CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE
ON NEED MOTIVATIONS AND
COGNITIVE STYLES

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

2.00 Introduction:

Review of relevant literature formulates a base for any scientific research. It provides the investigator, an insight for deeper exploration on the subject and open new vistas for study. The review makes the researcher aware about the methods and contents of the problems already investigated and presents a diagnostic approach and prepares a solid foundation for the new to be undertaken. A careful analysis of the relevant literature pin-pointedly suggests the gap that exists in the literature in the field. Thus, it is evident that review of relevant literature not only prepares a valid base for future researches but it also pin-points the existing gap in the literature which could be filled in by the future researches and thereby advances the frontiers of existing body of knowledge.

Keeping in view the significance of review of literature, the researcher has closely analysed the existing relevant literature on need motivations and cognitive style.
The studies cited in the Annual Review of Psychology, Management review as well as papers abstracted in the American Psychological Abstract for the last 15 years from (1972 - 1987) have been taken as representative literature.

All available papers from other sources published during these periods were carefully analysed and classified under the following heads:

I: Studies on need Motivations with special reference to nnoch, napp, n Aff. and n Power.

II: Studies on cognitive style with special reference to Atkinson's Field-Dependence-Independence;

III: Integrated studies on cognitive style and need motivations with special reference to industrial personnel.

2.10 Review of Relevant Studies on
Need Motivations:

2.11 Studies on Need for achievement:

Literature available in APA and Annual Reviews of Psychology for the last 15 years have been systematically analysed, recorded and presented under the following heads:

I: Effect of sex, climate and job-status on Achievement motivation:

Zander, Alvin (1974, p. 64-69) studied the effect of Job-status on productivity and group success among
business managers. Research indicated that group motivation both to achieve success and to avoid failure is an important aspect of on-the-job performance. Group goal can be increased by developing a sense of unity. Individuals low in motivation, to succeed become more highly motivated when placed in situations to fostering group motivation for success. Fineman, Stephen (1975, p. 113-124) also supported Anand Alvin's study and found that a positive correlation between achievement and performance would be more likely to occur when the manager perceives the job climate in strong achievement terms.

Tripathi and Agrawal (1978, p. 97-103) analysed the role of achievement motivation in students leaders and non-leaders and found that the Achievement Motivation of the leaders were more in respect to the non-leaders.

Anantharaman (1979) has critically discussed the Achievement motivation among management, supervisors and workers. Analysis of data showed that managers have higher achievement motivation than the supervisors and workers.

B: Risk taking behaviour and Achievement Motivation:

Athanassiadou et al. (1974, p. 195-209) studied risk taking behaviour in upward communication by female subordinates. Results indicated that insecure female subordinates with a low propensity to take risk will distort their upward communication more than those with high-risk taking propensity.
Singh, Satvir et al. (1977, p. 14-17) accounted for the risk taking among entrepreneurs in small scale industries. Results showed that high scores on achievement motivation and moderate scores on risk-taking were associated with business success; low scores on achievement motivation and high scores on risk-taking were associated with declining business.

Kowekawska et al. (1980, p. 257-267) studied the model of decision making under risk on achievement motivation. Results indicated that too high probabilities of success made the risky decision inferior to a safe one. Asymmetry between the motive to achieve success and to avoid failure emerged, which have been treated as complementary in the past. Litwin (1958) found that subjects with high on achievement showed a greater preference for intermediate odds in a horse race game in which the outcome depended not at all on skill, but on the turn of a card. But Littig (1959) has found that in a true gambling situation subjects with high on achievement preferred the highest probability of success.

C: Effect of training on achievement:

Varja, Keroly (1977, p. 187-200) evaluates the impact of 5 achievement motivation programmes in 5 different countries. Several of the reports on these programmes in several cultures indicated that not all who undergo training are equally benefitted. An improvement in motivation and an increase in actual success; both contribute
to the self-sustaining character of the process in such way that raise a person's internal attribution, especially ability.

b: **effect of locus of control on achievement motivation:**

A study was conducted on locus of control on school children by Chan *et al* (1978, p. 104-110). They examined the implications of research on locus of control and achievement motivation for the practicing educational psychologists. It was suggested that locus of control and achievement motivation influence the ways in which a child approaches school-related task, interprets the outcomes of tasks, selects tasks and persists in activities.

Lefcourt (1976), and Dotter *et al* (1965) described that the perception of event, whether positive or negative, may be a consequence of one's own action, known as internal locus of control, or he may perceive that his behavior is not controlled by his own values, expectations, or experiences, but rather by luck, chance, or future uncertainty known as external locus of control. It was observed that level of aspiration and achievement are affected by the sex variable. Gjesme (1973); Nobanty (1972) and *etake* (1973) reported that the girls under-estimate their subjective probability of success compared to their counterparts. Later on Ahmed (1985) supported the study, based on *Ach*, Risk-taking propensity, locus of control on the entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs. Results indicated a
a positive relationship between entrepreneurship and
Problem, internal locus of control and risk-taking propensity.

I: **Effect of sex and education on Achievement Motivation:**

Vollmer (1973, p. 91-95) studied the perception of
female undergraduates on TAT. Analysis of the net hope
and barrier scores could be due to the strong negative
relationship between fear of failure and barrier scores
and net hope scores around zero had notably low barrier
scores, due to both high hope of success and fear of
failure.

A study on self-confidence was conducted by
Sudhakara (1963, p. 87-91) on post-graduate students to
measure the level of self-confidence and achievement.
Results indicated that the postgraduate students were signif-
icantly high in their self-confidence and achievement
motivation.

II: **Effect of Social Cultural aspects on Achievement Motivation:**

Javillonar et al. (1973, p. 314-325) studied the
sociological and social-psychological aspects of entrepre-
nership, and opined that these aspects may be more meaning-
fully related to situational factors than to individual's
need for achievement. The role of the extended family in
business ownership was particularly important in the study.
Sinha et al. (1975, p. 26-32) studied the need achievement on the tribal and non-tribal college male and female students. Results indicated that female differed significantly in their achievement level, more than did males. When tribals were compared with non-tribals findings suggested that the relationship between birth-order and need for achievement is not simple and direct.

Christian (1979, p. 48-56) studied the female subjects. Results indicated that male need for achievement was high and was affected by age/socio-economic status, background, fear of failure, and hope of success.

3: Individual difference in Achievement Motivation:

Niebuhr et al. (1982, p. 249-255) studied the influence of individual characteristics on performance of the under-graduate students. Results suggested that in stable situations, performance is better predicted by skills than by personality characteristics but motivation became more important when the situation is complex or stressful.

According to the studies conducted by Atkinson and Weitman (1956), Atkinson (1958), Lowvan (1956), it has been shown that people with high n Achievement are not influenced by money rewards. They are interested in achievement. People with low n achievement on the other hand are influenced by money and can be made to work harder for money or other such external incentives.
The studies conducted by Rosen and D'Andrade (1959) show the difference in the behaviour of the mother and father of sons with high and low achievement. Both, the mothers and fathers of the boys with high achievement set higher standards of excellence than did the mothers and fathers of boys with low achievement.

2.12 Studies on Need for Approval:

Relevant studies available from various sources as mentioned above were analysed and classified as under:

(a) Effect of Perceptual and Social Dependence:

A study was made by Tripathi and Tripathi (1981, p. 14-15) to examine the effect of social and field dependence on approval motivation. Results indicated that the Non-Rame-Test revealed its significant main effect on approval motive. Interaction of approval and sex was also significant. On the measure of social dependence, approval and sex both yielded significant main effects.

The above study was supported by Zuber, Irena (1981, p. 97-105) who presented the effect of age on self-esteem and perceptual sensitivity based on the criterion of strength of social approval motive of school students. Results indicated that the 3 effects, i.e., self-esteem, errors in recognition and strength of social approach on their interaction were significantly affected by interaction, of self-esteem and strength of social approval. Subjects with defensive low self-esteem showed the strongest tendency to
to avoid self-confrontation, and they showed increased sensitivity to the picture of disliked persons whereas subjects with defensive high self-esteem had the strongest tendency to narcissistic projection.

Farnka, David et al. (1976, p. 324-41) studied the interaction dimensions of self-esteem on social approval using the school and college students. The review suggested that various writers have expressed dissatisfaction with a model of self-esteem which gives pre-emptory emphasis to the approval of others as its only source. Results show that feed back from one's own actions on an impersonal environments is viewed as an analytically distinct dimension of self-esteem. It was found that both inner and outer dimensions can be seen as a sociological belongingness. Later on this study was supported by Sinith (1953).

(b) Effect of Sex and Locus of Control on Approval Motivation

Girishwar Mishra et al. (1961, p. 21-23) investigated the relationship between approval motive and three aspects of locus of control, i.e. internal, chance and powerful others, using subjects of both the sexes. Results showed that high approval motive subjects were significantly more external and less chance oriented as compared to low approval motive. In regard to powerful others, the main effect to approval was not significant, while sex yielded a significant main effect.
(c) **Effect of Sex and Educational level on Approval Motivation:**

Whaley-Klahn *et al.* (1976, p. 283-290) looked at the response of boys and girls to a behaviourally school attitude towards approval and disapproval. Results indicated that boys and girls did not differ in reporting how frequently their teachers distributed approvals and disapprovals 'to the whole class.' Boys' attitudes towards being in the classroom were more negative than girls. Results suggested that sex differences in school attitude are at least partially determined by differential teacher behaviour towards boys and girls.

(d) **Effect of Personality on Approval Motivation:**

A study was conducted by Heisler *et al.* (1982, p. 743-750) to investigate the effect of situational and personality influence on the reception of provocative response on undergraduate students. The interaction between S's need for approval and their reception of provocative response was explored along with the sender had upon the S's reactions. Familiarity with the speaker affected the way the content of a message was received. Results indicated that being warm/or empathic before being assertive was favoured.

Yoshide *et al.* (1982, p. 120-127) also studied the effect of personality in 2nd, 3rd and 5th graders and (1) the relationship of SP (self-presentation) to the awareness of evaluation by target persons (TP). It was
was found that with an increase in the number of TPs of whom 3rd graders were aware they learned to present themselves deprecatingly both to known and newly met TPs. In the 5th grade girls, Ss depended on the TP, in that they based their SP on the TPs knowledge of them and presented an enhanced view of themselves to TPs who did not know them.

(e) Effect of Social Perception on Approval:

Social perception is highly influenced by the strength of approval motive, its arousal and types of information given regarding the perceptual stimuli (N.K.M. Tripathi, 1985). High approval motivated group of Ss are more conforming to situational demands and group's presence as compared to low approval motivated group Ss. High approval motivated group of Ss are more responsible to social reinforcement under verbal conditioning in contrast to LAG Ss. Further, HAG Ss are more prone to change their attitudes after improving an audience-directed communication (Carlow and Crowne, 1961).

The strength of approval seeking is an important factor in determining perceptual dependence. High approval motivated group of Ss tend to be outer-directed while lower approval motivated group of Ss display inner-orientedness. L-G Ss are field independent whereas HAG are field dependent. It has been found that L-G Ss are cognitively complex and more analytical while HAG Ss are cognitively simple (Tripathi, 1980).
Research by Crowne and Marlowe (1964) indicates that a person with a high need for approval is influenceable, credulous, and quite dependent on others for cues. He avoids situations that threaten his self-esteem and uses responsive denial defenses against feeling of hostility (Rosenfeld, 1967) by the subjects.

2.13 Studies on Need for Affiliation:

Relatively, the studies on need Affiliation were insufficient. They were extracted from various sources as mentioned above and were classified as under:

(a) Effect of Anxiety on Affiliation Motive:

Nayar and Helareich (1971) found that in females fear or anxiety-producing manipulations increased their affiliative desires. Willems et al. (1972) and Paz and Amir (1974) found high anxiety to be associated with high affiliation. Basu (1979) found among school students high affiliation motive being positively correlated with high anxiety.

(b) Effect of Fear of Success on Affiliation Motivation:

Nyland, Michael E. and Mancini, Anthony (1985, Dec. p. 1) studied that fear of success can lead to loss of friendship in 65 women and 30 men. Result indicated that there were no sex differences on any of the measures, and correlations between fear of success and fear of affiliation were not significant.
(c) **Effect of Age, Sex and Education on Affiliation Motivation**

Touliatou, Byron W. *et al.* (1975, p. 49-54), studied the effect of *n* Ach and *n* affiliation in brain-injured and normal children and their parents. The results indicated that the achievement needs of the mothers were positively related to their children's behaviour and the achievement needs of the fathers were negatively related to their children's behaviour. Prabhu (1976) supported the above study and examined the relationship between achievement and affiliation on senior post-graduate students in business management, economics, sociology and psychology, etc. Results found that *n* affiliation would be inversely correlated with *n* Ach and that group orientation would be positively correlated with *n* Ach.

Crew (1982) studied the effect of sex on affiliation motivation among Black business majors. Results indicated no significant difference in this need between male and female business majors. Results indicated that the need structure of the contemporary Black women may place her at a disadvantage in the management profession, relative to her main college.

The role of age and sex variables in the pattern of affiliation behaviour has been the subject matter of several studies.
Booth (1972) found that women had more contact with their close friends, and engaged in more spontaneous activities. Mascoby and Jackline (1975) reviewed the evidence concerning the depth of boys and girls friendship behaviour and found that there was no difference between them. They suggested that as they grow older, boys interact more often with friends and peers.

Sex difference in psychosocial behaviour increased with age. This study was supported by Agrawal and Upadhyaya (1983) and found that there was significant difference between the male and female groups but no difference was found between the adult and adolescent groups.

A study was conducted on Intimacy and Affiliation motives in daily living by Kedams (1983). This study reported that intimacy motivation was negatively associated with wishes to be alone when interacting with others, whereas affiliation motivations were positively associated with expressed wishes.

2.14 Studies on Need for Power:

Studies on need for power are relatively not as many as on need for achievement. The current literature collected from various available sources was rather insufficient and insignificant. A few outstanding studies on power motivation have been presented here:
(a) **Effect of sex and job-status on Power Motivation:**

Bliquies Fathima (1984, p. 68) has high-lighted the effect of job status on power motive among student leaders and non-leaders. Results on power motive was found to be significantly stronger among leaders than non-leaders. There was no significant difference in the strength of power motive between leader boys and leader girls and so also between non-leader boys and non-leader girls. The leader boys showed a stronger power motive than their non-leader counterpart. Wiley and Eskilson et al (1982, p. 671-677) also supported the study of Bliquies Fathima. He studied the interactional effect of sex and power based on perception of managerial effectiveness. Results showed that the power strategy resulting in less positive rating for men. Regardless of the power strategy used a man was more likely to be assumed subordinate than a woman.

Brief, Arthur, P., et al (1976, p. 289-295) studied the effect of sex on job-status in power motive among female and male nurses and their supervisors in attribution of motivation and social distance. Results showed that supervisors who perceived themselves to be relatively power motivated reported a greater social distance from their subordinates than less powerful supervisors. Kipins et al’s (1976) study was also based on Brief, Arthur et al (1976), he examined subordinates reactions to supervisor, power was shown to be unrelated to the subordinates attributions.
Imai (1982, p. 98-101) made a study on the determinants of power-holder's self and interpersonal perceptions. The results found were that the amount of power exercised influenced evaluation of the managers' contribution to the company, willingness to retire the workers rating of the workers to succeed.

Bibion (1976, p. 207) studied the effect of power motivation on job-status in the heroic leader. Adolph Hitler's unprecedented power over the German people was analysed from the perspective of Individual Psychodynamic and mass psychohistory.

Tasaki (1982, p. 155-168) studied the effect of power status and power resources in class room. Results showed that attributed (i) 'affiliation' and 'cheerfulness' to the power holders in the class room and (ii) 'leadership' 'superiority' and 'achievement' in addition to 'affiliation' and cheerfulness to 7s of higher power status.

Earl and Jeffrey (1977) studied the power motive under the heading "who gets power and how they hold on to it: A strategic contingency model of power", and presented a model suggesting that power is something that accrues to organisational subunits to enhance their own survival through control of scarce critical resources, through the placement of allies in key positions, and through the definition of organizational problems and policies. Definitions and sources of organizational problems and policies are discussed, the concept of power-sharing is examined,
environmental characteristics that can turn into critical contingencies in the development of power on decision making is described. Adaptation to organizational crises and its relationship to executive selection are examined. The view that power because of the way it develops and the way it is used, will always results in the organization suboptimisations its performance is also advanced.

(b) **Effect of Perceptual and Attitudinal Differences among Management Levels**

Leigh and Rutrell (1985) studied the perceptions and attitude related to social power, management control systems and organizational climate. Results indicated that non-marketing executive as at higher managerial levels had more favourable perception of their jobs and were more satisfied with them. Related to marketing management, managers, presidents and others had more positive perception of the management control system, and organisational climate, greater job-satisfaction, a greater perception of legitimate and social power, and higher satisfaction with pay and promotions.

(c) **Effect of Education on Sex**

A study by Afzal Nareshi et al (1984, p. 21-24) highlighted the relation of power motive to education and sex among students leaders and non-leaders. Power motive was found to be significantly stronger among leaders than non-leaders. There was no significant
difference in the strength of power motive between non-leader boys and non-leader girls.

A study was conducted by McClelland et al. (1980, p. 6-15) to know the effect of power motive on physical illness, and stress. It was found that Ss scoring high on the need for power, on inhibition, and on the number of power stresses, reported more severe physical illness and affective symptoms than all other Ss. Ss with higher n Power and high inhibitions on power stress also reported more severe physical illness.

McClelland et al. (1975, p. 266-285) accounted for the difference in risk taking behaviour among people of high and low in the need for power in male undergraduates. It was concluded that the model which works best for all Ss in predicting choice of power alternative is based on the value the subjects assign to the alternative rather than on cross product of value times the expectation of winning.

Fiedler's (1974, p. 317-327) theory of leadership postulates a contingency model to determine whether an interaction exists between personality traits and situational variables within the leadership. Taking into consideration the contingency theory, Sorenson et al. (1977, p. 61-76) studied on the measurement of interorganizational power, to study the relationship on other perspective of organizations. This study indicated that greater attention
need to be given, to the need to tailor the instrument to each organization; its relationship to more objective measure of control and study findings that cannot currently be explained by contingency theory.

(d) **Effect of Motivation on Psychomotor Task:**

Jitendra Mohan (1974, p. 19-21) studied psychomotor task with reference to personality scores. The results significantly indicated a positive determination of reminiscence through differential verbal instructions.

(e) **Effect of Power Motive and Power Stress on Activation:**

Rodor (1984) conducted a study on 80 college males to determine the influence of power motive and power stress on activation. In this investigation the third group acted as supervisors. Results indicated that supervisors high in *n* Power showed greater motivation in response to group stress than did those low in *n* Power.

(f) **Organizational Power Styles: as Related to Collective and Competitive Power Under Varying Organizational Conditions:**

Roberts Nancy (1986) have thrown light on organizational power style. This study was conducted on 350 managers from 3 levels of management in 2 business and 2 universities, to study the extent to which managers exercise both competitive and collective power with bosses, peers and subordinates and the extent to which this exercise is related to organizational factors. Results indicate that managers exercised
both collective and competitive power in all role relationship and that the type of power exercised was associated with resource availability and organizational form.

2.15 A Global View of Studies on Need Motivations:

Bosworth (1985) conducted a study to know the effect of different measuring methods on the relationship of motives and also to see whether the needs for achievement, n-Ach and power dominance are interdependent. This study was conducted on 45 male and 45 female under-graduate. Significant correlations were found for n-Ach, n-Aff and n-Power done on the TAT. The n-Ach vs n-Aff correlations were also significant on the LFS, n-Aff vs n-Pow-Dim approached significance. The n-Ach and n-Pow-Dim did not significantly correlate on either test with regard to sex differences: Males had higher n-Ach and n-Pow-Dim; females had greater n-Aff on both the tests. There were also significant correlation between the two techniques of measuring the motives.

Chusmir (1985) examined sex differences in n-Ach, n-Aff and n-Pow motivations of 62 male and 62 female organization managers. Results indicated that women who enter management may have greater managerial potential and may be more success-prone than male managers.

A cross-cultural study of difference between achievement, power and affiliation motivation was conducted on Iranian & U.S. managers by Harrell (1971). His results
indicated that there was no significant difference between the groups in need for \textit{aff.}, but the Iranian group scored distinctively higher on need for power and lower on need for achievement than the US group.

Different cultures also play a significant role in need for motivation. Education, religion and modernity also very much affect the need for motivation. Numerous sociologists and social psychologists have made extensive studies of the socio-cultural setting of the motivation among the entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs. Nandy (1973) has studied the various aspects of socio-cultural forces and cultural components. Results indicated that the social and psychological skills required by entrepreneur competence are different from those required for entry into entrepreneurial activity. The sub-cultural differences in competence were suggestive but not significant.

Rowen (1973) studied the relationship between achievement, power and affiliation motivation among businessmen and managerial personnel. Although the samples were unrepresentative of the general population, 3 of 20 reported correlations between \( n_Ach \) and \( n_{Aff} \), were significant although none exceeded 0.30; only 1 significant (\( n_{Aff} \) - \( n_{Pow} \)) correlation was found. Results indicated that 3 motives are generally uncorrelated. Since all studies reported used men as \( \& \), it is suggested that a shortage of data on sex differences and
female Ss precludes a thorough analysis of these correlations.

Crew (1982) studied the need motivations \( n \) row, \( n \) iff, \( n \) pp, \( n \) ach between black male and female under-graduate business students. Findings indicate no significant difference in these need motivations, between males and females. Results indicated that the need structure of the contemporary black women may place her at a disadvantage position in the management profession, than their male colleague.

Fanson, Avonne and Blankenship (1987) studied the associations among \( n \) row, \( n \) iff on the stressful life events of psychological and physical abuse among 47 male and 107 female college undergraduates. Results indicated that life events that were perceived as being negative were associated with both the infliction and the receipt of abuse for women but not for men. High \( n \) row was significantly associated with the infliction of physical abuse on their partner by men. For women \( n \) iff and activity inhibition moderated the effect that stress has on the infliction of abuse. Highly stressed women with high \( n \) iff and low activity inhibition were the most likely to inflict abuse.

2.20 Review of Relevant Studies on Cognitive Styles:

Studies on cognitive style were collected from current literature and from various other sources. A
few outstanding studies on cognitive style have been presented here:

(a) **Effect of cognitive style on education, thinking and learning and vice-versa**

Hutteau (1963) studied the effect of field-dependence and independence on operational thinking. Findings showed that independent of S's age, the strength of the relationship between cognitive style and operational level of development will vary depending on the test used for its assessment. It is suggested that this interaction between cognitive style and test instrument used in assessing developmental level negates the claim that cognitive style is equivalent to intelligence.

Kane (1964) has highlighted the effect of thinking and learning on cognitive style, and found that individuals utilize consistent strategies in both giving and receiving information. The most successful learner are those that are more flexible in their cognitive style, incorporating visual/spatial and holistic skills along with verbal, analytic and detail oriented strategies. Less successful learner tend to rely exclusively on one or the other of these 2 styles, most often because they are unaware of the alternative available to them.

Faschingbauer et al (1978) have thrown light on cognitive style, dogmatism, creativity andsome
implications regarding cognitive development with reference to the undergraduate students. Considering these data and available literature the authors argued that failure to develop formal operational abstract thinking leaves a person especially vulnerable to dogmatic dependence on authority figures. Such a cognitive view of the etiology of dogmatism suggests education as a reasonable alternative to environmental manipulation in reducing bias.

(b) Effect of age, sex and Training on Cognitive Style:

Morrell (19) studied the effect of age and sex on persons susceptibility to field dependence training; and also studied whether the field dependence phenomenon is a function of "cognitive Style" or a persons general inability to make correct judgement in the face of too much confusing and inaccurate information. Results indicated that age, more than sex, may be a function of both cognitive style and general ability to perceive the upright.

2.30 Effect of Cognitive Style on Achievement Motivation:

Chin, Lian hwang (1985) studied the relation between cognitive style, academic achievement and emotional responsiveness in 50 analytic and 50 non-analytic Chinese 4th and 5th graders living in Taiwan. Findings showed that the academic achievement of the analytic Ss
was significantly higher than that of non-analytic Ss, non-analytic Ss scored higher on anxiety than analytic Ss. This study was further supported by Roach (1985), who studied the effects of field dependence conceptual style preference, intelligence and sex on the reading achievement of 418 6th graders in Jamaica, West Indies. Results further showed that reading achievement had significant correlation with field independence, analytic conceptual style, intelligence and gender and that female demonstrated higher achievement. But it was found that when intelligence was factored out the relation between reading achievement and cognitive style became non-significant.

(a) *Relationship of locus of control, cognitive style, anxiety and academic achievement:*

Ismail, Maznali and Long (1985) studied the relationship of locus of control, cognitive style, anxiety and academic achievement on 375 3rd grade Malaysian students from lower socioeconomic status. Results show that locus of control, anxiety and cognitive style were individually related to academic performance. The superior academic performance of the Ss who were internally oriented, field-dependent, or less anxious may have been due to the common relationship with general intellectual ability shared by the personality variables and academic achievement.
(b) **Effect of Academic Achievement as a Function of Their Cognitive Styles**

Saracho, Olivia (1984) studied the young children's academic achievement as a function of their cognitive styles, to determine whether field-independent students show higher levels of academic achievement than field-dependent students and the extent to which these differences are affected by sex and grade level. The obtained results were nonsignificant. Results of the study suggest that the student's cognitive styles and grade level are related to one another as well as to the student grade level and sex (independent of cognitive style).

(c) **Effect of Cognitive Style on Power Motivation**

Mula, Linda L. (1985) examined the relation between structural theories, expectation states theory and attribution theories of gender and power difference in the correspondence proposed between the effects of gender on behavioural power use and on the cognitive dimension of power use on 80 male and 80 female undergraduate students. The observed results indicate that gender had almost no independent effects on mean power use or on mean evaluations of the powerful persons, personality, competence or power-gender did have consistent and significant effects, on actual power use and the legitimation of power affect evaluations of the powerful person.
2.40 **Generalisation from the Review of Relevant Literature**

The review of literature available from different sources reveals that the existing researches conducted so far on the four need motivations in India and abroad are not only insufficient and inadequate but also insignificant. The present study not only helps us in advancing the frontiers of knowledge on need motivation of industrial employees, but it also helps us in elevating its status.

Researches on Motivation have rather caught the attention of numerous researchers. However, many studies have been done in the Educational and Political areas, but very few and insignificant studies have been conducted till now on industrial employees taking into consideration the four need motivations (e.g. n Ach, n App, n Aff and n Power).

Studies on need motivations conducted on various kinds of samples drawn from industrial setting are rather scanty and scattered; very few dependable studies on need motivations have been conducted which demonstrate the biological and socio-cultural significance of demographic variables as predictor of different kinds of need motivations. Such a dearth of research has diverted the attention of the present researcher, to go for further researches, which would take into consideration all the
Your need motivations: n Ach, n App, n Aff and n Pow. and their 'variance' in an industrial world.

The non-existence of significant studies pertaining to the need motivations of industrial employees i.e., managers and workers, has created a gap in the existing literature which could be filled in essentially by the present study. Considering the problems faced by the executives and non-executives, by the administrative and academic authorities, and the difficulties encountered by members of society at large, the present study would help the researcher in providing a relevant solution that seems to be evasive from this point of view. The present study is not only very relevant, but it also plays a significant role in the social upliftment of the society. The results obtained from this study will enhance the existing body of knowledge on motivation in general and need motivations in particular.

4.00 Rationale for the Present Study:

The review of relevant literature clearly indicates that numerous studies have been conducted on n achievement. But very insufficient and insignificant studies have been conducted on n Power, n Aff and n App. Further till now no such study has been conducted which takes into consideration all the four need motivations, more over no study on these four need motivations of managers and workers giving a differential status of
their motivational potentiality in the light of their age, educational level and cognitive styles has come to our notice. In view of these limitations in the existing literature, a serious gap has been found. Hence in order to fill this gap the present study entitled, "Need Motivation as a function of Job-status, Cognitive styles, age and Educational Status of the Industrial employees" was undertaken, with a view to serve the following objectives.

2.60 Statement of the Problem:

The best way of meeting the purpose of any scientific inquiry is to frame a research-worthy problem. Keeping in view the theoretical status of the human side of enterprise, the lacuna in the available empirical literature and the objective stated in Chapter I, therefore, the problems of the present study have been conceptualized in terms of the interrogative statements, it being the best formate of expressing as mentioned by Kerlinger (1971). As such the problems of the present study have been pin-pointedly stated as under:

(1) Whether there exists any systematic relationship among the four need motivations namely n-ich, n-Af, n-App and n-Power and if so, what type, which direction and to what extent?
whether the managers differ significantly in their need for achievement, Power, Approval and Affiliation, from their counterpart workers, and if so in which need and to what extent?

whether age and educational status play a significant role in the developmental potentialities of these power needmotivations and if so, at what level and to what extent, and in which type of needmotivations?

Out of the four motives namely, n Ach, n App, n Aff and n Power, which motives are having some systematic connection with cognitive style and as to how and to what extent variations in these motives are explicable in the light of cognitive style (c-A-C-I) of the managers and workers, differing in age and educational status?

whether age, job-status, educational status and cognitive style (c-A-C-I) have interactional effects on each of the four need motivations; and if so which combination of the interacting variables is more effective and to what extent?

2.70 Formulation of the Hypotheses:

Before formulating the hypotheses, one should very clearly know what is hypothesis. Hypothesis is a tentative solution to the problem; a guess or a
conjunctural statement expressing the relationship between variables. Formulation of a hypothesis is an essential aspect of scientific investigation. It makes the problem of the study more vivid and meaningful which in turn, helps the investigator to design his research so as to arrive at an empirical solution to his/her research problems.

Keeping in view the significance of formulation of hypothesis, in the present study, some testable hypotheses have been formulated and in addition to the four types of need motivation as the main dependent variables around which the investigation has been centered, four independent variables, namely, age, educational status, job-status and I-E have also been included in the present study with a view to know their relative effects upon the need motivations (i.e. n-act, n-app, n-aff and n-row). And as such, keeping in view the theoretical and empirical properties of these variables, and the nature of the problem stated earlier, the following research-worthy hypotheses, classified under three suitable sets, namely, correlational, differential and intersectional, were set up for verification.

A: **Correlational Hypotheses:**

In the correlational hypotheses, inter-correlation among the four need motivations (n-ach, n-app, n-aff and n-row) and each motive’s relation with cognitive style and age have been conceptualized as under:
$H_1(c)$: "A significant positive relationship would exist between \( n \) Approval and \( n \) Affiliation of the workers whereas a negative relationship would exist between -

(1) \( n \) Achievement and \( n \) Approval
(2) \( n \) Achievement and \( n \) Affiliation
(3) \( n \) Achievement and \( n \) Power
(4) \( n \) Approval and \( n \) Power
(5) \( n \) "Affiliation and \( n \) Power" among the managers.

$H_2(c)$: "A significant positive relationship would exist between \( n \) Achievement and \( n \) Power and \( n \) Affiliation and \( n \) Power of the Managers, whereas a significant negative relationship would prevail between -

(1) \( n \) Achievement and \( n \) Approval
(2) \( n \) Achievement and \( n \) Affiliation
(3) \( n \) Approval and \( n \) Affiliation
(4) \( n \) Approval and \( n \) Power" among the managers.

$H_3(c)$: "In case of Managers, \( n \) Achievement, and \( n \) Power would respectively show positive relationship, with the scores of field-independence, whereas in case of workers, \( n \) Approval and \( n \) Affiliation would respectively show positive relationship with the scores of field-independence".
$H_4(C)$: "In case of managers age will show negative relationship with field-independence, but positive relationship with need for approval and need for affiliation, whereas its relationship with $\alpha$ Power and $\alpha$ Achievement will be positive; however, in case of workers, age will show negative relationship with field-independence, but positive with need for approval and affiliation, whereas its relationship with $\alpha$ Power and $\alpha$ Achievement will be negative."

**B: Interactional Hypotheses:**

With an intention to offer 'multiple causal' explanation to the variance, existing in the need motivations of the managers and workers, an attempt has been made to explain "Individual differences" in $\alpha$ Achievement, $\alpha$ App, $\alpha$ Aff and $\alpha$ Power in the light of age, educational status and cognitive style: FI-FD. As much different sets of interactional hypotheses for each job-status (Managers and Workers) were set up, as under:

$H_5(I)$: "Achievement motivation of the managers would be significantly affected by their educational status and cognitive style: FI-FD, whereas age would not show any significant main effect. Relatively, the effect of educational status on Achievement Motivation of the managers would be greater than their cognitive style: FI-FD."
H₆(I): "Approval motivation of the managers would be
significantly affected by their age and cognitive
style: FI-FD whereas their educational status
would not show any significant effect. Relatively
the main effect of age on managers Approval
Motive would be greater than their cognitive
style: FI-FD".

H₇(I): "Affiliation Motivation of the Managers would
be significantly affected by their cognitive
style: FI-FD. The other two sources of main
variance; namely, age and educational status
would not show any significant effect on their
Affiliation Motives".

H₈(I): "Power motivation of the managers would be signi-
ficantly affected by their cognitive style:
FI-FD and educational status: However the main
effect of the latter would be more than the
former. Age, as such, would not show any signi-
ficant effect on power motive of the managers".

H₉(I): "Achievement motivation of the workers would not
be significantly affected by either of the three
main sources of variance, namely, age, educa-
tional status and cognitive style: FI-FD; however,
the interactional effect of (age x educational
status) would be significant".
H₁₀(I): "Approval motivation of the workers would be significantly affected by their age and cognitive style: FI-FD; however, the relative main effect of the former would be greater than the matter. Educational status, as such, of the workers would not show any significant effect on their approval motive".

H₁₁(I): "Age would show highly significantly main effect on the affiliation motives of the workers, whereas the main effects of educational status and cognitive style: FI-FD of the workers would not be significant".

H₁₂(I): "Power motives of the workers would not be affected significantly by either of the three main sources of variance; namely, age educational status and cognitive style: FI-FD".

H₁₃(I): "There would be highly significant effect on job-status and cognitive style: FI-FD of the industrial personnel on their Achievement Motivation; however, the relative main effect of the former would be greater than the latter. Age, as such, would have no significant effect on achievement motivation of the industrial personnel".
$H_{14}(I)$: "Both age and cognitive style would have significant effect on Approval of the industrial personnel; however, the relative effect of the former would be greater than the latter. Job-status, as such, would have no significant effect".

$H_{15}(I)$: "Affiliation motivation of the industrial personnel would be significantly affected by their job-status and cognitive style: $FI-FD$; however, the relative effect of the former would be greater than the latter. Age would have no significant effect on the Affiliation motive of the industrial personnel".

$H_{16}(I)$: "Both job-status and cognitive style: $FI-FD$ of the industrial personnel would have significant effect on the power motives of the industrial personnel; however, the relative effect of the former would be greater than of the latter. Age would have no significant effect on power motives of the industrial personnel".

(C): **Differential Hypotheses**:

The differential hypotheses have been set up to take into consideration the differential potentiality of the managers and workers, so far as the four types of need motivations are concerned.
In addition to the differences in their need for motivational potentialities, attempts have also been made to investigate their differential need motivations in the light of their differences in age, job-status, educational status and cognitive style: FI-FD for each of the four need motivations. The differential hypotheses pertaining to the four independent variables (i.e., age, job status, educational status and cognitive style: FI-FD) and each one of the dependent variables (n Ach, n Approval, n Aff and n Power) have been presented as under:

Hypothesis: H_{17}(d):

"The managers and workers would differ significantly in their motive for Achievement, Approval, Affiliation and Power; however, the greater means would not be consistently in favour of the former".

Hypothesis H_{17}(d) has been pin-pointedly presented as under:

(a) "The managers would have significantly higher need for achievement than the workers".

(b) "The workers would have significantly higher need for approval than the managers".

(c) "The workers would have significantly greater need for affiliation than the managers".
"The managers would score significantly higher on need for power than the workers".  

**Hypothesis: $H_{18}(d)$**  
"Field independent employees would show significantly higher need for achievement and power but lesser need for approval and affiliation than the field-dependent employees".  

**Hypothesis: $H_{19}(d)$**  
"Employees classified in the upper age group would show significantly more need for approval and affiliation but lesser need for power and achievement than those classified under lower or middle age groups".  

**Hypothesis: $H_{20}(d)$**  
"The employees with higher educational status would score significantly higher on $n$ Ach and $n$ Power but would score lesser on $n$ App and $n$ Aff than those with lower educational status".  

**Hypothesis: $H_{21}(d)$**  
"Managers would display significantly more field-independent than the workers regardless of their age and educational status".  

**Hypothesis: $H_{22}(d)$**  
"Employees belonging to upper age group would be significantly more field-dependent than those classified under the lower age group".  

**Hypothesis: $H_{23}(d)$**  
"Employees holding lower educational status would be significantly more field-dependent as compared to the employees holding higher educational status".
2.80 **Delimitations:**

The present study deals with four need motivations as functions of cognitive style and job-status of industrial personnel. In order to be specific and pinpointed the study has been delimited by the following considerations:

(1) The present study has included only four need motivations, namely, \( n \) Ach, \( n \) Approval, \( n \) Affiliation and \( n \) Power as dependent variables. Besides these four, no other need motivations has been taken up for the study.

(2) Cognitive style, job-status and educational status function in the present study as independent variable. \( 3 \) (Age) \( x \) \( 2 \) (Educational status) \( x \) \( 2 \) (Cognitive style) \( x \) \( 2 \) (Job-status) factorial design have been set up for studying the main effects of these independent variables on each of the four need motivations.

(3) The present study is restricted to 100 managers and 100 workers from Bhilai Steel Plant (Bhilai). Besides these two no other sample has been included. Thus the study has been conducted over two levels of job status. The managers are technocrats mostly with B.E. degree working as technical experts in steel industry as well
as managing manpower under their supervision. All 100 managers hold the same power, position, status and pay scale and by and large play their dual role though specifically role differentiation exists among these managers. The sample of 100 workers has also been drawn from the same section by employing individual to individual matching technique in terms of certain criteria which enable the investigator to maintain identical organizational setting and socio-industrial climate from where the two samples have been selected.

The present study has been conducted only on the samples of male industrial personnel. No female employee has been included in the study.

In addition to the above variables, certain only three demographic variables, i.e., age, educational status and job status have been included in the present study, besides these three no other demographic variable has been included in the demographic variable.

In the present study 23 hypotheses have been formulated which have been classified into three categories from the points of view of the statistical treatment; namely, correlational, hypotheses, interactional hypotheses and differential hypotheses.
2.90 **Operational Definition:**

It is obvious from the above problem-statements that in the present study two types of variables have been taken into consideration: The independent and the dependent. The four motives i.e., \( n \) Ash, \( n \) App, \( n \) Aff and \( n \) Pow have been posed as the dependent variables, whereas Age, Cognitive style, Job-status and Educational Status have been regressed as the four independent variables.

(a) **Operational conceptualization of the Dependent Variables:**

Most of the psychological concepts have been debated for want of objectivity in their definitions and nature. To overcome this difficulty, operational definitions are prepared to enhance objectivity in the measurement of such concepts and constructs.

Therefore, operational definitions of the four need motivations have been given as under with a view to make these concepts more meaningful, objective and interpretable in the present piece of research.
(1) Need for achievement:

Achievement means what a person has learned, what he knows. As such achievement tests are very useful in measuring the effectiveness of training programmes. And when used on the job they can be thought of as proficiency tests. Such tests tell us how well the work is done. However, need for achievement or achievement motivation is different from 'achievement' per se. It refers to the motive for mastery. It refers to the desire or want to improve one's talents for their own sake. If this motive in particular area is low in the hierarchy, the individual will not perform well, even if he has the ability.

The review of the literature on n Achievement given earlier reveals that satisfaction of n Achievement arises from having initiated the action that is successful rather than from public recognition for the individual accomplishment (McClelland, et al 1953; de Charms et al, 1955). Atkinson (1958) also found that people with high n achievement are not influenced by monetary rewards. They are interested in achievement. On the other hand, people with low n achievement are influenced by money and can be made to work harder for money or other such external incentives. In a nut shell, therefore, it can be said that n Achievement refers to a desire to achieve more and more and accomplishment of one goal gives rise to still another goal higher in order. And attempts to
measure it by psychologists are to some extent successful in tapping such a desire. And in the industrial/organizational set up, it is perhaps, the most significant motive which each and every manager wants to promote for both his own upliftment and organizational growth in the days of competition. Thus, *Achievement*, operationally can be defined in terms of scores obtained by the individuals on the *Achievement motivation inventories*.

(2) **Need for Approval:**

Approval motive is a sociogenic motive. It is the social desirability, norms and values of the society. The use of approval motive in the organization is not the same as that of the other rewards forms. In this the leader can avoid inequity and make his approval part of the system reward by speaking words of encouragement to every member meeting standard, or he can single out for special approval the very few who perform above standard. *Approval motivation* like any other psychological constructs, e.g., social desirability, attitude, etc. poses a significant problem.

The subsequent effectiveness of social approval may therefore be attributable to a need for reassurance created by an anxiety-provoking situation, rather than to social deprivation. *Alters and Day (1960)* examined the relationship of anxiety to verbal reinforcement, creating isolation and satisfaction conditions similar to
those used by Gewirtz and Baer. Approval dependence, like information dependence, is greater when the structure of the situation is ambiguous. Tripathi and Tripathi (1980) differentiate that "concept of social desirability refers to the extent to which a person or respondent acquiescence to statements that depict some behaviours, attitudes, or dispositions that are in conformity with the norms, values and aspirations of the social spectrum of which the respondent is a member. Thus, social desirability is a concept that denotes a phenomenon". Approval motive is rather a more comprehensive concept that includes social conformity, social sanction, social approval, social sanctity and social desirability as its component.

A study was made by Tripathi and Tripathi (1981) on approval motivation to see the effects of social and field dependence. Results indicated that on the measure of social dependence approval and sex both yielded significant major effects. This study was later supported by Luber, Irene (1981, p. 97-105) who investigated the effect of age on self-esteem, and perceptual sensitivity based on the criterion of strength of social approval among school students. Results showed that subjects with defensive low self-esteem showed the strongest tendency to avoid self-confrontation, and they showed increased sensitivity to the picture of disliked persons.
and subject with defensive high self-esteem had the strongest tendency to narcissistic projection.

Approval motive on the whole can be operationally defined in terms of the total scores obtained by the subjects on the standardized Approval Motive Inventories.

(3) Need for Affiliation

Affiliation is in close relation with a group or an individual. When people encounter anxiety in an emergency or disaster, there is a tendency to want to be with other people. Every individual differs from other individual in the degree to which they seek affiliation, and these differences affect very much their reactions to social situations. In one study of students in psychology, it was found that men who were high in the affiliation motive rated the psychology courses highest, while those who were low in the affiliation motive reacted to the courses less favourably. Students who are high in the motive make better in classes taught by friendly and warm instructors (Schachter, 1959).

On the basis of the empirical findings reported earlier, the following generalizations can be made about the affiliation motivation:

(1) We are attracted to others whom we perceive to be similar to ourselves.
Fear of isolation and of being rejected may force our desire to be with other people.

People will affiliate when it will enhance their own prestige.

People who seek affiliative goals often try to please others in ways that others find irritating. This irritation causes rejection, which in turn causes people to seek affiliation all the more urgently.

Sympathy and empathy are characteristics of people who are able to induce affiliation in others.

On the whole, therefore, need for affiliation motive can be operationally defined as a total score obtained by a subject on the standardized measures of affiliation motivation that conceptualization it in the very stated above.

(4) Need for Power:

The quest for power is the quest for control over other people, for control over activities, for control over property, and for the satisfaction derived from exerting that control. The need for power includes aggressive and coercive behaviour, a measure of risk taking and the resilience to bounce back from defeat. When adopted practically the power motive means influencing the decisions of other people both directly and
indirectly. It may involve changing attitudes by means of the teaching and learning process, making decisions in a position of authority, or inducing influence through a smile.

The motive for control, power and status are similar for they share common goals: the wish to be in command of one's own behaviour, and the wish to be free of other's coercion or domination—now and in the future. The individual wants to ensure that other people will not try to dominate him either through fear or through enhanced status. The motives for achieving control of situations, attributes of power, and signs of status are influential in industries. One man will work harder than the other to achieve this position and power.

Each culture awards respect and prestige to certain categories of people. In our society these include Supreme Court justices, Nobel laureates, Doctors, Professors, Poets and astronauts. These people have status in the society. An implicit understanding exists that people with status have the potential to influence and even control the behaviour of those with less status.

In the light of the review of the empirical studies on Power, therefore, it has been operationally defined and accepted in the present study as a total score obtained by a subject on the standardized psychological tests that intend to measure this motive in accordance with the central idea of this motive and its components as specified above.
(b) **Operational Specifications of the I.Vs.**

1. **Job Status:**

   Any business or an industry whether it is a large or a small has its organizational structure. The basic purpose of an organizational structure is to get the work done effectively by arranging orderly pattern of human relations.

   There are mainly two types of organizational structures existing in the world of work: vertical and horizontal, which are composed of various job-positions. Each position has its own role, responsibilities and powers. And all these taken together constitute job-status. Generally in industries jobs can be broadly categorized as high and low, line or staff, blue and white collar jobs, office and site jobs, executive and non-executive jobs, etc. In the present study the managers and workers have been taken to represent two extreme job-status. In which the role of the manager is of controlling, coordinating, decision making, staffing, organising, planning, etc. The role that the managers play necessitates them to hold power, whereas the duties that the workers discharge require subordination and faithful observations of the order of the authority.

   In the hierarchical position it is mostly seen that there are very few persons who occupy the higher
status and position relatively to moderate and low status. It refers to the role, position and power that the people hold in the organizational set up where he is working. Each job-status in an industrial unit has its own rules, regulations, and duties which they have to observe and follow.

The purpose of such hierarchy as pointed out by Strauss and Gyles (1967) is to make it possible for a large number of employees to work under the overall control of a relatively small number of managers.

In the present study Managers have been defined as those service personnel who have been assigned some duties of industrial management that may deal, material, financial, personnel and production while workers are are defined as those service personnel, who have been assigned to do some kinds of manual and machine operations in the industries, under supervision.

(2) Cognitive Style (E-I-D):

In the present study the cognitive style, namely E-I-D has been incorporated as an independent variable. The concept of E-I-D was very first introduced by Witkin (1956) who studied personality through perception. Witkin developed a theory of psychological differentiation in general and field-independence-dependence as its major cognitive style-cum-personality component in particular.
In our day-to-day life we all experience some degree of dependency, manifested by what we don't do in the way of making decisions or exerting extra effort. A dependent person is relatively satisfied with the status quo, is not looking for challenge, and has a low curiosity drive. Independence, is the direct antithesis of this. The independent person is motivated to work on something without help, resisting assistance or even suggestions. Studies show that independent people refuse to react to pressure of conformity.

Vroom (1964) has found the subjects with high independence scores are likely to be those most affected by how much participation they are permitted to make decisions at work. Those who participated with others in decision making were more satisfied with their work than those who had little participation. Such results did not hold for those with a low motive for independence.

Independence sometimes comes at a price - one can be so independent that he does not accomplish his ends; this is particularly true of person who has an emotional investment in independence.

The work of Sitkin and his colleagues gave birth to tremendous researches on FI-FO dimension with an intention to relate it with phenomenon like learning, perception, memory as well as to know its relation with
other personality characteristics. A brief summary of such attempt has been given below. Tripathi (1983) observed that the highly deprived, strongly approved motivated and externally controlled (external locus of control) subjects tend to show F-D while low deprived, low approval motivated and internally controlled (internal locus of control) tend to show F-L. While reflecting upon psychological differentiation of F-L/F-I, Lingh (1983) mentioned that F-L persons were seen as active and manipulatory. They displayed an awareness of inner life, accepting and integrating hostile and sexual impulses and manifested a positive self evaluation whereas the F-I persons were seen as accepting things as they are. They displayed poverty of inner life with poor acceptance or control of impulses and exhibited a low self evaluation.

Thus this cognitive style can be operationally defined and accepted as a total score earned by an individual on the standardized tool that intend to quantify within's hypothesis of 'psychological differentiation'.

(3) Age:

Every individual whether he is rich or poor, male or female and educated or uneducated passes through the four stages of life, namely, childhood, adulthood, middle age, old age. There are stages in life when
emotional expression is relatively uninhibited and other stages where emotional habits have not been firmly established. There are stages when the normal individual can be more depressed than usual; finally emotional control seems to be governed by the habits of control we have developed over a lifetime.

In our culture most of the emotional problems are with the adolescent, which may relate both positively and negatively. At this period the individual is unbalanced, unstable, and unpredictable. It is at this period that the individual learns slowly to adjust to stress, to be selective. Emotionally the adolescent is a more problem to himself than to others, which is what makes him long for inner control. He faces new roles faster than he can adjust to old ones. Characteristically pent up emotions are expressed in the wrong place at the wrong time.

The age of twenties to late thirties in life has its own significance. Psychologically this is a time of planning, and sometime agonizing over a career. The young man wants challenges and he wants change, he has a higher degree of risk acceptance than does the older person. They involve a necessary facing up to reality, tempered by an increasing wisdom which comes from within, where practical decision making brings on the necessity for controlling despair when faced by the realization that ambition without talent can lead to frustration.
Aging can be defined as a decrease in adaptability. Caution increases with age, the older people are more cautious than the younger ones. The persons with higher age become inflexible, mentally rigid, suspicious, untidy and over-talkative in their behavioural system. Some people do this with flexibility, while others tend to become rigid and set their way. This is according to the situations that they have faced in the past life. Successful aging depends upon what has happened in the past, both physiologically and psychologically, and upon the development of a willingness to disengage oneself from some activities. For many old people aging is a problem incapable of solution, a time of waiting passively for the end. Trouble ranges from loneliness to ill-healthy to social rejection. How the person survives relates in large measure to his personality. For one person aging means moving to an overwhelming nothingness; for another person it is going out with the feelings of a conqueror.

The age discrimination in employment Act of 1967 makes it illegal to discriminate against those in the 40 to 65 age bracket. The Govt. claimed that these workers were laid off without proper documentation that their job performance were below those of younger employees who were retained. Department of Labour began a suit against several rail roads to set aside their rules that managerial employees must accept retirement
at the age of 62. It was also filed against
McDonnell Douglas Corporation, challenging its practice of removing its pilots from flights stables at age 50. The law specifically prohibits help wanted advertise-
ment containing words and phrases that imply older workers will not be considered for the job vacancies. Among the phrases held as offending are those asking for "an ambitious young man", a "Junior Executive", and a "recent college graduate".

The older-employee is likely to lack confidence in his own flexibility and to be upset by the threatened elimination of long establishment, work customs, social groups, and job skills. Matching this may be supervi-
sory bias against the older worker and doubts concerning his ability to develop new skills (Welford, 1963).

In the present investigation, therefore, age has been incorporated as a biophysiological reality quantified in terms of chronological years as expressed by the subject on inquiry.

(4) Educational Status:

McDonnal (1974) considered education as a capacity for further development which influences to a noticeable extent, the cognitive, conative and affective behaviour of a learner in varying degrees, depending upon the type of education he receives. Science subjects cultivate analytical, critical and scientific attitudes
whereas Arts concepts foster reflective things, imagination and understanding of the social institutions (Garrison, 1974). Cobb (1935-36) is of the opinion that "the encroachment of science upon religion has played a large part in the chaos and disintegration of civilization ... and quality and strife within the individuals". Holtez (1935-36), a noted mentioned that "education is of three kinds: material, human and spiritual".

Thus education can be conceived as a potent agent in behaviour modification and type of education one receives has a direct bearing upon one's attitude towards worldly things including his notions even about God and God-related activities as demonstrated by Helode and Wabke (1980).

Although voluminous literature is available upon the role and significance of education in life, in a nutshell, it can be said that formal schooling, no doubt, sharpens the inner potentialities of the learner in understanding the world in which he lives. The learner acquires the knowledge of social, biological and physical systems that governs the universe. And as its horizon enhancing he attempts to make use of that knowledge through positive and/or negative transfer for making his own as well as others lives more and more comfortable. Our day-to-day observation also reveals that higher the education better the chances of need
satisfaction through socially approved ways and means. This being the universal property of education and realizing its potential in showing moderating effect upon need motivations, level of education has been incorporated as one of the independent variable in the present study.

And for the sake of this study, level of education has been conceptualized in terms of certificates and degrees one has received through formal education from the educational institutions recognized by the society.

**Operational Specifications of the Extraneous Variables**

In any scientific inquiry if the principle of "Max Con Min" is properly implemented the internal as well as external validity of the research findings enhances. As pointed by Kerlinger (1974) this principle refers to 'maximization of systematic variance, control of extraneous variance and minimization of error variance'. As such it is always beneficial for a researcher to identify the most relevant extraneous variables that are potential enough in influencing the dependent variables involved in this study so as to exercise proper control over them and provide a platform for the independent variables to show their uncoupling influences upon dependent variables to the fullest extent.
Hence in the pages to follow an attempt has been made, after specifications of the independent and dependent variables, to identify and specify the most relevant extraneous variables that are potential enough to exercise their influences upon the need motivations - the dependent variables involved in the present study.

1. **Organizational climate:**

   Every sizable organization whether college, hotel, industry, or some other, formalized structure has its own peculiar "personality". According to Forehand (1964), "organizational climate has been defined as those characteristics that distinguish the organization from other organization, that stay fairly constant, and that influence the behaviour of people in organizations". It involves interpersonal relationships, where individual personalities interact with the requirement of the job.

   Litwin (1968) has categorized organization into 3 aspects -

   (a) which is characterized by isolation, formality, and avoidance of conflict, stimulates the need for power.

   (b) which offers friendliness and equality, will arouse the need for affiliation.

   (c) characterized by warmth, support and reward, will arouse the need for achievement.
The larger the organization the more the ranks it develops, and in some respects the climate then becomes ideal for the intelligently ambitious person who enjoys running things. Moving from small groups to larger organizations, the interactions become more formal. In this situation as the number of personal contacts increases, the capacity of individuals to form close working relationships becomes exhausted.

How a person is affected by the size of the organization, depends upon its structure. A tall organization with many levels within the hierarchy contrasts with the "flat" organization with fewer levels. Size and structure are of course, closely related. How well a person's need are satisfied may well depend upon its position in the structure.

Styles of leadership are an important dimension in determining how a person will like his climate. For an effective organization democratic style of leadership is very necessary because in this each and every member has got the right to take decision and put his views, whereas in an authoritarian style of leadership, only the manager takes the decision, he has the feeling that he is the whole and soul of the industry. Finally the goal of the organization so along way in determining its climate.
Which climate suits the employee best? This is a question which may be advanced in the light of the functioning of the organization. The person who likes to participate in the decision making may be more compatible in a democratic climate than in a dictatorial one. On the other hand, the person who tends to be lazy may be better off in an aggressive and competitive climate which forces him to work than in a laissez-faire climate.

(2) Sex:

Although sex is a biologically determined reality, the key question here is concerned with male-female psycho-social differences. Historically and cross-culturally, there has been a wide range of answers to the question of how different the sexes are from each other. There have been many cultures in which women do most of the physical work while the men engage in more social and political pursuits. Still other cultures banish women to the deep recesses of the home, hardly ever to be seen by strangers and forbidden to partake of meals with male household members.

In our society there are some social and cultural factors that hinder women in their legitimate desire for equal economic treatment. It is a belief on the part of male employers or bosses who argue that men are better, women are inferior, whereas the hiring of women is the belief that they are more prone to absenteeism
and less likely to make a life-time career of their work
than are men. Women grow up in culture that presumes
different needs and capabilities of men and women. Men
are often found to be aggressive (quest for power,
money, and career achievement) which is not only
permissible but desirable also. Women on the other
hand, learn to be more submissive and even to hide their
capabilities in order to please the men. Thus, to some
employers, a male candidate can appear to have a tempem-
ment more suited to a fast-paced jobs, authoritarian,
and competitive organizational environment. "Even young
boys perceive males as more powerful, aggressive, domi-
nant, and intelligent than females. And young girls
share these beliefs" (Friedman, 1975).

Believing themselves to have poor opportunities
for advancement and for more challenging work, women
have often be shied away from adequate career preparation,
particularly in business and engineering, inferring that
management usually prefers to promote men. Many women
perform below their capacities because they have become
embittered by observing less-qualified men receiving
carrier and more frequent promotions. This then becomes
a self-confirming prophecy.

But now women have become increasingly sensitive
to, and even militant about, their opportunities for
gainful employment without discrimination in either choice
of job or terms of employment. Many personnel officers
have simply assumed that women could not handle most of the managerial jobs because of the combination of inside pressure and outside activities involved.

In some industries it has been found that the women are more dominating, they express their resentment by challenging their male tormentors or by quitting. Under such conditions, management finds it difficult to work with women and even to get qualified female applicants for higher level jobs. This can further ingrain the prejudice that women are difficult to work with and that capable ones are in short supply. In turn, these attitudes make it still more difficult to develop an adequate group of women so that their minority status will change to equality.

Whatever the reason, men seem to take greater pride than women in the promotion of their protégés, even when recommending a younger, less experienced hand may involve a measure of risk. Perhaps for women today the concept of any reflected glory, even professionally is still too much like motherhood - their traditional monopoly from which they are trying so hard to escape. (Wechinger, 1973).

Women don't have the same drive to succeed as that of man. They lack the motivation to really make sacrifices to move themselves and the job ahead; and that is why they are called the weaker sex. It is the
belief of many male employers that women are not reliable employees; they are more likely to be absent because of some real or imagined illness or emotional stress, or just to take care of their household responsibilities.

Strong feelings are usually present on the subject of women supervisors. It is often asserted that not only men but also women find it difficult to work for a woman. Some women even complain that women supervisors are particularly strict with other women and lax with men. Here again, prejudice and a self-confirming prophecy are often involved, and the greater problems occur at times of transition when organizations are altering earlier discriminatory practices.

In the light of the above, therefore, 'organizational climate' and 'sex' have been identified as one of the most relevant extraneous variables having potentiality to influence the need motivations. Hence it was decided to exercise control over these "big two" while verifying the hypotheses of the present study.

The next chapter deals with methodology which describes the methods and procedures of testing the hypotheses.