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ABSTRACT
        This pamphlet is concerned with achievement
motivation. Motives refers to a fairly stable set of personality
characteristics which constitute a disposition to strive for certain
kinds of satisfaction. The achievement motive is the disposition to
strive for success. Two other motives are discussed, affiliation and
influence motives. Operant versus respondent motivation is discussed.
Individuals who are achievement motivated as well as those who are
failure oriented are discussed. The measurement of achievment
motivation is presented with reference made to the work of Dr. David
McClelland and others. McClelland's work is discussed in relation to
the proposition that since motives are learned they can be modified.
The last section of the pamphlet is concerned with achievement
motivation in the classroom. The characteristics of an achievement
motivation environment are presented. The concluding section is
concerned with a brief description of the achieving society. The
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ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Wayne County Intermediate School District, Winter, 1969

ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

by

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An Idea in Motion Publication of the
Consortium of Advanced Educational Thinking

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Achievement Motivation

Many educators begin to quiver all over at the sight of the term "achievement motivation." "Aha," they think, "Maybe I can find some specific techniques here for motivating my (kids, teachers, parents"—pick one according to your professional position.) It seems that everyone wants to motivate someone! If you're one of those quivering souls at this moment, I'd suggest you take a deep breath and sit back and relax a bit. This monograph is an important document; it contains some specific suggestions; you ought to read it (at least once!) but it is *not* a compendium on how to motivate Sleepy Sam to do something you think he ought to do.

What is it then? Like most things in life, telling what it isn't is a lot easier than describing what it is!

As we go through life our daily experiences and interpretations of them, build a personality—a self: A self that comes to possess or be characterized by certain motives. Motives, as the term is used in this paper, refers to a fairly stable set of personality characteristics, having their origin in early childhood, *which constitute a disposition to strive for certain kinds of satisfaction.* One might strive for achievement, influence, affiliation or any of a large number of possible classes of incentives. The achievement motive, then, is the disposition to strive for success. It is very much concerned with standards of excellence, success and failure, doing better, competition, and accomplishment. The characteristics of a person with a strong motive to achieve will be discussed in detail later. At this point it is only necessary to understand that achievement motivation is one of many possible motives which people have, primarily as a result of early childhood experiences.

Affiliation and Influence Motives

We will be using two additional common motives in this paper for illustrative purposes. It is well that readers understand these and some possible relationships between them and the achievement motive. Affiliation is the first such motive. Affiliation refers to the need or motivation to strive for the establishment and maintenance of positive emotional relationships with others. This appears to be a common motive among female elementary school teachers and helps to explain the emphasis on warm "tender-loving-care" environments that characterize the modern elementary school in America.* It is interesting to note here that reading material in the elementary schools tends to support and reinforce the affiliation motive as well.

*The reader must not read into this statement more than what is said! It does not by any means imply that all female elementary school teachers have a strong need for affiliative relationships, nor that male elementary or secondary school teachers are not affiliation-oriented.

A second motive that will be referred to frequently in this monograph is the need to influence or direct others. This is often called the power motive. People who have high power needs gain satisfaction in super-subordinate relationships where they have the means of influencing or controlling a subordinate. Influencing others by argumentation and presentation of data, by asserting dominance, and sometimes by inspirational efforts are frequent manifestations of a power motive.

These brief definitions of affiliation and power motives should be sufficient to enable the reader to grasp the essential meanings of the terms as used in this paper. It is now our task to see some possible relationships between these motives.

No one in his life style is determined solely by one motive. Motives exist in all people in different configurations. That is to say, in each individual some needs or motives are stronger than others. It is this relative hierarchy of motives that more often determines one's behavior, rather than the presence of a particular motive. It is clear that a person with a strong power need combined with a reasonably strong need for affiliation is going to behave quite differently from a person with a strong power need combined with a strong need to achieve. The former will more likely use his need for power and influence to help people. He may be the kind who writes articles, makes speeches, or argues for social gains, for loving relationships among people and for values and behaviors that enhance human relationships. In other words, his power motive is used in the service of his affiliative motive. Ministers, professors of education and educational consultants are types of people who are apt to be found to possess the configuration of motives discussed above.

Now let's look at the other illustrative pattern of motives mentioned—a strong power need accompanied by a high need for achievement. The result is likely to be quite different. Influence, power and control combined with competition, success, rewards, and long-term goals are often characteristics of authoritarian personalities. Business executives have been stereotyped as possessing such characteristics.

Let me make it clear that the above descriptions tend to be overstated to illustrate a point. The actual behavior of a person is the result of an enormous number of factors. It is true, also, that motives vary somewhat from time to time although they are essentially stable. The notion that people in certain professions or positions within a profession can be said to possess a particular pattern of motives must be considered a gross generalization. Obviously, many people with widely varying values, attributes and motives can be found in any given professional position.

Operant vs. Respondent Motivation

Part of the confusion that exists in discussions of motivation is brought about by failing to distinguish between operant and respondent motivation. If a child in school is exposed to a stimulating introduction of a study topic by the teacher, has looked at an impressive collection of books on the subject and concurrently has seen a sparkling new bulletin board on the same topic, he is likely to be interested in finding out more about that subject. At least that's the hope of the teacher! If the child does in fact react to these various stimuli it is called respondent motivation. He is reacting to a series of events that have called forth a particular response. This is "motivation" in the sense that we usually refer to it in the schools. The frequent question, "How can I motivate my slow learners?" is asked in hopes of finding some ways to evoke a particular set of responses. Respondent motivation is very important in schools and every teacher needs to be aware of the best practices available based on sound educational research. As pointed out in the opening paragraph, however, this paper does not deal directly with respondent motivation.

Operant motivation, the topic of this paper, is a somewhat different animal. It is the response to more basic internal motives. This response occurs whether or not particular stimuli are present in the environment. It is an inherent part of the individual and will make itself manifest under any circumstances. To illustrate this point let's imagine two children playing on the playground. They are skipping rope—normally not a competitive activity. The first child suddenly says to the other, "I'll bet I can go longer without a miss than you can!" This desire to do better, to compete, to challenge another, is typical of a high achievement need person. This child is *intrinsically* motivated to achieve. The second child in this case is responding to external stimuli—he may or may not be a high achievement need person. We cannot judge by the data given.

The Achievement Motivated Person

Earlier it was mentioned that the characteristics of people with strong achievement motivation would be discussed more fully. It again might be helpful to present this in a comparative way, i.e., in contrast to a failure oriented person.

The summary that follows is a condensed treatment of a great deal of research (1). While some of the details in this picture may be found inadequate or even incorrect by future research, we can feel reasonably secure that the picture as a whole portrays what we've set out to illustrate.

Individuals with high achievement motivation:

1. *Tend to set carefully calculated moderate risk goals.* They choose goals where the outcome is uncertain but where there is about a fifty-fifty chance of success. If they're successful in the accomplishment of a goal they raise their sights for the next one and, if

unsuccessful, their sights are lowered. They dislike gambling and games of chance, much preferring to pit their skill against a challenging problem. If the only challenges available seem either too hard or too easy they'll undertake them because of the potential stimulation and gratification, although these would be by-passed if moderate risk opportunities were available. The goals they set for themselves are realistic.

2. *Prefer situations in which they can obtain immediate, concrete feedback* to evaluate just how well they are doing. In the business world this feedback comes usually in the form of money. The achievement oriented prefer private rather than public feedback and work *harder* after negative feedback. They can delay gratification longer than most people.

3. *Prefer situations in which they can take personal responsibility for the outcome of their efforts.* They don't need to be told to "try to do better"—they're already trying to do better! They would prefer, although this is not critical, to be self-motivated rather than group-motivated. They approach problems with confidence in their ability to meet the challenge.

The Failure Oriented Personality

In contrast, failure oriented individuals:

1. *Are motivated to avoid failure rather than achieve success.* The threat of failure dominates their life. They don't want to be compared with a standard and would never try if they didn't have to—if they felt failure was even a possibility. They pursue tasks that are too easy or too difficult and give up readily.

2. *Are discouraged by negative feedback.* Failure on a task may result in either higher or lower goals, in other words, their goal-setting tends to be defensive and unrealistic. "I'd like you to try harder," or "You can do it if you'd only try!" motivation is of no value.

This comparison of achievement versus failure oriented personalities will be especially meaningful to educators who will readily recognize these characteristics among children. One obvious conclusion from the comparison is that the usual type of classroom motivation is hardly required at all for children with a high need for achievement. Secondly, the usual respondent-type motivation for failure oriented youngsters, while desirable, probably has little effect. The completely different responses of the two types of children to negative feedback, their ability to delay gratification, and their goal-setting all have implications for teachers that will be discussed later.

Can Achievement
Motivation be Measured?

Yes, achievement motivation can be measured! The most fruitful way known at this time was developed by Dr. David C. McClelland at Harvard University (2). McClelland's work has been the pioneering

effort in this whole field. Anyone seriously interested in achievement motivation should become familiar with his work.

In a series of interesting experiments McClelland showed that a person's motives were revealed by his responses to neutral stimuli when he was given directions simply to write creatively and interestingly about the stimuli. The best vehicle for this kind of exercise over the years has been Dr. Henry Murray's Thematic Apperception Test (TAT)—a well-known projective device used in psychological testing. McClelland developed a series of questions to accompany certain pictures in the TAT. These questions focused the creative writing on what was happening in the picture, how the situation had developed, and how it could be resolved. The responses are then "graded" against criteria established by McClelland. The result of this content analysis is a series of scores showing the strengths of the motives being scored.

As fundamentally important as McClelland's work is in measuring achievement motivation, it is probably not a technique that classroom teachers can or should use—at least with the TAT. However, the basic conception that a person's motives will be revealed by his "directed" creative writing can be used by teachers. It is not necessary to use the TAT. Many suitable pictures can be found that will elicit responses revealing the students' motives. The teacher must be well prepared in the theory of projective testing and achievement motivation in order to select suitable pictures and questions to which the learner is to respond. The teacher must then be prepared to code the writing. It is likely that the best one could hope for under these conditions is to get a general idea of the relative strength of achievement motivation found in various class members.

There are some alternatives available to educators lacking the training necessary to use McClelland's format. Atkinson (1) says that it is possible to infer individual or group differences in the need for achievement "from the estimate persons make of how pleased they would be to succeed at certain levels of difficulty. For example, a student who reports much greater pleasure in getting an 'A' in a course than a 'C' has a stronger achievement motive than one for whom the differential in pleasure is less."

Another practical method for measuring the need for achievement is direct questioning. Furst (3) used an achievement motivation scale for junior high school youngsters that consisted of nine statements rated on a five point scale: 5) very true of self, 4) fairly true of self, 3) a little true, etc. Such questions as these were asked: "Do you try harder to get on the school honor roll or merit list than the average student in your class?" "Do you have a very strong desire to excel academically?" "Do you try to do most jobs at least a little better than what you think is expected?" Furst hypothesized that you could get at achievement motivation directly through responses on this kind of test, or self-rating scale. His results would indicate that this is true. Most people knowledgeable about psychological measurement, however, would give less credence to Dr. Furst's test than they would a projective instrument like the TAT. This is because people who are quite healthy will respond to a direct questioning test with accurate perceptions, but neurotic people have such defenses that they are unable to respond

accurately to questions of this sort. Nevertheless, Furst's test is an example of a kind of achievement motivation scale that has been used and with some success.

The *Journal of Experimental Education* included an article entitled, "Achievement Motivation and Performance of Second Grade Boys and Girls," by Schell, Veshoff and Schell (4). This article is interesting because it uses young children in a typical school setting and illustrated how a classroom teacher in cooperation with the school principal or an aide could get at the measurement of the achievement motive.

The experimenters used ten boxes, like shoe boxes. Each box contained three sentences selected at random from the first page of the third chapter of each reading text: Starting with pre-primer through the second level grade three book. Boxes nine and ten contained sentences from literature books and advanced physiology and psychology books selected to be impossible for children of this age to read.

Then the children, in random order, were called separately into the testing room where the boxes were arranged on separate tables. The child sat down and was given the following achievement-arousing instructions: "In these boxes are some things for you to do. Every boy and girl likes to do things well. Let's try some things that will show how well you can do. Do you like to do a good job? Let's see how good you are at doing it. Try hard to do the best you can."

The experimenter continued—"In these boxes are some sentences for you to read. Let's start with this box (pointing to box one). Take out one card and read out loud the sentence on the card. Now put the card beside the box. Next box," (and he indicated the next harder box.) The child then proceeded to pull out one card from each box in increasing level of difficulty until he made an error on two sentences in a row. An error was defined as any mistake in pronunciation, omission of a word, or failure to give the correct response after a 30-second interval. No help was given the child. If he asked for help or said, "I don't know this word," the experimenter was non-committal, saying only, "Go ahead." After the child made an error on two sentences successively, the examiner separated out four specific boxes, saying, "Let's try just one more. Which of these would you like to try again? A sentence from this box?" (pointing to the box which was two boxes away from the first failure) "That was easy for you. A sentence from this box?" (pointing to the box directly before the box from which the first sentence error was made) "that was not so easy for you, but you did okay on it. A sentence from this box?" (pointing to the box from which the first sentence error was made) "that was hard for you. Or a sentence from this box?" (pointing to the box containing the second sentence error) "that was very hard for you."

The child then took out one more sentence to read from whichever box he selected, and by this choice he set his *level of aspiration*. That is, the level of difficulty of the box he selected.

The determination of the child's level of aspiration was done in accordance with the rationale that a choice of a task which is moderately difficult is considered indicative of high achievement motivation. And a choice of a task which is either extremely easy or extremely hard is considered indicative of low achievement motivation.

This rationale is based in part on the observation that to choose either a very easy or a nearly impossible goal is to avoid any real accountability for failure. A child making either choice appears therefore more concerned with avoiding failure than with seeking achievement.

You can see that this creative experimental design can be used in most elementary schools for measuring achievement motivation.

In addition to the above, it is possible to get some measure of a person's need for achievement by engaging him in some of the games frequently used in achievement motivation training courses. For example, a simple ring-toss game. Points are scored by throwing a ring at a target consisting of a pin on the floor. Calibrations are marked on the floor to indicate the relative point value of scores from different distances from the goal. The point potential increases as the distance from the goal increases.

Experience with this game shows a pattern of behavior very much like that described above with second-graders and the reading sentences. People with high achievement needs are likely to select a distance that presents a moderate risk of accomplishment, while a low need for achievement person is apt to select distances either much too easy or much too difficult.

It is important to note that an achieving youngster in school is not necessarily a person with a high achievement need. His motivation for doing well in school may well be something quite different—power, for instance! Conversely, low academic achievers have often been found to actually possess high achievement needs. Their achievement motivation may simply be focused on non-school objectives.

So much for the measurement of achievement motivation. Obviously, it's a reasonably difficult task to do with precision. If one wished to do a "before and after" measurement, precision would be required. If, on the other hand, one chooses to know the *relative* strength of the achievement motive for understanding the student better; or for more appropriate structuring of the learning situation; or for possible training efforts to increase the motive, then precision of measurement becomes a less critical factor.

Increasing the Achievement Motive

With this background we're ready to consider whether or not motives can be changed, and if so, how.

We're accustomed to thinking that change in such basic psychological aspects of human "nature" as motives can be modified very little, if any. We know that a drastic change in personality is, indeed, out of the question,* but modification of behavior, for example the elimination of certain neurotic symptoms, is quite possible. Most of our behavior is learned. Consequently it can be "unlearned" or new patterns of response can be learned to replace old responses.

Because motives are "learned," they can be modified. In the hierarchy of motives each of us has, some can be made stronger, some weaker.

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*At least not at our present state of knowledge unless one resorts to drastic environmental controls such as sensory deprivation and other "brainwashing" techniques.

The basic work on changing the strength of human motives is McClelland's. In his paper, "Toward a Theory of Motive Acquisition," (5) he formulated twelve "propositions" which have become the organizational focus for a great deal of research in achievement motivation training. The propositions will not be enumerated here although they have important implications for many of our efforts in education. The application of these propositions can be seen in the subsequent discussion.

There are really two fundamental ways to increase or strengthen a person's need to achieve. One of these is by specific training activities and the other is by altering the environmental conditions in which the person resides to emphasize achievement characteristics. I'll attempt to relate both of these to the educational framework.

In the spring of 1968 the Wayne County Intermediate School District's "Consortium for Advanced Educational Thinking" and "Chair of Educational Innovation" invited selected school officials and teachers to participate in an abbreviated achievement motivation training course. This program was conducted by Dr. Alfred Alshuler, Director of Harvard University's Achievement Motivation Center, Ray Thompson, member of the board of directors of the Massachusetts Achievement Trainers, and Dr. J. Clayton Lafferty, locally prominent consulting psychologist. Most of the following discussion is based on the insights gained in that course, subsequent meetings with Harvard personnel and study of the research literature emanating from that University.

The experience to date indicates that courses set up especially to increase the achievement motive can be successful, particularly for adults and secondary school age students. Children in later elementary school can no doubt benefit from training courses. However, it appears to be more feasible to concentrate training efforts on older pupils. (Lest this discourage those who work with younger children, let me assure you that the final word is not out on this matter. In other words, there is a lot we don't know yet about increasing achievement motivation and you may be able to contribute to our understanding with some successful training experiences with younger children.)

The training course is usually a relatively short experience, varying from one weekend, to ten days of continuous time, to nine to 16 weeks of ninety-minute sessions each week. It is usually structured for a particular type of participant: for potential dropouts, or high ability underachievers, or "problem" boys, etc. The number of participants is determined primarily by the staff available, but there need to be enough trainees for good group interaction.

Courses begin with a strong emphasis on the likelihood of success. Participants are apprised of research on the success of previous training courses, case examples of "graduates" are cited, and the prestige and authority of the trainers and their institutions are used to excite participants to a state of "readiness" for change.

The second emphasis is on learning the language of achievement—the achievement syndrome—as it's sometimes called. This part of the course familiarizes the student with the characteristics of highly achievement motivated people. He is taught to think, talk, perceive, and act like an

achiever! Much of this is done through achievement games, such as the ring-toss game described earlier, slot-car racing, building objects out of Tinker-Toys, etc.

Perhaps this can be made clearer by a brief elaboration. In the slot-car game students compete against one another. The car track is free-form in design with several curves and hills. There are two or more parallel tracks each of them having a car. Every contestant has a separate control for his car. He can make it speed up or slow down as he desires. He soon learns in competition that if he goes too fast his car flies off the track. On the other hand, if he goes too slowly he can't possibly win. From these activities the student is taught the functional meaning of moderate risk-taking, goal-setting, overcoming obstacles, seeking expert help, and the like, and he incorporates these new concepts in his language, thinking, and behavior.

During this phase of training the student learns to write stories with achievement themes and to recognize such themes when they appear in books, films, magazines, or on television. As a consequence, they are further motivated to initiate achievement cues in their own thinking and talking.

A third component of the training courses has been labeled "cognitive supports." Students need to explore the possible meaning of these new behaviors in their own lives. It is time for them to ask, "Do I want to be more achievement oriented?" "For what purposes?" "What kind of a person am I?" "What kind of a person do I want to be?" This introspection is accompanied by a look at the values of the culture as they relate to the achievement motive and the individual's gradually forming goals.

Goal-setting now becomes a highly relevant and important task. Each participant is expected to set some long-range goals and tell how he expects to achieve them, what obstacles he anticipates, and what he will do about them. The goals must be very specific and realistic. Short-range targets or steps toward the long-range goals are established. The trainee must develop a means of measuring and charting his progress regularly for at least two years. This keeps his goals before him, of course, which is an important consideration.

When the trainee has developed his goals sufficiently he is asked to publicly, (i.e., in the training group) commit himself to them.

This brings us to the final component of the training courses—group supports. While the above description may not communicate it, the training experience is rather highly emotional. The participants develop an in-group rapport and *esprit de corps* that is important in supporting them as they learn a new "life-style," so to speak. But it is equally important after the course is over to be able to look back on the experience with warmth and pleasure and to know you have friends to turn to for additional support as you move along. Implied in this is the notion that the trainers themselves are very accepting of the individuals in the group. They deal with them openly and empathically and respect whatever decisions the participants make.

In summary then, the trainers have blended cognitive, affective, and psychomotor learnings into a cohesive, psychologically and educationally sound framework within which motive acquisition can occur most efficiently.

What results can one expect from such training? The experience to date has been pretty good! Among adults in foreign countries and U.S. business executives, for example, the courses appear to have been very successful. McClelland reported on his training course with Kakinada, India businessmen:

> "Between six and ten months after training, two-thirds of the men had become unusually active in business in some readily observable way; e.g., they had started a new business, expanded their old business, greatly increased profits, or taken active steps to investigate a new product line. Only one-third of these men had been unusually active in similar ways in the two years prior to taking the course. In short, the course would appear to have *doubled* the natural rate of unusual entrepreneurial activity in this group." (6)

McClelland also reported that *two full years* after a similar training course in Bombay, approximately the same results were recorded.

Again, American executives of a large corporation were given achievement motivation training and were matched with other executives in the same company who were trained in the corporation's regular executive training course. Once more the results strongly favored achievement motivation training. Results of a complex analysis showed that "the relative performance of those executives who attended the *n* Achievement training course evidence a significantly higher rate of advancement than the control group." (7) In a discussion of their findings, Aronoff and Litwin have this to say:

> "An important reason for the success of these executives is that increased levels of achievement motivation 'pay off' in terms of the company's present needs. As this company is constantly changing the forms of its organizational structure to keep up with the changing demands of its market, its executives cannot plan a career path in great detail. They must, therefore, be prepared in a broad way for the newly created jobs and perform well in order to get the promotions which are readily available. It is not unreasonable to believe that one of the major benefits of the *n* Achievement training course was to help develop this wide-ranging generalized achievement-oriented approach to the variety of problems they face. The

entire organizational structure of the company is geared to finding men who possess these capabilities and putting them in responsible positions."

These results seem to indicate that achievement motivation can be increased in adults, that the training benefits are lasting (more than two years), and that the changes can be economically brought about in a relatively brief period. All very encouraging conclusions, indeed.

The next question is, "How about children and youth?" In one of the earliest attempts to develop achievement motivation in a school population, Burris (8) counseled college students individually in eight weekly sessions of forty minutes each. He concentrated on helping his counselees *think achievement thoughts*. This was based on the thesis (which McClelland says is well researched) that what people daydream about ultimately affects what they do! In fact, it may affect what they do more than specific techniques which they may have learned! Burris was able to produce two kinds of changes: 1) his counselees began to fantasize achievement themes more frequently than previously, and 2) even more importantly they raised their grade-point average significantly higher than did two control groups. This latter startling result is well worth pursuing at least by secondary school educators, it would seem. It may be the easiest and most effective way we can find to bring about an increase in achievement motivation.

A second study worth our attention was conducted by Kolb (9). He worked in a summer school with twenty junior high school boys with IQ's above 120 and school grades below "C". They were compared with thirty-seven other boys with comparable characteristics who were enrolled in the regular academic summer school program only. The experimental group was given a two hour per week achievement motivation training supplement to their normal summer school program.

The results of Kolb's efforts were not noticeable after six months had elapsed, but eighteen months after the course the total grade average of experimental subjects improved significantly more than the grades of control students. He also found great variance in the training results when social class membership was considered. He divided his group into two classifications, high and low socioeconomic classes. The findings were consistent with what one might expect. Students from the higher socioeconomic class raised their grade point average significantly while those in the lower socioeconomic class did not. Apparently, the affect of being raised in an achieving environment and of having more hope for future success was a pervasive factor for high socioeconomic class youngsters.

Achievement Motivation in the Classroom

The second major way of strengthening the achievement motive is by creating an environment for students that emphasizes the psychological principles discussed above. Every teacher and administrator may establish a learning environment to foster any of several motives. Most schools today, and historically, have been *power* oriented. The teacher (administrator) makes the decisions, often arbitrarily and without justification to the learners (teachers). The "rules of the game," i.e., the rationale or framework for decisions is solely in the hands of an authority figure. Compliance or conformity is the only accepted role for the subordinates (students or teachers). Several years of learning in this power environment teaches and reinforces an orientation to power and influence and negates achievement except as defined by the authority figure. Achievement is on his terms—what he wants, when he wants it and how he wants it.

In contrast, an achievement motivation environment has quite different characteristics:

1. The classroom (school) rules are clearly stated and known to all because all participate, both in their formulation and their continual modification.

2. Opportunities for achievement variance are always present. Instruction is personalized to permit learners to move either slowly or rapidly (vertically) as they may, and also in depth and breadth (horizontally) as they become interested.

3. Achievement cues abound in the environment. The teacher frequently is heard to say, "That's not bad, but I don't think it's your best!" "Do it so well you'll be proud of it!" and the like. He'll skillfully orchestrate his demands and encouragements to fit the learner and the situation, but always focus on the successful completion of the task.

4. Achievement models abound. Stories with achievement themes are read and discussed. Biographies, autobiographies, the teacher's own life, all attest to the fact that application and effort are productive in accomplishing one's own goals.

5. Each individual measures and charts his own progress toward his chosen goals.

6. Feedback on the learner's progress and accomplishments is frequently given. With failure oriented youngsters the feedback is largely supportive and encouraging. Achievement oriented students can delay feedback gratification longer and need the challenge of occasional experiences of minor failure.

7. Individual responsibility for learning is high. Learning contracts and games, and self-contained teaching-learning packages are more frequently found in an achievement motivation environment than in other classrooms.

You may be concerned that these characteristics of an achievement environment describe a classroom learning situation that is cold and demanding. This is not intended at all. An achievement oriented classroom must *not* be an "achieve at any cost" environment. There is growing evidence, in fact, that learning is maximized where a warm, accepting, supportive climate exists; where the teacher *expects* that children can and will grow in interpersonal relations and academic achievement. Rosenthal and Jacobson's (10) now famous study showed that where the only variable present was teacher expectation that some specific children would "bloom"; these children grew in *IQ* significantly more than the other children in the same classrooms!

Brookover* described a study of his related to parental expectations and achievement. He found overwhelming support for the contention that youngsters will achieve up to their level of capability if at home the parents communicate, in a variety of ways, that:
   -achievement in school is desirable,
   -achievement in school is important,
   -the child can achieve,
   -the child will achieve, and
   -we (the parents) are interested enough to check on your progress.

Again, these are not punitive conditions, but simple expectations; a kind of "way of life" philosophy as fundamental as getting up in the morning. It is this same "set" that we're talking about in an achievement oriented classroom or school.

In an excellent monograph entitled "Humanizing Secondary Schools" (11), Dr. Robert S. Soar reported on research relating teacher behavior to pupil growth. Soar discussed the intricacies of relationships involved in direct teaching, supportive teacher behavior, and growth in skills and attitudes of various kinds. He summarized, in part:

> "It seems clear, in general, that a more
> indirect, more open, more supportive style
> of teacher behavior does increase pupil
> growth. In addition, the increased growth
> goes beyond subject-matter, and includes
> more favorable attitudes and increased
> growth in creativity.

*In a lecture at Bethune Elementary School, Pontiac, Michigan, February, 1968.

"Furthermore, the data seem to suggest that the greater the value attached to higher level objectives such as abstract, conceptual knowledge, or the development of creativity and of positive attitudes, the more important an open, supportive, indirect style of teaching becomes.

"But these general principles require qualification. It is clear that the optimal level of indirectness is not the maximum, but short of that. It is clear that the optimum level of teacher criticism is not the least, but an amount greater than that. Further, there are suggestions that both learning tasks and pupils differ in the levels of these behaviors which are optimal.....Probably what these findings mean is that there is a minimum of structure required in the classroom for effective learning to take place, and that it is possible for the most open, free, indirect classrooms not to provide the minimum which is needed.

"The importance of a facilitative classroom climate is underlined by the finding that its effect continues after the pupil leaves the classroom. At the maximum, it produced nearly a two-fold difference in the pupil growth that occurred during the summer."

These findings seem to support very well several points made in this paper. It is hoped that the principles underlying achievement motivation and methods to increase it have been made sufficiently clear to enable teachers and school administrators to implement them after careful study and consideration.

The Achieving Society

In this final section may I remind you of the tremendous importance of the achievement motive to our society (12). There was a time in our nation's history when our children's readers were characterized by achievement themes. The "McGuffy Readers" are a case in point. Our folkways included such achieving heroes as "Jack Armstrong, the All-American Boy" and Horatio Alger. We were a task-oriented people, "taught" by our Protestant ethic that work, success and accomplishment were "good" and sloth, welfare, dependence, bureaucracy were all somehow evil. It is very likely that these and associated values were instrumental in the phenomenal growth of our country.

There were bound to be some undesirable effects related to our enormous achievement orientation. Some men achieved at the expense of others. The tensions of striving resulted in neurotic adjustments in some. When the depression hit the economy, some entrepreneurs who saw their personal worth solely in terms of their financial success found suicide as the only alternative left to them. The terrible disparity of "haves" and "have-nots" in the same society led gradually to compensatory and protective legislation for those who felt down-trodden. Over the decades an increasing movement toward a social structure that emphasized equality occurred. Reactions to highly competitive values became more and more pronounced.

Today (and tomorrow!) we are witnessing an ever more violent reaction to many of the values of the "old" society. Love, affiliation, togetherness, cooperation, are the prevalent themes. Our folk songs, poetry, children's readers, and young teaching models all reflect the new ethos.

The questions become:

What long-range effects will this drastic change in values have?

Is there anything in the achieving values of the past that should be held on to?

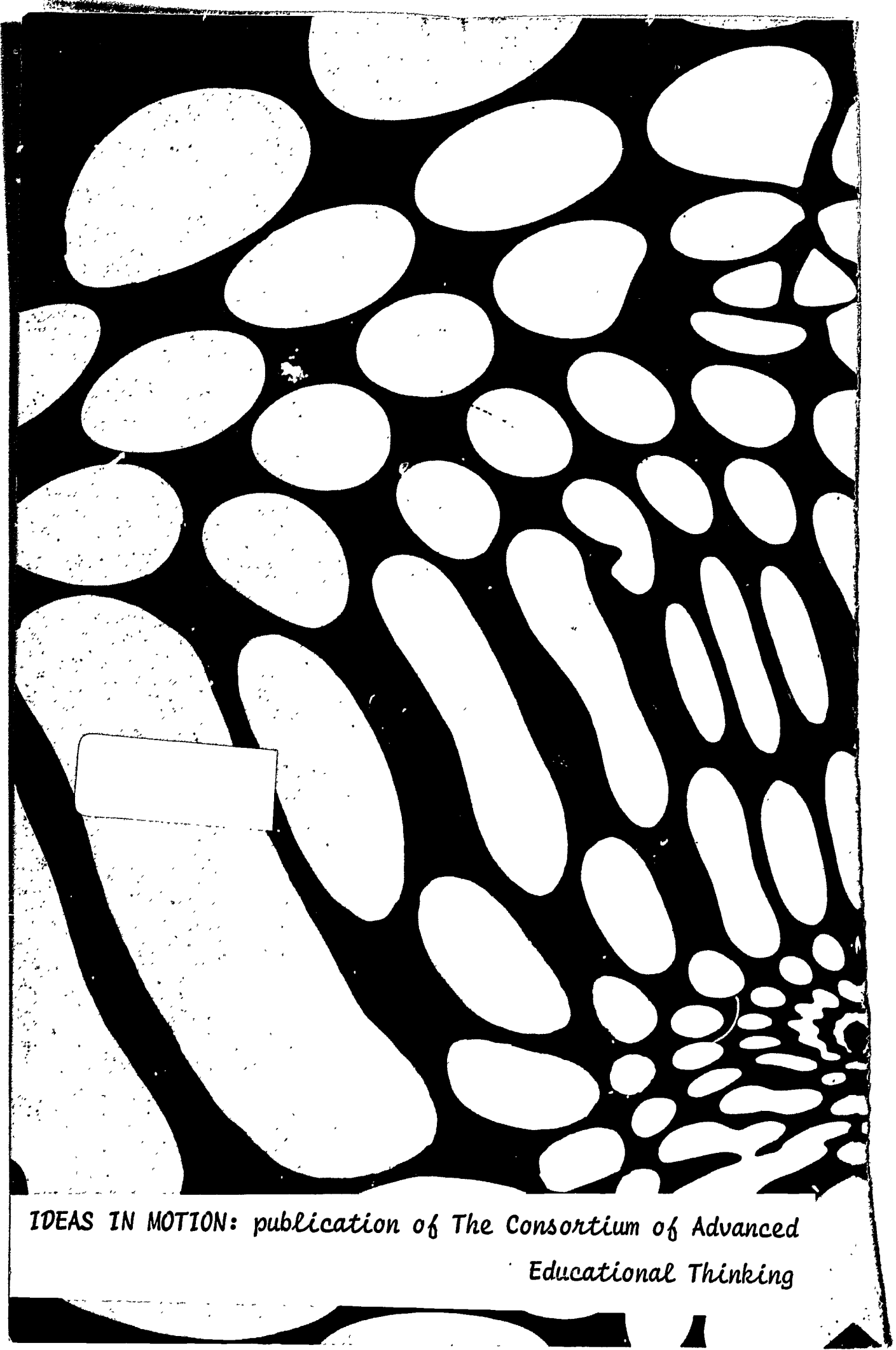Is there a possible motive configuration in our society that combines achievement and affiliation?

Would some such common emphasis be desirable?

These are not easy questions to answer. They require, actually, the careful attention of all teachers and school administrators as well as the general population. It seems reasonable, however, to view the present authoritarian (power-oriented) nature of the school as quite incompatible with the development of either the affiliation or achievement motive.

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