientations.

3. When differences between those depicting different dominant authority patterns were analyzed; a) those depicting authority as being opposed in their stories reported more aggression, fantasized achievement, pleasure seeking activities, erotic heterosexual interests as compared with those depicting benevolent authority, b) those depicting irrelevant authority reported more interest in achievement related activities, organized and purposeful activity patterns, practical interests, reflectiveness and understanding, c) those depicting irrelevant authority tended to report more acceptance of one's own inadequacies more adaptability, organized activity patterns, persistent striving to overcome difficulties, interest in humanities and social sciences, compulsive organization of the immediate physical environment, practicalness, reflectiveness and high interpersonal trust as compared to those depicting the authority as opposed.
4. When differences between subjects depicting different object relationships dominantly were analysed: a) those depicting differentiation tended to report more achievement related activities, ego-achievement reflecting activities, heterosexual interests, and understanding as compared to those depicting lack of gratification, b) those depicting differentiation dominantly reported more organized and purposeful activity patterns, and trust in others as compared to those depicting flight as dominant pattern.

5. When differences between those depicting different feeling categories were analysed: a) those depicting loss scored higher on N-Affiliation as compared to others, b) those depicting hostility dominantly scored higher on impulsiveness than those depicting loss.

6. When groups depicting different action orientations dominantly were compared: a) those depicting passivity scored high on need for affiliation as compared to those depicting work, b) those depicting work dominantly scored higher than those who have not depicted any action patterns on N-Achievement, and low on narcissism, aggression, sensuality and N-Affiliation. When the overall maturity scores were correlated with the 30 need dimensions of Stern's activities index and thematic measures of N-Achievement, power, and affiliation (assessed from the same stories) only N-Power correlated significantly with the maturity scores. This indicates that as leaders those with high psychosocial maturity strive to influence others.

Rao and Vijayashree (1976) indicated that background variables like age, educational background and industrial experience are not likely to be associated with psychosocial maturity patterns. In the same study the psychosocial maturity scores of different occupational groups were analysed. The average maturity scores of these groups were analysed. The average maturity scores of these groups ranged from
2.24 to 3.12. The percentage distribution of respondents from different occupational groups by their nodal stages indicated that a high percentage of senior managers, medical officers and entrepreneurs fall in Stage IV. Comparatively a high percentage of sales officers, top management in a large company studied and public school head masters had first stage as modal stage. Stage II was found relatively more frequent in senior managers, medical mission sisters and public school headmasters. Stage III was the most frequent in public school headmasters.

Sarabhai (1976) surveyed the psychosocial maturity patterns of 11, 13, 15, 17 and 19 years olds. The following age based trends were observed: i) The 11 year old is likely to fall in modal stage IV with his greatest concern centering around work scheduling; ii) the 13 year old is similar to the 11 year old with more tendencies to be in modal stage II, iii) the 15 year old is likely to be facing crises as he/she is at a crossroad of education and is likely to have a lower modal stage, iv) the 17 year old is likely to move up from the earlier modal stages. While his concern for work continues, the concern about other categories is also likely to increase; v) the 19 year old is at another crossroad of education and tends to fall in Stage I.

Stewart (1979) measured affective development in adults: affiliation. Results strongly indicate that the overall sub-scores for each stage differentiated among the four criterion groups. Analysis of the frequencies of occurrence of each of the sixteen scoring
categories also indicated that ten of the individual categories significantly differentiated the groups. The remaining six were non-significant, but they all did tend in the predicted direction. Other psychometric analysis were also performed. These indicated that inter-rater reliability was .94 and .90 between the author and two individuals personally trained by the author and two individuals who learned the scoring system from the manual only, with no direct training by author. Test-retest reliability assessed with a sample of college students (N=23) tested twice, one week apart was .77 an unusually high figure for projective measures.

An attempt has been made in this review to put together some of the research results in the area of development of psychosocial maturity and motivational patterns. This review indicates that there is still a lot unexplored in this area.