

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN  
SOCIAL FACTORS AND ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION  
IN BURMESE EXECUTIVES


by

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## Chapter I

### INTRODUCTION

Change theorists had been interested and tried to study the forces responsible for economic growth and decline which had been going on in various countries of the world, during various decades. Many explanations for such growth and decline had been given by various theorists. The cause of differential performance among societies has been seen in race, geography and climate, religion, personality, economic conditions, and resistances to cultural change, among other factors. Some even argued that contact with more technically advanced countries will accelerate economic growth due to the result that education on technology will be improved through imitation and learning.<sup>1</sup>

Some explained that some countries have achieved faster or greater economic progress than others, because of the superiority of their race. If it is so, then, why is it that they fail to carry on their progress? For instance, some of the countries near the Mediterranean which made the first

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1 McClelland, David C., The Achieving Society, (New York, New Jersey, Princeton, Toronto, London, 1961), p.5.

great economic and cultural advances of the Western world have since not merely failed to continue their advance but have retrogressed. Did their genes suddenly deteriorated?<sup>2</sup>

The environmental explanations run into the same problem. Was the climate of Northern Italy suddenly more stimulating for one or two hundred years?<sup>3</sup> Has any empirical research been done on such hypotheses that differences in climate cause the differences in economic development? Such reasonable and untested hypotheses are very common in writing about economic development. Explanations such as these do not get us far.

We can now specifically review the economic explanations. Basically, the economist's model of development is a rational one in which enlightened self-interest of man converts pressures acting on the economic system from inside or outside into activities resulting in greater productivity or wealth. Given such a rational psychology, the economist's general approach to growth may be put under four main headings: capital accumulation (including technical improvements), population changes, division of labour, and entrepreneurship.<sup>4</sup>

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2 Ibid., pp. 5 - 7.

3 Ibid., pp. 5 - 7.

4 Ibid., pp. 8 - 9.



Many economic theorists, starting from Adam Smith, concluded that the invention of better machines and equipment was responsible for the increased productivity. Such explanations are based on the fact that technical improvements made production more efficient and increased profits, which could then be reinvested in the business largely through internal financing---so that more technical improvements could be made to increase productivity further, and so on in a beneficent cycle. The point that the technological revolution was responsible for great increase in material welfare in modern times was especially stressed by the neoclassical economists in the late nineteenth century, who had had great opportunity to observe the extraordinary effects on the economy of technical improvements.<sup>5</sup>

Population growth is another factor that is considered by economists as a major force affecting growth although, there are different opinions regarding whether it stimulates or retards it. Smith and Ricardo said that the increase in population would, increase the need for food and bring into cultivation less productive land, causing a rise in prices because the use of such land was less efficient. The rise in prices would be followed by a rise in wages, which would decrease profit for the capitalist, who then would invest

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5 Ibid., pp. 9 - 11.

less---and the cycle of growth would eventually slow down and stop. However, Keynes argued that an increasing population could also affect demand, which might operate to stimulate investment and eventually facilitate growth.<sup>6</sup>

Another considered force is division of labour or specialization and rationalization of productive functions. This explanation was given on the fact that such division and specialization lead to an increase in dexterity among workers and to a reduction in the time necessary to produce commodities. Hence, it achieves maximum efficiency, that will eventually lead to economic growth.<sup>7</sup>

The fourth factor that had been considered by economists as affecting growth is entrepreneurship. They felt that economic growth needs a key man who would adopt and promote new goods and new methods of production, or to exploit a new source of materials or a new market. Early economists felt that such man's decisions to behave in one way or another are guided by considerations of profit or return on investment.<sup>8</sup>

Such economic explanations take too many non-economic factors, such as, will to develop, thrift, fixed tastes, adequate supply of trained labour, mobility and rapid flow of knowledge, for granted. For instance they emphasised

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6 Ibid., pp. 9 - 11.

7 Ibid., pp. 10 - 11.

8 Ibid., pp. 10 - 11.



on the importance of savings that would be reinvested in the expansion of business, thus, assuming that a person would act rationally and be thrifty. However, thrift is not something which people automatically practice when it is in their interest to do so. Furthermore, some economies failed to make any start towards development in spite of their physical potentials and some availability of capital equipment, and close contact with more advanced countries. For example, the Middle East is still underdeveloped, even though it is reasonably close to the West throughout the entire period when the West was developing technically and economically; while Japan absorbed technological advances at a much rapid rate, although it came in contact with Western ideas much later than the Arabs. China, also, knew about many of the technical developments in the West since early centuries, but did not adopt them until the present century.<sup>9</sup>

Also, will an entrepreneur adopt a new technological improvement just to increase his profits? According to Schumpeter the motivation was not merely profit, but also the "desire to found a private dynasty, the will to conquer in a competitive battle, and the joy of creating".<sup>10</sup> In other words, such entrepreneur is not entirely a rational, profit-oriented

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9 Ibid., p. 5.

10 Ibid., p. 11.



human being, making his decisions to invest in one way or another solely on the basis of rational calculations.

Max Weber defined the ideal type of entrepreneur as one who avoids ostentation and unnecessary expenditure, as well as conscious enjoyment of his power, and is embarrassed by the outward signs of the social recognition which he receives. His manner of life is distinguished by a certain ascetic tendency. It is rather a rule for him to have a sort of modesty, and he gets nothing out of his wealth for himself, except the irrational sense of having done his job well.<sup>11</sup>

From the preceding paragraphs, it is evident that economic explanations are not sufficient to explain economic growth. Hence, the need to understand the social and psychological origins of such key economic forces as rapid technological advances, specialization of labour, population growth, and energetic entrepreneurship, was felt.

For instance, if we look at Burma after independence, it is true that it was handicapped by the destruction of capital; however, because of the desire of individuals to get at work again and because, repair or replacement of a relatively small amount of equipment often restores a larger unit to production, the gain in production from a modest amount of recon-

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11 Ibid., pp. 47 - 50.

struction may be great. Hence, Burma's failure to increase output faster in these circumstances indicates factors, other than economic factors, that influence growth.<sup>12</sup>

Also, Brazil is a country whose economic growth has not kept pace with the needs of its expanding population. It is the largest of the Latin-American republics and is also the most highly industrialized judged by the total number of workers engaged in manufacturing and the range of manufactured products. It also leads in this area in such matters as the testing and standardization of materials and the stage of technological advance. At the same time considered on a basis of per-capita income, Brazil is behind several other countries, and is relatively less mechanized in that its per-capita consumption of mechanical power is lower than that of some other Latin-American nations.<sup>13</sup>

Therefore, in the past decade, there has been some restlessness on the part of the change theorists who has constantly discovered that their theories are increasingly inadequate to explain the change going on at present, in many parts of the world. Hence, they are turning their attention towards noneconomic factors such as social and cultural explanations in lieu of purely economic analysis.

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12 Hagen, Everett E., On the Theory of Social Change, (Illinois, 1962), p.450.

13 Whyte, George, "Brazil: Trends in Industrial Development", in Simon Kuznets, Wilbert E. Moore, and Joseph J. Spengler Editors, Economic Growth: Brazil, India, Japan, (Durham, N.C., 1955), p.29.



Economic growth is now thought to be influenced indirectly, on the whole, rather than directly by a society's social structure and its apparatus of state. These noneconomic elements may be said to affect economic growth primarily through the medium of economic and other factors which govern economic growth more directly.

This fact is made evident if we study and compare China and Japan in the nineteenth century. During the period of transition industrialization was able to make dramatic headway in Japan, which was not true in China. Furthermore, Japan's transition was made without the chaotic state of affairs that characterized China.<sup>14</sup>

As latecomers to industrialization both Japan and China could use what the world had already learned. They could start with the most modern machines and adopt the latest managerial techniques.<sup>15</sup> Labour could be cheaply obtained in both countries.<sup>16</sup> As regards to raw materials, China had advantage over Japan. She had better raw material resources than the latter. Hence, China should respond more rapidly to industrialization than Japan. However, we find that whereas it made little progress, Japan's growth proceeded rapidly in the late nineteenth

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14 Levy, Marion J., Jr., "Contrasting Factors in the Modernization of China and Japan," in Simon Kuznets, Wilbert E. Moore, and Joseph J. Spengler Editors, *Economic Growth: Brazil, India, Japan*, (Durham, N.C., 1955), pp. 496-536.

15 Ibid., pp. 508-509.

16 Ibid., pp. 508.

and the present century.<sup>17</sup> Therefore, as economic factors are not sufficient for explanation, we shall have to review the social structure and cultural patterns of these two countries to explain the difference in their responses to industrialization and social change.

In traditional China, the family was the basic social unit.<sup>18</sup> Interest of the family should take precedence over every other external interests. Ideally speaking, the individual owed loyalty first, last and always to his family. This was true even in a conflict between one's family and the Imperial bureaucracy.<sup>19</sup> Also, the family was the basic unit in terms of which the economic aspects of life were carried out. The ordinary peasant family was self-sufficient in both production and consumption.<sup>20</sup> Furthermore, the family was the basic unit in terms of which the allocation of power and responsibility took place.<sup>21</sup> The individual was controlled primarily through pressure brought to bear on him by the family head. The hierarchy of power and responsibility with which he was most familiar was that of his own family.

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17 Ibid., pp. 496-536.

18 Ibid., pp. 499-500.

19 Ibid., p. 499.

20 Ibid., p. 499.

21 Ibid., p. 499.



On the other hand, it had the Imperial bureaucracy for governmental administrative activities. Ideally speaking, individual family interests were supposed to be rigidly ruled out while working in the bureaucracy. Recruitment was made by a most carefully worked out examination system. Everyone had a chance to achieve an official position in the bureaucracy through taking such an examination. Hence, everyone seemed to have an equal chance to better oneself. Thus, ideally, China represents an open class system.<sup>22</sup>

However, as it existed, the Imperial bureaucracy's operations were influenced by the cultural factors that valued precedence of loyalty and obligation towards the family. Anyone from any social strata was allowed to compete for an official position by sitting for the examination, if he had the means to afford the great expense involved to prepare for it. Usually, it was the candidate's family clan who would raise funds and bear this expense. Therefore, these candidates would have a monetary obligation in addition to the usual social obligation towards his family clan. So, these values interfered with the duty towards an office.<sup>23</sup>

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22 Ibid., p. 500.

23 Ibid., pp. 500-504.

Also, the underlying theory of government was that a proper government could not be unjust to any family, that no filial son could have reason therefore for not obeying the government. A good family man could not be other than a good citizen.<sup>24</sup> Hence, the Imperial bureaucracy did not provide an organization that took precedence over the family.

These values interfered with the duty towards an office in the bureaucracy. Family relationships interfered with the official roles, with the result of inefficiency and corruption. As the system of rational administration decayed, the irrigation and communication systems also decayed. This had its implications in lowered productivity, and retardation of economic growth.

Also, the family's interests and family's pressures took precedence over every other type of social group's interests. Organizations like the neighbourhood ruling councils, the guilds etc. operated in such a way as to limit the pursuit of family self-interest, but they operated frequently through the use of family pressures. Friendship groups of various kinds and degrees tempered family relationships, but here again the family interests took precedence.<sup>25</sup>

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24 Ibid., p. 500.

25 Ibid., pp. 501-502.



From the preceding paragraphs on traditional China, we can see that the keystone of social structure was the family. It was the only mean of control over the deviance of individuals. There was no other social structure whose operations were not influenced by the family interests.

China, as said above, did not contain a closed class system. There was mobility upwards as well as mobility downwards. This system seemed to be another major cause for China's slow response to industrialization. We shall explain this by studying the role of merchants in traditional China.

The ideal type of family was the gentry type family; and ideally speaking the merchants held roles of extremely low prestige.<sup>26</sup> However, in actuality, successful merchants frequently became powerful politically and prestigious socially. Now, such successful merchants would try to achieve social security for their families. They would educate their sons for entry into the bureaucracy and invest their money in more prestigious asset, namely, land. Such investment of capital in land rather than its continued reinvestment in the business caused flight of both capital and talent.<sup>27</sup> Furthermore, we

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26 Ibid., p. 502.

27 Ibid., pp. 504-505.

find that these merchants did not engage in productive activities. They were concerned mainly with trading and their engagement in such activities was only a stepping stone for another social status. Hence, a merchant was most fully successful to the extent that he and his ceased to be merchants. Thus, there was a depletion of the merchant class.<sup>28</sup>

On the other hand, in Japan, the family was a fundamental unit of solidarity and many of the decisions and activities of daily life were family oriented.<sup>29</sup> Peasants in traditional Japan were to a very high degree self-sufficient.<sup>30</sup> Also, there was a bureaucracy that conducted and was held responsible for major administrative functions.<sup>31</sup> However, in this case, unlike China, the major administrative posts were hereditarily determined.<sup>32</sup> Thus, Japan ideally speaking was a completely closed class system. One was born to the social position of one's parents. However, a daimio might adopt as his successor an exceptionally able young man from among his samurai, who in general performed administrative functions for him.<sup>33</sup> Here, the conflict between the betterment of one's

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28 Ibid., p. 504.

29 Ibid., p. 514.

30 Ibid., p. 513.

31 Ibid., p. 515.

32 Ibid., pp. 515-516.

33 Ibid., p. 516.

family and the proper fulfilment of office so common in China was not to nearly the same degree a problem because one's family and one's office were combined.<sup>34</sup> However, if there is such a conflict, every man's first duty was to his overlord. Hence, loyalty to the feudal hierarchy took clear precedence over loyalty to one's family.<sup>35</sup>

Thus, in Japan we find an organization, whose interests cannot be influenced by the family's interests.

In reviewing the merchant class, we find that, in Japan also, the merchants were rated well below the ruling group, the peasants and the artisans.<sup>36</sup> However, here, we find that due to the closed class system there was no possibility of leaving merchant roles.<sup>37</sup> No matter how much he might wish to do so, a merchant could not become a member of the nobility. He might become the power behind the throne of a daimio, but he could not become one, nor could his family after him acquire that status.<sup>38</sup> Also, there were limitations to land acquisition.<sup>39</sup> Therefore, flight of capital was impossible. So, they were forced to take up their own

34 Ibid., p. 516.

35 Ibid., p. 516, 520.

36 Ibid., p. 514.

37 Ibid., p. 516.

38 Ibid., p. 523.

39 Ibid., p. 523.



roles of buying, selling, production and reinvestment. They were not preoccupied with the use of merchant status to abandon merchant roles like in China.

When both Japan and China sought to industrialize and try to develop economically, they shall have to disintegrate their old order and introduce new forces. The new forces would be virtually identical. According to Max Weber, economic development starts on the introduction of a national and systematic utilization of goods and personal services through rational enterprises.

Thus in a highly industrialized situation a tremendous amount of action has to be based on what would amount to tenable engineering criteria of efficiency and the like, rather than on traditional arguments about the right and wrong way to do things. The individual has to think critically and in scientifically tenable terms about how to do things, what to buy, when to sell, where to locate etc. In choosing people for jobs he has to emphasise on abilities rather than on who he is. Personal obligations due to relationships must be disregarded in highly industrialised situations.

We shall now see how each country would respond to such organization of a modern state. The traditional China's keystone of social structure was the family. Although there

was the Imperial bureaucracy family's obligations influenced its operations. Therefore, introduction of new patterns of industrialization would meet with resistance or disintegration of control in the society. It was found that the individuals who either willingly or unwillingly were separated from their families as the major orientation of their decisions became radically individualistic by default and thereby they compounded the difficulty of controlling and coordinating their activities.<sup>40</sup> Japan, on the other hand, would have almost no difficulty in adapting herself to such changes as she had been subjected to hierarchical control, which took precedence over filial control.<sup>41</sup>

Furthermore, industrialization had to be carried out with co-ordination and control by a certain group. So economic development needs entrepreneurs. In China, the Imperial bureaucracy had decayed so much to be of any use. The merchants were only to a slight degree convertible for the new requirements. They were used to thinking primarily in commercial rather than in industrial terms and to taking their capital out of such pursuits and putting it into land as soon as possible. They were as little oriented to the reinvestment of talent as they were to the reinvestment of capital.<sup>42</sup> While

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40 Ibid., pp. 510-513.

41 Ibid., pp. 524-525.

42 Ibid., p. 504.



the merchants in Japan took up entrepreneurial activities such as, trading, financing, developing banks, creating commodity markets and so on, thus providing the facilities to make barter unnecessary. They became in short general entrepreneurs for endeavours of all sorts.<sup>43</sup> This leads to more rapid response to industrialization, while China lacked such entrepreneurs and thus, did not make much headway in organizing a modern state. It is now evident that industrialization and economic growth needs a group of people who would perform entrepreneurial activities.

It was felt, that the economy did not grow naturally or inevitably, or even steadily, but rather was pushed forward in sudden leaps by the activities of key men who perform entrepreneurial functions. According to McClelland, the characteristics of entrepreneurship are:-

- I. Entrepreneurial role behavior
  - a. Moderate risk-taking as a function of skill not chance; decisiveness.
  - b. Energetic.
  - c. Individual responsibility.
  - d. Knowledge of results of decisions.  
Money as a measure of results.
  - e. Anticipation of future possibilities.
  - f. Organizational skills.

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43 Ibid., pp. 524-525.



II. Interest in entrepreneurial occupations as a function of their prestige and riskiness.<sup>44</sup>

The performance of these entrepreneurs, whoever they are, will depend on their skill, ability, traditional values and motivation. They have one thing in common, however, that is motivation to break with the past and to strive hard, to achieve certain desired level of advancement. According to McClelland again, achievement motivation is a necessary requisite for an individual to get ahead. He had provided us with a model of how an individual with high need for achievement acts in pursuit of his career. He (1) wanted to do a good job, to get ahead, (2) developed better strategies for noting relevant features of the job environment (3) adopted his strategies to fit what he perceived (4) did not let the organization define his job for him, and (5) was willing to take reasonable risks. He took an active attitude toward his environment, even to the setbacks that it had in store for him. It is in some such ways that we can best imagine how young men with high need for achievement pursue their careers and end up more often in positions of leadership.<sup>45</sup>

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<sup>44</sup> McClelland, David C., The Achieving Society, (New York, New Jersey, Princeton, Toronto, London, 1961), p.207.

<sup>45</sup> Ibid., pp. 205-258.

There are many points of agreement among change theorists that the nAchievement level of such entrepreneurs is one of the key factors in economic development. McClelland had found that there is high correlation between nAchievement level of an individual and entrepreneurial role behaviour.<sup>46</sup>

According to McClelland, the greater preference that subjects with high nAchievement have for situations involving moderate risk in all likelihood appears only when they have some chance of influencing the outcome through their own skills or abilities.<sup>47</sup> Furthermore, he tried to study the characteristics of nAchievement motive and found that these characteristics coincide entrepreneurial activities.<sup>48</sup> Therefore, high level of nAchievement would produce more energetic entrepreneurs, who in turn would produce more rapid economic development.

Though the present state of discussion has not provided a single theory of change, it has opened many avenues to study social change. The presumed mechanism by which nAchievement level translates itself into economic growth is the entrepreneurial class. If the nAchievement level is high, there will presumably be more people who behave like entrepreneurs,

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46 Ibid., pp. 259-266.

47 Ibid., pp. 210-214.

48 Ibid., pp. 240-252.



acting to produce more than they can consume. A society with a generally high level of nAchievement will produce more energetic entrepreneurs who, in turn, produce more rapid economic development.

Change is always introduced by such a minority group. It cannot come into full bloom overnight, except perhaps in small societies with unusual natural resources which attract external capital, but even then an initiating human agent is requisite. Usually, change starts in a restricted geographical area or sector of a society, a small subculture initiated by a subordinated group, which then spreads into new areas and new sectors until it is the dominating system of production affecting almost all the relations of men within the society.

Also, McClelland had found that nAchievement level of a society is a variable significantly related to entrepreneurial economic activity in a culture, despite wide variations in social structure, in climate, means of subsistence, and level of technological development.<sup>49</sup> Tribes with high nAchievement are readier to adopt more efficient but also more complex and difficult means of earning a living, while the tribes with lower nAchievement appear to be more tradition-

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49 Ibid., pp. 89-105.

bound, particularly in the religious sphere.<sup>50</sup> Hence, motivation to achieve is an important requisite for economic change and development; and it is the peculiar characteristic of the elite groups.

The elite groups in Burma were: (1) the political leaders (2) the civil servants or the administrative executives (3) top military personnel and (4) University Professors and Lecturers. We have chosen to study the executive group, because, firstly, the administrative machinery had been entrusted to them by the others and, secondly, by virtue of their experience, they are the ones who have the experience and technical training to do the job.

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50 Ibid., pp. 65-70.

## Chapter II

## CONCEPTS AND HYPOTHESES

Achievement motive is defined as a tendency to strive for success in situations involving an evaluation of one's performance in relation to some standards of excellence. It is a psychogenic need or an inner force within an individual which impels a person to work hard involving moderate risk-taking and performance of skill. It may also be concerned with doing a good job of anything he does, that is, setting himself a standard of excellence in things that he has to do. People with strong achievement motivation are likely to be risk-takers and innovators, seeking out situations where they can get a sense of personal achievement from having overcome difficulties. They work best when there is some moderate risk of failure which can be reduced by increased effort or skill.<sup>1</sup>

One school of thought regarding the origins of motives said that early childhood experiences are most important in laying down the basic personality structure of an individual. They emphasised greatly on the importance of parent-child relationships in formation of personality, when many of these relations are likely to be emotional and un verbalized. They presumed that these early experiences go on

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1 Rose , Bernard C., "The Achievement Syndrome and Economic Growth in Brazil," Social Forces, March, 1964, p.344.



influencing behaviour in a way which is relatively independent of the symbol systems developed in connection with later experiences. In 1897, Jost had formulated two hypotheses which have subsequently come to be known as Jost's laws; "If two associations are of equal strength but of different age, a new repetition has a greater value for the older one," and "If two associations are of equal strength but of different age, the older diminishes less with time."<sup>2</sup> Numerous experiments on regression in animals have indicated that a response learned first becomes prepotent over subsequent learned responses, especially if frustration is introduced. From such evidence, it was assumed to be safe to infer that part of the relatively greater importance of childhood events lies in the mere fact that they occur first and therefore can shape rather than be shaped by other conceptions and later experiences.<sup>3</sup> Further, a child experiences a great many things during the first eighteen to twenty-four months of his life before he has symbol systems developed to the point where they can adequately represent what he has experienced. Since these experiences are un-  
 verbalized or unsymbolised they are not subjected to symbolic

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2 McClelland, David C., Personality, (New York, 1958), p.341.

3 Ibid., p.342.



control. Several experiments were shown to demonstrate the greater resistance to extinction of unverbilized learning, although not enough experimental attention has been given to it.<sup>4</sup> Also, these childhood experiences are repeated infinite number of times, providing almost unexcelled opportunities for fixation and reinforcement. For instance, the problem of feeding arises around three thousand times in the first two years of an infant's life. The parent for reasons of economy acquires certain methods of handling the feeding problem and the infant in turn learns to expect certain responses from the parent. Hence, these responses and expectations which have been reinforced thousands of times are assumed to be important in determining the subsequent conception a child develops of the world.<sup>5</sup>

Empirical studies have found that achievement is cultivated through application of certain socialization practices. Rosen and D'Andrade observed parent-child interaction in the homes of 40 families, 20 of which contained a son in the highest quarter of the achievement distribution and 20 of which contained a son in the lowest quarter of the

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4 Ibid., pp. 342-343.

5 Ibid., p. 343.

nAchievement distribution. The boys were all between nine and eleven years of age and were further matched for social class, race, and intelligence. They found that both the mothers and fathers of the boys with high nAchievement set higher standards of excellence than did the mothers and fathers of boys with low nAchievement. The parents of the sons with high nAchievement showed more positive tension and positive evaluation acts, revealing greater emotional involvement in his success. Also, the mothers of the "highs" are more dominating but showed more "warmth". They appeared to be much more actively involved than the mothers of the sons with low nAchievement. The fathers of the "highs", however, show less dominating behaviour than do the fathers of the "lows". Hence, high standards of excellence imposed at a time when the sons can attain them, a willingness to let him attain them without interference, and real emotional pleasure in his achievements short of overprotection and indulgence, would facilitate the development of nAchievement.<sup>6</sup>

Independence training in childhood is found to be highly correlated with the achievement motive. Winterbottom made a study --- --- of twenty-nine middle-class families in the Middle Western part of the United States. She was interested in the ages at which mothers made certain demands and placed certain restrictions on eight- to ten-year-old boys she had

6 McClelland, David C., The Achieving Society, (New York, New Jersey, Princeton, Toronto, London, 1961), pp.350-353.



previously classified as to their achievement level. She constructed a questionnaire to assess the mothers' attitudes toward independence, mastery, and caretaking, and asked the mothers at what age they expected their sons to have learned such things as those listed in the questionnaire form. The items deal with independence, mastery and caretaking. For instance, "doing some regular tasks around the house" may refer to achievement demands or it may show the extent to which the mother tries to shift responsibility to the child for taking care of himself. Winterbottom's findings may be briefly summarized as the mothers of sons with high achievement tended to expect "self-reliant mastery" at earlier ages than mothers of sons with low achievement. They also placed fewer restrictions on their sons than did the mothers of the "lows" but the restrictions they did insist on were to be observed at an earlier age. Even so, the self-reliance training was expected still earlier by these mothers. It preceded the age at which the restrictions were imposed. The mothers of the "lows" on the other hand, make more restrictions altogether, and do not expect their sons to show independence and mastery so early. Their sons remain more dependent on adults, both for achievement help and for restrictions, for a longer period of time.<sup>7</sup> In attempts to check Winterbottom's

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7 Winterbottom, Marion R., "The Relation of Need for Achievement to Learning Experiences in Independence and Mastery", in J. W. Atkinson (Ed.), Motives in Fantasy, Action and Society, (Princeton, 1958), pp. 453-478.



results on other groups of mothers and sons, Rosen succeeded in getting a large sample from some six different ethnic backgrounds (French-Canadian, Italian, Greek, Negro, Jewish, Protestant) of varying social status. His findings support Winterbottom's findings in that early mastery training promotes high achievement. Putting down an early age for expecting a boy to "make decisions for himself" may indicate a genuine interest in self-reliance and mastery on his part.<sup>8</sup> A research study on the relationship between mothers' reports of achievement training demands and sons' achievement in Brazil, Japan and Germany further support that low achievement can result either from too much or too little achievement pressure.<sup>9</sup>

The theory and findings presented in the preceding paragraphs assumed that early childhood experiences persists and it is not possible to extinguish them; and, such persistence would unconsciously lead an adult to seek a pattern of relationships paralleling those which were satisfying in his childhood. However, even though such findings underline the great importance of child training in the study of personality structure, they do not necessarily imply that the child training is simply the cause and personality the result.

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8 McClelland, David C., *The Achieving Society*, (New York, New Jersey, Princeton, Toronto, London, 1961), pp.343-345.

9 *Ibid.*, pp. 345-356.

Some psychologists, on the other hand, insist that motives are developed not only during early childhood relationships but also through later interactions.<sup>10</sup> According to Sullivan, the motive force of personality is the avoidance of anxiety. Anxiety is interpersonal because it is rooted in the dreaded expectation of derogation and rejection by others. The human being is rarely or never free from some interpersonal tension; what he does or thinks is generally related to the estimation of others. Thus, he would adopt a pattern of interpersonal responses employed to reduce anxiety, ward off disapproval, and maintain self-esteem.<sup>11</sup> Therefore, the pattern of interaction, reducing personal anxiety can occur in any situation involving interpersonal relations and a particular pattern of response patterns may persist if the same or similar interpersonal situations are repeated. Horney also said that under favorable conditions man's energies are put into the realization of his own potentialities. According to his particular temperament, faculties, propensities, and the conditions of his earlier and later life, he may

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10 Leary, Timothy, Interpersonal Diagnosis of Personality, (New York), pp. 8-10.

11 Hall, Calvin S., and Lindzey, Gardner, Theories of Personality, (London, 1959), p.139.



become softer or harder, more cautious or more trusting, more or less self-reliant, more contemplative or more outgoing; and he may develop his special gifts.<sup>12</sup> If such is the case, then motives would also have their origins in school, work organizations, associations etc., where an individual would interact with other individuals within the same group. Thus, different schools, work-organizations, associations, fraternities etc., would have different effect on motives.

In his Protestant Ethics and Spirit of Capitalism, Max Weber had observed some relationship between achievement and religious values. He posited that Capitalism was the social counterpart of Calvinist theology. According to him the Protestant Reformation infused a more vigorous spirit into the attitude of both workers and entrepreneurs which ultimately resulted in the development of modern industrial capitalism. Weber stressed two factors that he felt are the intrinsic characters of Protestants' religious beliefs.

(1) The Protestant's insistence that a man's primary responsibility was to do his best at whatever station God had assigned to him in life, rather than to withdraw from the world and devote himself entirely to God, and

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12 Horney, Karen, Neurosis and Human Growth, (London, 1965), p.13.



(2) The rationalization of all of life introduced into the Protestant ethic particularly by Calvin's notion of predestination. Calvin argued that the decision as to who were the "elect" had already been made by God and that no amount of good works on earth could alter the decision. Weber points out that only by trying in every particular way to be like someone in the Bible who was obviously one of the elect could be hope to get rid of the fear that he was damned forever. Thus, the average Protestant had to behave well in every respect to get rid of the fear of damnation. Such a rigid rationalization of all of conduct combined with the emphasis on doing one's duty in one's station in life could only lead to hard work and achievement. Also, Weber points out that the early Calvinist businessman was prevented by his religious views from enjoying the results of his labours. He could not spend money on himself because of scruples about self-indulgence and display, and so, more often than not, he reinvested his profits in his business, which was one reason he prospered.<sup>13</sup> Thus, motives could also be presumed to be affected by later beliefs and values acquired after childhood.

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13 McClelland, David C., The Achieving Society, (New York), pp. 47-50.

On the other hand, experiments in learning processes also indicate that types of repeated human experience--- success and reward even for minor tasks bring about positive attitudes among individuals toward striving and achievement. An experiment by Keister concentrated on nursery school children who initially showed little persistence in working at a difficult task. The experimenter trained them by giving them very easy tasks, and then progressively more difficult tasks with repeated and specific praise whenever they did persist in trying to reach a solution by themselves, and with mild reproof of appeals for help and of giving up the effort. This training was found to produce increased persistence when the children were later tested on difficult tasks similar to those used in the original test. Somewhat more remote from the usual conditions of socialization is an experiment by Grosslight and Child, in which it was found that persistence at a task was favoured by previous experience of failure at the task eventually followed by success.<sup>14</sup>

While all these experiments deal with learning in rather specific situations, tentative generalizations may be drawn from their findings. First, the development of persistent striving for achievement is influenced by social approval

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14 Child, Irvin L., "Socialization," in Gardner and Lindzey, Handbook of Social Psychology, Volume II, (Massachusetts), p.674.



of this behaviour and disapproval of its absence. Second, the development of persistent striving for achievement is also affected by the pattern of successes and failures resulting from such striving in the past, and this pattern results not only from approval or disapproval but also from the child's capacities, his physical environment, and other aspects of his social environment.<sup>15</sup>

In the preceding paragraphs, we find different points of view with respect to the origins of motives. Some psychologists stressed the importance of early parent-child relationships in formation of personality; and some insist that later interactions are also important, while others show that learning processes could also have some influence on the development of motives. However, from the empirical findings presented, it may be assumed that early experiences, later interactions and learning processes, all have some effect and influence in laying down the personality structure of an individual.

Based on these schools of thought regarding the origins of motives, we have made the following hypotheses for our research study of the Burmese Administrative class.

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15 Ibid., p.675.



(1) Those whose fathers are government officials will have a higher level of achievement than those whose fathers are not government officials.

In Burma, the government officials form a different social class from the non-government officials. Many common values and styles of life are shared among themselves, that are copied, imitated and followed by other social groups. They are the most westernized of all social groups. Due to their educational backgrounds, training and exposure in their bureaucratic roles, it is reasonable to assume that families of government officials infuse their children with values and discipline different from those used by common Burmese families in training their children.

Miller and Swanson surveyed a sample of 643 families in Detroit area in 1953 as part of the Detroit Area Study of the University of Michigan. By fairly intensive interviewing of mothers in households sampled, they collected information on child training as well as the social backgrounds of respondents. They found that entrepreneurial middle-class mothers use internalization techniques rather than direct punishment to train their children and on the whole these mothers emphasized an active manipulative approach to life characteristic of entrepreneurial role in later life. Their findings also indicate that bureaucratic members, on the other hand, teach

their children to adopt more accomodating and adjustable style of life.<sup>16</sup>

Differences in socialization practices would cause differences in achievement motives of the individuals in different subcultures. Hence, in Burma, as the government officials consists of a subcultural group by themselves, the achievement motives of their children can be assumed to be different from those children of non-government officials, in both prewar and post war Burma.

(2) Those who come from large towns would have a higher level of nachievement than those who come from small towns and villages.

This hypothesis is made on the assumption that the standard of living would be higher in larger towns, the people more exposed to modern values, way of life more competitive and more opportunity to better oneself than in small towns and villages. Also, the occupation of the father would be limited by the place of residence. From these we had assumed that such differences would result in differences in socialization practices of the parents in training their children.

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16 Miller, Daniel R. and Swanson, Guy E., The Changing American Parent, (New York, London, 1958).



(3) Different schooling would also cause different motivations in individuals.

We assume that schools are important socialization agents providing individuals with values and discipline appropriate or not appropriate to achievement. Some schools enforce their rules and regulations very strictly, while others enforce them liberally. In some schools we find that prizes are given for good conduct, good performance in studies and sports while punishment varying from physical punishment, exposing the student to the ridicule of others etc. are given for bad conduct, and poor performance. Therefore, schools may promote achievement behaviour according to their practices.

(4) Those who are older would have a higher level of achievement than those who are younger.

We made this hypothesis on the assumption that later socialization also have some effect on the development of achievement motive. In this case, we want to show the effect of work organization on an individual's need for achievement. However, length of service, which would be an appropriate index for an individual's identification with an organization, was not attainable. Therefore, we had to assume that older people would have longer service in an organization. This assumption also was made because mobility of labour is



not a great factor in Burma.

Members of an organization may initially derive satisfaction from coming together for the purpose of achieving a stated end; later, they may derive equal or greater satisfaction from simply maintaining an organization that provides them with offices, prestige, power, sociability, income or a sense of identity. Our hypothesis was made on the assumption that those who are of greater service would much more identify himself with the organization and derive satisfaction from doing his work well, than those who are of younger service. Thus, the former will be more achievement motivated than the latter.

The development of achievement motive, as discussed in this chapter, seem to have two main origins. In the first instance, achievement motivation is said to have its origins in certain kinds of parent-child interaction that occur early in a child's life and are likely to be emotional and un verbalized. On the other hand, it was also suggested that later interactions could also play an important role in its development.

Several empirical studies have shown that achievement motivation is most likely to be high when the child is urged to obtain, and rewarded for achieving, independence and mastery, accompanied by few restrictions after mastery has been acquired.

Winterbottom's study, for example, indicates that mothers of children with high achievement motivation differ from mothers of children who have low motivation in that they: (1) make more demands (particularly for evidence of independence, maturity, and achievement) at early ages; and (2) give more intense and frequent rewards for fulfilled demands. Thus, if child training have such an important influence on the development of nachievement, we would like to know why some parents behave in a particular way in training their children and others do not. In this case, we are dealing with social factors affecting early childhood training. They will consist of parental values, parental education, birth order, family type, occupation of the father, social class, etc. Empirical studies had shown that these variables have some influence on the development of nachievement. Rosen and Douvan found, for instance, differences in strength of motivation to achieve related to differences in social class background.

In the later case also, when the child starts his formal schooling, the achievement-oriented demands would be made on him by the school he attended as well as his parents. In this case the rewards and punishments will center around his school performance. Thus, in trying to adjust to the school's environment which set standards of excellence in scholastic behaviour, his need for achievement would be



developed, in accordance with the practices of the school, that is, how much achievement-oriented demands were made on an individual by the school. Thus, schools can be regarded as socialization agents for the development of nAchievement also.

Based on these theoretical background we had developed our main hypotheses.

(1) Those whose fathers are government officials will have a higher level of nAchievement than those whose fathers are not government officials.

(2) Those who come from large towns would have a higher level of nAchievement than those who come from small towns and villages.

(3) Different schooling would also cause different motivations in individuals.

(4) Those who are older would have a higher level than of nAchievement/those who are younger.

## Chapter III

## RESEARCH METHODS

Psychologists have agreed that motivation is one of the fundamental variables of human personality and human motivation has always been a topic of key interest to them. Both clinical and experimental psychologists have tried to study motivation and made their contributions to personality theory but the lack of adequate methods for measuring it has seriously hampered the development of systematic knowledge of the subject.<sup>1</sup>

Motivation cannot be measured from actual performance. The most obvious example is the hunger need. First of all, they defined the strength of the hunger drive in terms of the number of hours of food deprivation. They assumed that the longer an organism had been without food, the hungrier it would be. However, it was found that when the strength of hunger was measured by hours of deprivation, it did not correlate at all perfectly with the tendency to eat.<sup>2</sup> So psychologists have tended to distinguish between motivation and

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1 McClelland, David C., "Methods of Measuring Human Motivation" in J.W. Atkinson (Ed.), Motives in Fantasy, Action and Society, (Princeton, 1958), p.7.

2 McClelland, David C., The Achieving Society, (Princeton, 1961), p.37.



action --- between hunger and eating and between the desire to achieve and actual achievement. It can be safely assumed now that actual achievement cannot be considered a safe index of the strength of the need to achieve any more than eating can be considered a safe measure of the strength of the hunger drive. In fact, actual achievement is controlled by many more forces than eating, desires for social approval, power or knowledge --- to say nothing of ability factors, so that it is far less a reliable index of the need to achieve than eating is of hunger.

McClelland had approached the problem of measuring human motivation by developing some ideas as to what a motive is. According to him, one must start with a general idea as to the nature of the variable, try to get a measure of it and determine whether he has succeeded in terms of such criteria as the following, which appear to be general in the sense that they determine whether any scientific measurement has a claim to be taken seriously.<sup>3</sup>

(1) The measure of a motive should sensitively reflect the presence or absence of a motive or its variations in strength.<sup>4</sup>

(2) The measure of a motive should reflect variations in only that motive.<sup>5</sup>

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3 McClelland, David C., "Methods of Measuring Human Motivation" in J.W. Atkinson (Ed.), Motives in Fantasy, Action and Society, (Princeton, 1958), pp. 7-9.

4 Ibid., p. 9.

5 Ibid., p.14.

- (3) The measure of a motive should give the same reading for an individual or a group under the same or nearly the same conditions. (i.e. It should be reliable).<sup>6</sup>
- (4) The measure of a motive should have relational fertility. That is, it should correlate with many other variables or account for much of the variance in human behaviour. Its worth is judged by the number of other variables to which it relates in meaningful ways both with respect to the general theory of behaviour and to the way individual differences in the motive can be empirically ascribed to developmental differences in the life histories of individuals.<sup>7</sup>

Three main methods of human motivation have been reviewed in the light of these criteria. The oldest and simplest method of measuring human motivation is simply to ask the subject what his motives are, either directly or indirectly; that is, self-ratings by the subject. Such methods are generally reliable, but little evidence exists to demonstrate that they vary with the motive in question and only that motive.<sup>8</sup>

Another method is ratings of motivation by outside observers. Judgments by others can also be reliable although they are less likely to be, but they, too, suffer from being multidetermined, in this case not only by a variety of factors in the subject but also in the judge, since he may project his own motives into his estimate if it is a complex one.<sup>9</sup>

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6 Ibid., p. 18.

7 Ibid., p. 20.

8 Ibid., pp. 22-26.

9 Ibid., pp. 26-30.



Another approach to the problem of measuring human motivation is to try to detect its presence from something a person does --- from some unique set of response characteristics. This method is based on distinctive response patterns in the subject. The system of responses involves some sort of imaginative chain of associations, usually stories suggested by pictures. There is evidence that this method has real promise as far as the criteria of unique variation and relational fertility are concerned; but, however, the criterion of reliability is harder to satisfy because it is difficult to set up two exactly comparable motivational situations --- either the subject has changed motivationally or the incentive conditions have.<sup>10</sup>

The reason for the apparently unique value of imaginative material for dynamic analysis probably lies in the fact that fantasy is by definition less influenced by culture-pattern variables and past learned responses of the subjects. According to McClelland, it is the fantasies of the person, his thoughts and associations which give us his real "inner concerns" at the time he is working.<sup>11</sup> Also, in fantasy anything is at least symbolically possible --- a person may rise to great heights,

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10 Ibid., pp. 30-37.

11 McClelland, David C., The Achieving Society, (Princeton, 1961), p. 41.

or sunk to great depths. Overt action, on the other hand, is much more constrained by limits set by reality or by the person's abilities.<sup>12</sup>

Murray, who has been perhaps the most influential exponent of motivational analysis in America, has had his greatest success in analysing controlled daydreams or imaginative productions produced for his Thematic Apperception Test. In TAT the interpreter is especially concerned with the content of the subject's thoughts and fantasies.<sup>13</sup> It requires the subject to interpret a picture by telling a story --- what is happening, what led up to the scene, and what will be the outcome. The responses are dictated by the constructs, experiences, conflicts and wishes of the subject. Essentially the person projects himself into the scene, identifying with a character just as he vicariously takes the place of the actor when he sees a movie. The subject is led to believe that his imagination is being tested. The stories may indicate a defeatist attitude, concern about overbearing authority figures, or preoccupation with sex.<sup>14</sup>

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12 Ibid., p. 40.

13 McClelland, David C., Personality, (New York, 1958), pp.412-418.

14 -----, The Achieving Society, (Princeton, 1961), pp. 42-43.



As we have used the TAT for our research in measuring achievement motivation we shall now be more concerned with this behavioral measure of human motivation. This particular method of measuring human motivation is a method which involves content analysis of imaginative thought sequences.

"Content Analysis" may be defined as referring to any technique (a) for the classification of the sign-vehicles (b) which relies solely upon the judgments (which, theoretically, may range from perceptual discrimination to sheer guess) of an analyst or group of analysts as to which sign vehicles fall into which categories, (c) on the basis of explicitly formulated rules, (d) provided that the analyst's judgments are regarded as the reports of a scientific observer.<sup>15</sup>

### Reliability

The first requirement of any technique which purports to describe any set of characteristics is that the results have a high degree of reliability. Reliability always refers to consistency throughout a series of measurements. There are various ways to observe such a series --- for example, by using the same test repeatedly or by using a series of parallel forms.

Test scores vary over time because attention and effort change from moment to moment. Over longer periods, further

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15 Lasswell, Harold D., Leites, Nathan and Associates, Language of Politics, (Massachusetts, 1965), p. 55.

shifts in score are created by physical growth, learning, changes in health, and personality change. If we employ different test items for each measurement, another type of variation is introduced. The person who is lucky on one trial, finding items that are easy for him, will encounter unfamiliar items on some other trial and earn a lower score. To these variations must be added the unaccountable "chance" effects. Chance effects enter even when we use the same procedure twice in rapid succession; the two scores differ to some extent because of guessing, instantaneous lapses of attention, and so on.<sup>16</sup>

Research requires favourable measurement. In most experimental designs a test of significance is used to learn whether an observed difference results from the experimental treatment or could be accounted for by chance variation. The larger the chance variation in the test employed, the harder it is to find a significant difference between groups.

A person's scores vary from time to time and from form to form of the test. Some of these variations are regarded as a weakness in the measuring procedure, i.e. as error. But the meaning of "error" depends on the purpose of testing. If a score is supposed to indicate a person's temporary condition at the time of testing, it is desirable for scores to vary from moment to moment. If the score is supposed to represent a last-

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16 Sellitz, Claire; Jahoda, Marie; Deutsch, Merton; Cook, Stuart S., Research Methods in Social Relations, (United States, 1959), pp. 169-172.



ing quality, moment to moment variation is undesirable.

Reliability is usually expressed in terms of a "reliability coefficient", i.e., the correlation between two measurements obtained in the same manner.<sup>17</sup> We test the reliability of a test by making two or more measures of each person and then correlating the scores. The first procedure to be considered is the retest correlation obtained by administering the same test on two occasions. This is called a coefficient of stability, because it tells us how stable this particular performance is. A person high in ability measured tends to be high on both trials. Specific lasting characteristics affect both measures similarly. This characteristic contributes to variation between persons, not to variation between trials for the same person. Temporary factors may help an individual on one occasion and lower his score on the other. They, therefore, lower the retest consistency and are counted as error in this type of reliability.<sup>18</sup>

The coefficient of equivalence tells how well the test score agrees with other equivalent measures made at the same time. It is obtained by giving two forms in close succession. The two forms should be closely comparable, measuring the same general attributes at the same approximate level of difficulty.<sup>19</sup>

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17 Ibid., pp. 166-167.

18 Ibid., pp. 168-172.

As said above, reliability is ordinarily determined by repeating the test to establish the temporal constancy with which it measures, or by giving different forms of the test to demonstrate that each form is yielding an adequate and hence stable measurement of the total domain sampled. First, let us consider the meaning of a retest coefficient obtained on a scoring dimension of a projective test. Most psychologists adopt the view that significant aspects of personality change through time in response to internal and external pressures. Therefore, although a subject's test performances at different times should be congruent with each other in the sense that they reveal the more central and enduring dimensions of the subject's personality, they should not be expected to show statistical reliability because the subject himself may have changed. Thus, the retest method of establishing reliability does not seem to meet the projectivist's needs because he cannot agree that personality is unchanging.<sup>20</sup>

Another method to estimate the stability with which a test measures is to correlate the scores on two equivalent forms of a test. With projective devices that are independent of any particular set of stimulus materials, say, handwriting, this offers no problems since another sample can easily be obtained. But in tests involving stimuli whose properties

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20 MacFarlane, Jean Walker and Tuddenham, Read D., "Problems in the Validation of Projective Techniques" in Anderson, Harold H. and Anderson, Gladys L. (editors), An Introduction to Projective Techniques, (New Jersey, 1961),



determine to a degree the range of responses that may be elicited, the test materials cannot be ignored. Even if one sets out to assess reliability by this method, he must surmount very substantial difficulties in creating "equivalent forms". In an unstructured projective test, different subjects are free to respond selectively to different qualities of the stimulus material. The projectivist may not always be able to specify all the aspects of his test to which a subject might conceivably respond. In this case he cannot be sure whether a second set of materials is really the equivalent of the first.<sup>21</sup>

From the above discussion, we can see that the use of temporal indices of reliability is precluded if one believes that personality changes through time. The use of alternate forms as a measure of the stability of a test is out of question also; because you cannot be certain that two different stimuli would elicit equivalent need response from the same individual.

However, in this type of test we can ascertain the scorer's reliability, that is the agreement of different scorers or interpreters working with the same protocols. This type of reliability is also required in this type of test because they yield not a score but a non-quantitative protocol not directly susceptible of the statistical treatment suitable. Therefore, in order to change these qualitative data into a quantitative

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21 Ibid.

one for interpretation, judges or scorers are needed. Hence, in the case of content-analysis results, reliability may be tested by determining the degree of correlation between the frequencies obtained when different analysts independently analyze the same contents.<sup>22</sup>

### Validity

The second requirement of any measuring instrument is that it measures what it purports to measure, that is, it must be valid. The validity of a measuring instrument is usually studied by comparing the results or measures obtained from it with those obtained by another device, the validity of which is already established for measuring the same characteristic.<sup>23</sup>

Validity is basic to prediction. If an instrument accurately predicts the particular variable for which it was originally designed, then it is a valid instrument. Therefore, validity is a relationship between two sets of values. One set is the values obtained on the measuring instrument itself, the other set comprises the values on the variable to be predicted.

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22 McClelland, David C., "Methods of Measuring Human Motivation" in Atkinson, J.B. (Ed.), Motives in Fantasy, Action and Society, (Princeton, 1958), pp. 74-75.

23 Selltitz, Claire; Jahoda, Marie; Deutsch, Merton; and Cook, Stuart W., Research Methods in Social Relations, (United States, 1959), p.156.



In estimating the validity of projective type of tests, an investigator may administer the test to two or more groups that may be expected to differ in the characteristic the test attempts to measure, and compare their scores. If the test differentiates between the groups, this is contributory evidence of its validity.

In an experiment conducted by McClelland and Atkinson, it was found that human subjects deprived of food for one, four, and sixteen hours wrote brief imaginative stories which changed in a number of important ways as hunger increased. They were able to develop scores from the shifts in the extent of the stories that gave a rough idea of how long the subjects had been without food.<sup>24</sup>

It was presumed that achievement can be satisfied by success and aroused by failure in the same way that hunger is satisfied by food and aroused by deprivation of food. This suggests that the experimental operations which will satiate and arouse the drive are success and failure. However, the success and failure must be in relation to some achievement goal which the individuals have set for themselves. If manipulation of the conditions of ego-involvement produces the same kinds of effects on projection as manipulation of hours of food deprivation, there

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<sup>24</sup> McClelland, David C., "Measuring Motivation in Fantasy: The Achievement Motive", in D.C. McClelland (Ed.), Studies in Motivation, p. 402.

will be some basis for considering the psychogenic state aroused as a need, at least to the extent that it functions like a physiological one.<sup>25</sup>

In the experiment made by McClelland and his associates over 200 male college students wrote five-minute stories in response to four slides depicting achievement-related situations, under the influence of various interpretations of the meaning of the story writing and several short pencil and paper tests taken just previously. The stories were analyzed completely for 39 students from each of four conditions: (1) a relaxed condition, in which all the tests were interpreted as being in an experimental stage, (2) a neutral condition, in which the tests were described as experimental but in which the students were urged to do their best to establish some norms, (3) a failure condition, in which the tests were interpreted as standardized measures of intelligence and leadership and in which the students wrote their stories after failing on the paper and pencil tests, and (4) a success-failure condition, which was the same as the failure condition except that the students succeeded on the first part of the paper and pencil tests and then failed on the whole test.<sup>26</sup>

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25 McClelland, David C.; Clark, Russell A.; Roby, Thornton B. and Atkinson, J.W., "The Effects of the Need for Achievement on Thematic Apperception" in Atkinson, J.W. (Ed.), Motives in Fantasy, Action and Society, (Princeton, 1958), pp. 64-65.

26 Ibid., pp. 64-62.



It was assumed that the relaxed and failure conditions represented a low and high degree of induced need for achievement; hence, a comparison was made of the category shifts between these two groups. The following changes occurred: a decrease in unrelated and task achievement imagery, an increase in general achievement imagery, achievement related deprivation themes, stated needs, successful instrumental acts, anticipatory goal responses, nurturant or hostile press, and positive affective states.<sup>27</sup>

It is evident that there are differences in the story characteristics which appear in the relaxed as compared with the failure condition. The central problem of validity is whether the score derived from these differences measures anything of importance, or more particularly whether it measures the nAchievement which it is supposed to measure. There are two kinds of evidence which argue that it is a valid measure of nAchievement.

The nature of the procedure used to arouse the need provides the first basis for assuming that nAchievement was more intense in the two failure conditions. For the concept nAchievement, Sears states: "There are many names for this learned drive: pride, craving for superiority, ego-impulse, self-esteem, self-approval, self-assertion; but these terms

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27 Ibid., pp. 70-74.

represent different emphases or different terminological systems, not fundamentally different concepts. Common to all is the notion that the feeling of success depends on the gratification of this drive, and failure results from its frustration." In the experiment that was supposedly done by giving the students an opportunity to perform on some tests which were described to them in such a way that doing well should lead them to feel increased pride, self-esteem, self-approval, feelings of success, etc. Since, these terms define what is commonly meant by the striving for success or achievement, if the instructions and the tests were such as to arouse these feelings, then by definition achievement was aroused in the failure and success-failure groups.<sup>28</sup>

The comparison with the effect of hunger on similar stories provides the second basis for arguing that a need has been aroused by the experimental conditions. However unwise it may prove to be to have used failure to heighten the need intensity, it serves to make the need-arousal method more nearly comparable to the deprivation used to increase hunger. The following Table provides the positive evidence that the two needs have the same general effect.

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28 Ibid., pp. 75-76.



## TABLE

A Comparison of the Story Characteristics Showing  
Significant Changes for Both Increased nFood  
and Increased nAchievement

1. An increase in the number of plots dealing primarily with deprivation of the goal in question.
2. An increase in the number of times that characters in the stories were said to want or wish for the goal in question.
3. An increase in the mention of instrumental activities which are successful in dealing with the need-related problems.
4. No change in the number of plots dealing with direct attainment of the goal.
5. No change in the amount of substitute activity, in instrumental activity of unsuccessful or doubtful outcome, or in negative affect (represented by subjective hostility in the food experiment).<sup>29</sup>

In making the content-analysis of a given set of responses, the analyst's judgments would be guided to a large extent by the rules of the content analysis. It may be expected that borderline cases will arise for which the meaning is not clear-cut, and for which the content analysis rules do not provide a ready answer. The extent to which a content-analysis technique provides reliable and valid results depends on the frequency with which errors occur. Systematic errors may arise because of procedural rules which may entail faulty classification.

Hence, one of the crucial problems in this type of test is to find a scoring system for thematic stories which is objective enough to provide high observer agreement and sensitive enough to reflect changes in motivational states.<sup>30</sup> McClelland and his associates had tried to develop detailed scoring manuals which will satisfy the above requirements. In the coding systems presented by them for analysis of imaginative protocols to obtain indices of the strength of various motives, the judge is simply required to point to an identifiable phrase and classify it according to a scoring definition as belonging in a category, just as he might classify a movement of a rat as a "right turn" or a certain visual image under the microscope as a "red blood corpuscle."<sup>31</sup> With proper training

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30 Ibid., p.65.

31 Ibid., pp. 66-70.



the method yields interscorer agreement coefficients of .90 or better for total scores.<sup>32</sup> Various motives have been studied. However, as our research is only of a particular motive namely nachievement, we will concern ourselves only with it.

The reliability of the scoring system for the said experiment is studied intensively from three different angles by McClelland and his associates. First, an attempt was made to determine the extent to which the judges agreed on a given category for a particular story. Secondly, reliability was ascertained by attempting to measure the extent to which the totals are stable for a given category on two judgments of the same records. In the third place, the reliability of an individual's overall nachievement score was tested by correlating the scores obtained for 30 individuals on two different scoring occasions.<sup>33</sup>

From the foregoing discussion it is evident that human motives can be experimentally aroused and its effects measured on fantasy, whether they be physiological or psychological motives. And from the shifts in the contents of the imaginative stories reliable scoring systems were developed that gave a rough measurement of the strength of the motive in question. McClelland and his associates had validated the TAT and their scoring system with an experiment on 200 college students. Now the question is whether or not this measure will be applicable to groups of

persons other than the male college students who had been the subjects on the various arousal conditions?

To test the generality of the nAchievement measure, Veroff compared the stories written by high school students, both boys and girls, after neutral and ego-involving experiences. He found a significant over-all increase in mean nAchievement score from the neutral to the ego-involving condition, for the high school boys. However, he found no significant change in nAchievement score for girls following ego-involment.<sup>34</sup>

McClelland also found that for Navaho high-school-age males, who are of a different culture, the scoring system was applicable and showed a significant increase in mean nAchievement score from a condition of low achievement arousal to one of higher achievement arousal.<sup>35</sup> Therefore, it can be assumed that the Thematic Apperception Test and its scoring system would be valid for our culture also.

We used six pictures for our research study. The figures in the pictures were modified to suit our culture. The first picture is of an old man and young man apparently father and son talking. The second picture is of a young man at work and a pagoda can be seen from his window. The third is a group

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34 McClelland, David C., "Measuring Motivation in Phantasy: The Achievement Motive", in D.C. McClelland (Ed.), Studies in Motivation, pp. 401-412.

35 Ibid., p. 405.



of young men apparently at a meeting. The next picture shows a young man at a desk working in a seemingly empty room. Then comes the picture of a young boy, a uniformed young man and a farm scene behind them. The last picture is of a middle-aged man sitting near a riverine scene. These pictures are adapted from the original Thematic Apperception Test pictures. The categories of the scoring system are also clarified by U Khin Maung Kyi and Mr. Guyot, so as to enable the scorer to make better classification of the categories.

We had a training on scoring by practicing on the materials presented by Atkinson and McClelland, according to the scoring manual. The scores of an experienced scorer were given; therefore, we practiced until we get a high reliability coefficient, as high as .98, with the scores of the experienced scorer. According to McClelland, such training is sufficient to score such stories on your own.

As we have said, our sample consists of four administrative classes --- Chawdwingon group I, Chawdwingon group II, Diploma in Management and Administration group I and II and Shan States ATO recruits. In order to validate our measurement of achievement motivation we had given the test to the matriculation students of two high schools in the country --- the Methodist English High School and South Okkalapa State High School. The test was administered in 1965, before the nationalization of high schools.

We had chosen these two schools, as we are interested to know whether there would be any difference in the level of achievement between the two schools due to differences in their social background.

In a study made by Rosen in the United States, the social class position of the respondents was determined by a modified version of Hollingshead's Index of Social Position. This index uses the occupation and education of the main wage earner, usually the father, as the principal criteria of status. The findings indicate that members of the middle class tend to have considerably higher need achievement scores than individuals in the lower social strata.<sup>36</sup> Again in Brazil, in a study of boys in the 9 through 11 age group in five public and private schools he found that there tends to be a direct relationship between social class and achievement motivation; that is, the higher the social class, the higher the motivation.<sup>37</sup>

The test was administered in their own class-rooms. We wanted about 100 students from each school. So, we were told by the MEHS principal to give the test to Sections A and C. Section A students took arts subjects as their optional and Section C students took science subjects as their optional. Also, Section C students were the best in the whole Matriculation class. We gave the test in their respective class-rooms.

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36 Rosen, Bernard C., "The Achievement Syndrome", A Psycho-cultural Dimension of Social Stratification", in J.W. Atkinson (Ed. Motives in Fantasy, Action and Society, (Princeton, 1958), pp.495-500

37 -----, "The Achievement Syndrome and Economic Growth in Brazil", in Social Forces, (March 1964), pp. 341-354.



After the test we found that the section C students did not complete it. The reason was that the test administrator did not tell the students to go on to the next story after every five minutes. Therefore, we had to discard section C students' responses and had to use sections B and D instead. In Okkalapa High School there were only two sections, so we had to take both. The total students of MEHS was 81 and Okkalapa State 69.

The Methodist English High School was situated in one of the best localities of Rangoon. It was run by missionaries and has a very strong financial position. It was very expensive to attend and hard to gain admittance without good recommendation. On the whole, the students of this school are very selected, and they usually are from the higher social strata of Rangoon.

The Okkalapa State School on the other hand was situated in one of the lower middle class localities. It was run by the government being state owned. Admission was easy and it was economically cheap to attend. Therefore, the students of this school would come from various sectors of classes varying from upper-middle class to poor working class.

Our assumption that the students of MEHS are from the higher social strata than the students of Okkalapa State proved to be true when we collect the data of the students' fathers' occupations. In Burma, the highest status group comprise of the high government officials, the professional personage such as

surgeons, dental surgeons, advocates, doctors, and higher University staff such as rectors, professors, lecturers and registrars. The upper-middle class comprise of junior government officials, manufacturers, merchants, traders, etc. Then comes the menial staff, small scale traders etc.

When we look at our data we found that out of 81 students in MEHS respondents, 42 of them are children of high government officials, 2 of them are children of surgeons, 6 of them are children of advocates, and rest are children of private businessmen. In the Okkalapa State, however, 29 of the students come from mercantile families, 15 of them are from junior government officials' families, and the rest are children of clerks, hawkers, tailors, shoe-menders, drivers, farmers, carpenters, waiters and some children's parents have no occupation. From this it is evident that the students of MEHS are from the upper social strata while those of Okkalapa State are from the lower social strata.

On analysis we found that the mean achievement scores of MEHS students and Okkalapa State School's students were 3.7 and 3.4 respectively. Therefore, although, the mean scores of MEHS students was higher, the difference was not significant. This may be due to the fact that the Section C of MEHS that consisted its best students, was omitted. We may however presume that if Section C students were included, the mean scores of



MEHS students might be higher and there may be significant difference between the mean scores of the two schools. Therefore, we do not find any relationship between the social class and level of achievement.

In order to validate our test, we had constructed a self-rating questionnaire and administered it. However, we only had time to give it to the MEHS students and did not have the chance to give it to the Okkalapa school. The questionnaire consisted of ten Burmese proverbs which were assumed to represent the achievement motive in Burmese Society (See Appendix). In scoring the responses, we differentiated the positive and negative items. Then we gave (4,3,2,1) for (strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree) respectively for positive items and vice-versa for negative items. After scoring we form a Likert scale. When we correlate the TAT results and self-rating test results we found that  $r = 0.31$  and  $\chi^2 = 7.78$ , which is very significant.

We also correlate the TAT results with the examination marks of the students. This independent criteria was taken as a last resort because we know very well that examination marks are influenced by factors other than achievement motive. However, as we cannot have any other criteria we had to take it. Formerly, we planned and has constructed a questionnaire form for teachers to rate the students; but this proved to be imprac-

tical as the teachers could not spare the time to answer the questions.

In correlating the TAT results with examination marks we took the average marks of first term and second term examinations. Then, we find the correlation in two ways, First, the analysis was with the total marks of a student and secondly, we took out the Mathematics marks of a student. This was done on the assumption that Mathematics needs more intelligence than other subjects and by taking it out we had tried to stabilize this factor.

	MERS	ORKALAPA STATE
Achievement score and examination marks without Mathematics.	$r = 0.01$	$r = 0.064$
Achievement score and examination marks with Mathematics.	$r = 0.09$	$r = 0.028$

From these results we can see that there is no significant correlation between examination marks, and achievement motivation of an individual. This may be due to the fact that success in examinations is more influenced by intelligence and basic training received in education.



Hence, we had tried to estimate the validity of our measurement by administering an indirect self-rating questionnaire whose scores were taken as independent criteria to validate our test results. Also, we tried to validate our test against the students' examination marks. We found some correlation between the self-rating questionnaire and our projective test scores. This cannot be taken as proof of validity of our test because the questionnaire itself needs to be validated. Examination marks cannot be considered as a good criteria for validation because success in examination involves factors such as intelligence, basic training, ability, social accessibility that are apart from achievement.

## Chapter IV

### THE BURMESE ADMINISTRATIVE CLASS

#### Research Findings

In our previous chapters we discussed the theories regarding the origins of motives. Some students of personality stressed the tremendous importance of child training in the development of motives. They presumed that infantile images of the parents, jealousies, and competitive strivings persist into adulthood, and they will not be modified by the realities of later life which shape conscious beliefs and attitudes. Thus, these parent-child relationships will go on influencing an individual's behaviour. Hence, research on the determinants of achievement has concentrated on the early family life.<sup>1</sup>

Winterbottom studied a group of twenty-nine eight year-old boys and their mothers, living in a small, middle class community. She found that high achievement group have earlier training in her list of independence and mastery behaviours. Within the framework of all the possible determinants, her study has shown the importance of the nature of the child's

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1 McClelland, David C., The Achieving Society, (Princeton, 1961).



experience in gaining independence and mastery as his learning is guided by his mother. The kinds of goals she chooses to train the child for, the age at which she wants them learned, and her general evaluation of her child's performance have been shown to be of some importance in contributing to the development of his motivation to achieve.<sup>2</sup>

Winterbottom's research findings had revealed the importance of child rearing practices in the development of achievement. As her findings are limited to United States only, further cross-cultural analyses by McClelland were made. The countries chosen were Brazil, Japan, and Germany. Achievement pressure was measured by using the same items as those originally used by Winterbottom. Here, it is found that low achievement can result either from too much or too little achievement pressure of the mother on the child. That is, the mean ages at which the mothers expect their sons to achieve various things is related to achievement.

It is clear that something apparently happens in the family in childhood, beginning at least as early as the fourth or fifth year, which produces differences in achievement level. Now that we know the importance of child training on achieve-

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2 Winterbottom, Marion R., "The Relation of Need for Achievement to Learning Experiences in Independence and Mastery," in J. W. Atkinson (ed.), Motives in Fantasy, Action, and Society, (Princeton, 1958), pp.453-478.

ment development, we should like to find out why some parents behave in a particular way in training their children and others do not. Here, we shall be dealing with social factors affecting early childhood training. They will consist of parental values, parental education, birth order, family type, occupation of the father, social class, etc.

Some psychologists, on the other hand, insist that motives are developed not only during early childhood relationships but also through later interactions. Sullivan sees the personality as emerging out of interactions with other human beings and as a product of the social forces that act upon the individual from day to day, beginning with birth. He does not believe that personality is set at an early age. It may change at any time as new interpersonal situations arise because the human organism is extremely plastic and **Malleable**. Although the forward thrust of learning and development predominates, regressions can and do occur when pain, anxiety, and failure become intolerable.<sup>4</sup> According to Erich Fromm also, the central problem of human motivation is not the satisfaction of instinctual drives, but rather the solution of the problems society has created. He said that, a man's personality develops in accordance with the opportunities that a particular society

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<sup>4</sup> Hall, Calvin S. and Lindzey, Gardner, Theories of Personality, (London, 1959), p.139.



offers him. In a capitalistic society, for example, he may gain a sense of personal identity by becoming rich or develop a feeling of rootedness by becoming a dependable and trusted employee in a large company.<sup>5</sup> Here, we will therefore, be concerned with social factors relating to learning at a later stage in life. Thus, different schools, work-organizations, associations, fraternities etc. would have different effects on the development of achievement motive.

Based on these schools of thought, empirical research regarding the origins of the need for achievement has focussed on the social conditions in which the individual learns to be motivated for achievement --- social conditions affecting early childhood training and social factors relating to learning at a later stage of life.

Rosen found differences in strength of motivation to achieve related to differences in social class background. Rosen had studied a sample of the entire male population of sophomores in two large public schools in the New Haven area. This group was stratified by the social position of the main wage-earner in the family (in most cases the father). His index of Social Position utilizes three factors: (1) occupation, (2) education, (3) ecological area of residence. Each factor

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5 Ibid.

is scaled and assigned a weight determined by a standard regression equation. The combined scores group themselves in five clusters (social strata) and to each of these a numerical index is assigned. The highest status group is labeled Class I, the others follow in numerical order, Class V being the lowest. The respondents were drawn randomly from each stratum: 5 subjects from Class I which is the entire Class I Sophomore population, 25 from Class II and 30 each from Class III, IV and V.<sup>6</sup>

In the table portraying the association between social position and achievement motivation, we found that the data indicate a clear relationship between social position and motivation score. (Classes I and II are collapsed into one group because of the scarcity of cases in Class I). In this table, 83% of the subjects in Classes I and II have high achievement motivation scores, as compared with 23% in Class V, a difference that is statistically significant, ( $\chi^2 : 26.6, p < .001$ ). Hence, these findings support the hypothesis that social strata differ from one another in the degree to which the achievement motive is characteristic of their members. Furthermore, the

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6 Rosen, Bernard C., "The Achievement Syndrome: A Psycho-cultural Dimension of Social Stratification," in J. W. Atkinson (Ed.), Motives in Fantasy, Action and Society, (Princeton, 1958), pp. 497-506.



data indicate that children of the middle class parents tend to have considerably higher need achievement scores than individuals in the lower social strata.<sup>7</sup> Thus, it was concluded that the pattern of achievement motivation a child develops depends on the class sub-culture in which he is trained, and is functional to the values and behaviour requirements with which he will be confronted, as he assumes adulthood within that setting.

Rosen's findings indicate that children of the middle class parents tend to have considerably higher achievement scores than individuals in the lower social strata. Hence, this clearly shows that socioeconomic status of the parents is an important determinant of achievement in children. However, his study was made in the United States only; and we would like to see whether the social and economic conditions really have an effect on achievement level cross-culturally.

A study on the relationship of parental occupation to child's achievement level was made in rural India. In India, occupations are more rigidly separated by the caste system than they are in a complex industrialized country like the United States, where a man may actually fill several occupational roles and every man, regardless of his occupation is expected to be something of an entrepreneur. The data was

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<sup>7</sup> Ibid.

collected by Fraser in India. He tested a large number of school children for achievement in villages in Orissa Province, with the results as classified by father's occupation. He found that the children whose fathers were members of the Teli or Gaud castes --- the only real "entrepreneurial" castes in this section of rural India --- had higher achievement than the children whose fathers were engaged in traditional agriculture.<sup>3</sup>

These findings, therefore, indicate that people tend to adjust their child rearing to the social and economic requirements of their life situations. The middle class occupations require more planning ahead in case of small business; they may require a longer period of education before financial rewards begin to be available, as in the minor professions like school teaching and even the pay for such occupations tends to come only once a month, as compared with weekly for lower class occupations, so that more planning ahead is required in terms of household expenditures.

Another social factor which have important influence on child rearing practices is parental values as represented

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<sup>3</sup> McClelland, David G., The Achieving Society, (Princeton, 1961), pp. 380-381.



in their religious world view. In our previous chapter we had discussed that Protestant Reformation may have been responsible for a particular type of child rearing practices which bring about higher achievement in individuals. The Protestant's insistence that a man's primary responsibility was to do his best at whatever station God had assigned to him in life, rather than to withdraw from the world and devote himself entirely to God may lead parents to behave in ways that would induce high achievement in their sons.

In similar fashion it may be argued that other worldly religions like Hinduism stress values that would hardly be expected to lead parents to behave in ways that would induce high achievement in their sons. It explicitly teaches that concern with earthly achievements is a snare and a delusion. This may lead Hindus to be unconcerned for the consequences of action. Hence, it is hard to see how they would set up high standards of excellence for their sons. Therefore, shall we assume that Christianity promotes more of the attitudes and values conducive to the development of high achievement than most other religions? Furthermore, do Protestant parents in fact differ from other Christian parents, for example Roman Catholic parents, consistently in their attitudes toward life and childrearing? In the

United States, early results suggested that Protestants favour earlier independence and mastery training than do various Catholic groups.<sup>9</sup>

Protestant parents are somewhat more anti-authoritarian in two respects: they stress more on the importance of knowledge of an individual's finding out things on his own, and they also believe that children should be by themselves, away from their parents, and are often better when they are on their own. Rosen found that Protestants believe more in the worthwhileness of planning and achieving, whereas the Catholics were somewhat more fatalistic in their attitude toward life.<sup>10</sup> Thus, we can presume that development of achievement is also influenced by the religious values held by the parents. However, further studies should be made concerning the extent to which their world view would favour parental attitudes that would lead to the development of high achievement.

Up till now, we had been discussing the importance of child training practices on the development of achievement. Winterbottom's findings on her research for twenty-nine eight

<sup>9</sup> Ibid., p. 358.

<sup>10</sup> Ibid., pp. 356-361.



year old boys and their mothers, emphasized the fact that something apparently happened in the family in childhood, beginning at least as early as the fourth or fifth year, which produces differences in achievement level. Also, we discussed that there has been evidence that mothers in different social classes do not rear their children in the same way, and that techniques of child care peculiar to particular social classes come into use as soon as a baby is born.

Now, we are interested to find out whether mothers of a particular social class would rear all of her children, irrespective of their birth order, in the same particular way, or has birth-order some influence on a mother's child training practice, regarding responsibility training, independence training etc. Alfred Adler felt that the personalities of the eldest, middle and youngest children of a family would be different.<sup>11</sup>

Atkinson and Miller have obtained evidence, in the United States showing that the first-born children tend to have higher achievement, presumably because their achievement oriented parents can set higher standards, be more affectionate etc., with one child than with several.<sup>12</sup> But,

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11 Hall, Calvin S., and Lindzey, Gardner, Theories of Personality, (London, 1959).

12 McClelland, David C., The Achieving Society, (Princeton, 1961), p. 374.

in a study of Indian students in Madras made by McClelland, the correlation between achievement and birth order is actually +0.10 suggesting that younger children may have higher achievement in India.<sup>13</sup> Also, in a study made by Abegglen in Japan, it was found that it may be the younger sons who get more independence and achievement training so that they leave home and go into business in town while the first born son stays at home and responsibly continues the family traditions.<sup>14</sup>

It had been previously discussed that there are two schools of thought regarding the origins of motives. Until now we had been discussing one theory, which states that motives are developed during early childhood. Thus, child-training practices and parent-child interactions are considered to play the most important part in the development of motives.

However, some psychologists insist that motives are developed not only during early childhood relationships but also through later interactions. In this case, the motive force of personality is said to be the avoidance of anxiety. Anxiety is interpersonal because it is rooted in the dreaded

13 Ibid.

14 Ibid.



expectation of derogation and rejection by others. The human being is rarely or never free from some interpersonal tension; what he does or thinks is generally related to the estimation of others. Thus, he would adopt a pattern of interpersonal responses employed to reduce anxiety, ward off disapproval, and maintain self-esteem. Therefore, the pattern of interaction reducing personal anxiety can occur in any situation involving interpersonal relations and a particular pattern of response to others may persist if the same or similar interpersonal situations are repeated. In this case, we are concerned with social factors relating to learning at a later stage in life also. Therefore, schools, work organizations, associations, fraternities etc. would have different effects on the development of motives.

Based on this theory, we know that schools could be an important influence on the development of achievement motives and values as well as giving students specific technical education. Schools are important socialization agents providing its students with values and discipline appropriate to achievement. Some schools enforce their rules and regulations very strictly and exercise authority strongly while others do not. In some schools, we find the execution of strict reward and punishment systems --- prizes given for good conduct, good performance in studies and sports; while punishment in various

forms, physical punishment, exposing the student to the ridicule of others, are given for bad conduct, and poor performance. Therefore, schools may promote achievement behaviour according to their practices.

In a research study made in Madras City on boys of age 15 - 17 attending five different types of schools, it was found that the boys in the Hindu High School have the highest average level of achievement, significantly higher than those in the New College, Besant High School, Madras Christian College and Government Arts College.<sup>15</sup>

From the preceding paragraphs we can see that there is some supporting empirical finding or some inclination that both the social factors effecting early childhood training and the social factors relating to learning at a later stage of life influence the development of need for achievement of individuals. We are now interested to know how these factors will influence the individuals in our society regarding achievement motive.

We have chosen a sample of the Burmese Administrative Class for our study. The purpose of our present research is to find out the effects of social variables on the achievement motivation in the Burmese Administrators. Our present sample consists of two of the administrative classes or seminars given at

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15 Ibid., pp. 413-417.



Chawdwingon, two Diploma in Management and Administration classes and a group of Shan States ATO recruits. When we intend to make this research study on the Burmese Administrators, our sample was to be the series of Chawdwingon Administrative Seminars. The former plan for the conduction of these seminars was that the civil servants of Burma, starting from the selection grade official group were to be chosen in turn to attend those seminars full time. The choice was made from all the civil servant of Burma. Therefore, we assumed that the way the students were selected for the classes provided us with an ideal sample group. Also, the seminars were programmed to be conducted continuously, thus, we were certain of getting an adequate sample size. However, they were terminated after we had administered the test to two classes, which caused us to look for other sample groups that might be representative of the Burmese Administrative Class. We could not, however, find any other big class of Burmese Administrators. Therefore, we had to take the nearest sample group which we thought might have some representation of the administrative class, but at the same time would have some basic differences from the Chawdwingon groups in the motive we want to measure. These sample groups were the D.M.A. classes I and II and Shan States ATO recruits.

In the present sample, we know that the Chawdwingon groups would have some basic differences from the Diploma Management and Administration groups and also with the Shan States APO group. The Chawdwingon Seminars were more or less compulsory for the civil servants, who had to attend these seminars full time. Besides, only those who were in the selection grade official group, each of whose service is not less than 10 years, were qualified to attend. The DMA groups, on the other hand, represent a wide variety of administrators. First and foremost the classes are entirely voluntary and part-time with examination at the end of each academic year; and their requirement for admission is at least a graduate or five years of working service. Hence, while Chawdwingon groups represent older, longer serviced and top management group in the Administrative machinery, the DMA groups represent a mixture of old and young, shorter and longer service and top and middle management personnel. The Shan States APO group was chosen because of their younger age and inexperience. All of them were around 25 years of age and they were recently recruited and attending their training classes. Due to the nature of these different sample groups, we assumed that there ought to be some differences in need for Achievement between them.



We had administered the TAT tests at the various classes chosen for our study and scored them according to the McClelland scoring manual adjusted somewhat to suit the Burmese culture. The average scores for each group represented by the Median is shown in Table I.

The average scores as revealed in Table I for each group is very low. This may be due to the fact that imagery other than achievement dominates most of the stories written by the respondents. For instance, the following is a typical story for picture (2) which most respondents wrote:-

"The husband is looking at the photo of his wife and baby. The wife and baby died. He is thinking how happy he will be if they are with him. Then he will be very sad and crying and will lead to prayer."

We can see that the story's dominant theme is more of affiliation than achievement. The story contains a definite concern in the main character over restoring a positive affective relationship with another person rather than competing with some standard of excellence or doing a good job, which is the criteria for achievement.

Another usual story for picture (1) is:-

"The elderly person with spectacles is the officer in charge of a government office and the other person is a subordinate officer under him. It seems that the subordinate

officer has not carried out his work satisfactorily and the officer is demanding explanation from the clerk. The officer wanted to have the work done in a proper order. The subordinate officer must give satisfactory explanation, otherwise he may receive some sort of punishment."

In this case, need for power is more dominant than need for achievement. We can see that one of the characters (the officer) is concerned with the control of the means of influencing another person, (the subordinate). Thus, the story has more of power theme rather than achievement theme.

It is, therefore, clear that the respondents are not self motivated and achievement oriented. Other unrelated imagery such as affiliation motive and power motive are more dominant in most of them, as we had shown in our examples. Therefore, we had tried to analyze the response patterns of each group for these various motives --- either the stories are achievement motivated, task motivated or motivated by needs other than achievement.

Achievement imagery (AI) is scored for stories which contain some reference to success in competition with some standard of excellence, unique accomplishment or long term involvement. That is, one of the characters in the story is engaged in some competitive activity winning or doing as well as or better than others; or, one of the characters is involved in accomplishing something which will mark him as a personal success, for example, inventions, artistic creations;



or one of the characters is involved in attainment of a long-term achievement goal.<sup>16</sup>

Doubtful achievement imagery (TI) is scored for stories which contain some references to achievement but which fail to meet one of the three criteria for achievement imagery. Frequently, stories in which one of the characters is engaged in a commonplace task or solving a routine problem are to be classified as doubtful imagery.<sup>17</sup>

Stories in which there is no reference to an achievement goal are scored unrelated imagery. Usually in these stories other themes are more dominating than achievement imagery.<sup>18</sup>

Table II shows the response patterns for each group of respondents for achievement imagery, task imagery and unrelated imagery.

The data shows that unrelated imagery or needs other than achievement dominates the responses of all groups. In all the five groups the unrelated imagery response stories

16 McClelland, David C., Atkinson, John W., Clark, Russell A. and Lowell, Edgar L., "A Scoring Manual for the achievement motive" in Atkinson, J.W. (Ed.), Motives in Fantasy, Action, and Society, (Princeton, 1956), pp. 161-164.

17 Ibid., p.135.

18 Ibid., p.187.

consist of 40% of the stories or above while the achievement imagery response stories consist of below 25% of the stories for Chawdwingon I, D.M.A. I and D.M.A. II. For Chawdwingon II the achievement imagery consists of 31.17% and for Shan States ATO, it is 28.00%. Hence, the Burmese elite as represented by our sample of the Burmese Administrative Class is low in achievement as a whole. In a research study made by Mr. James Guyot in the United States, he found that 62% of his sample of government bureaucrats are high in achievement. Our findings, therefore, may be due to some particular ingredient in a picture or pictures which elicit needs other than achievement. So we had studied the response patterns for each group for each picture as shown in Table III.

In Table III we can see that Pictures I, II, III, V and VI reveal uniform patterns of responses. The responses for unrelated imagery stories consist of 40% (and above) of the stories. The achievement imagery stories make up a very low percentage of the total -- as low as 3.45% in picture I for DMA I. In picture IV, however, we found that there is some variation in the response pattern, except for Chawdwingon I group, where unrelated imagery still dominates the response patterns. In the other groups, it is the task imagery or doubtful imagery which form the higher percentage of the total responses --- 53.57% for Chawdwingon II, 62.07% for D.M.A. I, 61.25% for D.M.A. II and 40% for Shan States ATO group.



Therefore, we can see that while pictures I, II, III, V, and VI elicits unrelated imagery, picture IV elicits core task imagery rather than achievement imagery. Hence, our sample is either task oriented or influenced by needs other than achievement motive.

However, even if the groups as a whole are low in achievement there are individuals who are higher in achievement than others in each group. The purpose of our study is to find out the causes of such differences in these groups. Therefore, we would correlate their acquired scores of achievement and other social factors.

In Burma, the government officials form a different social class from the non-government officials. Many common values and styles of life are shared among themselves, that are copied, imitated and followed by other social groups. They are the most westernized of all social groups. Due to their educational background, training and exposure in their bureaucratic roles, it is reasonable to assume that families of government officials infuse their children with values and discipline different from those used by common Burmese families in training their children. Hence, one of our main hypothesis is that sons of government officials will have a higher level of achievement than sons of non-government officials. Table IV and V show the association between fathers' occupation and

achievement scores of sons.

In Chawdwingon II and D.M.A. I, there is some association between fathers' occupation and achievement scores of sons. 61.5% and 75% of the non-government officials' sons in Chawdwingon II and D.M.A. I respectively are high in achievement while only 33.3% and 27.3% of the government officials' sons are high in achievement. We had hypothesized that the sons of government servants will have a higher level of achievement than the sons of non-government servants. However, for D.M.A. I and Chawdwingon II, we found that it was the sons of non-government officials who have the higher achievement level. Such a contrary result to our assumptions may be due to the fact that the non-government officials unconsciously infused into their children some anxiety or need to excel so as to be accepted into such a group, as the government servants of Burma form a social class by itself. Also, on a careful examination of the occupations of non-government official fathers of these groups, we found that most of them are engaged in own business activities such as merchants, general merchants, traders etc. In carrying out these business activities these people will have to engage in some activities involving risk-taking, individual responsibility, money as a measure of results, organizational skills, anticipation of future possibilities, which are termed as entrepreneurial activities. Winterbottom found in United States that children of such middle class families are more achievement



oriented.<sup>19</sup> Rosen's findings also supports Winterbottom's.<sup>20</sup> Miller and Swanson also found that entrepreneurial middle-class mothers use internalization techniques rather than direct punishment to train their children and on the whole these mothers emphasized on active manipulative approach to life characteristic of entrepreneurial role in later life.<sup>21</sup> From this we may be able to infer that as the parents are engaged in entrepreneurial activities, they may infuse into their children such values which promote such activities which accounts for development of achievement. However, these factors need further research and classification.

In the other three groups, Chandwington I, D.M.A. II and Shan States AFO, we found that the association between fathers' occupations and achievement scores of the sons is very low. In Chandwington I 54.5% of the sons of government officials are high in achievement while 43.7% of the sons of non-government officials are high in achievement. In D.M.A. II 50% of the sons of government officials and the same percentage of the non-government officials are high in achievement. For Shan States AFO group also, 44.4% of the government official sons are high in achievement while 50% of the non-government official sons are high in achievement. This finding may be due to the smallness of our sample groups. Due to

19 Winterbottom, Marion R., "The Relation of Need for Achievement to Learning Experiences in Independence and Mastery", in T.W. Atkinson (Ed.), Motives in Fantasy, Action, and Society, (Princeton, 1958), pp. 473-478.

20 Rosen, Bernard C., "The Achievement Syndrome: A Psychocultural Dimension of Social Stratification," in J.W. Atkinson (Ed.), Motives in Fantasy, Action and Society, (Princeton, 1958), pp. 492-508.

the smallness of the sample groups, we could not make any fine classifications regarding the fathers' occupation. Our classification was very generalized, such as sons of government servants and sons of non-government servants. If we had been able to make a finer classification of the fathers' occupations, we might have been able to have some significant relationship even though the findings may be contrary to our hypothesis.

Our second hypothesis is that those who had come from large towns will have a higher achievement level than those who came from small towns and villages. By large towns we mean such places as Rangoon, Mandalay, Bassein, Moulmein, Pyinmana etc. and by small towns and villages we mean such places as Okpo, Bedaye, Dulla etc. The large towns are the trading centres of the country, hence these urbanized areas would be more exposed to modernization and change. Also, they will provide their occupants with more opportunities to better their standards of living with occupations which require exact performance as regards to monetary rewards. Thus, life in these large towns would be more competitive than life in small towns and villages where means of living depends more on traditional cultivation. Such differences would result in different socialization practices of the parents in training their children.

In our analysis of the Burmese Administrative class, we try to find the relationship between the place of birth of



the respondents and their achievement scores for each group. Table VI shows the results.

In Chawdwin II and Shan States ATO groups, we found that there is a high relationship between the place of birth and achievement scores, thus supporting our hypothesis. In Chawdwin II 57.1% of those who come from large towns are high in achievement while only 35.7% of those who come from small towns and villages are high in achievement. Also, in Shan States ATO group, 66.7% of those from large towns compared with 30.8% of those of small towns and villages are high in achievement. In Chawdwin I and D.M.A. II also, we found that a higher percentage of those who come from large towns are high in achievement compared with those who come from small towns and villages. Hence, we can see that there is some relationship between place of birth and the development of achievement motive.

Another variable which we thought might have some effect on the development of achievement motive is the birth order of the respondents. Alfred Adler had said that personalities of the oldest, middle and youngest child in a family were likely to be different, due to the differences in the experiences each child had as a member of a social group.<sup>22</sup> The eldest child may be the one who had the most responsible chores

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22 Hall, Calvin S. and Lindzey, Gardner, Theories of Personality, (London, 1959).

while the youngest, always regarded as the baby of the family, may be given the least responsible chores.

In the United States Atkinson and Miller have obtained evidence that the first-born children tend to have higher achievement. But McClelland found in a sample of Indian students from Madras, the correlation between achievement and birth order is actually 0.10 suggesting that younger children may have higher achievement in India. In Japan, Abegglen found that it may also be younger sons who get more independence and achievement training so that they leave home and go into business in town while the first-born son stays at home and responsibly continues the family traditions.<sup>23</sup>

In Burma, for our sample Table VII shows the relationship between achievement scores and birth order.

We can see a high association between achievement and position in the family for Chawdwingon I, II, and D.M.A. II. Our results cannot be taken as conclusive and cannot be generalized yet until further research studies can be made.

Another factor which we consider might influence the development of achievement is schooling. Could schools

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<sup>23</sup> McClelland, David C., The Achieving Society, (Princeton, 1961), pp. 373-374.



be influencing motives and values as well as giving students specific technical education? As we had said, schools are important socialization agents providing its students with values and discipline appropriate to achievement. Praise for the specific achievement, and training in the requisite might increase achievement-oriented behavior. Thus, in training their children, some schools enforce their rules strictly while others do not. Some encourage their students in achievement behaviour with strict execution of reward and punishment systems. Therefore, we find that schools may promote achievement motivated behaviour according to their practices.

In Table VIII for Chawdwingon I and D.M.A. II a higher percentage of those who attend government schools are high in achievement while a lower percentage of those who attend non-government schools are high in achievement. However, in Chawdwingon II, D.M.A. I and Shan States ATO we found that a higher percentage of those who come from non-government schools are higher in achievement than those from government schools.

Another one of our hypotheses is that those who are older would be more motivated than those who are younger. This hypothesis was made on the assumption that work organizations will also have some effect on the development of achieve

ment motive of an individual. Here, we want to show the effect of the length of service of an individual on his achievement scores. However, due to lack of sufficient data and information we had assumed that older people would have longer service in an organization. This assumption was also made because mobility of labour is not a great factor in Burma.

Table I which shows the average scores of each group made it evident that age is not an only factor to influence the development of achievement of an individual. The average scores of Chawdwingon group I is equal to the average scores of Shan States ATO group, while the average scores of Chawdwingon II is the highest of all five groups. Chawdwingon I and II consist of people above 40 years of age, with a few exceptions, and they are from the selection grade group which shows they have a long service of about 10 years. The Shan States ATOs on the other hand are fresh recruits and they are all around 23 years of age. Such contradictory results may be due to the fact that we had compared different groups where other variables may have a higher influence than the variables under discussion. Therefore, we had tried to compare between individuals within the same group.

For each group we had divided into two groups --- the high achievement scorers and the low achievement scorers. Those whose scores are above the median go into the high group



and those below the median go into the low group. Then we divided them according to age --- 40 and above consist of one group; 39 and below another.

On analysis, we found that there is some relationship between age and nAchievement scores for Chawdwingon I and D.M.A. II as shown in Table IX. For Shan States ATO group, we found that there is no age difference within the group. The association for D.M.A. II is the highest; however, the relationship between nAchievement and age is very low for Chawdwingon II and D.M.A. I. This may be due to the fact that our assumption in taking age as a representative factor for length of service is not valid. However, our sample size is too small and limited to make such conclusions.

Furthermore, although we lacked information on length of service, we tried to correlate nAchievement scores with the jobs held by the respondents. We had classified two types of jobs --- professional and non-professional. The professional group roughly contains, doctors, accountants, engineers, DFOs and agriculturists while non-professional jobs contains Assistant Secretaries, Deputy Commissioners, Police Officers and Personal Assistants. We assumed that there must be some differences in nAchievement between these two groups. It may be that those who are more achievement motivated choose professional jobs or vice-versa. On the other hand, the jobs themselves may have some effect on the development of nAchieve-

ment in the individuals. The results are shown in Table IX.

The findings for Chawdwingon I, II and D.M.A. II are not significant while D.M.A. I results reveal a  $X^2 = 7.84$  (which is significant).

On studying the results, we find that the next highest Q value is for D.M.A. II. Chawdwingon I and II values are very low. The difference may be due to the fact that D.M.A. is not a compulsory requirement for professional man for promotion and advancement in their jobs. Hence, these professional people who attend D.M.A. classes might have been more motivated than those represented in the Chawdwingon sample where the seminar attendance was on compulsory rotation system. This might be the real reason behind the test significance we find in D.M.A. I sample and although not significant but highly associated in D.M.A. II sample.

The research findings indicate that the Burmese Administrators, represented by our five sample groups, are not self-motivated and achievement oriented. Other unrelated imagery such as affiliation motive and power motive are more dominant in most of the stories.

Further data presented provide a basis for description of the differences in the social background of the Burmese Administrators, who have relatively high or low achievement on the fantasy measure used. Our results in



Chawdwingon II and D.M.A. I indicate that sons of non-government officials have a higher level of nAchievement than sons of government officials. For other groups, there seem to be no significant relationship between fathers' occupation and nAchievement scores of the sons. Also, we find some indication that those who come from large towns have a higher level of nAchievement than those who come from small towns and villages in Chawdwingon II and Shan States ATO recruits; however, the relationship is low in other groups. Birth order, which is another variable related to nAchievement scores, seem to have some relationship with the level of nAchievement of the individuals in Chawdwingon I and D.M.A. II. There is, however, no significant relationship in other groups. In D.M.A. I and D.M.A. II we found a high association between the type of job held and nAchievement level of the respondents.

Thus, our analysis of the relationship between social background factors and nAchievement level as measured by TAT has led to no very conclusive results, and this may be due to the smallness of the individual sample groups. However, it has led to tentative conclusions which at the very least may serve as guides to further research on factors influencing the development of nAchievement.

TABLE I

The Achievement Motivation of the Burmese Administrators

	Chawdwingon I	Chawdwingon II	DMA I	DMA II	ATO
Median (nachievement)	0	2	-2	1	0
	N = 36	N = 28	N = 29	N = 31	N = 25

TABLE II

The Response Patterns of the Sample Groups

	No.	AI %	TI %	UI %	Total %
Chawdwingon I	36	23.55	23.55	52.90	100
Chawdwingon II	28	31.17	30.52	38.31	100
D.M.A. I	29	18.02	29.65	52.33	100
D.M.A. II	31	24.72	34.06	41.22	100
ATO	25	28.66	23.33	48.00	100



Pictures	Total	CHAWD. I			CHAWD. II			DMA I			DMA II			ATO		
		AI	TI	UI	AI	TI	UI	AI	TI	UI	AI	TI	UI	AI	TI	UI
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Picture I	(100)	5.55	36.11	58.34	17.86	35.72	46.42	3.45	17.25	79.30	6.45	58.05	35.50	16	32	52
Picture II	(100)	19.44	19.44	61.12	17.85	21.43	60.72	13.79	17.24	68.97	25.80	16.13	58.07	32	16	52
Picture III	(100)	11.11	22.22	66.67	32.14	28.57	39.29	10.34	24.14	65.52	9.68	29.04	61.28	16	28	56
Picture IV	(100)	27.77	25.00	47.23	35.75	53.57	10.68	20.69	62.07	17.24	35.48	61.25	3.27	36	40	24
Picture V	(100)	47.22	2.77	50.01	25.00	21.43	53.57	31.03	27.58	41.39	29.03	12.90	58.07	48	4	48
Picture VI	(100)	36.11	11.11	52.78	32.14	21.43	60.72	27.58	27.58	44.84	38.71	16.13	45.16	24	12	64
Number		(36)			(28)			(29)			(31)			(25)		

Table III

TABLE IV  
Achievement Motivation by Fathers' Occupation

	No.	Total %	Sons of Government Servants %		Sons of Non-Government Servants %	
			High	Low	High	Low
			Chawdwin- gon I	36	(100)	54.5
Chawdwin- gon II	28	(100)	53.3	66.7	61.5	38.5
DMA I	29	(100)	27.3	72.7	75.0	25.0
DMA II	31	(100)	50.0	50.0	50.0	50.0
S.S. ATO	25	(100)	44.4	55.6	50.0	50.0

TABLE V  
Relationship Between Achievement Scores  
and Fathers' Occupations

Chawdwingon I	Q = 0.21
Chawdwingon II	Q = 0.52
D.M.A. I	Q = 0.77
D.M.A. II	Q = 0 (no association)
Shan States ATO	Q = 0.11



TABLE VI

The Relation Between the Place of Birth  
and Achievement Motivation

	No.	Q	Total %	Large Towns High %	Large Towns Low %	Small Towns High %	Small Towns Low %
Chawdwingon I	36	0.33	(100)	50	50	33.3	66.7
Chawdwingon II	28	0.41	(100)	57.1	42.9	35.7	64.3
DMA I	29	0.12	(100)	44.0	56.0	50.0	50.0
DMA II	31	0.14	(100)	53.3	46.7	46.1	53.9
Shan States ATO	25	0.63	(100)	66.7	33.3	30.8	69.2

TABLE VII

Relationship Between Achievement Scores  
and Birth Order

Chawdwingon I	Q = 0.40
Chawdwingon II	Q = 0.25
DMA I	Q = 0.16
DMA II	Q = 0.90
Shan States ATO	Q = 0.05

TABLE VIII

Relationship Between Schools Attended and Achievement

	No.	Q	Total %	Govt. Schools		Non-Govt. Schools	
				High	Low	High	Low
				%	%	%	%
Chawdwingon I	38	0.44	(100)	50.0	50.0	27.7	72.3
Chawdwingon II	28	0.46	(100)	35.3	64.7	60.0	40.0
DMA I	29	0.20	(100)	40.0	60.0	50.0	50.0
DMA II	31	0.41	(100)	60.0	40.0	27.7	72.3
Shan States AFO	25	0.05	(100)	47.7	52.3	50.0	50.0

TABLE IX

Relationship Between Age and AchievementMotivation

Chawdwingon I	Q = 0.23
Chawdwingon II	Q = 0.01
DMA I	Q = 0.13
DMA II	Q = 0.41



## Chapter V

### TRADE CORPORATION SCHOOL

#### Research Findings

We discussed our research study and findings of a sample group of the Administrative Class of Burma in our previous chapter. When we made that research study our sample was to be the series of Chawdwingon Administrative Seminars. The former plan for the conduction of these seminars was that the civil servants of Burma, starting from the selection grade official group were to be chosen in turn to attend these seminars full time. The choice was made from all the civil servants of Burma. Therefore, we assumed that the way the students were selected for the classes provided us with an ideal sample group. Also, the seminars were programmed to be conducted continuously; thus, we were certain of getting an adequate sample group. However, they were terminated after we had administered the test to two classes, which caused us to look for other sample groups that might be representative of the Burmese Administrative Class. We could not, however, find any other big class of Burmese Administrators. Therefore, we had to take the nearest sample group which we thought might have some representation of

the administrative class, but at the same time would have some basic differences from the Chawdwingon groups in the motive we want to measure. These sample groups were the D.M.A. classes I and II and Shan States ATO recruits.

Hence, we can see that our sample consisted of five different classes --- Chawdwingon I and II, D.M.A. I and II and Shan States ATO recruits. The groups contained 36, 28, 29, 31 and 25 individuals respectively. The Chawdwingon I and II were taken from the Chawdwingon Seminars. The classes were full time and compulsory for the persons who were attending. D.M.A. I and II were those students attending the course of their own free will. The Chawdwingon groups were selected from the civil servants who were already in the civil service and the admission requirement to D.M.A. classes is at least a graduate or five years of working service. Shan States ATO recruits on the other hand were very young, all of them round about 25 years, and were recently recruited and attending the training classes. Therefore, from the above, we can see that the groups were not comparable and hence, cannot be combined together for analysis. Therefore, as we had to analyse for each group we found that the results provided from these small individual groups were ambiguous; therefore, we can only make tentative conclusions from them.

The sample group for our second study consisted of the whole body of students attending the Trade Corporation



Training Classes given at the Trade Corporation School on Prome Road. There were altogether 355 students, whose ranks vary from managers, assistant managers and clerks who were already in the trade service to students who had graduated recently and directly recruited.

The test was administered at the same time in five different classes by five administrators. Before administering the test the administrators were given uniform instructions which they had to follow. Then, time was checked and the test was administered. The questionnaires were given out and the administrators gave the instructions that this test was not a performance test and it would not have any effect on the examination results of the students. The students were then told to look at the first picture and write a story on it in accordance with the guiding questions given on the next page. After five minutes they were told to go on to the next picture. The same procedure followed for all of the six pictures and after the five minutes on the last picture was completed, the students were given extra five minutes to complete any story they had left unfinished. Then only, they were told to fill up their social background questionnaire forms. After 50 minutes altogether the forms were collected. All the students in different classes had to start and complete the test at the same time. Hence, all students were assumed to be under the

same test conditions. On analysis, we found that fifteen students did not complete all the six stories of the TAT test. Therefore, we had to discard them and base our analysis on the remaining 340 respondents.

Our previous chapters discussed in detail the theory and research made on the origins of nAchievement. One school of thought said that early childhood experiences are most important in laying down the basic personality structure of an individual. It was said that infantile images of the parents, jealousies and competitive strivings persist into adulthood and that they would be built into the individual's personality and go on influencing his behaviour. They presumed that such influence would be made in a way which is relatively independent of the symbol systems developed in connection with later experiences.<sup>1</sup> However, another school of thought does not believe that personality is set at an early age. It may change at any time as new interpersonal situations arise because the human organism is extremely plastic and malleable. Although, the forward thrust of learning and development predominates, regressions can and do occur when pain, anxiety, and failure become intolerable.<sup>2</sup>

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1 McClelland, David C., The Achieving Society, (Princeton, 1961), p.340.

2 Hall, Calvin S., and Lindzey, Gardner, Theories of Personality, (New York, 1961), pp. 135-147.



However, we find that, from the empirical findings made by various researchers, it can be assumed that both early experiences and later interactions have some effect and influence in laying down the personality structure of an individual and influencing his behaviour. Winterbottom studied a group of 20 - 9 year-old boys and their mothers, living in a small, middle class community. She found that high achievement group have earlier training in her list of independence and mastery behaviours. Her results indicate that mothers of children with strong achievement motivation differ from mothers of children with weak achievement motivation in the following respects:-

- (a) They make more demands before the age of eight.
- (b) They evaluate their children's accomplishments higher and are more rewarding.
- (c) The total number of restrictions made through age ten is less but the total number of restrictions made through age seven is greater.
- (d) Even though they make more restrictions through age seven the number of demands they make at this early age exceeds the number of restrictions.<sup>3</sup>

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3 Winterbottom, Marlon R., "The Relation of Need for Achievement to Learning Experiences in Independence and Mastery", in J.W. Atkinson (Ed.), Motives in Fantasy, Action and Society, (Princeton, 1958), p. 478.

Winterbottom's research findings had revealed the importance of child rearing practices in the development of achievement. Her findings were supported by the cross-cultural studies made by McClelland in Brazil, Japan and Germany. Achievement pressure was measured by using the same items as those originally used by Winterbottom. It was found that low achievement resulted from either too little or too much achievement pressure of the mother.<sup>4</sup>

Rosen found that the strength of achievement varied directly with social class. He studied the entire male population of sophomores in two large public schools in the New Haven area. His findings indicate that members of the middle class tend to have considerably higher need achievement scores than individuals in the lower social strata.<sup>5</sup> Thus, it could be concluded that the pattern of achievement motivation a child develops depends on the sub-culture in which he is trained, and is functional to the values and behaviour requirements with which he will be confronted, as he assumes adulthood within that setting.

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4 McClelland, David C., The Achieving Society, (Princeton, 1961), pp. 345-350.

5 Rosen, Barnard C., "The Achievement Syndrome: A Psycho-cultural Dimension of Social Stratification", in J. W. Atkinson (ed.), Motives in Fantasy, Action and Society, (Princeton, 1958), pp. 495-508.



In the United States, Atkinson and Miller have found some indication that the first-born children tend to have higher nAchievement, presumably because their achievement oriented parents can set higher standards, be more affectionate etc., with one child than with several. But, in a study made by McClelland in Madras, the correlation between nAchievement and birth order is actually  $+0.10$  suggesting that younger children may have higher nAchievement in India. In Japan also, Abegglen found that it may be the younger sons who get more independence and achievement training so that they leave home and go into business in town while the first born son stays at home and responsibly continues the family traditions.<sup>6</sup> From these research studies and findings, we can see that the social background of an individual have some influence on the development of need for achievement of individuals.

One of our hypotheses, is that the sons of government servants will have a higher level of nAchievement than the sons of non-government servants. Our assumption here is that in Burma, the government servants form a class by themselves. They go about together, go to the same social gatherings and more or less share the same interests, values

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6 McClelland, David C., The Achieving Society, (Princeton, 1951), pp. 574.

and have the same attitudes due to their educational background, training and exposure in their bureaucratic roles. Therefore, we assumed that the values infused into their children would be different from those used by common Burmese families in training their children.

In our previous research study, the findings were ambiguous. We did not find any significant results but we found some indication that sons of non-government servants tend to be more motivated than sons of government servants. Out of the five groups, Chawdwingon I, Shan States ATO and D.M.A. II showed very insignificant relationship and we could not make any conclusions from them. However, Chawdwingon II and D.M.A. I groups revealed the tendency for non-government servant's sons to be more motivated than the government servants' sons, even though the correlation was not very significant. Such insignificant findings might be due to that fact that because of our small individual sample groups, we could not make any fine classifications regarding the fathers' occupation. Our classification for our previous sample was very generalized such as sons of government servants and sons of non-government servants. This prevented us from getting any significant relationship between fathers' occupation and sons' achievement scores, because the non-government servant officials group consist of peasants, labourers, traders, lawyers, teachers etc. If we had been able



to make a finer classification of the fathers' occupations, we might have been able to have some significant relationship even though the findings may be contrary to our hypothesis.

In our second study however, because of the larger sample we had been able to divide the occupations of non-government officials into various categories, such as peasants, traders, teachers, lawyers and leave the government officials as they are. We wanted to classify the government officials according to their rank also, but, however, the respondents did not give us such fine information about their fathers' rank. Table I shows our results.

From this table, we can see that the sons of traders are the most achievement oriented group and the sons of peasants, the least achievement oriented group. Only 38.77% of peasants' sons are high in nAchievement while 57.94% of the traders' sons are in the high group. AS for the government officials' sons, they seem to equally distributed among the high and the low nAchievement groups. In our previous study also, for D.M.A. I and Chawdwingon II, we found that the sons of non-government officials tend to be more motivated. When we study the occupations of these non-government officials, we found that most of them were engaged in own business activities such as traders, general merchants etc. McClelland had said that middle class businessmen produce more achievement oriented individuals due to

the nature of activities they have to perform. For instance, in carrying out the business activities these people engage in some activities involving risk-taking, individual responsibility, money as a measure of results, organisational skills, anticipation of future possibilities which are termed as entrepreneurial activities.

Winterbottom found in United States that children of such middle class families are more achievement oriented.<sup>7</sup> Rosen's finding also supports Winterbottom's.<sup>8</sup> Miller and Swanson also found that entrepreneurial middle-class mothers use internalization techniques rather than direct punishment to train their children and on the whole these mothers emphasized on active manipulative approach to life characteristic of entrepreneurial role in later life.<sup>9</sup> In India, Fraser found that the children of the Teli or Gaud castes --- the only real "entrepreneurial" castes --- had higher achievement than the children whose fathers were engaged in traditional agriculture.<sup>10</sup>

7 Winterbottom, Marion R., "The Relation of Need for Achievement to Learning Experiences in Independence and Mastery", in J.W. Atkinson (Ed.), Motives in Fantasy, Action and Society, (Princeton, 1958), pp. 453-478.

8 Rosen, Barnerd C., "The Achievement Syndrome: A Psycho-cultural Dimension of Social Stratification", in J.W. Atkinson (Ed.), Motives in Fantasy, Action and Society, (Princeton, 1958), pp. 495-508.

9 Miller, Daniel R., and Swanson, Guy E., The Changing American Parent, (United States, 1958).

10 McClelland, David C., The Achieving Society, (Princeton, 1961), pp. 380-381.



Our findings are in accordance with these research findings and theory that middle-class businessmen produce more achievement oriented individuals. On the other hand, we had assumed that due to their educational background, training and exposure in their bureaucratic roles, the government officials form a different social class and their rearing of children would be different from any other class. However, from the table, we can see that the number of highs and lows in nAchievement for government officials' sons are equal. This may be because we were unable to get the definite rank of the father and had to group all the government officials together irrespective of their ranks. And, also, it may be that even though our assumption on the fact that the government officials might infuse the values into their children differently from the common people is correct, they might not emphasize on those values which are characteristic of the development of nAchievement.

Our next hypothesis is that those who came from large towns would have a higher level of nAchievement than those who came from small towns and villages. As we had said in the previous chapter, the standard of living would be higher in larger towns, the people more exposed to modern values, way of life more competitive and more opportunity to better oneself, than in small towns and villages. Also, the occupation of the father would be limited by the place of residence. From these we had

assumed that such differences would result in differences in socialization practices of the parents in training their children.

In our previous study, the respondents were asked only for the place of birth. On the other hand, the place of your birth and the place where you were brought up may be entirely different. For some people might be born in a small village but might have been brought up in a large town. Therefore, in our second study we asked the respondents not only for their place of birth but also for the place where they had lived most of the time before going to college. On analysis, we classify the places into three categories, viz. large towns, small towns, and villages. By large towns we meant towns such as Rangoon, Moulmein, Mandalay, Bassein, Akyab, Pegu, Syriam, Toungoo, Pakonku, Pyinmana etc. and the rest are small towns and villages such as Okkyin, Okpo, Payagyi etc. Table II shows the relationship between the place of birth and achievement scores.

From the table, we can see that those who come from large towns are equally high and low in achievement scores --- 50% each. And 43.29% of those who come from small towns and villages are high in achievement. Therefore, it is clear that there is no significant relationship between place of birth and achievement. However, on theory there should be some significance between the place of your childhood socialization and



nAchievement. Therefore, we try to relate the nAchievement score with the place where you have lived most of the time before going to college. Here also we classify the places as said above. Table III shows the results.

In this case we have found a significant relationship that supports our hypothesis. 51.83% of those who had lived most of the time in large towns are high in nAchievement, while only 36.9% of those who had lived in small towns and villages, are in the high achievement group. Therefore, it seemed that it is the place of your childhood socialization which plays a major role in the development of nAchievement rather than the place of your birth.

Another variable which we would like to correlate with nAchievement is birth-order. It can be seen that the personalities of the eldest, middle, and youngest child in a family were likely to be different because of the differences in the experiences each child has as a member of a social group. The first born or oldest child is given a good deal of attention until the second child is born; then he is suddenly dethroned from his favoured position and must share his parents' affections with the new baby. The second or middle child might constantly try to surpass his older sibling. From the beginning he might feel handicapped for being the younger child in the family, and might try to compete to surpass his elder sibling. The youngest child usually is given the least responsibility. However, with

the youngest, he would be spoilt as all of the older siblings would do things for him and take responsibilities from him.

Atkinson and Miller had found in the United States some indication for the first-born to be more motivated due to the fact that parents can set higher standards, show more warmth etc., with one child than with several. But McClelland's study in Madras suggested that younger children may be more motivated in India. Also, in Japan, Abegglen found that younger sons tend to be more motivated as they get more independence and achievement training.<sup>11</sup> From these research findings, we may assume that it would be difficult to generalize which position in the family promotes the development of achievement, because variations in birth order would be different in different cultures. In Burma, it is the first born whom the parents most rely on. They demand an early maturity from them and expect them to go straight that is to be good so as to be a good example for the younger siblings. There is a saying that if the leader goes straight on the path, then the following group will follow straight. Also, the parents of an only child demands just as much from him as an eldest child. Therefore, we assumed that in Burma, there should be a tendency

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11 Ibid., p.374.



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for the first-borns and only children to have a higher level of achievement than the younger ones. However, we would like to find out whether there really is any significant relationship between birth order and the development of achievement. Table IV shows the results.

Table IV, which shows the relationship between achievement and birth order reveals statistically significant results. ( $\chi^2 = 10.24, P < 0.05$ ). We can see that there is not much difference between the percentage of highs and lows in achievement for the eldest and the youngest children of the family. They tend to be equally high and low. As for the only children, there is some tendency to be more on the high side than the low. 58.33% of the only children are high scorers. This may be due to the fact that they feel they are the only ones who will have to make good and achieve or disappoint their parents. They are the only ones who could achieve and realize their parents' dreams. The middle ones on the other hand tend to be low in achievement---only 41.66% are high scorers. This is as we had expected. However, we had expected to find the first borns to be highly motivated which is not the case. Nevertheless, from these findings, we can say that, in Burma, the only children tend to be highly motivated while there is a tendency for the middle borns to be low in achievement.

It was thought that schools might play a large role in the development of achievement. For instance, case studies

show that foreign educational influence may be sufficient to increase achievement. Also, the way schools train their students in independence and mastery of tasks can be of some importance in the development of achievement.

Boyle had found in four independent studies that the aspirations of students are influenced by the kind of high school they attend. However, Rosen had distinguished the difference between Achievement Motivation and Value Orientation both of which are related to Achievement Orientation and found significant direct relationship between value orientation and students' aspirations but not significant relationship between achievement motivation and students' aspirations. This theory on the distinction of value orientation and achievement motivation need a little clarification by Rosen. He had said that value orientation because they tend to be on a conceptual level, are probably acquired in that stage of the child's cultural training when verbal communication of a fairly complex nature is possible. Achievement motivation, on the other hand, probably has its origin is in certain kinds of parent-child interaction that occur early in the child's life and are likely to be emotional un verbalized. Analytically, we can accept that the learning of achievement - oriented values can be independent of the acquisition of the achievement motive, but can we really say that empirically they occur independent of each other.



Rosen had also found that both nachievement and achievement values are characteristic of the upper middle class strata. Therefore, can we not say that parents of this class strata infuse into their children both achievement values and need for achievement simultaneously. Therefore, in this case, Rosen should show the relationship between nachievement and value orientation in order to make clear that nachievement and value orientations are independent of each other. Before it can be established that empirically achievement motivation and value orientations occur independently of each other, there is a benefit of doubt for Rosen's theory. Therefore, if students' aspirations and value orientations are significantly related and characteristic of the upper middle class, and if students' aspirations are directly related to type of school attended, then we would like to know whether achievement motivation, which also is a dominant characteristic of the upper middle class and which is assumed to be simultaneously infused into individuals as value orientation is related to type of school attended.

Our findings in the previous research were very ambiguous. This may be due to the smallness of the sample groups and indiscriminating classification of schools. The findings for our present research is shown in Table V. Schools seem to have some effect on the development of nachievement.

Table V reveals statistically significant results.

( $\chi^2 = 11.12$  P > 0.01).

In the table, we can see that a higher percentage of the respondents who attended Government, Mission and National schools are low in achievement scores while a higher percentage of those who attended Private Schools attain high achievement scores. This may be due to the fact that Private Schools are attended only by a limited number of individuals, hence, school life would be more competitive as achievement behaviour would be more rewarded because the instructors could give more individual attention to the pupils than in a large school.

Our next hypothesis is that those who are of greater service would have a higher level of achievement than those who are younger service. In our previous research, however, as we were unable to obtain the length of service of respondents we had to infer it from age. Those who are older would be of greater service than those who are younger. Members of an organization may initially derive satisfaction from coming together for the purpose of achieving a stated end; later, they may derive equal or greater satisfaction from simply maintaining an organization that provides them with office, prestige, power, sociability, income or a sense of identity. Our hypothesis was made on the assumption that those who are of greater service would much more identify himself with the organization and derive satisfaction from doing his work well, than those who are of younger service. Thus, the former will be more achievement



motivated than the latter. However, in our second research study also, we were unable to get the required information on the length of service; hence, we could not verify our hypothesis.

Another factor which we would like to investigate is the rank of the respondents. We observe that different attitudes are held by people who occupy different roles. It is a commonly accepted postulate in role theory that a person's attitudes will be influenced by the role he occupies in a social system. Therefore, is it not possible that nAchievement might also be influenced by the role of each individual in an organization? Sullivan did not believe that personality is set at an early age. According to him, it may change at any time as new interpersonal situations arise. Organizations inculcate new values and behaviour appropriate to each role and position and organizational membership. These new values and behaviour would be internalized in the course of induction or training procedures, thus, resulting in new images, expectations, skills and norms as the person comes to identify himself with the organization. Hence, we would like to see whether the rank of the respondents have any influence on the need for achievement. Table VI shows the relationship between nAchievement and the rank of the respondents.

In our sample, we can only classify the ranks into three groups. The executives or the managers and assistant

managers of the Trade Corporation, the clerks and the students who were newly recruited college graduates. From the table, we can see that even though the higher rank personnel did not reveal significant difference in achievement motivation, the clerks have a definite significant difference --- only 36% of the clerks are high scorers. Most of the clerks are low in achievement. The students are on the whole the most achievement motivated group --- 57% of the students are high in achievement. This may be due to the fact that they have not been appointed as yet and are hoping to get a favourable posting and looking forward to their first job; thus making their position more achievement-oriented than the others.

Another factor which we had correlated with achievement is the education level of the respondents. Here also, we assumed that it takes some motivation to attain a degree --- especially for those who attained one after getting a job as a clerk and appearing for the examinations privately. Therefore, we hypothesized that degree-holders would have a higher level of achievement than non-degree holders. Table VII shows the results which are very significant.

When we closely analyse the results, we found that such significance may be due to the fact that the direct recruits from colleges who are of the highly motivated group, comprise a large portion of the degree holders. Therefore,



we try to control the rank factor and try to find the correlation between nAchievement and education level of the clerks. In this case, however, we can see in Table VIII that the correlation has considerably lessened.

Thus, we can say that it is the rank of an individual that influences his nAchievement.

The subjects of our second study consist of the whole body of students attending the Trade Corporation. Training Classes given at the Trade Corporation School on Preme Road. In our previous sample we could make only tentative conclusions; however, in our second sample group we find significant results.

The findings here, indicate that the education level of the respondent is directly related to his nAchievement scores. However, when rank factor is controlled, we find that the relationship between education and level of nAchievement is very low. Also, recently graduated students seem to be in the high nAchievement group and clerks are low scorers. Therefore, the official rank of an individual seem to be the factor influencing the development of nAchievement. Further findings reveal the fact that sons of traders, those who have lived most of their lives in large towns and those who attended private schools are high in the level of nAchievement.

In this study, we found that due to a large sample size we have significant results. However, these findings

should be taken as guides to further research studies, and should not be taken as conclusive to explain the development of achievement.



TABLE I

Relationship between the Fathers' Occupation  
and Achievement Motivation

		Fathers' Occupation			
		<u>Peasants</u> %	<u>Traders</u> %	<u>Teachers</u> %	<u>Govt. Officials</u> %
nAchievement	High	38.77	57.94	43.48	50
	Low	61.23	42.06	56.52	50
Total		100	100	100	100

N = 289

TABLE II

Relationship between the Place of Birth and  
nAchievement Scores

		Place of Birth	
		<u>Large Towns</u> %	<u>Small Towns and Villages</u> %
nAchievement	High	50	48.29
	Low	50	56.71
Total		100	100

TABLE III (a)

Relationship between the Achievement Scores and  
the Place where you lived most of the time before College.

		Place where you lived most of the time	
		<u>Large Towns</u>	<u>Small Towns &amp; Village</u>
Achievement	High	51.83%	36.9%
	Low	48.17%	63.1%
Total		100	100

TABLE III (b)

Relationship between the Achievement Scores and  
the Place where you lived most of the time before College.

		<u>Large Towns</u>	<u>Small Towns &amp; Village</u>
		%	%
Achievement	High	115	45
	Low	105	77

N = 340

r = 0.1437

 $\chi^2 = 7.038$



TABLE IV

Relationship between Achievement and Birth Order

		Birth Order			
		<u>Only Child</u> %	<u>Eldest</u> %	<u>Middle</u> %	<u>Youngest</u> %
Achievement	High	58.33	50.65	41.66	50
	Low	41.67	49.35	58.34	50
Total		100	100	100	100

$$(X^2 = 10.24, P < 0.05)$$

TABLE V

Relationship between the Type of School Attended and Achievement

		<u>Government</u> <u>School</u> %	<u>Mission</u> <u>School</u> %	<u>National</u> <u>School</u> %	<u>Private</u> <u>School</u> %
		Achievement	High	45.87	46
Low	54.13		54	58.33	37.5
Total		100	100	100	100

$$(X^2 = 11.12, P > 0.01)$$

TABLE VI

Relationship between the Official Rank and  
nAchievement

		<u>Managers and</u> <u>Assistant Managers</u>	<u>Clerks</u>	<u>Students</u>
		%	%	%
nAchievement	High	52.38	36	57
	Low	47.62	64	43
Total		100	100	100

$$(X^2 = 22.45, P < 0.01)$$

TABLE VII

		<u>Degree Holder</u>	<u>Non-Degree Holder</u>
nAchievement	High	123	50
	Low	111	68

$$N = 332 \quad X^2 = 13.3464$$



TABLE VIII

Relationship between the Education Level  
and Achievement of the Clerks

		<u>Degree Holder</u>	<u>Non-Degree Holder</u>
Achievement	High	15	29
	Low	18	65

N = 127

 $\chi^2 = 2.2987$

## Chapter VI

## C O N C L U S I O N

The present discussion has not provided a single theory of change, but it has opened many avenues to study social change. The mechanism by which nAchievement level translates itself into economic growth is the entrepreneurial class. If the nAchievement level is high, there will presumably be more people who behave like entrepreneurs. A society with a generally high level of nAchievement will produce more energetic entrepreneurs who, in turn, produces more rapid economic development. Hence, motivation to achieve is an important requisite for economic change and development, and it is the peculiar characteristic of the elite group.

Now we know that motivation to achieve is an important characteristic of the elite group, who will promote economic change and development, we are interested to find out the social conditions that provide a most fertile ground for the development of nAchievement. There are two main schools of thought regarding the origins of nAchievement. In the first instance, it is said to have its origins in certain kinds of parent-child



interaction that occur early in a child's life and are likely to be emotional and unverbilized. On the other hand, it was also suggested that later interactions could play an important role in its development.

However, if we take the first instance and accept the fact that nachievement is developed during early childhood, then we are interested to find out why some parents behave in a particular way in training their children and others do not. In this case we are dealing with social factors affecting early childhood training, such as parental values, parental education, birth order, occupation of the father, social class etc.

In the second instance, if it is accepted that later interactions also play an important role in the development of nachievement, then we are interested in the later socialization agents, such as schools, work organizations and so on. We had bared our hypotheses on both these schools.

In our present research paper, we had made two research studies; primarily, on the Administrative Class of Burma as represented by our five sample groups, Chawdwingon I and II, DMA I and II and Shan States ATO recruits; and secondly, on the whole body of students attending the Trade Corporation Training Classes given at the Trade Corporation School.

For our first sample group, our results were not very conclusive. We could only make tentative conclusions as our

individual sample groups were very small and they could not give definite results. However, for our second study, we found very significant results clarifying our first results and can serve as guides for further research studies.

For our first hypothesis, the findings in our first study suggest that there is a tendency for the sons of non-government officials have a higher level of achievement motivation. However, the results were significant only in the two groups Chawdwingon II and DMA I. Our findings in the second study, however, supports these findings, by revealing the fact that some of traders are the most achievement oriented group. When we carefully study the occupations of the fathers in Chawdwingon II and DMA I, we found that they consist mainly of traders, merchants and general merchants. Thus, we may conclude for these findings that sons of traders tend to have a higher level of achievement than others.

The findings for our second hypothesis that those who come from large towns would have a higher level of achievement than those who come from small towns and villages, is supported significantly in our second study, ( $\chi^2 = 7.038$ ). In our first study also, we find some tendency in support of our hypothesis, although we did not get statistically significant results, except for the three groups Chawdwingon I, II and Shan States AFO recruits.



Could schools influence the level of achievement of individuals? The findings in our first study were ambiguous. This may be due to the fact that our classification of schools is very general due to lack of information; however, in our second study, we found that those who attended private schools have the highest level of achievement out of all other schools. Thus, schools may have some influence in the development of which, however, we cannot take this result as conclusive and further research studies should be made to clarify this result.

We had made our final hypothesis on the assumption that those who are of greater service or higher rank would much more identify himself with the organization and derive satisfaction from doing his work well, than those who are of younger service or lower rank. In our study of the Administrative Class, due to lack of information on service and rank, we had to infer them from the age of the individuals. Age did not seem to be the representative variable for either length of service or the official rank; however, we found no significant results on analysis for all the five sample groups. In our second study, although we could not obtain the service of the respondents, we could get their official rank. In this case, even though the higher rank personnel have no significant difference in the level of achievement, the clerks have a definite significant difference; thus, partly supporting our hypothesis. The direct recruit students,

on the other hand, are more achievement motivated. This may be because of the fact that they had not yet been posted and the fact that their posting depended on their performance in the training classes made their condition more success - oriented than the others.

In this paper, we had discussed that motivation to achieve is an important requisite for economic change and development. Furthermore, we had studied the social conditions which promote the development of achievement as measured by Thematic Apperception Test, in the Burmese Administrative Class and the Trade Corporation personnel. We had been able to make some conclusions from these two studies; however, they cannot be taken as definite explanations for the development of achievement but should serve as guides to further research studies of individual differences within our own society, or cross culturally.



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APPENDICES

ကျောင်းသားအမည် \_\_\_\_\_

အောက်ဖော်ပြပါစကား ပုံစံချစ်အား သင်သောတု - မတုကို ပေး  
စကား သည့်ကွက်လက်များ အနက်တစ်ခုကို ရွေးချယ်မှတ်သားပါ။

၁။ ကံမရှိဥာဏ်ရှိတိုင်း မွဲ။

သောတုအလွန်တု \_\_\_\_\_ သောတု \_\_\_\_\_ သောတုမတု \_\_\_\_\_ သ  
တုအလွန်မတု \_\_\_\_\_

၂။ အကြံကြီးကပျက်စီးတတ်သည်။

သောတုအလွန်တု \_\_\_\_\_ သောတု \_\_\_\_\_ သောတုမတု \_\_\_\_\_ သောတု  
အလွန်မတု \_\_\_\_\_

၃။ ကံကောင်းလျှင် ဥာဏ်ရောင်းမလွမ်းနိုင်။

သောတုအလွန်တု \_\_\_\_\_ သောတု \_\_\_\_\_ သောတုမတု \_\_\_\_\_ သောတုအလွန်  
မတု \_\_\_\_\_

၄။ ကံသတုန်းဆောင်ဆောင်စမြဲ။

သောတုအလွန်တု \_\_\_\_\_ သောတု \_\_\_\_\_ သောတုမတု \_\_\_\_\_ သောတုအလွန်  
မတု \_\_\_\_\_

၅။ အတွေးကူးလို့အရူးဖြစ်။

သောတုအလွန်တု \_\_\_\_\_ သောတု \_\_\_\_\_ သောတုမတု \_\_\_\_\_ သောတုအလွန်  
မတု \_\_\_\_\_

၆။ အတတ်များပေါ့သည်။

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၇။ ဇာတိမှ နိဗ္ဗာန်။ ကံကမ မရှိ။

သ ဘောအလွန်တူ \_\_\_\_\_ သ ဘောတူ \_\_\_\_\_ သ ဘောမတူ \_\_\_\_\_ သဘောအလွန်မတူ \_\_\_\_\_

၈။ ကံမကောင်း အကြောင်း မသင့်။

သ ဘောအလွန်တူ \_\_\_\_\_ သ ဘောတူ \_\_\_\_\_ သ ဘောမတူ \_\_\_\_\_ သဘောအလွန်မတူ \_\_\_\_\_

၉။ လူမစွမ်း နတ်မသည့်။

သ ဘောအလွန်တူ \_\_\_\_\_ သ ဘောတူ \_\_\_\_\_ သ ဘောမတူ \_\_\_\_\_ သဘောအလွန်မတူ \_\_\_\_\_

၁၀။ ကံရှိမှ ပေါ်ထင်သည်။ ဥပဇာန်ရှိမှ မြေရှိမြင်သည်။

သ ဘောအလွန်တူ \_\_\_\_\_ သ ဘောတူ \_\_\_\_\_ သ ဘောမတူ \_\_\_\_\_ သဘောအလွန်မတူ \_\_\_\_\_

၁၁။ အရင်လိုလမ်း ဆိုလိုက်။

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ဗုဒ္ဓိသုတ္တန် အပိုင်း ၈ ယောက်ဖြစ် ရန်အတွက်ကို အသေအရည်အချင်း စရင်  
မှတစ်ဆင့် ထွက် ကျော် နောင်တပြု နိုင်ခြင်း ပင်ဖြစ်သည်။ ပူးတွဲပါ မေးခွန်း ယူသည့်  
သင်၏တစ်ဆင့် ထွက် ကျော် နောင်တပြု မှုကို စစ်ဆေး ခြင်း ပင်ဖြစ်သည်။ အခြေအနေအမျိုး  
မျိုး ကိုဆက်စပ်ကာ ခန့်မှန်း နိုင်၍ အဓိပ္ပါယ် ပေါက် အောင်ကြိုဆောင် ဆောင်ရည်အချင်း  
ကိုဆန်း စစ်ခြင်း ပင်ဖြစ်သည်။

အောက်ပါစာ မျက်နှာတို့တွင် နား သော အခြေအနေ ခြေခံ မျိုး ကို  
ရုပ်ပုံ များ ဖြင့် ဖော်ပြထား သည်။ သင်သည် ရုပ်ပုံတစ်ခုစီအကြောင်း ကိုမှီး ချိပုံ  
ဝတ္ထုတစ်ခုစီ ( ပုံပေါင်း ပုံဝတ္ထု ၆ခု ) ရေးသား ရမည်ဖြစ်သည်။ သင်သည် ပုံ  
ဝတ္ထုကို ရုပ်ပုံတစ်ခုစီ နောက်တွင် ပါရှိ သော စာ မျက်နှာတွင် ရေးသား ရမည်။ သင်  
ရေး သော ပုံဝတ္ထုတစ်ခုစီအတွက် အထောက်အကူ ရရန် မေးခွန်း နား ခုကို စာ မျက်  
နှာ ပေါ်တွင် ဖော်ပြထား သည်။

၁။ မည်သို့ဖြစ် ပျက် နေပါသနည်း ။ ပုဂ္ဂိုလ် များ ကား မည်သူများ နည်း ။

၂။ ဤအခြေအနေ ဖြစ် ပေါ် အောင် မည်သည့်ဖြစ် ရုပ် များ ကမန်တည်း ခဲ့

ပါသနည်း ။ ဆိုလိုရင်း မှာ ယခင်က မည်သည့်အခြေအနေ ဖြစ် ပေါ် ခဲ့ပါသနည်း ။

၃။ မည်သို့ ဖြစ် ပေါ် အောင် ခဲ့ပါသနည်း ။ မည်သည့်အရာကို အလိုရှိ ပါသနည်း ။

မည်သို့က နည်း ။

၄။ မည်ကဲ့သို့ဖြစ် ပျက် မည်နည်း ။ မည်ကဲ့သို့ပြုလုပ် ရမည်နည်း ။

သင်၏အဖြေ များ ကို မေးခွန်း ကို ဖြေရုံက နား နှင့် မကြေ နတ်အဆက်အ  
စပ်ရှိ သော ပုံဝတ္ထုတစ်ခု ဖြစ် အောင် ရုပ်ပုံ ပေါ်တွင် မှတည်လျက် ရေးသား ပါ။ သင်  
ရေး သား လို သော မည်သည့် ပုံဝတ္ထုမျိုး ကို မဆို ရေး နိုင်သည်။ သင် စိန်ကူး တည်သလို  
သာ ရေး ပါ။

ဤ မေးခွန်း ယူသည့် ရုပ်ပုံ များ ကို အသေး စိတ်ပြန်လည် ဖော်ပြ နိုင် သော  
မှတ်ဉာဏ် ရှိ မရှိကို မေး ခြင်း မဟုတ်။ သင်၏ ဉာဏ်စွမ်း ( ) ကို  
သော်၎င်း စစ်ဆေး ခြင်း မဟုတ်။ ပြောဆိုသူသည် ပုံဝတ္ထု များ ကို ရေးသား ရာ ခွဲ  
ပုံဝတ္ထုအမျိုး မျိုး ကို ပြီးလျှင် ဉာဏ်အတိုင်း ထွက် ကျော် နောင်တပြု နိုင်သည်။ ဤအဖြေ များ  
ကို အမှား အမှန်တူ မရှိ ပါ။

ဝတ္ထုတစ်ခုစီ ရေး သား ရာ နှင့် သင်၏ အချိန်အမျိုးမျိုး နှစ်ရပ် ပေမည်။ ထို့ကြောင့်  
ရုပ်ပုံ များ ကို ခဏလေး မြင်ပြီး နောက် နောက် ကျောက်မှန်ကန်စွာ စတင် ရေး သား ဖြစ်  
အထက်ရှိ နား သည့် အချိန်အတွင်း ပုံဝတ္ထုတစ်ခုစီ ပြီး နား ပါသော နောက်တွင် ရုပ်ပုံတစ်ခုစီ  
ရေး သား ပါ။ မှန်ကန်စွာ ဖော်ပြ နား သော ပုံဝတ္ထုတစ်ခုစီ ဖြစ်မည် သင် ပါ။





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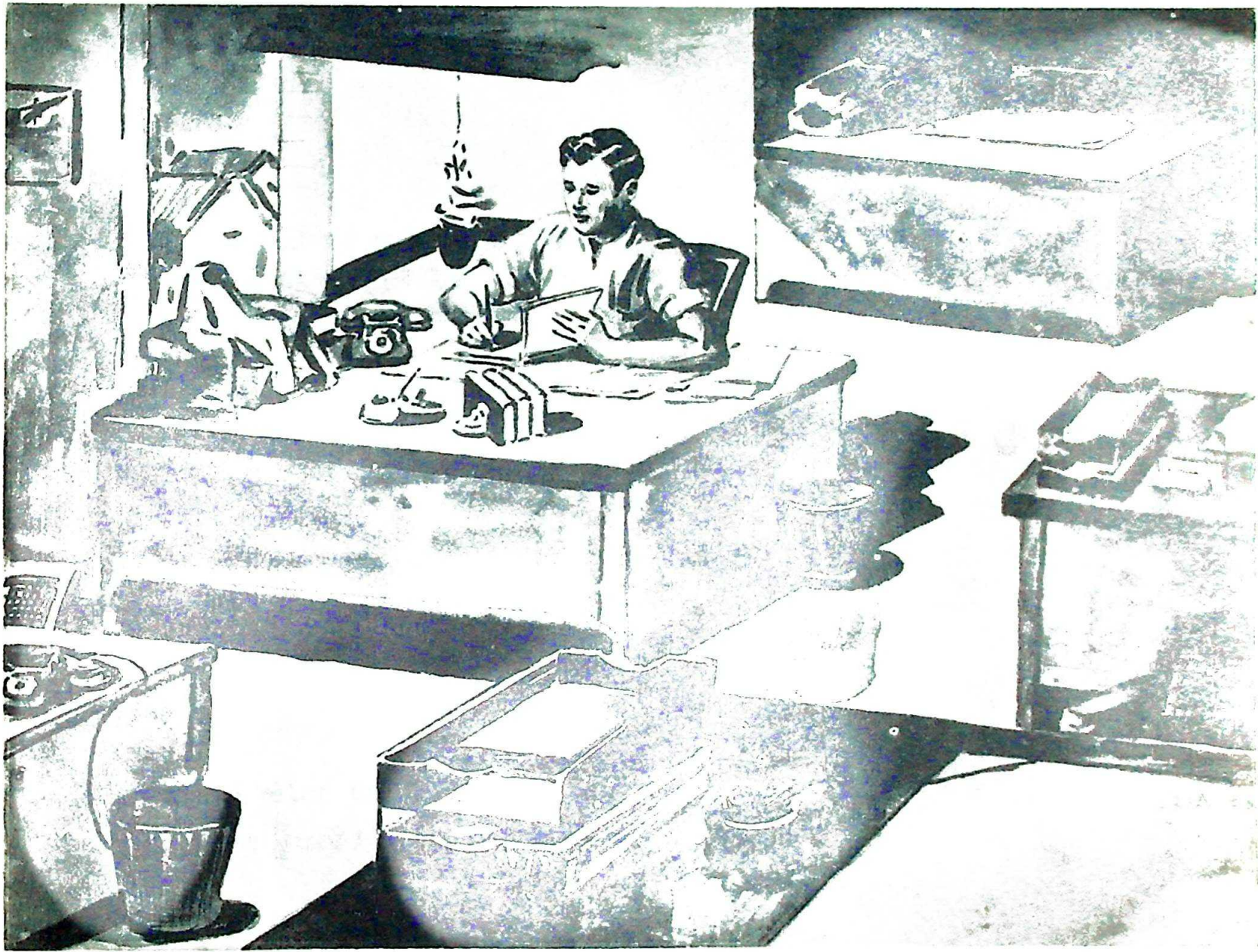
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၁။ သင်၏လုပ်ငန်း အဖွဲ့အစည်း အမည်

၂။ အသက်

၃။ အလုပ်ရသွင်း

၄။ လုပ်သက်ရသွင်

၅။ နှစ်

ရသွင်း

လုပ်ငန်း (သို့) ဌာန

၆။ ကျား \_\_\_\_\_ မ \_\_\_\_\_

၇။ သင်သည် လူမျိုး (အပို) \_\_\_\_\_ မုဆိုးဖို(ပ) \_\_\_\_\_

အိမ်ထောင်သည် \_\_\_\_\_ တရုတ် \_\_\_\_\_

၈။ လက်ထပ်သည့်အချိန်၌ သင့်အသက်သည် \_\_\_\_\_

၉။ အိမ်ထောင်ရှိလျှင် ခလေး ဦးရေ \_\_\_\_\_ သား \_\_\_\_\_ သမီး \_\_\_\_\_

၁၀။ ခလေး အကြီးဆုံး ၏အသက် \_\_\_\_\_

၁၁။ သင်ကိုးကွယ်သည့်ဘာသာ \_\_\_\_\_

သင့်အဖကိုးကွယ်သည့်ဘာသာ \_\_\_\_\_

သင့်အမိကိုးကွယ်သည့်ဘာသာ \_\_\_\_\_

သင့်ခင်ပွန်း (ဇနီး) ကိုးကွယ်သည့်ဘာသာ \_\_\_\_\_

၁၂။ သင့်တွင် (က) အကို \_\_\_\_\_ ယောက်။

(ခ) ညီ \_\_\_\_\_ ယောက်။

(ဂ) အမ \_\_\_\_\_ ယောက်။

(ဃ) ညီမ \_\_\_\_\_ ယောက် ရှိသည်။

၁၃။ သင့်မွေးဖွား ဇာတိ

ခရိုင်

မြို့





၁၀။ သင်ကြား ခဲ့ဘူး သည့် ကျောင်း အမျိုး အစား ။

	သင်	ဇနီး	အဖ	အမိ
အစိုး ရ ကျောင်း	-----	-----	-----	-----
မစ်ရှင် ကျောင်း	-----	-----	-----	-----
နေရှင်နယ် ကျောင်း	-----	-----	-----	-----
အေဒီပု ခွာဘသဘ ကျောင်း	-----	-----	-----	-----
မြန်မာ ကျောင်း	-----	-----	-----	-----
အလွတ်ပညာသင် ကျောင်း	-----	-----	-----	-----
ဘုန်း ငြီး ကျောင်း	-----	-----	-----	-----

၁၀။ သင်သည့် ကျောင်း နှင့် တက္ကသိုလ်သင်တန်း များ မှ အပအခြား ပညာပေး သင်တန်း များ တက် ရောက်ဘူး ပါသလား ။

ကျောင်း	သင်တန်း အမျိုးအစား	အချိန်ကာလ	လက်မှတ်
( နေရာ နှင့် အမည် )			

၁၉။ မည်သည့် နိုင်ငံခြား တိုင်း ပြည်များ သို့ သင်သည့် ခဏသွား ရောက်လည်ပတ်ဘူး ပါသလဲ ၊ သို့မဟုတ် မည်သည့်တိုင်း ပြည်များ တွင် ( ၃ ) လထက် ပိုမို၍ နေထိုင်ဘူး ပါသလဲ ။

လည်ပတ်ဘူး နေထိုင်ဘူး

၂၀။ သင် ငယ်စဉ်က သင့်အား မည်သူက မွေး မြူစေသင့် ရှေ့ဘက်လာခဲ့ ပါသလဲ ။ ( ဝိစုံအစုံ အဓိကဦး တည်း ၊ မွေး စား မိဘ ၊ ဦး လေး - အဒေါ်စသည့် ဖြင့် ဖော်ပြပါ ) ။

၂၁။ သင်၏ အိမ်တွင် မည်သူက အရေး ပါဆုံး ဖြစ် ပါသလဲ ။  
အဖေ \_\_\_\_\_ မိဘ \_\_\_\_\_ အခြား \_\_\_\_\_

၂၂။ သင့်အိမ်တွင် မည်သူက စည်းကမ်း ပေး လေ့ရှိ ပါသလဲ။

၂၃။ မည်သူ ပေး သည့် စည်းကမ်း ကို သင်၏ လေး စား ဆုံး ဖြစ်သနည်း။

၂၄။ သင်၏ သက် (၆) နှစ် နှင့် (၁၆) နှစ် ခြား တွင် သင့် မိဘ များ သည် သင့်အား လက် ရွယ် ဖြင့် ရောက် ရောက် အပစ် ဒါဏ် ( Physical Punishment ) ပေး ခြင်း ခံခဲ့ရဘူး ဟု သိရပါသလား။

_____	လုံး ဝ မ ခံ ခဲ့ ရ	_____	မ ဣ ဝ ခ ဏ ခီ ရ ဘူး သ ည်။
_____	တ ခါ တ ဝံ ခံ ရ ဘူး သ ည်	_____	ခ ဏ ခ ဏ ခံ ရ သ ည်။

၂၅။ သင် ယခု အခြေအနေ ရောက် နေခြင်း မှာ မည်သူ၏ ပြုစု ပျိုး ထောင် မှု ခြံ ဝင် လဲ။

အဖေ _____	အမေ _____	မိဘ _____	အခြား _____
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၂၆။ သင် ခု လေး ဘဝက အဘက် ဖေ T ပြု ပါ အချက် တွင် မည်သည့် အချက် ကို ဦး စား ပေး နား ခံ ခဲ့ သနည်း။

- (က) \_\_\_\_\_ စည်းကမ်း ယေဝင် မှု ( Discipline )
- (ခ) \_\_\_\_\_ မိဘ များ အား လေး စား မှု
- (ဂ) \_\_\_\_\_ လွတ်လပ် မှု ( Independence )
- (ဃ) \_\_\_\_\_ တိုးတက် ထို မှု ( Ambition )
- (င) \_\_\_\_\_ မိဘ များ အား ချစ် ဖြစ် ခို မှု။