An Investigation of Background Factors and Selected Personality Correlates of Achievement Motivation

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AN INVESTIGATION OF BACKGROUND FACTORS
AND SELECTED PERSONALITY CORRELATES
OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

ANALYSIS OF A COMPLETED STUDY

A RESEARCH ESSAY

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# TABLE OF CONTENTS

**INTRODUCTION** ............................................. 1

## PART I

**Chapter**

I. **A THEORETICAL ANALYSIS OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION** ............................................. 3

II. **PREVIOUS RESEARCH ON ANTECEDENTS** .................. 11

III. **HYPOTHESES** ............................................ 16

IV. **METHODOLOGY** ........................................... 21

   (A) Design
   (B) Data Collection
   (C) Sample
   (D) Analysis Data

V. **RESULTS** .................................................. 32

   (A) Relationship of Need Achievement and Home Background
   (B) Parent-Sibling Relationships
   (C) Relationship of Need Achievement and Personality Traits
   (D) Relationship of Edwards and McClelland to Dependent Variable
   (E) Summary
   (F) Conclusions

## PART II

VI. **IMPLICATIONS FOR THE SOCIAL WORK PROFESSION** . 41

   (A) Client Rights
   (B) Values
   (C) Implications of Other Studies on Motivation for Social Work Practice

(1)
VII. SOCIAL WORK'S RESPONSIBILITY .............. 51

(A) Systemic Change
(B) Treating the Unmotivated
(C) Advocacy
(D) Advocacy Training
(E) Conclusion

BIBLIOGRAPHY .......................... 60

(11)
INTRODUCTION

In January of 1962, Lewis Arnold Koenigsberg, in completing the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Psychology in the Graduate School of Syracuse University, submitted his dissertation entitled: Achievement Motivation. This particular essay is an analysis of that dissertation.

The purpose of Koenigsberg's study was to examine the influence of certain child training practices in the development of the need for achievement and also the relationship between achievement motivation and intra-family interaction and selected personality traits. Thus, the relationship between certain dependent variables, such as - home background, personality characteristics and relationships with other family members - and, the independent variable - need achievement - was studied. Since two measuring devices were used to test the hypotheses, it was necessary not only to determine the relationship of each of the dependent variables, but also to determine the relationship of these two measures to each other, and whether or not there was a difference in the relationships of the two measures to the dependent variables.
The essay itself is divided into two parts. Part I is a critical and thorough analysis of Koenigsberg's dissertation on Achievement Motivation. Part II takes on a much broader perspective as it attempts to relate the implications of this study to social work knowledge and practice.
PART I
CHAPTER 1

A THEORETICAL ANALYSIS OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Since Dr. Koenigsberg completed his study in 1962, it will be important to not only examine the theoretical and empirical framework upon which it was based but also to explore research studies, relevant to this area, which originated from 1962 to the present. Thus the following is a summary of the theory upon which Dr. Koenigsberg's study was based.

Koenigsberg discovered that Max Weber\(^1\) was among the first to scientifically describe the syndrome of "achievement motivation" and such sociologists as Merton\(^2\) and Reisman\(^3\) began describing certain patterns of behaviour which reflected the need for achievement. In general, they analyzed some of the broad cultural influences which led to the development of achievement needs and also why some people might deviate from this general pattern.

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In 1937 (Karen Horney), seven describing people who were motivated to attain power, prestige and possessions differentially between normal and neurotic strivings. Normal need achievement was a result of a person being strong, intellectually gifted, or placed in situations where the striving was related to some particular cause, whereas neurotic striving for power was derived from anxiety, hatred and feelings of inferiority. This neurotic striving for power developed because the attempts of the child to relieve his underlying anxieties through affection had been unsuccessful. Horney maintained that this type of achievement activation was directly tied to certain patterns of parent-child interaction. These neurotic patterns were caused by: 1) feelings of insecurity due to being unwanted, 2) antagonism toward the dominant members of the family, 3) anxiety resulting from repressed hatred toward members of the family, 4) feelings of humiliation, caused by a lack in the development of self-esteem and 5) attempts to find in affective sources of reassurance have failed.

Horney noted that striving for power serves as a protection against helplessness. For example, the neurotic person with high achievement needs, tries to avoid situations in which he appears weak, such as accepting advice. He believes that he should be able to master any situation no

matter how difficult. This type of thinking becomes linked with pride resulting in his viewing of weakness as a danger and disgrace. Prestige is also allied with the striving for power, since it is protection against insignificance. He "... develops a stringent need to impress others, to be admired and respected." (Horney, 1937). Horney noted that a person develops these kinds of needs because, "... usually they have gone through a series of humiliating experiences in childhood; experiences that may have had to do with the social situation in which they grew up - such as belonging to a minority group, or being themselves poor but having wealthy relatives - or with their own individual situations, such as being discriminated against for the sake of other children, being spurned, being treated as playthings by the parents, being sometimes spoiled and other times shamed and snubbed." In summary, Horney said that people characterized as having high achievement motivation have had certain stresses placed upon them in their early home experiences.5

Murray (1938) introduced the term 'need achievement' meaning "the desire or tendency to do things rapidly and/or as well as possible. To accomplish something difficult. To master, manipulate or organize physical objects, human beings or ideas... To excell one's self. To rival and surpass others..." He thought need achievement was fused with every other need but that since it was 'the will to power' it would

5Ibid.
conflict with need abasement, need inavoidance, need affiliation, need play and need exhibition. He was concerned with describing the various needs which motivate individuals and how they might be measured.

McClelland (1949) defined need achievement in terms of the person's behaviour oriented toward excelling some standard of excellence. He maintained that need achievement was directly related to the person's upbringing. He believed that if stress was placed upon the child to achieve goals at an early age, the child would develop an achievement motive that would generalize to many different situations in which it was possible to achieve rewards. However, if the stress is exerted later in childhood, the habit of achieving will be established in response to specific situations to get specific rewards. He saw certain factors most influential in the development of achievement motivation: stress placed on the child in terms of independence training; age of child when stress was placed; the child's identification with either a successful or unsuccessful parent. Related to this contention was Reissman's concept of the "inner-directed" person (one who has high need achievement) who came from a home characterized by a lack of indulgence and also casualness in dealing with children. 6

Generally speaking, based upon the theoretical positions

state. Above, it seems safe to maintain that there was a constant recurrence of the theme stressing the relationship between self-regarding attitudes and the source of need involvement the individual develops.

In reviewing previous research by Congerteri, discoverer further evidence upon which to base his own study.

From 1946 through to 1958, Clelland et al., undertook a series of major investigations on different aspects of achievement motivation. With this projective type test he attempted to examine achievement motivation by selecting the person's emotional involvement in a competitive task against a standard of excellence. In sum, he found the college men with high need achievement perceive their current distant rather than close and themselves as independent of 'types of pressure toward conformity.' He concluded that the origin of achievement motivation lies in the stress placed on independence training by the culture or family, in which the child is raised. One gross shortcoming is the fact that the study is a projective type, thus limiting its validity questionably, since the subjects may be responding to inappropriate cues within the test itself.

Other researchers attempted to validate Clelland's findings. Hinterbottom (1956) attempted to determine if one of the sources of achievement motivation was the corner's

attitudes toward independence training. With the use of a questionnaire, he discovered that mothers of sons with high need achievement presented an "individualistic" family pattern in that they stress early independence achievement and are interested in their sons developing away from them and urging them to master things on their own, whereas the mothers of sons with low achievement are willing to let such things slide and let them remain somewhat more dependent on them. Also he found that mothers who used physical rewards (kisses and hugs) for fulfillment of achievement demands, have sons whose average need achievement score is twice that of the sons of mothers who use such behaviours as praise or special treats or privileges.

Young, in his dissertation (1957), used the Sarason's Test Anxiety Questionnaire to test his hypothesis that need achievement would vary curvilinearly with acceptance and directly with independence and democracy in the home. However, no significant results were obtained. In 1959, Rosen and D'Andrade found significant differences in the profiles of the parents of boys with high need achievement and the parents of boys with low need achievement and differences in the profiles of mothers and fathers. They found achievement training (parents set high goals, etc.) to be more important a variable in the development of achievement motivation, than independence training (self-reliant behaviour). The mothers tended to stress independence training while the fathers
tended to stress achievement training. Gordon (1959) found that mothers with low need achievement had children ranked in a "moderate" position, while the children of mothers with high need achievement tended to fall at the extreme positions.

Ellis (1952) in studying family backgrounds of "mobile" and "non-mobile" unmarried career women, found that the mobile group experienced more humiliation, reported a sibling to be the favourite child and reported less than average attachment to their parents than did the non-mobile group. Dynes, Alfred and Jintz (1956) concluded their study on the willingness to forego certain satisfactions in order to achieve occupational advancement and aspects of relationship with parents (250 male and female university students) as follows: "Unsatisfactory interpersonal relationships in the family of orientation were significantly related to high aspirational levels and satisfactory relationships were related to lower aspirational levels." 10 Jouvian and Adelson (1958) reported that parents of mobile children dispense silder punishment and rely on the boy's internal restraint and control; mobile children portray their parents as less harsh than other boys; mobile boys more often engage in


leisure activities with their parents; and mobile boys undergo an earlier development of independence and more autonomy from the family. A major criticism of this study is that there may not be a relationship between mobility and need achievement. Although all these studies have shortcomings either in their hypothesis or design, it seems safe to say, based on the evidence, that people with high achievement come from homes where there is emphasis on independence training and achievement training and they tend to perceive the relationships with their parents as distant rather than close.
CHAPTER II

PREVIOUS RESEARCH ON ANTECEDENTS

In reviewing previous research on the correlates of achievement motivation the focus is centered around achievement and parent-child interaction and between achievement motivation and personality characteristics. A number of different tests have been devised to measure achievement motivation, - the Edwards P.P.S. and the McClelland. Investigations by Marlow (1959), Melikian (1958) and others to correlate these two means of measurement have resulted in extremely low coefficients ranging from -.05 to +.11. Kuhlen and Dipboye (1959) suggest that this low correlation exists because the two tests might be measuring different aspects of need achievement - the Edwards measuring an orientation towards things and problems and mastery over them while the McClelland is measuring competitiveness with people.

Reissman (1953) developed a test to measure a person's level of aspiration. He found inconsistent relationships between social class and level of achievement at the different age levels. In 1955 Rosen tested 120 high school sophomore males with McClelland's need achievement test to see if there
was a relationship between need achievement and social class, as measured by occupation, education and ecological area of residence. His results indicated that members of the middle class tend to have considerably higher need achievement scores than individuals in the lower social strata. The middle class had a larger proportion of persons with achievement oriented values such as "activistic, future-oriented, individualistic point of view" than the lower class.\textsuperscript{11} MoArthur (1955) and Douvan (1956) also tested the hypothesis that there was social class differences in the level of achievement motivation.\textsuperscript{12} Their findings were in support of Rosen's findings.

McClelland (1955), using the Winterbottom test, attempted to test the hypothesis that there would be a difference between the type of independence training used by Protestants, Jews, and Catholics. The results were significant. The Catholics expected independence later than the Protestants or Jewish groups. Mack, Murphy and Yellin (1956) compared 800 job applications (salesmen, bankers, and engineers) according to religion and age. Only two of the 36 comparisons between Catholics and Protestants were significant at the \textit{.05} level of confidence, indicating that religious background


\textsuperscript{12}Elizabeth Douvan, \textit{et.al.}, "Social Status and Success Strivings," \textit{Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology}, LII (1956), 219-223.
was not related to achievement motivation.\(^{13}\)

In relation to Douvan and Adelson (1958) study on mobility,\(^{14}\) Ellis (1952) found that mobile career women felt rejected by the community, had fewer intimate friends, derived more pleasure in parties and drinking, kept more pets, reported more psychosomatic disorders, gave fewer self-ratings of "very happy" and showed more desire to continue working after marriage. She concluded that these results were, "consistent with the theory that upward social mobility is likely to be an outgrowth of basically neurotic drives resulting from unsatisfactory early primary group relations, and that mobility leads to a continuation of superficial, impermanent primary group relations, and other overt manifestations of emotional maladjustment."\(^{15}\)

Brown (1953) found that there was a resistance to conformity, as measured by the F scale in college students with high need achievement. These findings led him to believe that people with high need achievement "do not like authority, do not obey authority, do not admire their parents, and do not believe in a conventional moral code."\(^{16}\) Yeager (1958)


\(^{15}\) Ellis, "Upward Social Mobility," 665-668.

did not find any significant relationships between need achievement as measured by the McClelland technique and rate of learning, intelligence, anxiety or discrepancy between perceived and ideal self. Also, she found a negative relationship between need achievement and conformity.\(^\text{17}\)

In 1953, McClelland analyzed the T.A.T. records of 30 subjects which were under great pressure to "conform" in a laboratory setting. He found that there was a greater independence of thought in the high need achievement person, which was in agreement with Brown's findings. The results from these different studies indicate that there is some relationship between need achievement and personality characteristics, although not all these studies are in agreement.

It is in this setting that Dr. Koenigsberg formulated his hypothesis, since each of his own dependent variables had been found by one or more investigators to be related to achievement motivation. In effect, he attempted to replicate and expand upon the previous findings which have been summarized above. Because of contradictory findings in the previous studies, Dr. Koenigsberg's undertaking is appropriate and because his design consisted of a correlation between the Edwards P.S.P. and the McClelland, it cannot be viewed as being redundant.

In Part II we will discuss the relatedness and relevance

of this study with the theoretical and empirical knowledge within specific areas which evolved after its completion.
CHAPTER III

HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses were derived mainly from the theoretical analysis of achievement motivation of Horney (1937), McClelland (1958), and other various studies, in an attempt to replicate and expand upon previous findings. Although the theoretical analysis and empirical data might suggest directional relationships between need achievement and the dependent variables, null hypotheses were proposed since not all the previous research supports the theoretical trends and differences in the direction opposite that of what might have been hypothesized would be meaningful and subject to interpretation. Each hypothesis proposes a test of the proposition that there is no relationship between need achievement and the dependent variable.

The first hypothesis proposes a test of the relationship between need achievement and home background.

\( H_1: \) The level of the subject's (Ss) need achievement is not related to the way the Ss rated their homes (during their childhood) in regard to the following variables:

- a) concern for the child,
- b) democratic guidance,
- c) permissiveness,
- d) parent-child harmony,
e) sociability of parents,
 f) activity in the home,
 g) readiness for suggestions,
 h) independence training.

The next group of hypotheses proposes tests of the relationships between need achievement and the Ss' relationships with their parents and siblings.

H2: The level of the Ss' need achievement is not related to the Ss' affect toward their a) mothers, and b) their fathers.

H3: The level of the Ss' need achievement is not related to the Ss' feeling rejected by their a) mothers, and b) fathers.

H4: The level of the Ss' need achievement is not related to the Ss' emotional attachment to their siblings.

H5: The level of the Ss' need achievement is not related to the Ss' ratings of their siblings in either a) social, or b) general ability.

H6: The level of the Ss' need achievement is not related to the Ss' competitiveness with their siblings.

The following group of hypotheses proposed to test the relationship between need achievement and other personality characteristics.

H7: The level of the Ss' need achievement is not related to the Ss' degree of authority characteristics.

H8: The level of the Ss' need achievement is not related to the Ss' degree of manifest anxiety.

H9: The level of the Ss' need achievement is not related to the Ss' degree of rigidity of attitudes toward personal habits.

H10: The level of the Ss' need achievement is not related to the Ss' following needs:
In summarizing the various theoretical positions of such people as Horney, McClelland, Reisman, Douvan and others, Dr. Koenigsberg found a constant recurrence of the theme stressing the relationship between child rearing practices and the degree of need achievement the individual develops. He emphasized that not all the theorists would agree as to the exact nature of the relationship, but that all seem to agree that such relationships do exist. It is upon their findings that his hypotheses are based. Although the study is somewhat a replica of precursory studies in certain aspects, in others, it is an extension of them. In this respect it is relevant, thus one may conclude that it is pertinent. The hypotheses themselves seem clear upon initial inspection, however, one may question his definition of such terms as "democratic guidance, concern for the child, rigidity of attitudes, change, succorance, etc." Also an attempt was made to control such variables as age, religious background and socio-economic status which may not have been successful by merely categorizing. Possibly the dubiousity...
of the hypotheses linear in themselves but the general, when they were to be tested.

The independent variables in this study are need achievement, measured by both the McClelland technique and the Edwards want. The independent variables were conceived as being home background, relationships with parents and siblings, personality variables such as 'self-rigidity', anxiety, rigidity of habits and various needs. Since the study was an 'r-r' type, it was somewhat ambiguous to classify the variables investigated as being "independent" and "dependent" but the major interest of this study was in the relationship of need achievement to these other variables. Thus, a separate analysis was done for each of the two measures of need achievement, since these two measures are not correlated. In view of the lack of correlation between the two measures of need achievement, another shortcoming was the relative similarity or dissimilarity between the two need achievement measures in discriminating or placing the subjects in various categories. For example, is there the same percentage of Jews with high need achievement as measured by the McClelland test as compared with the percentage measured by the P.P.S.?

Also we must be aware of the fact that there were not independent measures of the achievement motivation of the subjects and evaluations of the dependent variables. The ratings of home background factors, relationships with parents and siblings and even the personality traits might
be a function of the level of need achievement rather than need achievement being a function of these variables.

Another drawback is the lack of one objective validity data on some of the measures. There might be a stronger relationship or even a different relationship, between need achievement and the dependent variables if different measuring instruments were employed.
CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

(A) DESIGN

The design utilized to test the hypotheses, which, in effect, were built upon former research and knowledge, consisted of proven instruments. One hundred and thirty-five male upper classmen at Syracuse University were given the following tests: McClelland test of need achievement, Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, Nye test of family interaction, an adaption of the Fels Parent Behaviour Scales, a short form of the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale, the P scale, the Rigidity of Attitudes Toward Personal Habits Scale, a scale to measure attitudes toward siblings and a background information questionnaire. Three groups of 32 subjects, each of high, medium, and low need achievement were selected for each of the two tests of achievement motivation. They were matched for age, religious background


and affiliation, socio-economic status, and educational level of father. The $t$- and $F$ tests were used to compare differences between the groups. Since two measures of achievement motivation were used (Coelleland test and Edwards $P.E.$) it was necessary not only to determine the relationship of these two measures to each of the dependent variables, but also to determine the relationship of the two measures to each other and whether or not there was a difference in the relationships of the two measures to the dependent variables.

The P.E. is a paper-and-pencil questionnaire designed to measure 15 of the needs described by Murray. It is a forced choice instrument in which the subject selects between two items which have been matched for social desirability. For each pair of items the subject chooses the statement which he considers to be more characteristic of himself, each item representing a different need. Each of the 15 needs has items which are paired twice with each of the other needs. Normative data were collected on 1,509 college students and the mean need achievement score for that group was 15.65, as compared to a mean score for the combined samples in this study which was 16.48. For purposes of this study, all scores were utilized regardless of the consistency score. The reliability for the test was computed by correlating partial scores for 299 individuals; the average profile correlation was .74. The test-retest reliability coefficients ranged from .60 to .88. The split-half
reliability for need achievement was .74. The largest inter-
correlation between the subscales was .46 (between affiliation
and nurturance (Edwards, 1957)).

The McClelland need achievement test was selected for
three reasons. First, it is a projective test as compared
to an objective test (and thus likely to tap "unconscious"
rather than "manifest" motivation); second, at the time the
study was undertaken there was more information concerning
the validity of this test as compared to the P.I.C.; and
third, since the correlation between the two tests indicated
that they are measuring different things, it seemed possible
that they would be related differently to the dependent
variables. The subjects were shown four pictures (a boy
sitting at a desk; old-fashioned workshop with two workers;
older and younger man and a boy with surgery scene in back-
ground). Beneath each picture were the following questions:

1. What is happening? Who are the persons?
2. What has led up to this situation? That
is, what has happened in the past?
3. What is being thought? What is wanted?
   By whom?
4. What will happen? What will be done?

Each protocol is first examined to see whether or not an
"achievement goal" is reported. "By achievement goal is
meant success in competition with some standard of excellence,"
(McClelland). According to the scoring, any one story can
show either achievement imagery, doubtful imagery or un-
related imagery. Only those stories which show achievement
imagery are scored for the other categories which are then
summed to give the person's need achievement score. McClelland reports that scoring reliability of over .90 can be learned within a week's time and the writer's scoring correlated reliability coefficient was .96 the scoring reported for McClelland for 20 test stories.

(B) DATA COLLECTION

Data regarding family relations was obtained by means of a questionnaire consisting of four sections. The first section was a rating scale for "Characteristics of Your Home"; the second, "Relations with Mother"; the third section, "Relations with Father"; and the last section, "Relations with Siblings". Sections one and four were designed especially for use in this testing program; sections two and three were developed by Nye (1958).

The "Characteristics of Your Home" scale was devised by taking certain items from the Fels Parent Behaviour Inventory21 (1945) and re-writing them to make them applicable to college students looking back on their childhood and rating these different situations. The items chosen were based on a factor analysis of the original 30 items in the Fels scale by Roff (1949). A test-retest for reliability was issued after an interval of one week. One item reliability was not significant at the .01 level of confidence. There were four items with reliability coefficients between

.40 and .59, six items with coefficients between .60 and .79 and four items with coefficients .80 or higher.

The "Relations with Mother" and the "Relations with Father," scales were developed by Nye (1958). The subject rates items concerning how he felt and reacted toward the parent and in the second section how he thinks the parent felt and reacted toward him. The reproducibility coefficients reported by Nye for how the subject felt toward mother and father were .94 and .92 respectively; and for how the subject felt his father and mother reacted toward him were .94 and .97 respectively.

The "Relations with Siblings" scale was devised by asking the subjects to identify each of their siblings by age and sex and then rate each sibling on a five-point scale for the following dimensions: 1) degree of emotional attachment to each sibling; 2) general ability and intelligence in comparison with each sibling; 3) social skills, etc., in comparison with each sibling; and 4) degree of competitiveness with each sibling. The reliability coefficients for the first two scales were significant at the .01 level of confidence, not significant for the third scale, and significant at the .05 level of confidence for the fourth scale.

In addition to the needs measured on the Edwards P.P.S., the results of three other measures of personality traits were included in this study. They were the F scale, "Attitudes Toward Rigidity of Habits" (RAPH), and Manifest Anxiety Scale (MAS).
The F scale measured the authoritarianism or rigidity devised and described in detail by Adorno et.al. This scale was derived by the selection of items related to ethnocentric behaviour and prejudice toward various minority groups in terms of attitudes and beliefs. The reliability coefficients reported for the F scale are approximately .90. The scale of "Attitudes Toward Rigidity of Habits" was developed by Merisko, et.al., to measure the verbal ideology regarding the extent to which a person expressed rigidity toward his personal habits. The items dealt with such things as "having friends drop in at odd hours," "doing things on the spur of the moment," and "having my meals at odd hours." The authors of the scale report a corrected odd-even reliability coefficient of .78. Although the "Attitudes Toward Rigidity of Habits" and the F scale are correlated to the extent of .62, the difference in the nature of the items seemed great enough to warrant its inclusion in the testing battery. The Manifest Anxiety Scale was devised as a measure of Hull's D in human subjects who were being studied in learning situations. The scale items were selected from the MMPI (mainly the psychosthenia scale), to select Ss differing in general drive level. The scale consisted of 20 items which emerged from an item analysis of the original MAS. It is correlated with the full MAS (.93) and the reliability of this form is reported as being .76.
The subjects in this study were tested as part of a project by Kuhlen and Dipboye (1959) on career motivation. Approximately 135 upper-division men at Syracuse University completed the McClelland and the Edwards P.P.S. and thus constituted the sample. From this group three 32 member groups were selected for each of the measures of need achievement. The subjects were categorized as "low," "medium," and "high," need achievement subjects for both the McClelland and Edwards measurement tests. Also the three groups were matched on age (18 to 26), religious background, religious preference, marital status, status level of father's occupation, and father's education. Matching was rough but the distribution for the groups was not significantly dissimilar as measured by chi-square. It was decided to match the groups on these variables because of the previous relationships that had been found between them and need achievement.

The data collection methods for all the various tests have been described above. Great efforts were made to ensure that the tests were valid and reliable. Koenigsberg noted that validity was obtained by using the most valid items that the individual tests could provide. Also outside groups were used to test for validity of items. The test-retest provided a measure for reliability. All reliability coefficients were significant. In one instance, one item was found not to be reliable, thus it was replaced by another more reliable item. Since specialized tests were used to measure
the different dependent variables they would seem to be most appropriate. However, there was concern regarding the relation between the two measures of achievement motivation. Consequently an analysis was made of the relative frequency of subjects reporting certain personal information which fell in the categories of high, medium, or low achievement motivation on the Edwards versus McClelland. The main purpose of this analysis was to test for a possible difference in the relationship between each of the personal data items and the two measures of achievement motivation. Two independent, unmatched samples of 120 subjects were divided into three levels of achievement motivation for the Edwards and the McClelland. Comparisons were made between the percentage of subjects for a particular variable who were in the low, medium and high group, McClelland versus Edwards.

It was necessary to group data on some of the variables to run a valid test; also some of the variables were dichotomous, for example, "yes" or "no" responses, so that it was necessary to test only one of the responses. For the 58 items of background information, 174 critical ratios were computed, none of which was significant. This would indicate that there is no difference in the relationship of the two tests to the background factors.

(D) ANALYSIS OF DATA

For the analysis of the data of this study the t test was used to compare mean differences and the F test to compare
differences in variances. By setting up matched groups of high, medium, and low need achievement and running the three possible comparisons between these groups, it was possible to determine the relationship of the dependent variables to the extremes of achievement motivation and also whether a curvilinear relationship might exist between achievement motivation and the dependent variables. Thus, this type of analysis gives more detailed information about the relationship of need achievement to the dependent variables.

Two conditions seem to make the interpretation of t-tests somewhat questionable. The analysis was done on matched groups. Koenigsberg notes that there is not an exact test available for comparing groups matched in this way. Even though the chi-squares between the independent variables and the matched variables indicate that there is no relationship between these factors, it was decided to match on these variables to eliminate any contribution they might make, so that any relationships that were found could not in any way be attributed to these matched factors. Although the matched variables were not related to the independent variables, they might be related to the dependent variables and the levels of confidence used would be biased in a conservative direction. The second questionable condition was that each group was used in two comparisons; that is, the t-tests were not in-

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22 Lewis A. Koenigsberg, An Investigation of Background Factors and Selected Personality Correlates of Achievement Motivation, (1962), 63.
dependent. This would possibly offset the previous bias.

The relationship between the McClelland and Edwards P.P.S. is negligible, thus the means and variances for the three levels of achievement motivation as measured by the test were compared with respect to each of the dependent variables. The same samples that were used to compare the original hypotheses were used to compare the means and variances of the high, medium and low achievement, McClelland versus Edwards, on each of the dependent variables, by means of t-tests and F-tests.

Another comparison between the two measures of achievement motivation concerned the relative frequency of subjects with certain background characteristics in the categories of high, medium, and low need achievement as determined by the McClelland versus the Edwards P.P.S. The first sample was chosen by taking the original McClelland group of 135 cases and dividing them into groups of high, medium and low scores, with 40 cases in each group. The second sample was drawn from subjects who did not take the McClelland, but who had completed the P.P.S. They were divided in a similar way. The dividing points were the same as used in the first part of the study. Two statistical procedures are appropriate for making comparisons among these groups: 1) an over-all chi-square; and 2) the critical ratio for evaluating the difference between proportions based on independent samples for each of the three categories. The critical ratio procedure was employed since the over-all chi-square, even
if significant, would not reveal which category (high, medium, or low need achievement) differed reliably from which.

The results of the study were presented in two major sections:

1) The relationship between need achievement (as measured by the McClelland technique and by the Edwards P.P.S. to the dependent variables of: a) home background; b) relationships with parents and siblings; and c) various personality traits.

2) The relationship between two measures of need achievement as reflected by a) differences in the means and variances for the different levels of achievement motivation on the dependent variables; and b) differences in the relative frequency of subjects with certain background characteristics in the various levels of achievement motivation as determined by the two tests.

The means and variances for the three levels of achievement motivation for the samples divided on the basis of the McClelland technique and on the basis of the Edwards P.P.S. were all significantly different from each other. The variances of the extreme groups were significantly greater than the variances of the "medium" group for both tests. The range of scores for the medium group was less than either the low or high groups.
CHAPTER V

RESULTS

(A) RELATIONSHIP OF NEED ACHIEVEMENT TO HOME BACKGROUND

This first hypothesis ($H_1$) was tested by an item analysis of the 13 questions based on the Fels Scale and two items specifically designed to measure independence training. On the McClelland need achievement only two of the 45 possible differences between the means of the three levels of achievement motivation as measured by the McClelland technique and home background factors were significant at the .05 level of confidence, about the number expected by chance. Both these items were from the parent-child harmony scale. The medium group reported that they more often conformed to parental standards than the high group and experienced less friction over enforcement of regulations than the low group. Five of the possible 45 comparisons between variances were significant at the .05 level of confidence. The high group tended to be more variable than the medium or low groups and the low group more variable than the medium group. However, this might be due to the fact that the extreme groups tended to be more variable.
On the Edwards P.P.S. need achievement test, seven of the 45 possible comparisons between the means of the various levels of achievement motivation were significant at the .05 level of confidence. For both items of the "concern for child" scale, the high group reported less time spent with the parents than the other two groups and less protection than the low group. On the "independent training" scale, the high group reported less help from their parents in meeting difficulties than the low group. Three of the differences between variances were significant at the .05 level of confidence, a result only slightly different from chance.

(B) PARENT-SIBLING RELATIONSHIPS

Hypotheses two through six (H2...H6) dealt with the relationship between need achievement and parent-child relationships. The Nye questionnaire was used to test: closeness toward siblings; comparison to siblings in regard to academic and social ability; and competitiveness toward their siblings.

On the McClelland need achievement, six of the 12 possible differences were significant at the .05 level of confidence. Persons with medium need achievement reacted more favourably toward their mothers and their fathers than persons with low need achievement. The results indicated that the medium group had "better" relationships with their parents than either the low or high groups, and that there was no significant differences between the low and high groups.
Three of the 12 possible differences between variances were significant at the .05 level of confidence. The differences indicated that the high group had greater variability than the medium and low groups. There were no significant differences in the number of siblings the three groups had, nor were any of the 36 possible differences between the mean ratings of all siblings significant at the .05 level of confidence. Four of the possible 36 differences between variances were significant. The low group tended to have greater variability than either the medium or high groups.

On the Edwards P.P.S., two of the 12 possible differences between means were significant at the .05 level of confidence, or less between the need achievement group and the four Nye scales. Both differences indicated "better" relationships with parents for the low group as compared to the medium or high group. Three of the 12 differences between variances were significant. The low group tended to have less variability than the medium or high groups. There were no significant differences in the mean number of siblings the three groups had, but the variance of the low group was significantly less than the medium or high groups and also less competitive. None of the differences in variances were significant.

(C) RELATIONSHIP OF NEED ACHIEVEMENT TO PERSONALITY TRAITS

Hypotheses H_7, H_8, H_9, and H_10 deal with the relationship of need achievement to other personality traits. The
traits themselves were measured by the other need scales on the Edwards P.P.S., the Rigidity of Attitudes, towards personal habits, the short-form of the Manifest Anxiety Scale and . scale.

Of the 45 possible differences between means for the 15 needs measured by the Edwards scale, only two were significant at the .05 level of confidence, a result that would be expected on a chance basis. On the "consistency score" none of the differences between the means was significant, although the variability of the low group was greater than the high group (.01 level of confidence). Also, on the MAS two of the three differences were significant - the medium group had less anxiety than either the high or low groups.

There was no significant differences between the means or variances of the groups divided on the basis of the Edwards score and the McClelland need achievement score. Seven of the possible 42 differences between means for the other 14 needs measured by Edwards, were significant at the .05 level of confidence. Significant differences were found on needs affiliation, abasement, nurturance, and endurance. There was a negative relationship to the first three needs and a positive relationship with endurance. The "Consistency Score" showed that the low group was more consistent than the high group. Only one difference between variances was significant, probably due to chance.
The second part of this study compares the relationship of the Edwards and McClelland tests to the dependent variables. Direct comparisons were made for each of the three levels of achievement motivation as measured by the two tests and each of the dependent variables.

Four of the 45 possible differences between the three levels of achievement motivation were significant at the .05 level of confidence or less. At the low level of need achievement the Edwards group had better general home adjustment and more protection than the McClelland group. At the medium level the Edwards group did not meet the standards of behaviour to the same extent as the McClelland group. The high level of achievement motivation showed no significant differences.

Eight of the 12 possible differences between means for the parent-child relationships scales were significant. At the low level of achievement motivation the McClelland group consistently had poorer relationships with their parents than the Edwards group; this relationship was reversed for the medium group. The high groups revealed no significant differences. Also, the findings tended to indicate poorer relationships with siblings for the McClelland group as compared to the Edwards group.

Four of the 45 possible differences between means on the 15 need variables were significant. The significant
differences indicated greater need affiliation and need nurture for the low P.P.S. group as compared to the low McClelland group; at the medium level, greater need endurance for the McClelland group; and greater need abasement for the McClelland at the high level. At the medium level of achievement motivation, the McClelland group tended to have a higher consistency score. There were no significant differences on variability. On the MAS the P.P.S. group tended to be more anxious at the medium level of need achievement. There was no significant differences in variability.

As part of the investigation relation to the difference between the two measures of achievement motivation, an analysis was made of the relative frequency of subjects reporting certain personal information which fell in the categories of high, medium and low achievement motivation on the Edwards versus the McClelland. However the results indicated that there was no difference in the relationship of the two tests to the background factors.

(E) SUMMARY

A summary of the data reveals that approximately only 10 percent of the comparisons of the difference between the means for the three levels of achievement motivation on all dependent variables combined were significant at the .05 level of confidence for the McClelland and Edwards P.P.S. In terms of the number of differences between means and variances which were significant, the results were not
particularly impressive.

The relationship between parent-child relationships and the P.P.S. tended to indicate that close ties with the parents was associated with low achievement motivation and conflict with parents was associated with high achievement motivation. However, the relationship of conflict with parents and the McClelland test indicated that conflict with parents was associated with both high and low levels of achievement motivation. The suggested interpretation of these results is that the McClelland test measures need achievement related to an "acceptance-rejection" dimension of the achievement drive, while the Edwards test is probably a measure of the desire for material success. The McClelland technique was designed by selected pictures which tended to elicit achievement oriented stories. The person who scores low on this test could be said to be responding inappropriately to the presented cues. In a sense he is "rejecting" an achievement need or he might be reacting to other cues in the pictures to a greater extent than he is responding to the achievement cues. Conflict caused by parental pressures to achieve might lead the child to either accept or reject the achievement need. If he feels he cannot live up to parental expectations he may reject achievement motivation. However, on the other hand, he might try to meet or even surpass these expectations and therefore accept or incorporate need achievement into his personality structure.

The interpretation of the relationship between parent-
child relationships and the P.P.S. is based on the suggestion that this test measures a desire for material possessions. If the parents are providing the child with all his material needs it is not necessary for him to strive in this direction and probably the child would feel grateful toward his parents for providing him with these things. However, if the parents are not giving him material things it would be necessary for him to obtain these on his own. He would probably also feel resentment towards his parents for not making such provisions for him.

(P) CONCLUSION

The conclusions from the study are as follows:

1) There is a slight relationship between need achievement as measured by the McClelland technique and a) parent-child relationships and b) anxiety.

2) There is a slight relationship between need achievement as measured by the Edwards P.P.S. and a) home background factors, b) parent-child relationships, c) sibling relationships, d) needs affiliation, abasement, nurturance, and endurance and anxiety.

3) The McClelland and Edwards measures of need achievement are not related to each other and hold a different relationship to the a) parent-child relationships scale, and b) anxiety.

4) It is suggested that the trait measured by the McClelland technique is rejection-acceptance of the achievement drive.

5) It is suggested that the trait measured by the Edwards technique is the achievement drive for material success.

These conclusions appear to be precise and understandable.
Also, they seem to be appropriate to the data obtained. However, the measurements used are not void of shortcomings and they have been mentioned throughout this paper. The author concludes that further research be concerned with both the differences and similarities between different levels of achievement motivation.
PART II
CHAPTER VI
IMPLICATIONS FOR THE SOCIAL WORK PROFESSION

In Part I the reviewer analyzed a study done on "achievement motivation" by Lewis Koenigsberg. The conclusions drawn from the study are not crucial or widely applicable to the social work profession. However, "achievement motivation" is only a sector of the entire concept of motivation. The broader concept of motivation does have far reaching implications for social work's knowledge base and consequently practice. The reviewer will examine several dimensions of the so called "poor unmotivated" client. However, clients are not "motivated" or "unmotivated" independently, but in relation to some specific activity. Thus, an "unmotivated" client is unmotivated in regard to a service. To analyze, categorize and stigmatize the former and ignore the latter is to explore only half the issue.

The reviewer will discuss clients' rights to service, clients' and agency's value systems and the implications of other studies on motivation for social work practice. In this light the reviewer draws attention to the importance of systemic change; studies which prove that clients can be motivated and the advocacy concept. The reviewer concludes
by casting the onus for advocate training upon the graduate schools of social work.

(A) CLIENT RIGHTS

The basic rights of the impoverished welfare client go largely unprotected. According to Marvin Larsen,

Perhaps the dirtiest violation of civil rights of clients occurs in some agencies in connection with intake. The stall, the delay, the referral to other agencies, the referral to non-existent employment, all are deprivations of the statutory and constitutional rights of United States citizens. 23

The inadequacy of public programs serving the poor, their wide-spread violation of the legal rights of constituents and their resistance to constituent influence and challenge are at least partly responsible for the perceptions of the "unmotivated" poor regarding institutional service. The reviewer feels that these conditions are not unique to public welfare and welfare workers, but exist in provincial rehabilitation programs and other service systems.

(B) VALUES

Values underlie human behaviour. Whether they lie in the realm of ethics, economics, aesthetics or religion, they exist as they are experienced in human minds and translated into human action. In examining the client's values and motivation, it is relevant to keep foremost in mind the fact that social workers, so much like other social beings, just

may unwittingly communicate their own standards when these
may be at variance with those of the client population.
Also, the social worker and agency may find themselves in
the anomalous position of conveying "total-acceptance" of
clients on the surface while in reality, selecting conforming
clients and bringing pressure to bear on others to accept
the agency's implicit values.

Stein and Cloward further emphasized this point, in
_Social Perspectives on Behavior_, when they said,

> Professional social work services are disseminated
> through a variety of organizations, many of which
> are under social work direction, such as prisons,
> courts, hospitals, and industries. In these
> settings, the values of the organization may not
> be entirely consistent with those of professional
> social work, yet may have the effect of penetr­
> ating social work practice and transforming its
> ends... In effect, the ends of social work can
> become submerged in organizational ends.²⁴

Does this not reflect a defect in service rather than client
motivation? Robin Williams points out that value systems,
modal as they may be for society as a whole, are not uni-
formly distributed throughout society. They vary with
social class, ethnic groups, and religious education.²⁵ The
reviewer feels that constant investigation of one's own
value system may be a necessity in examining the value
systems of others. If agencies do possess a middle class

²⁴Herman Stein, _et.al_, _Social Perspectives on

²⁵Robin M. Williams, "Value Orientations in American
Society," in Herman Stein, _Social Perspectives on Behavior_,
289.
value system, can they help "unmotivated" clients who have a different value orientation?

When evaluating motivation and value systems, caution must be exerted to deter misperception. The August, 1967 riots in Detroit seem to be an excellent example, for, according to a study done by Caplan and Paige, the rioters were not the hard core unemployed, the least educated, recent immigrants from the south, psychological misfits or the beholders of value systems contrary to the average American. Initially society stereotyped and categorized the Negroes as being useless, unmotivated, 'queer' types. However, closer investigation proves these to be misperceptions, for the rioters have expectations and goals similar to society's as a whole. The problem lies in the fact that adequate means to attain such goals have been withheld from the Negroes. Society advocated freedom and equality for all but in reality breeds discrimination and a "survival of the fittest" attitude.

(C) IMPLICATIONS OF OTHER STUDIES ON MOTIVATION FOR SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE

Within the past seven years other studies have been conducted on achievement motivation and various variables most relevant to achievement motivation. The following will attempt to survey these studies while keeping foremost in

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mind their addition to social work's knowledge base and implications for practice.

There is still no accepted method of measuring the degree of motivation under which a person is working at any particular time. According to Eysenck, motivation and task difficulty, influence performance in a complex way. Eysenck discovered that as drive increases, performance tends to improve - up to a point. Once this optimum has been reached further increase in motivation leads to a worsening of performance. Thus, if one treatment goal is to increase motivation to obtain optimum performance, which would result in personal rewards from family and peers, consequently improving self-image etc., the social worker must be careful not to surpass the optimum point which would reduce performance and set up a negative cycle.

In a study done by Rehberg on motivation education and parental attitudes it was discovered that,

The model posits that the father's education is a partial determinant of his occupation and hence of the social status of the family, that paternal education and occupation influence adolescent educational expectancies both through parental encouragement and independently of it, and that the larger the family the greater the reduction not only in the frequency which the parents encourage their children to continue but also in the effectiveness of any given frequency level of parental educational encouragement as well.


In effect, the Rehberg study on 2,852 male sophomores in six middle sized Pennsylvania cities seemed to highlight the identification and adoption of parental expectations by the children while emphasizing the importance of encouragement. The reviewer feels that educators and social workers, when dealing with failing or apathetic students would do well to keep the above findings in mind and not immediately categorize and direct the child to a technical program. So often the educational system has failed to provide encouragement and support which may be the missing link in a student’s achievement.

Heimanis tested the hypothesis derived from Peak’s disparity theory on motivation. Achievement motivation and disparity indices were obtained from 40 veteran domiciliary members. The data supported the hypothesis that achievement motivation varies directly with the life goal-present status disparity when low and moderate disparity levels are considered. In the light of these findings questions must be raised concerning our treatment of the aged and disabled. If these people do feel inferior and lack the incentive to compete, are the social work services structured to remedy the situation? The reviewer feels that too many communities hide the aged on countrysides and teach the disabled to make baskets. This does not seem to be the best approach, but it is society’s means of reducing guilt feelings and hostility

for not really being able to tolerate them.

Forest Ward carried out a study which dealt with the concept of achievement motivation as developed by McClelland and others. He hypothesized that need achievement would vary with level of achievement success. The results indicated that the achievement motive is causally related to achievement level. Some of the variance between the high and low achieving groups was attributed to greater success expectancy. Do social work services provide a positive image and hope for success or do they present themselves in a defeated punitive manner which is most assuredly sensed by the client? A study related to this question was undertaken by Beijk. He investigated the theory of cognitive dissonance based on the assumption of positive self-concept. To the positive and negative expectancy toward a task was added a general positive and negative self-image as an independent variable in the expectation that subjects with a negative self-concept would in general strive for a poorer performance than subjects with a positive self-concept. The assumption was not supported: subjects with a low expectancy tried as hard as those with high expectancy to obtain the maximum performance. If this conclusion can be generalized, why is it that a greater percentage of clients with low self esteem and a

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negative self-image fail to return for services offered by Provincial Rehabilitative agencies, than clients who possess a positive self-image and greater self esteem? The reviewer feels that it is not so much the client as the type of service he is receiving which determines if he returns.

H.C. van der Meer studied the relationship between the width of time perspective and achievement motivation and risk-preference. A positive correlation was found between achievement and the width of time perspective. A relationship was also found between risk preference and the width of time perspective. Subjects willing to accept average to large levels of risk showed a larger time perspective. 32 

H.C. van der Meer's follow up study confirmed his original findings, that is, persons who show risk preference show largely low achievement motivation. 33 Kimbrell carried out a study on remotivation of institutionalized epileptics and discovered that improved interpersonal relationships seemed to be fostered through a five step remotivation technique. 34


This finding again seems to bring out the importance and usefulness of motivational techniques. For the time being it will suffice to say that possibly workers lack this skill due either to their lack of training as a student or their apathy to acquire such skills while practicing.

A European study carried out by Alicja Sokolowska attempted to obtain the opinions of 1500 boys and girls, 14 to 20 years of age, toward certain facets of home life. It was concluded that if a teenager views his home environment in a positive manner then he is apt to set realistic and meaningful goals. A negative view of the home environment generates low aspiration, poor motivation and a dim outlook for the future.\(^{35}\) Joseph Mezzano investigated the effects of two types of counselling treatments on certain attitudes, traits, and academic achievement of low motivated male high school students. The results indicated that group counselling when conducted with low-motivated male high school students can produce a significant and positive change in grade point average.\(^{36}\) If a student fails to achieve satisfactory grades is he not unjustly categorized as being lazy, not interested or plain 'stupid', while in reality the education system has failed to realize and compensate for the negative environment.

\(^{35}\) Alicja Sokolowska, "The Role of the Family in Developing the Attitude of Young People Towards Their Own Future," *Psychologia Wychowawcza*, X (1967), 44-58.

in which the so called under-achiever is living. It seems to this reviewer that the social work profession has the responsibility to constantly remind educators of this fact and in doing so, beginning to work more closely with them and students as well.

Practical problems concerning the educational level and occupational skills of youth in an increasingly technical society have emphasized the importance of the research area in recent years. Formulae for motivating youth towards new or higher attainments have not been developed; however progress has been made in specifying variables related to adolescent personality and motivation. Hopefully the research trends will broaden their perspectives and make their efforts more useful for social work practice. Researchers working in the area of education should be moving in the following directions:

1) To study motivational, attitudinal and personality factors as indicators of the adolescent's self system.

2) To relate self-other attitudes and goals to socio-cultural variables broadened in attempts to specify the patterning of social contexts that impinge upon specific youth.

3) To study social structure and values prevailing among youth as well as interaction in specific peer groups as a major source of personal standards and goals. 37

CHAPTER VII

SOCIAL WORK'S RESPONSIBILITY

The reviewer feels that the technology of social work is culturally bound and inflexible. The profession is inevitably owned and operated by middle class personnel. They have failed to take into account the differing needs and styles of their clients.

(A) SYSTEMIC CHANGE

It seems to the reviewer that institutional structure and policy need to be more systematically integrated into our theory and methodology. Lack of motivation to seek employment on the part of an adolescent whose family is on public welfare assistance may be explained in intrapsychic terms, for example, as poor identification with a father figure. It can be accounted for in socio-psychological terms, for example, as the result of cultural strain resulting from particular group patterns. Or it can be accounted for in a manner that takes social structure into consideration, for example, as a result of the policy of the Department of Welfare to reduce the allotment to welfare families, whose youngsters are working. How one defines the problem hints
at its solution.

Systemic change is needed in policies and programs which serve the poor. The dependency, apathy and anger of public welfare clients will not be reduced by increased professionalization of welfare staff or by the addition of a complex of rehabilitation services. These by themselves cannot counterbalance the effect of minimum subsistence levels and the means test framework. They cannot even guarantee that clients will be served as a matter of right, or that programs will be sufficiently responsible to the client's definition of need.

Fortunately, the social work profession is turning its attention increasingly to issues of social policy. A specific example is Edward E. Schwartz's creative proposal for a family security program which guarantees, as a right, a minimum income for all. Much of social work's contribution to the "unmotivated" client rests in the skill and commitment brought to the development and advocacy of such program plans.

A further aspect of social work's responsibility to protect the interests of the consumer of public services is to provide assistance for the organization of clients to act in their own behalf. George Brager, while lecturing at a workshop on "Motivation" at Brandeis University in 1965, stated:

When residents of the low-income community attempt as individuals to redress their grievances with public agencies, they are often defeated before they start. If they are not intimidated by the procedures. However, when these individuals petition public officials as members of an organization, they may win only access to, but concessions from, the agencies. Public agencies with their vested interest in public support, respond more rapidly and relevantly to the demands of organizations than to those of individuals. The pressure of organized numbers constitutes a lobbying power important for bringing about institutional change. 39

The content, structure and methodology of social services needs to be reviewed in the context of class and cultural differences. In this way the dissociation between the impoverished client and the middle-income worker can be overcome. Social policy reflecting the needs of the poor—a role for social work as protectors of their interests and social services patterned in ways congenial to their culture will do much to persuade the "unmotivated" to participate actively in attempts to help them.

(B) TREATING THE UNMOTIVATED

Those patients who apparently are not motivated for treatment in the sense of not wanting to do anything about their problems usually represent people whose conflicts and fears are stimulated by the treatment situation and for those whose basic pathology militates against their doing anything to help themselves. Thus it seems that the concept of motivation for treatment is of little practical value

principally because motivations are inseparable from the patient's infantile needs, conflicts and defenses.

The decision for or against therapy and decisions as to the kind of therapy are much better based on the two major areas of needs and capacities. First, an accurate estimate must be made of the patient's psychopathological conflicts and defenses including the severity and duration of his symptoms and other disabilities. Second, we must estimate the patient's resources, including his ego strengths, and especially his degree of basic trust, capacity for object relationships, psychological mindedness, capacity to tolerate frustration, reality factors etc., which are usually taken into account in recommending treatment.

The problem is not whether motivation is good or bad, but what conscious and unconscious factors are entering into and determining the motivation for treatment? Secondly, what effect will these factors, especially the unconscious ones have on the individual in accepting and beginning treatment; later on during treatment and still later in ending treatment? Third, how can the social worker recognize and deal with these motivations most effectively in the initial contact with the patient?40

A most important study concerning motivation was entitled: Motivation Capacity and Opportunity: Studies in

Casework Theory and Practice, and undertaken by Lillian Ripple, et al. The study examined the proposition that "the client's use of casework service is determined by his motivation, capacity and the opportunities afforded him both by his environment and by the social agency from which he seeks help." In sum, the most exciting finding of the study is the affirmation of the primacy of the caseworker's role in effecting the client's continuance in treatment. "The most important single variable was service and concern, not the skill in specific activities, but rather the amount of encouragement given the client during and immediately after the initial interview." The general conclusions drawn indicated that the client's continuance and use of service may be more strongly determined by the caseworker's encouragement, hopefulness and "reaching-out" behaviour regardless of whether the client falls into the involuntary, "non-motivated" client category or whether he has come to the agency of his own accord.

In another study entitled: Retrieval From Limbo, by Ganter, et al., again it is proven that by the use of new methods and understanding so called 'untreatables' can be treated most effectively. In this study, it was shown that


children who usually would have been referred for placement in an institution and who would have to wait a considerable length of time to enter a residential treatment facility, (thus reducing motivation), could be successfully treated as an outpatient. It seems to the reviewer that such important findings, as mentioned in the above studies, are not being utilized. These findings also indicate the value of research and the importance that it continue not only in the area of motivation but the entire social work field.

If there is more agreement than opposition to the above perspectives which state that social workers are untrained to work with so called "unmotivated" clients and that our services are also not equipped to handle such clientele, then the next logical question seems to be "why not?" Upon retracing the development of a professional social worker, who is inevitably responsible for changing services to meet clients needs, one quickly arrives at the graduate schools of social work which are the life blood of the entire profession. The reviewer feels that if the graduate schools of social work desire to produce professionals capable of treating the "unmotivated" client and his deprived environment, there needs to be re-examination of certain aspects of the education system. These are:

1) The range and type of settings used for field instruction.
2) The criteria used for selection of teaching materials from practice settings.
3) The conceptualization and teaching of practice as a set of different methods and processes rather than as a unified professional discipline.
4) The imbalance, extreme shifts in emphasis and the lack of integration in teaching the "social" and psychological aspects of human phenomenon.

(C) ADVOCACY

However relevant these aspects of education may be, there seems to be even more crucial concepts when considering the so-called "unmotivated." The concept in question is - advocacy. George Brager, in an article entitled "Advocacy and Political Behavior," maintains that the worker as advocate identifies with the plight of the disadvantaged. Brager continues, "one objective of the advocate may be conceptualized as the redistribution of community power, so that programs and policies which benefit the disadvantaged may receive more vigorous and receptive attention." In essence he contends that only with lobbying power can the disadvantaged gain their rightful share and that the social work profession has the responsibility to enter the political arena and represent their clientele. Brager warns of the risk involved in being an advocate - the professional who identifies with the victims of social problems and who pursues modification in social conditions - and concludes that he will need to have the professional dedication to take the risk and to be political. Thus the question seems to be: Are the schools teaching students to take this

44 Ibid., 21.
risk or have they also over identified with the 'status quo'?

(D) ADVOCACY TRAINING

David Wineman in his paper entitled: "Captor, Captives, and Social Workers in a Civil Society: The Advocacy Challenge to Schools of Social Work," also directs his attention to the advocacy concept. Wineman contends that only if the school acts as advocate for the student, when the student is fighting for client's rights, will the student learn to become an advocate willing to challenge the ills of the entire profession. Only if the student has been taught to be an advocate will he "find it unavoidably natural to stand and fight for client rights, as a first priority, instead of fleeing to the suburbs of the professional environment." 45

It seems to the reviewer that the graduate schools of social work must adopt advocate training into their programs if they desire the new graduates to be capable of instigating change within the profession's antiquated services!

(E) CONCLUSION

The reviewer feels that emphasis must be placed on several perspectives. That a client is defined as "unmotivated" may be a consequence of the beholder's - service giver's - perception or it may in fact be the case. There is, of course, a wide disparity between apparent dis-

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interest and actual disinterest. Clients may be categorized and stigmatized as "unmotivated" however, for them "unmotivated services" are the issues. Could it just be that the client's perspectives towards service may be more valid than the profession's judgement of them? The reviewer feels that there is no such thing as an "unmotivated" client but only biased and "unmotivated" services.
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UNPUBLISHED MATERIALS
