INTRODUCTION

If we see around us, we will find that each and every student is born with a unique personality. A great deal is learned through circumstances and other people. Each student has his/her own individual traits and personalities. Some students have different cultural backgrounds, come from different socio economic status, families and have different personalities. There is growing evidence that students who become actively involved in the life of their school and society show very little disaffection and instead experience significant benefits. Although identity development is most often associated with adolescence, each developmental stage offers opportunity for reevaluation and modification. The person that people ultimately become is unique, however the process by which identity develops is similar among individuals.

Present investigation aims to study self-identity, value preferences, level of aspiration and personality characteristics among professional and non-professional students. Present investigation is a comparative study of different groups of professional students with different groups of non-professional students.

Self-Identity

The idea of the self is fundamental to the history of human thought. Self provides a link between the socialization experiences and personality changes and development that continues through adolescence, into adulthood and old age. Sometimes the term self is used as an object, in which an individual is depicted as having knowledge of evaluating
the self as object in much the same way one has knowledge of and evaluates another person one can like and dislike another person, one can like and dislike oneself.

The establishment of identity takes place at different levels during the course of development. Infants and toddlers manifest a sense of physical identity as they begin to refer to pictures of themselves with their own names during the second year, and as the use of personal pronouns like me and I becomes common place during the third year (Ames, 1952, Lewis & Brooks, 1979). Adolescents are manifesting a concern with their psychological identity whenever they question who they are and what they will become (Erikson 1959). One can trace progressive developmental shifts in identity during adolescence (Waterman 1982). Adolescents who have established a commitment for themselves after a period of exploration are considered to have attained the status of identity achievement.

**Concept and Definition:**

Self-identity means awareness of and identification with oneself as a separate individual. Work on self and identity has a special place in the study of human nature, as self concerns are arguably at the center of individuals striving for well being for making sense of one’s life. Life goal develops and are influenced by one’s view of what one is like, the way one would ideally like to be as well as one’s perceptions of what is feasible.

James (1890) called the core of the personality pattern, which provides its unity, the “self”. Later, Freud referred to it as the “ego” and Sullivan used the phrase, the “self
“system”. According to James (1890), a person’s self is the “sum total of all that he can call his”.

In other words, it is the sum total of a being’s knowledge and understanding of his or herself. For decades the self (e.g. ego, identity self concept) and related processes (self-esteem, self reflection) have been a central concern of social and behavioral scientist as well as mental health professionals.

In recent decades, what a person “can call his” has been spelled out in more definite and specific terms. It has been referred to as his” attitude toward self”, as an “organized configuration of perceptions of self”, as “those perceptions, beliefs, feelings, attitudes and values which the individual views as part or characteristic of himself”, as the “Organization of qualities the individual attributes to himself” and as a “system of central meaning he has about himself and his relation to the world about him.

All port (1961) has described the self concept as “The self is something of which we are immediately aware. We think of it as the warm and central private region of our life. As such it plays a crucial part in our consciousness (a concept broader than self), in our personality (a concept broader than consciousness), and in our organism (a concept broader than personality). Thus it is some kind of core in our being.

Jersild (1952) the self, as it finally evolves is made up of all that goes into a person’s experiences of his individual existence. It is a person’s “inner world”. It is a composite of a person’s thoughts and feelings, strivings and hopes, fears and fantasies,
his view of what he is what he has been, what he might become and his attitude pertaining to his worth.

The importance of the self-concept in the personality pattern is evidenced by the labels usually given it. It is referred to as the core or center of gravity of the pattern or as the “Keystone of the personality”. Its importance stems from its influence over the quality of a person’s behavior and his methods of adjustment to life situations. As Lewin (1935) has pointed out, it gives” consistency to the personality”.

Self- identity becomes a serious issue at the secondary level. At the primary level childrens are childrens, they play and fight together and are unaware of their identity. But at the secondary level students becomes much aware of their identity. It is very difficult for them to accept the fact that others also have the same uniqueness and claims of greatness as they have. Adolescents at this level tend to have higher self esteem and to be less deceptive and more direct in their social interactions than adolescents who have not attained this identity status (Read, Adams & Dobson 1984).

The physical self is one component of the child’s emerging sense of identity. It becomes amplified, enriched by and integrated with a psychological self. By psychological self, we mean those feelings attitudes, desires, judgments and behaviors that individual considers to be characteristic of him or her. The psychological aspects of the self are as important as a part of one’s identity as the physical aspects. The psychological self, like the body image or physical self has to be acquired. The physical self provides the frame of reference for the psychological attributes that the child sees as characteristic of itself. The body image of a particular face, body and size becomes a
self with such qualities as stupid or smart, careful or carelessness, strong or weak. Together they constitute the self-concept.

The self-concept and the identity it provides is time binding, it helps to provide continuity between the past, the present and the future. Without a sense of identity, the person we were yesterday would be a stranger to us today. The self-concept also links the present and the future in that we can protect ourselves into the future, imaging ourselves when older in different roles and circumstances.

Component of self

The concept of self has three major components - The perceptual, The Conceptual and the attitudinal.

The perceptual components are the image the person has of the appearance of his body and of the impression he makes on others, the conceptual component is the person’s conception of his distinctive characteristics, his abilities and disabilities, his background and origins and his future, attitudinal component are the feelings a person has about his present status and future prospects, his feelings about his worthiness, and his attitudes of self-esteem, self approach, pride and shame.

James (1890) for the first time suggested that a person has many “Selves”. The “real self” for example, is what a person really believes he is, his “Ideal self” is the person aspires to be and his “social self” is what he believes others think of him and how they perceive him. Self-concept takes different forms. Each form falls into one of
the four major categories, which relate to the physical as well as the psychological self-concept. The four categories of self-concept are the basic, the transitory, the social and the ideal.

The new born infant’s state of consciousness is a “big blooming buzzing confusion. The infant is not aware of himself as neither a person nor does he differentiates himself from environment (James 1890).

Allport (1961) has emphasized one thing is quite certain: the young infant is not aware of himself as a self. He does not separate the “me” from the rest of the world”. And it is precisely this separation that is the pivot of late life. The infant, though presumably conscious, lacks self consciousness completely. Gradually, because of the sensation he experiences from within his body and from his environment, he begins to differentiate between the two. This is the beginning of the long process of developing a concept of self. Each experience which helps to mold the self-concept has a definite socio-cultural reference station. That is, it originates from and is influenced by the interaction of the individual and specific factors in the social and cultural environment in which he grows up.

Self and identity is devoted to the study of social and psychological processes of the self including both its agented aspects, as well as the perceived and construed aspects as reflected in its mental representation. Self-concept or self-identity is the mental and conceptual understanding and persistent regard that sentiments being hold for their own existence.
William James (1890) – The philosophy theologian and psychologist termed the self “the most puzzling puzzle with which the psychologist has to deal” despite James’ “lucid writing about the self and a century of research and writing since, the human self remains a puzzle.

The large volume of empirical researches on the self has convinced most social and behavioral scientist that the self is real and that no science of the human experience is complete without accounting for it. For decades, the self (e.g. Ego, identity and Self-concept) and related processes (self esteem, self reflection) have been a central concern of social and behavioral scientist as mental health professionals.

Identity is an umbrella term used throughout the social sciences to describe an individual’s comprehension of him or herself as a discrete, separate identity. Identity is or may be contrasted with the notion of self. In psychology, a psychological identity relates to self image (a person’s mental model of him or herself esteem and self individualization. An important part of identity in psychology is gender identity as this indicates to a significant degree how an individual views him or herself both as a person and in relation to other people. In cognitive psychology, the term “identity “refers to the capacity for self reflection and the awareness of self. Psychologist most commonly use the term “identity” to describe personal identity or the idiosyncratic things that makes a person unique. Sociologist often uses the term to describe social identity or the collection of group membership that define the individual. Any individual’s sense of identity is determined in large part by the choices and commitment that he or she
makes regarding certain personal and social traits. Erikson (1968) and others have noted the importance of self-identity. Context such as cultural and social environment greatly influences identity development. During adolescence, the complexity of this process increases, and not all are successful in achieving positive outcomes.

A milestone in human reflection about the non-physical inner self came in (1644) when Rene Descartes wrote Principles of Philosophy. Descartes proposed that doubt was a principal tool of disciplined enquiry, yet he could not doubt that he doubted. He reasoned that if he doubted, he was thinking and therefore he must exist. Thus existence depends upon perception. A second milestone in the development of self-concept theory was the writing of Sigmund Freud (1900) who gave a new understanding of the importance of an internal mental process. Self-concept theory has always had a strong influence on the emerging profession of counseling. Lecky (1945) contributed the notion that self-consistency is a primary motivating force in human behavior. Raimy (1948) introduced measures of self-concept in counseling interviews and argued that psychotherapy is basically a process of altering the ways that individuals see themselves.

By far the most influential and eloquent voice in self-concept theory was that of Roger (1947) who introduced an entire system of helping built around the importance of the self. In Roger’s view, the self is the central ingredient in human personality and personal adjustment. Roger described the self as a social product, developing out of interpersonal relationships and striving for consistency. He maintained that there is a
basic human need for positive regard both from other and from oneself. He also believes that in every person there is a tendency towards self actualization and development so long as this is permitted and encouraged by an inviting environment (Purkey & Schmidt, 1987).

Many of the success and failures that people experience in many areas of life are closely related to the ways that they have learned to view themselves and their relationship with others. It is also becoming clear that self-concept has at least three major qualities of interest to counselors, it is learned, it is organized and it is dynamic-

**Self-Concept is Learned**

As far as we know, no one is born with a self-concept. It gradually emerges in the early months of life and is shaped and reshaped through repeated perceived experiences, particularly with significant others. The fact that self-concept is learned has some important implications-

- Self–concept does not appear to be instinctive, but it is a social product developed through experience, it possesses relatively boundless potential for development and actualization.
- Because of previous experiences and present perceptions individuals may perceive themselves in ways different from the ways others see him. Individual perceive different aspects of themselves at different times with varying degree of clarity. Therefore, inner focusing is a valuable tool for counseling.
• Any experience which is inconsistent with one’s self-concept may be perceived as a threat and the more of these experiences, the more rigidly self-concept is organized to maintain and protect itself. When a person is unable to get rid of perceived inconsistencies, emotional problem arise.

• Faculty thinking patterns, such as dichotomous reasoning (dividing everything in terms of opposite or extremes) or over generalizing (making sweeping conclusions based on little information) create negative interpretation of oneself.

**Self Concept is Organized**

Most researchers agree that self-concept has a generally stable quality that is characterized by orderliness and harmony. Each person maintains countless perceptions regarding ones personal existence, and each perception is orchestrated with all the others. It is this generally stable and organized quality of self-concept that gives consistency to the personality. This organized quality of self-concept has corollaries.

• Self-concept requires consistency, stability and tends to resist change. If self-concept changed readily, the individual would lack a consistent and dependable personality.

• The more central a particular belief is to one’s self-concept, the more resistant one is to changing that belief.

• At the heart of self-concept is the self as doer, the I which is distinct from the self as object, the various us. This allows the person to reflect on past events, analyze present perceptions and shape future experiences.

• Basic perceptions of oneself are quite stable, so change takes time.
Perceived success and failures affect self-concept. Failure in a highly regarded area lowers evaluations in all other areas as well. Success in a prized area raises evaluations in other seemingly unrelated areas.

**Self-concept is Dynamic:**

To understand the active nature of self-concept, it helps to imagine it as a gyrocompass: a continuously active system that dependably points to the “true north” of a person’s perceived existence. This guidance system not only shape the ways a person views oneself, others and the world, but it also serves to direct action and enables each person to take a consistent “stance” in life. Rather viewing self-concept as the cause of behavior, it is better to understand as the gyrocompass of human personality, providing consistency in personality and direction for behaviors. The dynamic quality of self-concept also carries corollaries:

- The world and the things in it are not just perceived, they are perceived in relation to one’s self-concept.
- Self-concept development is a continuous process. In the healthy personality there is constant assimilation of new ideas and expulsion of old ideas throughout life.
- Individual strive to behave in ways that are keeping in with their self-concepts, no matter how hopeful or hurtful to oneself or others.
- Self-concept usually takes precedence over the physical body. Individuals will often sacrifice physical comfort and safety for emotional satisfaction.
- Self-concept continuously guards itself against loss of self-esteem, for it is this loss that produces feelings of anxiety.

- If self-concept must constantly defend itself from assault, growth opportunities are limited.

**Value Preferences**

In popular use, values are inextricable component of the socio cultural context and also one of the major antecedent determinants of behavior. The term value has a variety of meanings and attributes. In common use, it means price. In other context it refers to importance. The dictionary meanings of value suggest quality or facts of being excellent, useful or desirable. In sociology and anthropology the term has come to denote the shared cultural standards according to which the moral, aesthetic and cognitive relevance of the object of attitude, desire and need can be compared and judged.

In popular use value has three type of meaning: (a) the objects have value as they satisfy our needs and we are ready to pay for it; (b) acts, arguments and experiments have values as they serve our goals or objectives; and (c) at a higher conceptual level it means ideals. The term human values, social values and cultural values refer to the ideals and norms established by societies and cultures that are highly priced by the individuals and social units constituting the societies or culture. Therefore, values determine desirable and undesirable ideas, things and behaviors. The desirability and undesirability of ideas, things and behaviors however, are socially and culturally determined.
Although values are seen as socially and culturally determined, they may have individualistic character. In the broad frame of cultural values, an individual as a primary unit of the society may have a personal values system or preferences. Value constitute a central ingredient of personality on the one hand, and in hence, our thinking and attitude on the others.

It may be said that values function as norms and have to be adopted by the constituent members and groups consciously or unconsciously. Such values are changed with emotions and become ego involved. Once this happens, value in forms of norms gets internalized. This is the process of internalization of values in life. Values consequently may influence our perception and actions. In this sense, value becomes a generalized attitude. But unlike attitude (which could be positive or negative) values are preferential.

Value is more or less an abstract with different meanings in different contexts. It has both cognitive and cognitive components. In cognitive field, it is related to thoughts, ideas, beliefs, prejudices and interests. On the other hand, its cognitive aspect is manifested in the form of valances and goal directed activities.

Parson (1951) said that values are cultural ideas that influence human choices by the virtue of being internalized by the actor. He contended that values are instigators of behavior and can only be inferred. However, values are embodied in social activities, relationships and institutions that are subject to change and adjustment. On the other hand, values have a relative permanence and university. Similarly, values could be part
of some ideology or part of more restricted groups (i.e., Social class, group or movement).

It may be said that values and ideas maintain and regulate the visible social structure and interaction on the one hand and give them cohesion on the other. Despite being subjective and invisible, values are significant aspect of society and underlay all relationship.

He observes further that since values played a very significant role in social affairs, studying them was a good beginning for the production of a unified theory of human behavior. According to Parson and Shills (1951) perfect articulate and conflictless action on the part of several actors was possible when rules become fully institutionalized and were derived from the common value orientation of the people of collectivity. It was studied in value systems as deriving their quality from the dual nature of man as being both a “Sentient being” and a reason being”. A predominance of either quality is reflected in two distinct value patterns. Furthermore, when regrouped, the classes of most significant values were seen to fall into class of values that were discerned and classified by the ancient Greek Philosophers. The Greek philosophers envisaged values as arising from activities that intended to and adds to human knowledge, human delight and aesthetic satisfaction on the one hand and to socially acceptable, more conducts on the other hand.

It is generally seen that social scientist have shown basic differences in conceptualizing value. For example, values are viewed either as a pattern of differential
preferences which are derived from a range of desirable behavior (Triandis, 1972) or those which are important (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987).

The more widely acceptable definitions in the social sciences literature consider ‘value’ to be conception of the desirable, influencing selective behavior. Again in this restricted definition, a distinction is made between ‘what is desired’ and ‘what is desirable,’ the later being equated with what we ought to desire (International Encyclopedia of Social Sciences, 1988).

Rokeach (1973) who defines value as “an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end state of existence”. Super (1980) defines value as “an objective, either a psychological state, a relationship or material condition that one seeks to attain.

Hofstede (1984) defines values “as a broad tendency to prefer certain states of affairs over others”. A more elaborate definition is given by Schwartz (1992) who defines values as “desirable states, objects, goals, or behaviors, transcend specific situations and applies as normative standards to judge and to choose among alternative modes of behaviors”. An important merit of this latter definition is that it distinguishes values from attitudes pointing at their generalized nature. Attitudes are people’s beliefs about specific objects or situations (Hollander, 1971). They can be considered as taking a lower place in the person’s hierarchy of beliefs (Rokeach, 1973). Another difference is that attitude can be positive or negative, where as values are always positive i.e. in favor
of something. Less specific than attitudes but more specific than value is “interest” (Davis, 1991; Roe, 1981). This notion has mostly been used in the domain of work in connection with vocational choice and refers to a person’s preference or liking for particular types of occupational activities.

All definitions treat values as latest construct that refer to the way in which people evaluate activities or outcomes. Thus, generally speaking, the notion of value points at a relationship between an evaluating subjects and an evaluated object, where by this relationship is supposed to be durable and to have implications for the subjects subsequent activities.

Sinha (1990) observes that the manner in which values are conceptualized provide basis for suggesting that the desirable, ideal and important values are perhaps’ cherished values and may have universal structure (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987), while in the former case the indication is toward operative values (England, 1974) that are more close to social norms and behavior.

A conceptual definition of values by Schwartz (1992) incorporates five formal features of values. Accordingly values are (a) concepts or beliefs (b) that pertain to desirable end states or behavior, (c) transcend specific situations, (d) guide selection or evaluation of behaviors and events, and (e) are ordered by relative importance.

Schwartz (1992, 1994) contends that the critical content of values is the motivation they represent. He has demonstrated that Self–Direction, Stimulation Hedonism, Achievement, Power, Security, Conformity, Tradition, Benevolence and
Universalism are the ten motivationally distinct types of values that appear repeatedly in a wide range of cultures and thus may qualify as universal values.

According to Rescher (1969), one way of classifying values could be through the subscribership to the values. For example, if the subscriber is a person we talk about personal values, however, if the value is subscribed nationwide, it becomes a national value. Rokeach (1973) made a distinction between individual (what I values) and social (what people value) value.

Values may be classified as mean values and end values; Realization of mean values proves instrumental for realization of the more fundamental values termed as end or instrumental values (Rokeach, 1973). The terminal values such as honesty and loyalty are prized primarily on their own account and hence are also known as intrinsic values.

Values can be classified with respect to the specific type of purpose they serve. For example, values such as success conformity and privacy benefits the self, while parochial values benefit the family. Therefore, the values held by the subscribers in this examples would be self–enhancement and family pride respectively.

Following Klukohohn (1951), Rokeach (1973), Schwartz (1992), and Schwartz and Bilsky (1987, 1990) defined human values as desirable goals, varying in importance, that serve as guiding principles in people’s lives. The crucial content aspect that distinguishes among values is the type of motivational goals they express. Schwartz and Bilsky (1987, 1990) derived a typology of the different contents of the values
represented in the form of conscious goals, three universal requirements of human existence.

The three universal requirements of existence to which all individuals and societies must be responsive are (a) needs of individual as a biological organism (b) requisites of coordinated social interaction and (c) survival and welfare needs of groups from an evolutionary point of view; these goals have crucial survival significance (Buss, 1986). Groups and individuals represent these requirements cognitively as specific values about which they communicate.

The ten, motivationally distinct types of values (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987, 1990) were derived from the above mentioned three universal requirements. For example, conformity (one of the motivationally distinct value type out of ten), was derived from the prerequisite of smooth interaction and group survival. In addition to the universals in content of values, the theory specifies a dynamic relationship among the motivational type of values. The theory contends that action in pursuit of each type, have psychological, practical and social consequences that may conflict or may be compatible with the pursuit of other value types. For example, pursuit of achievement value may conflict with the pursuit of benevolence value (that is, seeking personal success for one is likely to hinder actions aimed at enhancing the welfare of others who need one’s help.

The total pattern of relations of conflict or compatibility among value priorities that provide structure to the value system (Schwartz, 1992). The fundamental point to have in mind is that the value pattern refers to the relations of conflict and compatibility
among values, not to their relative importance to a group or individual. The latter (i.e. importance) is referred to as value priorities or hierarchies. The theory contends that although ten value types may be discriminated at a more basic level, the values types from a continuum of related motivations. This continuum gives rise to the circular structure. The partitioning into ten value type represent conceptually convenient decisions about where one fuzzy set ends and another begins.

Schwartz (1990, 1992) presented a model of ten motivational type’s values that are organized into two major dimensions. These dimensions are composed of higher – order valued types that combine the standard types. The first dimension “openness to change” versus “conservation” opposes value emphasizing own independent thought and actions and favoring changes (e.g. self direction and stimulation type) to those emphasizing submissive self–restriction, preservation of traditional practices, and protection of stability, security conformity and tradition. The second dimension namely, “Self enhancement” versus “transcendence” opposes values emphasizing acceptance of others as equals and concerns for their welfare (i.e., universalism and benevolence) to those emphasizing the pursuit of owns own relative success and dominance over others (e.g. Power and achievement). Hedonism is related to both.

Values: The Indian Context:

As true for most of the concepts in the field of psychology, the western thinking influences the conceptualization and definition of values in the social science literature. At this point it seems necessary to talk about values in the context of the Indian scene in
particular. This is a very demanding exercise and therefore, literature review shall be restricted only to those areas that seem to be relevant for the present Doctoral Work.

Religion and Philosophy, socialization practices that transmit values from one generation to the other, and the harsh social reality of the Indian sub continent, may be delineated as the three major sources of values. Discussing these sources in detail is beyond the scope of this Doctoral work however, it may be mentioned that Hinduism, Islam and Buddhism have been the mother religions and sources of values for millions of people in India and around the world.

Values such as love, compassion, selflessness, service and renunciation duty and responsibility, equanimity and detachment and caution against desires are seen as highly desirable in all the religions despite differences in the suggested practices for becoming an evolved person or an evolved community.

The individuals acquire social values through socialization and occupational roles. Tandon (1981) observes that the basic values transmitting social agencies are the family, educational institutions, peer groups and organized groups in the society. There is no dearth of evidence to support this.

A few selected important references in this context are Garg and Parikh (1993), Kakar (1978) and Roland (1988) nevertheless the values pains takingly inculcated by the above mentioned sources may get weakened, eroded and destabilized as the contextual parameters of a society are not always conducive for the survival, maintenance and
adoption of the prescribed values. According to Sinha and Sinha (1982), the very harsh social reality of India is a case in point in support of this argument.

Multiple and complex problems of the Indian social reality add up to create a sense of insecurity, relative deprivation and uncertainty. Consequently one becomes suspicious, shrewd, competitive and coercive towards those who seem to be competing with one for limited resources and opportunities.

Sinha and Sinha (1982) observes that in face of over whelming Indian realities such as Poverty, Overpopulation, Scarcity of resource (poverty being the most dominant of them), the terminal goals of life, like salvation or moksha becomes subordinated to the lower order goals of wealth and prosperity.

Values Defined

Allport, Vernon and Lindzey (1951) has defined the values as

- The Theoretical value: The dominant interest of the theoretical man is the discovery of truth. In the pursuit of this goal he characteristically takes a ‘cognitive attitude’ one that diverts itself of judgments regarding the beauty and utility of objects, and seeks only to observe and to reason. Since the interests of the theoretical man are empirical, critical and rational he is necessarily an intellectualist. Frequently a scientist or philosopher. His chief aim in life is to order and systematized his knowledge.
• The Economic Value: “The economic man is characteristically interested in what is useful. Based originally upon the satisfaction of bodily needs (self Preservation) the interest in utilities develops to embrace the practical affairs of the business world the production marketing and consumption of goods, the elaboration of credit, the accumulation of tangible wealth. This type is thoroughly “Practical” and conforms well to the prevailing stereotype of the Average American Businessman.

• The Aesthetic Value: The aesthetic man sees his highest values in form and harmony. Each single experience is judged from the standpoint of grace, symmetry, or fitness. He regards life as a procession of events; each single impression is enjoyed for its own sake. He needs not to be a creative artist, nor need to be effective, but he is aesthetic if he finds his chief interest in the artistic episodes of life.

The aesthetic attitude is, in a sense diametrically opposed to the theoretical, and the latter with the identities of experience. In the economic sphere the aesthetic sees the process of manufacturing, advertising and trade as a whole sale destruction of the values most important to him. In social affairs he may be said to be interested in persons, he tends towards individualism and self sufficiency. Aesthetic people often like the beautiful insignia of pomp and power, but oppose political activity when it makes for the repression of individuality. In the field of religion they are likely to confuse beauty with poorer religious experience.
• The Social Value: “The highest value for this type is love of people. In the study of values it is the altruistic or philanthropic aspect of love that is measured. The social man prizes other persons as ends and is therefore himself kind, sympathetic and unselfish he is likely to find the theoretical, economic and aesthetic attitudes cold and inhuman”.

• The Political Value: “The political man is interested primarily in power. His activities are not necessarily within the narrow field of politics, but whatever his vocation, he betrays as a machtmensch. Leaders in any field generally have high power value”.

• The Religious Value: “The highest value of the religious man may be called unity. He is mystical and seeks to comprehend the cosmos as a whole, to relate him to its embracing totality. Spranger (1928) defines the religious man as one “whose mental structures are permanently directed to the creation of the highest and absolutely satisfying value experience”. Some men of this type are “immanent mystics” that is, they find their religious experience in the affirmation of life and in active participation therein”

**Level of Aspiration**

The term ‘Level’ of aspiration is English translation of German word “Anschpruchsniveau” which means the level of performance that an individual expects of himself. In other words it refers to the goal that an individual sets for himself. However, while doing so he is seldom guided entirely by considerations which are realistic in nature. Level of aspiration has received consideration attention from
investigations in the area of Personality, Social Psychology, Clinical and Experimental Psychology, etc. The phenomenon was first observed as a matter of chance by Dembo, a student of Lewin, in the late twenties, while she was studying experimentally produced anger through frustration. The situation required the subject to try hard for the unattainable goal set for him by the experimenter. During the course of her observation she noted that when the required goal was too difficult to attain, some of the subjects had set upon their own intermediate level goal for attainment. This goal was termed as the subject’s monetary level of aspiration’. However, she made no attempt to pursue the phenomenon that she had discovered.

It was left to Hoppe (1930), another student of Lewin, to define the phenomenon, study its characteristics, and deliberate over its nature. While defining the phenomenon he states “the subjects always undertaken the task with certain demands which can change in the course of the activity. The totality of these constantly shifting, now indefinite and now precise–expectations, goals settings or demands in connection with one’s own future performance we shall term level of aspiration of the subject”. It follows from what Hoppe states that it is the totality of highly shifting demands and expectations of varying vividness and specificity, which constitute level of aspiration.

Hoppe’s method for studying level of aspiration was inferential, which involves drawing inferences about subjects’ level of aspiration on the basis of overt and verbal behavior, including the expression of the feelings of success and failure during the course of the performance of the task or activity. His observations revealed that success
tend to rise and failure tends to lower the level of aspiration, and that the characteristics of the subjects like ambition, cautiousness, and prudence etc. exercise a determining effect. Obviously, the operation of these factors is not likely to make the individual realistic enough in his goals and expectations.

Later investigators, while subscribing to Hoppe's concepts of level of aspiration, found it necessary to reject his inferential technique on the grounds of objectivity and precision. Haussmann (1933), for example, made an important advancement from methodological point of view by requiring the Subjects to make a ‘bid’ before each trial on a task. He was warned of penalty if failed to reach his bid, but no credit was given if he scored higher than the bid. These were obviously the factors extraneous to the concept of level of aspiration.

Jucknat (1937) developed an indirect but more precise method for studying level of aspiration. She made use of a series of ten paper and pencil mazes arranged in order of difficulty, which the subject could easily recognize when glancing over them. The subject was asked to choose a maze and start working on it. The particular maze chosen indicated his level of aspiration. The idea of framing the situation in such a way that the subject expressed his level of aspiration automatically could be considered to be a significant advancement over the subjective inferential technique of Hoppe.

The credit for making the procedure truly objective, however, goes to Frank (1935), who specified a set of operations, which made it possible to determine level of aspiration quantitatively. The subject after each trial in a given task was told his
performance score and asked to state how well he intended to do the next. This sequence was repeated. The level of aspiration as measured by Frank confirmed to the concept of level of aspiration as formulated by Hoppe. No doubt, Frank’s procedure yielded a quantitative score implying that level of aspiration was a definite, clear, and precise goal, while no such specificity could be attributed to the Hoppe’s concept. Level of aspiration as envisaged by Hoppe, it may be recalled, refers to a totality of highly fluctuant, now indefinite and now precise goals expectations. It would be native to expect the subject of Hoppe to give a clear cut and precise statement of the goal, while no such specificity could be attributed to the Hoppe’s concept. Level of aspiration as envisaged by Hoppe’s refer to a totality of highly fluctuant, now indefinite and now precise goals and expeditions. It would be native to expect the subject of Hoppe to give a clear cut and precise statement of the goal, because he himself could not be expected to be fully sure of the goal, he was aiming to achieve. This is because, Hoppe’s subject entertained not one but a number of goals of highly–fluctuant nature at one at the same time. Thus, it is evident that level of aspiration as determined, by Frank’s method was much different from what Hoppe had conceived it to be. The source of confusion was not in the method developed by Frank, but in the manner in which the phenomenon was conceptualized by Hoppe.

Gardner (1940) consider this issue at length and contended that it was impossible to formulate a neat and clear cut definition of level of aspiration out of the hailstorm of highly subjective demands, goals, and expectations constituting Hoppe’s concept of level of aspiration. According to Gardner, aspiration may be qualitative or
quantitative, specific or vague, stable or transient, one or more at a time. But when we say ‘Level’ of aspiration, we at once attribute quantificability and definiteness to aspiration. Therefore, there can be only one meaning of level of aspiration, and that is a quantitative indication of the goal which an individual makes regarding his future performance in a task. However, Gardner overlooked an important point while dealing with the concept of level of aspiration. It is a matter of common experience that an individual, while undertaking to perform a task, may entertain not one but quite a number of goals, differing in height, but all related to the same task. The question arises as which of these goals would be taken to be the index of level of aspiration. While Gardner did not, but Lewin, Dembo, Festinger and Sears (1944) did provide a clear cut answer to it.

According to Lewin, an individual while undertaking to perform a task building up a goal structure comprising of a number of goals of varying level. There may be a very high dream goal, a wise goal; an ideal goal, an action goal, and also a low level goal which the individual was sure of attaining even if the luck or circumstances were against him. Lewin maintained that it is the ‘action goal’, that is the goal an individual is trying for at a given moment which is to be taken as the index level of aspiration. This ‘action goal’ based concept of level of aspiration has come to be accepted as the standard definition of level of aspiration. Hence, it refers to “the level of future performance in a given task which an individual, knowing his level of past performance in that task, explicitly undertaken to reach”. (Frank, 1941).
However, Frank’s operational definition of level of aspiration, though accepted widely by the investigators, has created the apprehension that requires the subject to state explicitly the level of the goal he expects to achieve in a task, and then making him work for it in the presence of the experimenter, bring in certain defensive or idiosyncratic tendencies into operation, which could distort the expression of true level of aspiration of the subject (Gould, 1941; Gardner, 1940; Rotter, 1954; Zander & Curtis, 1962). Some investigators (Parikh & Chattopadhyay, 1964; & Sinha, 1969) have even considered it desirable to use a semi-structured projective technique for determining level of aspiration undistorted by subjects’ defensive tendencies. Parikh and Chattopadhyay (1964), for example, in order to circumvent the facts of defensiveness, which was thought to be inherent in the procedure of Frank, developed a semi-structured situation to enable the subject to project his true level of aspiration. An imaginary story of a farmer covering major areas relevant to his life was told, and the subject was required to predict the standard and conditions of life of the farmer with reference to the various area or spheres of life included in the story. A summation of all across derived from the projective responses given to the various areas constituted the level of aspiration of the farmer. Sinha (1969), too developed a semi-projective technique centered on the imaginary story of Shyamoo – the farmer, covering almost all the relevant area of life and employing a more refined procedure of scoring. No doubt, the level of aspiration determined by the aforesaid semi-projective methods could be regarded to be free from the influence of defensive tendencies present in the subject in case the method of Frank really brought them into operation. However, taking the
projected standard of achievement as an index of level of aspiration in as-remote the
future as five years hence was liable to bring in the factor of wish and ambition into
operation, which could make level of aspiration, somewhat less realistic. Besides, the
anchoring effect of the past or presiding attainment on such a distant goal would also be
considerably weaker. Hence, the projective method may not be a good substitute for
the Frank’s method of directive verbal expression.

The crucial question, however, is whether the widely used Frank’s method direct
verbal expression for studying level of aspiration really brings in the defensive or
idiosyncratic tendencies into operation, distorting the expression of the true level of
aspiration of the subject. Dispositional tendencies of the subject do effect his level of
aspiration as is borne out by a number of studies (Rotter, 1954, Harway, 1955, Atkinson
& Rietman, 1956, Chance, 1960), but the point is whether it is the method employed
which results in the expression of defensive tendencies in the level of aspiration
observed. Ali (1976) using 32 undergraduate psychology students as subjects and two
equated codes—substitution tasks, each comprising of eleven parts, and employing
‘within subject’ design, studied this problem under what may be called as ‘public’ and
‘private’ conditions. The two conditions were counterbalanced. The ‘public condition’,
permitting the experimenter to have a clear view of what the subject expected to
achieve and what he actually achieved with full knowledge to the subject of the
experimenter observing his behavior was in full conformity to the procedure of Frank. In
the ‘Private condition’ on the other hand, the anonymity of the subject was impressed
and fully assured procedurally. To control the factor of time the experimenter was
present, but he sat at a distance from where there was no possibility of observing what
the subject did. Beside, the subject wrote the number of codes he expected to complete
and the number of codes he completed on a separate sheet, which he was told before
the experimenter started to keep with him if he so desired. The results obtained
indicated very little difference in the level of aspiration of the subjects as measured by
goal-discrepancy and shifts under two conditions. Hence, it was concluded that the
method of Frank did not result in any distortion in the expression of level of aspiration.
The doubts raised in this connection were unfounded.

It is apparent from aforesaid conditions that the concept of level of aspiration
underwent through what may be called as a process of metamorphosis along with the
development of the method for its study and determination. Evidently, a method so as
to make it yield a quantitative measure of level of aspiration and which necessitates a
concomitant refinement in the concept of level of aspiration as well. Hence, the
operational definition of Frank, which confirms to the Lewin’s concept, remains the
standard definition of level of aspiration. Besides the procedure in itself does not bring
any defensive tendency on the part of the subject into operation.

**Personality Characteristics**

Personality is a term which is known to everyone but difficult to define. The
difficulty is not that we know little about the personality, but it is due to the fact that we
know much about it. Personality is a concept to be used to recognize stability and
consistency of behavior across different situations, uniqueness of the person and individual differences.

The construct of personality has been defined by various psychologists in various ways. Allport (1937) collected some more than 50 definitions of personality and also created one of his own. According to Allport- “Personality is dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment”.

Allport (1965) revised definition of personality, this new definition contained word “characteristic” for word “uniqueness” and words “behavior and thought” in place of adjustment. “Personality is a dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his characteristic behavior and thought”

According to Munn (1951) – “Personality is the most characteristic integration of an individual’s structure and activities.

Cattell (1950) defines personality as-“the sum total of the psychological character of individual”

According to Pervin (1980) personality represents those structural and dynamic properties of an individual or individuals as they reflect themselves in characteristics responses situation. According to this definition personality to be ultimately defined in terms of behavior and that consistency within a single individual, consistency across all the individuals and consistency along the groups of individuals are the salient features of personality.
The non scientific definition of personality as the effect one has on others is used in various senses. The first usage equates the term to social skills or adroitness. An individual’s personality is assessed by the effectiveness with which he is able to elicit positive reactions from a variety of persons under different circumstances. The second usage considers the personality of the individual to inhere in the most outstanding or salient impression which he creates on others. A person may thus be said to have an “aggressive personality” a “sensitive personality, or a “fearful personality”.

The importance of personality increases as social become more complex. A ‘Pleasing personality has a “marketable value” in a complex society and is highly prized. The nature of personality has been explained by the psychologist as a unique set of behavior and enduring qualities that influences the way he adjust to his environment. Psychologist in attempting to understand personality have found that human beings are alike all others in certain characteristics, and alike some others in certain, and like no one in still other characteristics. The general qualities may be presented in all human beings on the basis of heredity and environment; certain unique interactions take place resulting in individual differences.

Developing personality is a major goal of many people. The young child is unaware of the social value of personality, but the older child and adolescent are extremely personality conscious and highly motivated to improve them. Adolescent reports that self improvement and developing a better personality are two of their chief concerns. They want to know how they can change the personality traits that they believe are keeping them from achieving social success and acceptance. While
personality may be expressed in speech, in reactions to people and things, in mannerism, in fantasy and in other ways, all are consciously, subconsciously and unconsciously directed towards the specific goals of enabling the individual to adjust to his environment. Before we go in depth, we should have a glimpse of the theories of personality:

Gordon Allport (1897 – 1967) is often called as the father of personality theory. He was very much a trait theorist and believed in the individuality and uniqueness of the person and that people have consistent personalities. Allport attempted to blend nomothetic and ideographic perspective. He called this blend the morphogenic approach. Allport believed that each person had various types of traits, for ex-individual traits, common traits, cardial traits etc. Allport believed that through autobiography, letters and diaries, an understanding of an individual’s personality could be gained. He studied 301 letters written by Jenny Grove Masterson and was able to describe Jenny in terms of 8 traits.

Henry Murray (1893 – 1988) was active in developing a theory of motivation throughout the 1930’s 40’s, 50’s, and 60’s. He believed that need is “Potentiality or readiness to respond in a certain way under certain given circumstances. It is a noun which stands for the fact that a certain trend is apt to recur” (Murray, 1938). A major assumption of Murray’s theory was that behavior is driven by an internal state of disequilibrium. In other words, we have a lack of something and this drive us. We are dissatisfied and we desire something. Murray defines two types of needs; Primary needs are those which are biologically based (food, water, air, sex, avoidance of pain). Secondary needs are those which are either driven from our biological needs or are
inherent in our psychological nature (achievement, dominance, affiliation etc). Murray believed that stronger needs are expressed more often over time and leads to more intense behavior. The main contribution from Murray’s was that he understand personality as being driven by the secondary needs i.e., achievement, Dominance, Affiliation, and Nurturance. The extent to which each of these needs was felt by an individual shaped their personality and behavior. Murray’s needs theory is sometimes studied as part of the perspective as “needs” are seen as a kin to traits.

Cattell’s 16 PF Theory (1905 – Present) viewed language is a useful source described by many words, he figured, was likely to be a more important part of personality. Cattell used Lexical criterion in determining his original list of trait names. Cattell narrowed Allport and Odbert’s (1936) listing of more than 17,000 words down to 4500 words and then narrowed them down further to 171 trait names. Cattell collected the self – rating on their words and then conducted factor analysis. He used both observer and behavioral data. The result was his 16 personality factors (16 PF).

Hans Eysenck (1916 – 1977) believed initially that all people could be described in terms of two super traits which he believed had a biological basis, Introversion - Extroversion and Emotionality – stability where as Psychoticism was added later. This was a predisposition towards becoming either psychotic or sociopathic (psychologically unattached to other people). It is also a tendency to be hostile, manipulative and impulsive.

Sigmund Freud- According to Freud, human mind is an iceberg with only a small part visible and the rest submerged and concealed. We all have human mind comprising three parts namely conscious, subconscious and the unconscious. The unconscious
mind is a powerful region of human mind, consisting of all desires, needs and thoughts of which the person is not aware of. He is not conscious of the region of the conscious. The subconscious part is that part of mind which consists of memories, though forgotten for the present, which can be brought to the level of consciousness whenever desired. The conscious region of the mind is the awareness state of the person. This consists of thoughts and ideas of which the individual is conscious about.

Another aspect of Freudian theory of personality is three distinct subsystems of human personality i.e. the Id, The Ego and the Super Ego. The ID is the most basic and primitive part of the human personality consisting of all drives and urges, imperiously seeking results and tolerating no delay. The ID seeks satisfaction of all the desires that give him pleasure and also to avoid all unpleasantness. ID is controlled only by the pleasure seeking and pain avoiding principle without any consideration for norms or values. The Ego works on a realistic principle. This consists of ideas and thoughts we like to believe that we possess. This is also a place of our abilities, knowledge etc. It is a logical area of our mind which helps to cope with the demands and to conform to the society. As the child grows, a new reaction pattern develops within the ego that cuts as a judge that decides “good” and “bad”. This is the new mental agency, Super-ego, the third aspect of one’s personality. Freud conceived this super-ego to be very strong and dynamic, much like the ID, since it is to some extent unconscious and illogical sometimes. The super-ego is not logical, since it always demands a kind of perfection.

Another important contribution of Sigmund Freud was the derivation of defense mechanism. According to Freud, there are positive defense mechanism and negative
defense mechanism. Positive aspects include factors such as rationalization, sublimation, compensation, reaction, formation etc. The negative defense mechanism includes projection, regression, repression, displacement etc. when defense fail, an individual becomes a neurotic or psychotic.

One of the important reason to have the concept of personality is that we want to describe an individual as an integrated behaving unit, for example an occasional anger outburst by an individual would not brand him as hostile person, however if he were to show frequent displays of temper he would probably be considered to be an angry or hostile person. Hence it is the unit of personality that would define him as an angry or hostile person. Traits, types and habits are the three general units of personality which are useful in the assessment of personality. These three units differ in respect of chunk of behavior encompassed by them as well as assumptions regarding generality and consistency. Now what traits are and why they are so called .Traits are distinguishing qualities or characteristics of a person. Traits are a readiness to think or act in a similar fashion in response to a variety of different stimuli or situations.

According to Guilford (1959) – “A trait is any distinguishable, relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from others”.

Allport (1937) defines traits – “A generalized and focalized neuropshycic system (peculiar to individual) with the capacity to render many stimuli functionally equivalent and to initiate and guide consistent (equivalent) forms of adaptive and expressive behavior.
According to Buss (1989) personality traits have been challenged as unimportant determinants of behavior, but evidences suggest that traits may carry as much variance as experimental manipulations, asking whether traits or manipulations control more variance is useless because researcher can plan paradigm that favors one or the other when traits and manipulations complement each other. There are several major kinds of interaction. The trait manipulations dichotomy is analogues to the person environment dichotomy and both are related to active versus passive model of behavior. Individual responses are on a continuum of breath that extends successively upward to response classes, personality traits and higher order traits, broad and narrow traits. Each has advantages and disadvantages. Recent researches have led to novel personality traits and to knowledge about the origin and maintenance of traits.

In general, trait theory assumes that people differ on variables or dimensions that are continuous. People are seen to differ in the amount of qualities of characteristics rather than differ in the quality of their characteristics. Traits are now more in favors than types. Traits are continuous and quantitative but types are discontinuous and qualitative.

There are two different views as to whether all traits exist in all people. Idiographic view emphasizes that each person has a unique psychological structure and that some traits are possessed by only one person; and that there are times when it is impossible to compare one person with others. This view point also emphasizes that
traits may differ in importance from person to person (cardinal, central and secondary traits). It tends to use case studies bibliographies, diaries etc. for information gathering.

The Nomothetic view emphasizes comparability among individuals but sees peoples as unique in their combination of traits. This view point sees traits as having the same psychological meaning in everyone. The belief is that people differ only in the amount of each trait. It is this which constitutes their uniqueness. This approach tends to use self – report personality questions, factor analysis etc. People differ in their positions along a continuum in the same set of traits.

**Big Five Personality Traits**

The big five personality traits are five broad factors or dimensions of personality discovered through empirical research. Investigators have recognized that various factor models are quite similar in structure and meaning. The traits that make up the Big five structure are openness, conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism. They are also known as the Five Factor Model (FFI) .These factors are also referred to as OCEAN or CANOE model of personality. Each factor consists of a number of more specific traits. For example extraversion includes such qualities as sociability, excitement seeking and positive emotion. Now the questions arises how the big five came into existence.

The big five model originated with Allport and odberts work on trait descriptors which they reduced to 171 variables. Digman (1990), Goldberg (1993), John (1990) by sorting these variables into synonym group reduced variables to 35 bipolar scales through
a cluster analysis of trait rating. Cattle further reduced these 35 variables to 12-15 factors using peer rating of these scales. Borgatta (1964), Fiske (1949), Types (1992) found that five robust factors were sufficient to represent the structure of these traits. Norman (1963) also found that five major factors were sufficient to account for a large set of personality data. Norman named these factors Surgency, Agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and culture.

The big five factors and their constituent traits can be summarized as:

**Openness:** Appreciation for art, emotion, adventure, unusual ideas, imagination, curiosity and variety of experience.

**Conscientiousness:** A tendency to show self-discipline, act dutifully, and aim for achievement rather than spontaneous behavior.

**Extraversion:** Energy, positive emotions, surgency, and the tendency to seek stimulation and the company of others.

**Agreeableness:** A tendency to be compassionate and cooperative rather than suspicious and antagonistic towards others.

**Neuroticism:** A tendency to experience unpleasant emotions easily, such as anger, anxiety, depression, or vulnerability.

These trait clusters are statistical aggregates. Exceptions may exist on individual’s personality profile. On average, people who register high in openness are intellectually curious, open to emotion, interested in art and willing to try new things. A particular individual, however, may have a high overall openness score and be interested in
learning and exploring new cultures. Yet he might not be interested in art or poetry. Situational influences also exist, as even extraverts may occasionally need time away from people.

In the area of Job performance, Barrick and Mount (1991, 1998) reviewed 117 studies utilizing 162 samples with 23,994 participants. They found that conscientiousness showed consistent relations with all performance criteria for all occupational groups. Extraversion was a valid predictor for occupations involving social interaction (e.g., management and sales). Extraversion and openness to experience were valid predictors of training proficiency criteria. Now the investigator will explain all the five facets in detail-

**Agreeableness:** Agreeableness reflects individual differences in concern with cooperate and social harmony. Agreeable individuals have an optimistic view of human nature, and values getting along with others, they are therefore considerate, friendly, generous, helpful and willing to compromise with others. Disagreeable individuals place self interest above getting along with others/ they are generally unconcerned with others well being. They are less likely to extend themselves for other people. Sometimes their skepticism about others motives causes them to suspicious, unfriendly and uncooperative.

Agreeableness obviously vantage us for attaining and maintaining popularity, as agreeable people are better liked than disagreeable people. Agreeableness is determined in situations that require tough or absolute objective decisions. Disagreeable people can make excellent scientists, critics or soldiers.

**Conscientiousness:** Conscientiousness concerns the way in which we control regulate and direct our impulses. Impulses are not inherently bad, occasionally time constraints require a snap decision, and acting on our first impulse can be an effective response. In
time of play rather than work, acting spontaneously and impulsively can be fun. Impulsive individuals can be seen by others as colorful, fun-to-be-with and zany. Conscientiousness includes the factor known as need for achievement. The benefits of high conscientiousness are obvious. Conscientiousness individual avoid trouble and achieve high levels of success through purposeful planning and persistence. They are also positively regarded by others as intelligent and reliable. On the other hand, they can be compulsive perfectionist and workaholics.

Furthermore, extremely conscientious individual might be regarded as stuffy and boring. Unconscientiously people may be criticized for their unreliability, lack of ambition and failure to stay within the lines, but they will experience many short lived pleasures and they will never be called stuffy (i.e. dull, boring).

**Extraversion:** Extraversion (also “extroversion”) is marked by pronounced engagement with the external world. Extraverts enjoy being with people, are full of energy and often experiences positive emotions. They tend to be enthusiastic, action-oriented individuals who are likely to say “yes” or “Let’s go” to opportunities for excitement. In group they like to talk, assert themselves, and draw attention to themselves. Introverts lack the exuberance, energy and activity level of extraverts. They tend to be quite, low key, deliberate and a less dependent on the social world. Their lack of social involvement should not be interpreted as shyness or depression; the introvert simply needs less stimulation than extravert and more time alone.

An extravert gains energy by associating with others and loses energy when alone for any period of time. While the introvert gain energy from doing individual activities
such as watching movies and reading, and lose energy sometimes the point of exhaustion, from social activities.

**Neuroticism:** Neuroticism also known inversely as Emotional Stability refers to the tendency to experience negative emotions. Those who score high on neuroticism may experience primarily one specific negative feeling such as anxiety, anger or depression, but are likely to experience several these emotions. People high in neuroticism are emotionally reactive. They respond emotionally to the events that would not affect most people, their reactions tend to be more intense than normal. They are more likely to interpret ordinary situations as threatening and minor frustration hopelessly difficult. Their negative emotional reactions tend to persist for unusually long periods of time which means they are often in a bad mood. These problems in emotional regulation can diminish a neurotic ability to things clearly, make decisions and cope effectively with situations.

On the other hand, individuals who score low in neuroticism are less easily upset and are less emotionally reactive. They tend to be calm, emotionally stable and free from persistent negative feelings. Freedom from negative feelings does not mean that low scorers experience lot of positive feelings. Frequency of positive emotions is a component of the extraversion domain.

**Openness to Experience:** Openness to experience describes a dimension of personality that distinguishes imaginative, creative people from down to earth, conventional people. Open people are intellectually curious, appreciative of art, and sensitive to beauty. They tend to be compared to closed people, more aware of their
feelings. Open people tend to hold unconventional and individualistic beliefs, although their action may be conforming.

People with low scores on openness to experience tend to have narrow, common interests. They prefer the plain, straightforward and obvious over the complex, ambiguous and subtle. They may regard the arts and sciences with suspicion, regarding these endeavors as abstruse or of no practical use. Closed people prefer familiarity over novelty; they are conservative and resistant to change.

Openness is often presented as healthier or more mature by psychologist. Open and closed styles of thinking are useful in different environments. The intellectual style of the open person may serve a professor well. On the other hand, closed thinking is related to superior job performance in police work, sales and a number of service occupations which require a minimum of critical processing.
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Every research project starts with an idea. The idea may be in the mind of the researcher who has done other investigations in the field or it may come from the researches done by others. The idea occurs with a bulk of experience in some field which provokes further research. Every research contributes a drop to the vast ocean of knowledge. Knowledge is therefore the sum total of a multitude of researches conducted by different investigators over a vast period of time.

The review of related studies is necessary for any scientific investigation because it helps the researcher in many ways, for example it guides the researcher about the problems which have been solved till now. Literature review is carried on to gather information regarding the work done in the past and also to ascertain what is being done currently in the context of variables of the study under investigation. It particularly helps in gathering the information about the topic which is being research upon. The second chapter gives us a brief picture of the studies in relation to the variables of the proposed research.

Present investigation is a comparative study of professional and non-professional students on following variables namely self-identity, value preferences, level of aspiration and personality characteristics. Although review of related literature is highly significant feature of empirical study. But it is not possible for any investigator to mention all the studies done in the past. So the investigator tried all possible efforts to review maximum studies within limited period of time. First of all the investigator will examine the studies related to self-identity.
Self-Identity

Identity is a term which is used throughout the social sciences to describe a person’s conceptions and expression of their individuality or group affiliation. Self identity dictates how an individual use him/her self both as a person and in relation to other people, ideas and nature. Self-identity describes the things that make a person unique and different from others. Results of the investigations of self-identity in the past are mostly in agreement in the support of the present investigation.

In an investigation Paul, Henning, Dwayne, Kevin and Wiertz (2009) studied self-identity among students as critical thinkers. The author hypothesizes that attitude strength should moderate the influence of attitudes on normative beliefs. Normative beliefs in turn rare posited to mediate the influence of the attitude strength interaction on self-identity as a critical thinker. Students with strong and positive attitudes regarding critical thinking will have strong normative beliefs associated with the skills and these beliefs, in turn will affect self-identity as a critical thinker. Results based on a sample of students participating in critical thinking oriented classes, support these hypothesis.

Chai (2009) evaluated the relationship between attachment style and self-concept clarity. The relationship between attachment style and self-concept clarity was examined by correlation and regression analysis. Results from 189 and 85 students at National Taiwan University (NTU) showed that anxiety and avoidance attachment
tendencies were negatively related with self-certainty and self-concept clarity. Further self-esteem was included to determine whether the negative relation between attachment tendency and self-concept clarity was mediated by self-esteem. Participants were 123 NTU students. The mediation effect of self-esteem on the relationship between attachment tendency and self-concept clarity was supported in a path model indicating people with secure attachment have higher self-esteem, which result in greater clarity of self-concept.

Choi (2005) examined self-efficacy and self-concept as predictors of college student’s academic performance. The number of sample used in the study was 230. The participants completed three self-efficacy measures and two self-concept measures. Results of correlation and simultaneous multiple regression analysis indicated that the closer the level of specificity of self-efficacy and self-concept the stronger the relationship between the two constructs. Both academic self-concept and specific self-concept were significant predictors of term grade. In addition, academic self-concept was also significant predictor where as neither general self-efficacy nor academic self-efficacy was significant.

Gerardi (2005) in an investigation studied self-concept of ability as a predictor of academic success among urban technical college students. Findings indicated that academic self-concept rather than traditional cognitive skills was a significant predictor of academic performance among minority and low income students in an urban technical college.
In one study Avquz (2004) evaluated self-identity and emotional well-being among Turkish university students. The sample of the study was 205 students. Significant gender differences were found between independent and collective interdependent aspects of the self, it was found that women’s reported more personal identity and more social influenciability, less traditionalism and openness and creativity-as compared to men. Finally emotional well-being was positively associated with all types of identity orientations as well as with independent and relational interdependent domains of self-descriptions.

In an investigation Chang, Chang and Stewart (2003) investigated life satisfaction, self-concept and family relations in Chinese adolescents and children. The sample of the study was 115 children and 74 adolescents from Hong Kong. In a regression model, general self-concept and ratings of parental warmth and autonomy detachment predicted life satisfaction equally across the two groups. Result of the study found that social self-concept was a strong predictor of life satisfaction among adolescents only where as actual academic test scores predicted life satisfaction only among the children. Mean group differences emerged as well with adolescents scoring significantly lower in life satisfaction and self-concept, and higher in emotional detachment than children.

In one study Asci (2002) compared age and gender differences in physical self-concept of Turkish university students. The physical self-perception profile was administered for assessing physical self-concept. Multivariate analysis of variance
revealed a significant main effect for gender, but no significant main effect for year in school. Univariate analysis indicated significant gender differences in sport competence and physical strength.

In one study Cole et al. (2001) examined the development of multiple domains of child and adolescent self-concept by using sequential longitudinal design. The number of the sample used in the study was 936 and 984. Result suggested that significant effects emerged with regard to gender, age, dimension of self-concept and educational transition.

Plucker and Stocking (2001) made an effort to study outside and inside self-concept development of gifted adolescents. The number of the sample used in the study was 131. The internal / external frame of reference model was examined to collect the data. Results suggested that the model was useful in understanding the academic self-concept development of students with no significant differences among students with strength in mathematics verbal areas or both areas.

Cokley (2000) made an investigation of academic self-concept and its relationship to academic achievement in African American college students. Findings of the study indicated that the best predictor of academic self-concept students attending predominantly white college and universities (PWCUs) was grade point average, whereas the best predictor of academic self–concept for students attending historically black college and universities (HBCUs) was quality of student–faculty interactions. Additionally analysis indicated that grade point average is significantly more important for the
academic self-concept of African American students attending PWCU than African American students attending HBCUs.

In an investigation Gable, Huebner, Ghlin and James (2000) investigated interrelationship among global self-concept, life events, positive subjective well being, negative effect and life satisfaction among high school students. The total number of the sample used in the study was 92. Result of the study demonstrated that life events contributed significant variance to predictions of positive effect, negative effect, and life satisfaction over that of global self-concept.

Clun, Lisa and Merrell (1998) in one study studied the relationship of perceived parenting styles, locus of control orientation and self-concept among Junior high school students. The sample of the study was 198 students. Findings of the study indicated authoritative style of parenting may contribute to development of self adequacy by being associated with internal locus of control orientation and stronger self-concept where as permissive and authoritarian style of parenting may be associated with negative pattern of socio emotional development.

In an investigation Cosden and Namara (1997) investigated self-concept and perceived social support among college students with and without learning disabilities. The sample of the study was 100 students. Self-perception profile was used to collect the data. The result of the study found that the students with learning disability had lower grades, test scores and perception of their scholastic and intellectual abilities than students without disabilities. Students with learning disability reported more social
acceptance and support and more support from campus organizations than students without learning disability. Support from campus organization was related to self-esteem for students with learning disability, while support from instructors was associated with self-esteem for students without learning disability.

Bempah (1995) in a study studied race, self-identity and social work. The sample of the study was 102 post graduate social work students. The respondents responded individually to their randomly distributed vignettes which were identical expect for the racial / ethnic origin of the principle characters, a white child, a child of “mixed race” parentage and a black child. The respondents were required to assess the causes of the children’s behavior as well as their social and psychological needs. The results were analyzed according to the number of respondents who mentioned particular causes of the children’s behavior. The analyses of the study also revealed that the children were differentially treated according to their race or ethnic origin.

In an investigation, Brewer (1993) examined self-Identity and specific vulnerability to depressed mood. Four studies were conducted to test the hypothesis that experiencing a life event that disrupts the pursuit of self defining activities would be associated with depressed mood. Across all four studies, 9 strong and exclusive identification with the athlete role was related to subject’s affective response to both hypothetical and actual athletic injuries. The result highlighted the importance of assessing the match between the specific cognitive diatheses and specific life events in predicting depressive reactions.
Clancy and Dollinger (1993) tested the relation between four categories of identity development and five factor model of personality. The sample of the study was 198 young adults. Based on past empirical findings, a negative relation between foreclosure and openness to experience was predicted and found to involve low neuroticism and high conscientiousness. Although unexpected from past empirical findings, identity achievers were also very extraverted. Both moratorium and diffusion were predicted and found to involve neuroticism. These statuses correlated inversely with conscientiousness and diffusion correlated negatively with agreeableness.

Leondari (1993) compared in an investigation the self-concept among normal achievers, low achievers and children with learning difficulties. The number of the participants was 424 children. Perceived competence scale was used to compare the children. Result of the study indicated that special class children rate themselves more negatively than their normally achieving peers on both academic self-concept and global self-worth. They also rated themselves more negatively than their low achieving peers on academic self-concept. No differences existed between these two groups on global self-worth.

Brockner et al. (1986) in an experiment explored the effect on entrapment of individual’s perceptions that the ineffectiveness of prior resources allocation had negative implications for their self-identity. The first experiment showed that entrapment was greater when subjects were told that their ineffective performance reflected their self-identity than when they were told that it did not. The second
experiment explored the joint effects on entrapment of performance feedback and the extent to which the feedback was perceived to have negative implications for self-identity.

In an investigation, Simon (1974) evaluated levels of racial awareness, racial preferences and racial identities among non-white children (American Negro, Korean, American Indian) who have been adopted by white families, and their white siblings who have been born into those families. The sample of the study was between the age of three and eight. The major findings of the study indicated that black children who were reared in the special setting of multi-racial families do not acquire the ambivalence toward their own race that has been reported among all other groups of young black children and that there was no significant difference in the racial attitude of any of the categories of child

Values

We all know that people have different value preferences. Value is an interdisciplinary term. We came across this term in several fields of study. Value emerges in the process of interaction and activities of individuals in society. Due to this fact value can exist and function in the awareness of an individual, social group of peoples, class and society itself. Value is a variable mediator that leads to an action. It can be said that value is the choice between different ways of behavior in a certain situation. The choice of values is an indicator of one’s maturity. They help people create the sense of order in their lives. People from their world view and convictions through
experiencing values. The results of the investigations on values in the past have both favorable and non favorable results.

In an investigation Praboteeah, Paik and Cullen (2009) examined religious groups and work values. The study used data from 44,030 individuals in 39 countries to investigate the influence of the worlds’ four major religions, Buddhism, Christianity, Hinduism, and Islam on extrinsic and intrinsic work values. After controlling important variables such as age, gender, and education, the result supported the posited hypothesis confirming that religion is positively related to work values. The result indicated that all religion except Christianity show a positive relationship with extrinsic work values. All the four religion show a positive relation with intrinsic work values. It was also found that those who report no religious affiliation also view work values positively. The findings indicated that most religion view work in a positive light.

Jose and Ouellette (2006) in one study studied ethnic identity, self-esteem and values in Dominicans, Puerto Ricans and Africans Americans. The sample of the study was 207 minority students. The study also investigated within group concordance and cross cultural differences in value orientation. Dilemmas were used to measure value orientation and perceived congruence between personal and group values. The result found out that Ethnic Identity was positively related to self-esteem. The perception of value congruence was not related to ethnic identity or self-esteem. There was within group concordance in the ranking of value solutions. In addition, the groups differed in
the strength of ethnic identity perceived value congruence and the ranking of the value solutions.

Weisgram and Bigler (2006) investigated the girls and science careers, the role of altruistic values and attitudes about scientific tasks. The sample of the study one was 617 students and in study two the sample was 174 students. Results of study one indicated that girls who believed more strongly in the altruistic values of scientific careers scored higher on self-efficacy and utility measured than their peers. Further, belief in the altruistic values of science predicted interest in science. Study two replicated these findings using a pre and post test design.

Isik and Melek (2006) in one study studied humanistic attitudes, values, and system justification and control beliefs in a Turkish sample. The sample of the study was 211 Turkish teachers and 155 teachers from different public schools. Results demonstrated significant differences between the teachers and teacher candidates for control beliefs, system justification, and some dimensions of Schwartz's values scale. Also age and sex are seen to be related to humanistic values and perceived democratic level of the educational system. Multiple correlations are determined between the beliefs, values, and attitudes of participants in relation to different dimensions of the education system.

Gaunt (2005) in one study examined the role of value Priorities in Paternal and Maternal Involvement in Child Case. The sample of the study was 209 couples with 1 child between the age of 6 and 36 months. Result of the study found that giving high
priorities to openness to change values (i.e. self direction, stimulation) and low priorities to conservative values (e.g., tradition, conformity, security) is associated with more father involvement and less mother involvement. The priority given by a spouse achievement values is negatively related to this spouse’s involvement in child care and positively related to other spouse’s involvement in child care and positively related to other spouse’s involvement. Parents socio-demographic characteristic partly mediate the association between value priorities and involvements.

In one study Bill and Husband (2005) examined values education in the mathematics classroom, subject values, educational values and one teacher’s articulation of her practice. In this study, the author draws on one teacher’s articulation of her practice to explore values issues in the teaching of mathematics, drawing both on the mathematics education literature and the general values education literature. The result found discontinuity natures and argues that neither offers a sufficiently subtle conceptual frame work for the analysis of classroom.

Hetsroni and Ilan (2002) made a comparison of values in infomercials and commercials. The sample of the study was 318 infomercials and 861 commercials. Three values were examined – functionalism, hedonism and altruism. The result of the study showed that functionalism was over three times more frequent in infomercials than in commercials. The frequency of hedonism in commercials was 25% greater than it was in infomercials. Joy, the most prominent value in commercials ranked only in infomercials. Findings indicated that in spite of the fact that the infomercials are longer than the
commercials, they present a more limited selection of values. Infomercials repeatedly mention only the product’s price, its basic qualities and its obvious uses.

Savage and Stewart (2000) in an investigation compared business and arts students, epistemological and value changes between disciplines. The sample used in the study was 270 undergraduate students. Questionnaire measuring epistemologies and personal values were administered to collect the data. Comparison was made between first year and those in final year. Result showed that students differed somewhat in value and epistemology even among first year students alone. Evidence was obtained, however for a type of socialization process, where in business students appeared over time to become more estranged from traditional liberal arts and social constructionist values, while liberal arts students appeared to endorse these values more strongly over their undergraduate years. It was suggested that undergraduate business education might well be enhanced through curriculum reform based on the goals of liberal art education.

In one study Kumar and Thibodaux (1998) studied differences in value system of Anglo American and Far Eastern Students. Findings revealed that differences were found in terms of five of the six evaluative attitudes between the two groups. Value pattern of far eastern students who had lived and studied in the U.S. for a considerable period of time was also compared with that of Anglo American students to examine the degree of convergence in their value system. Findings of the study suggested that as a result of frequent and sustained cross-cultural contact in another cultural environment, the
value profile of individuals tend to get modified so as to include the value preferred and
desired in the new social environment.

Barris, Kielhofner and Bauer (1985) conducted a study on learning preferences,
values and students satisfaction. This study sought to determine the relative importance
of values and learning preferences for educational satisfaction and to examine
differences in values and learning preferences among undergraduate and graduate
occupational therapy students and undergraduate physical therapy students. Graduates
emphasized social values and abstract learning where as undergraduates expressed
greater satisfaction with their education.

Palmer, Veiga and Vora (1981) made an effort to study the personal values in
managerial decision making, value cluster approach in two cultures. The result of the
study showed that from a sample of Indian and American managers, two dominant
value profiles (designated “pragmatic and “altruistic”) were present and that these
values profiles helped in explaining variances in decision preferences.

Beryl, Jones and Cho (1977), in an investigation studied social values and
relationships with parents among American college women of Chinese and European
Descent. The result of the study revealed that the Euro–American Women showed a
greater interest in voluntary prosocial behavior and philartherapy. Both groups of
women reported having a sense of self, autonomous of their parents. Within the
Chinese– American group, ethnic identification and religion, but not generation
moderated scores on a measure of traditionalism of outlook regarding issues of law and order and social equality.

In one study Silverman (1976) compared personal values among freshman and senior dental students and dental faculty. The result of the study indicated no significant differences between freshman and senior dental students values, inferred no apparent change in students values during a dental education, indicated no significant differences between part time faculty and full time faculty, support a positive association among all groups, i.e. freshman, seniors, full and part time faculty, rank order the values for all groups from highest to lowest (the critical, aesthetic, political, economic and religious) and show some significant differences between students as a group and faculty as a group.

In an investigation Neil and marry (1973) examined baccalaureate nursing students values. The sample used in the study was 465 students. Result of the study found out significant differences between nursing student’s values and value norms for the general female college population, between the value of nursing students and the values of students in other curricular fields, and in the values of nursing students in different schools participating in the study. Significant differences in the nursing student’s values tended to decrease at successive class levels within each institution.

**Level of aspiration**

Now the investigator comes to the studies of level of aspiration. Level of aspiration should be viewed as making a decision. Level of aspiration refers of the goal
that individual sets for himself and that he strives to achieve. Results of the present investigation are generally in agreement with the findings of level of aspiration in the past.

Dangziger and Yoram (2007) in one study evaluate gender related differences in the occupational aspiration and carrier style preferences of accounting students. He made a cross-sectional comparison between academic school years. The sample of the study was 1,000 Israeli accounting students. Data was collected by using 802 valid questionnaires. It was hypothesized that differences between the sexes in occupational aspiration and carrier style preferences would evolve increase with years of study and especially as students approached the end of the academic track. The findings supported the hypothesis. In their freshman Year, the sexes shared a similar pattern of aspiration and goals. However, during their later academic years, females reduced their occupational aspirations and revealed a stronger preference for a convent balanced between work and other facets of life. Logistic regressions demonstrating the statistically significant effect of the interaction between gender and academic year on student’s occupational aspiration and carrier style preferences. The study demonstrated the decrease in female students occupational aspirations during the educational period and that increasing young woman to obtain male type professional education might be in sufficient order to eliminate in equality between the sexes.

Ahmavaara and Houston (2007) in one study studied the effects of selective schooling and self-concept on adolescent’s academic aspiration. He tried to examine
Dweck’s self theory. The sample of the study consisted of 856 students. The results showed that the findings are consistent with the model, showing that achievement aspiration is predicted directly by gender, school type and type of intelligence theory. Importantly, school type also affects aspirations indirectly, with effects being mediated by confidence in one’s own intelligence and perceived academic performance. Intelligence theory also affects aspiration indirectly with effects being mediated by perceived academic performance, confidence and self-esteem. Additionally, intelligence theory has a stronger effect on aspirations in the selective schools than in the non-selective schools.

Larson et al. (2007) in one study discriminated among educational majors and carrier aspirations in Taiwanese under-graduates, the contribution of personality and self efficiency. The sample of the study was 312 Taiwanese students. Result of the study showed that big five and confidence in combination, significantly differentiated among four college majors and 7 career aspirations in a Taiwanese university sample. Big five agreeableness and SCI realistic, investigative and conventional confidence emerged as most salient in the discrimination. Differences by sex, majors and career aspiration were mostly consistent with social cognitive career theory, Holland’s theory and prior U.S. research.

In an investigation Colaner and Giles (2007) investigated the Baby Blanket or the Brief case, the impact of evangelical gender role ideologies on career and mothering aspiration of female evangelical college students. The sample of the study was 134
women. Cross-sectional self report survey design was used to collect the data. Results indicated that career and home aspirations were negatively correlated. Mothering aspirations were shown to be significantly affected by conservative gender role ideology. These findings suggested that aspirations for one’s mothering role may be influenced by ideological positions.

Murrell, Frieze and Frost (2006) compared a study of black and white college women. The sample of the study was 101 black and 503 white college women. The result indicated that women who planned career in male dominated occupations had higher career and educational aspirations than women who desired career in female dominated occupations. Black women who planned career in male dominated professions showed high levels of aspirations planned, more education than was necessary for the desired occupations and perceived less conflicts in combining the roles of career and family than their white counterparts. Those choosing female dominated careers however had more traditional attitudes regardless of race.

In one study Hasan (2006) studied carrier maturity of Indian adolescents as a function of self-concept, vocational aspiration and gender. The sample of the study was 480 students of class X (240 males and 240 females) Employing a (2)3 ex-post facto non-experimental factorial design (fixed model), the two levels of self-concept i.e. high and low, the two levels of occupational aspiration i.e. realistic and idealistic and two levels of gender i.e. male and female were manipulated in the study. Results showed that all the three independent variables were found to be potential enough in generality.
Barring few exception, the first order interactions were not found significant where as the second order interactions were found significant for almost all the components of career maturity.

In an investigation Fred, Waldman and Mulqwen (2002) investigated frame scientific work to organizational leadership. Predictors of management’s aspiration among technical personnel. Result showed that those who aspire to enter management tend to be higher on motivation for power and influence desire for upward mobility, motivation for security and respect, and need for domination.

Hilal (2000) conducted a study on a structure model of attitude towards school subjects, academic aspiration and achievement. The sample of the study was 280 High school students. The structural analysis revealed that attitude to school influence achievement but only indirectly. Level of aspiration had significant direct effect on achievement and mediated between attitude and achievement.

Kfir (1988) in an investigation investigated achievements and aspirations among boys and girls in high school. He compared two Israeli ethnic groups. It was hypothesized that achievement and aspiration differences would be found between the sexes within different ethnic groups in society and that in some cases there would be a sex-ethnic origin interaction, meaning that gender differences would vary by ethnic group. After controlling for socio-economic status (SES) and ability, social sex roles and the process of identifying with them were expected to explain the differences between boys and girls in achievement and aspirations. The result revealed that such differences
were found in the discontinuity of girl’s achievements in high school (teacher evaluations grouping and tracking getting into the academic track number of school years- all girls advantages) and their early status attainment as it is expressed in cognitive achievement and educational and occupational aspirations at age 17-18.

Hearn (1987) in one study evaluated the impact of undergraduate experiences on aspirations and plan for graduate and professional education. The sample of the study was 418 undergraduates. The analysis suggested that academic performance, parental supportiveness, faculty student interaction and major department context played significant roles in outcomes beyond the role played by freshman year back ground characteristics. There were some differences in the result for man and women suggesting further attention to gender differences in Post College educational attainment processes. Over all, the analysis suggested that greater attention to sub-environments, such as major departments may be warranted in studies of this kind.

In an investigation Fox and Faver (1981) studied achievement and aspiration. The result found that Women’s achievement aspiration conversion is different from but not necessarily lower than men’s rather than strength and direction of the relationship vary with aspiration type (traditional versus alternative) and to some extent, with specific types of academic achievement (e.g. paper publication and GPA). The mediator of the achievement aspiration relationship also vary by sex and aspiration type. Women’s aspiration for traditional career rewards is largely a function of their perceptions of the structure availability of job opportunity.
Cashen, Lewis and Lemmon (1979) made an effort to study self-concept and level of aspiration of institutionalized female adolescents. Result of the study showed a higher self acceptance and occupational aspiration for girls living in the regular family situation.

Parson, Frieze and Ruble (1978) in one study examined Intra-psychic factors influencing careers aspiration in college women. The sample of the study was 169 female college juniors and seniors. A 300 item questionnaire was designed to collect the data. Result indicated that women with high carrier aspiration were satisfied with their lives, confident of their career plans, willing to postponed marriages and on traditional in their values and behaviors generally external in orientation, believing that discrimination is responsible for many of women’s failure and that organized pressure rather than individual action is necessary to combat. This discrimination certain that women’s demand for equality are justified and that most men agree with them, likely to have had a working mother who was perceived as being dissatisfied with her own life; and if planning to marry soon, endorsing dual role compatibility. When all variables were considered simultaneously, attitudinal factors were found to best predict career aspirations, while socialization variables were relatively unimportant.

In an investigation Margret (1978) evaluated the sex differences in the determination of adolescent’s aspirations, a review of research. The result showed that adolescent boys aspired a higher level of education than girls and the occupational choices of the two sexes are highly sex stereotyped. Factors influencing level of
adolescent aspiration are reviewed including socio-economic background, academic ability, and number of sibling, parental encouragement, mothers, employment, academic performance, peer aspiration, dating and participation in school activities. Although sex differences exist in the process by which both educational and occupational aspirations are formed, they are greater with respect to occupational than educational aspirations.

In one study Gurin (1970), studied the motivation and aspiration of southern Negro college youth. Findings of the study indicated that aspirations are positively related to achievement and failure avoidant motives but more highly related to expectancies (academic self confidence and sense of personal control). The study also examines the effect of internal external basis of expectancies and questions the usual assumption that internal orientations are always positive motivators. Students believing in external control have higher aspirations when externality measures social system ‘obstacles’ rather than ‘Fate’ and when a generalized Protestant ethic belief in internal control accompanies a low sense of one’s own competence.

Forelands and Malry (1970) in one study studied social class and relative level of occupational aspiration. This study confirms early researches suggesting that boys low on socio-economic scale tend to have unrealistic occupational aspirations, with resulting discontent and delinquency. Certain forms of delinquency may thus be system generated rather than the simple outcome of behavioral characteristics of youth.
Rotter (1942) made an effort to study level of aspiration as a method of studying personality, a critical review of the methodology. The analysis discovers 8 main limitations of the method. Among them are the effects of the subject’s failure to understand instructions, the long time cumulative effects of success and failure, the interaction of situational factors with unknown individual personality factors. To meet these criticism it would be necessary to develop unambiguous institutions in which the subjects previous experiences is controlled and to examine all aspects of the subject’s response rather than limiting examination to the difference between expressed and achieved goals.

In an investigation Gardner (1939) investigated level of aspiration in respect to a pre-arranged sequence of source. The result of the study found that reliable measures could be obtained, and high inter-correlation between tasks indicated that the behavior of these measures was characterized by a high degree of generality. Discrepancies between aspiration level and past performance level tended to be positive and low when performance was improving rapidly and markedly higher when the curve was falling. Individuals tend to maintain the same rank within the group with respect to discrepancy scores when the performance curve was rising as when it was falling.

**Personality Characteristic**

Almost every day we describe and assess the personalities of the people around us, the first step is to understand exactly what is meant by the term personality. Personality is the particular combination of emotional, attitude and behavioral response
pattern of an individual. Personality refers to the distinctive qualities of a person, especially those personal characteristics that makes one socially appearing. Although, there are many definition of personality. A brief definition would be that “personality is made up of characteristics pattern of thoughts, feelings and behavior that makes a person unique”. In addition to this, personality arises within the individual and remains fairly consistence throughout the life.

Robert, Walton and Viechtbauer (2006) in one study evaluated the pattern of Mean – Level change in personality traits across the life course. He used a Meta analysis of longitudinal studies. The no. of the sample used in the study was 92. Result of the study showed that people increase in measures of social dominance (a facet of extraversion), conscientiousness, and emotional stability, especially in young adulthood (age 20 to 40). In contrast people increase on measures of social vitality (a 2nd facet of extraversion) and openness in adolescence but then decrease in both of these domains in old age. Agreeableness changed only in old age. Of the 6 categories, 4 demonstrated significant change in middle and old age. Gender and attrition had minimal effect on change, where as longer studies and studies based on younger cohorts showed greater change.

Crae, Robert and Antonio (2005) in an investigation studied the universal features of personality traits from the observer’s perspective .The data was collected from 50 cultures. The sample of the study was 11,985 and NEO personality Inventory was used to collect the data. Findings of the factor analysis within cultures showed that
the Normative American self Report structure was clearly replicated in most cultures and was recognizable in all. Sex differences replicate earlier self report results, with the most pronounced differences in Western cultures. Cross sectional age differences for 3 factors followed the pattern identified in self reports, with moderate rates of changes during college age and slower changes after age 40 with a few exceptions, this data supported the hypothesis that features of personality traits are common to all human groups.

In an investigation Klein and Carolyn (2003) investigated Distinctive Personality Characteristics of 8, 9 and 10 years old with Williams Syndrome. Children’s behavior questionnaire (CBQ) and Multidimensional Personality Questionnaire (MPQ) were used in the study. The findings of the study suggested that on the CBQ, high mean rating on Shyness (reverse – coded) and empathy together characterized 96% of the children in the Williams syndrome group but only 15% of the mixed etiology. On the MPQ, high ratings on items measuring certain characteristics combined (gregarious, people oriented, tense, sensitive and visible) were characteristic of 96% of the Williams syndrome group but only 15% of the mixed etiology group. The personality profiles emerging from the CBQ and MPQ provide a crucial step toward investigation of genotype / phenotype relations.

In one study Caspi et al. (2003) studied children’s Behavioral styles at age 3 are linked to their adult personality traits at age 26. The sample of the study was 1000 children. The findings of the study indicated that longitudinal data provide the longest
and strongest evidence to date that children’s early emerging behavioral styles can foretell their characteristic behavior, thoughts and feelings as adults pointing to the foundation of the human personality in the early years of life.

Tsang, Brion and Cullough (2003) conducted study on personality traits in Adolescence as predictors of Religiousness in early Adulthood. The sample of the study was 492 adolescents between the ages of 12 to 18. The result of the study showed that among the Big Five, conscientiousness in adolescence was uniquely related to higher religiousness in early adulthood. For adolescents high in emotional stability, the link between strength of religious upbringing and religiousness in adulthood was weaker than it was for adolescents who were less emotionally stable.

Lounsbury, Sundstorm, Loveland and Gibson (2002) in one study studied Intelligence, “Big Five Personality Traits and Work Drive as Predictors of course grade. The sample of the study was 175 students. Using a hierarchical multiple regression on analysis, general intelligence accounted significant for 16% of the variance in course grade, Big Five Personality measures accounted significant for an additional 7% of the variance, and work drive accounted significant for an additional 4% of the variance. However, when work drive was entered before the Big Five Variables, the Big Five variables did not add significantly (either as a set or individually) to the prediction of course grade.

Livens and Dilchert (2002) conducted study on Medical student’s personality characteristics and academic performance, a five factor model perspective. The sample
used in the study was 785 students. NEO – PI – R scale was used to collect the data. The result of the study revealed that Medical students who fall into the group of majors score highest on extraversion and agreeableness. Conscientiousness (self achievement and self discipline) significantly predicts final scores in each pre-clinical year. Medical students who score low on conscientiousness and high on gregariousness and excitement seeking are significantly less likely to sit examination successfully.

In an investigation Fulkerson, Keel, Leon and Dorr (1999) investigated the Eating disorders behavior and personality characteristic of high school athletes and non-athletes. The sample of the study was 678 students. Eating disorders Inventory (EDI), restraint scale, Risk Symptom, Check list, Multidimensional Personality Questionnaire (MPQ), and body Mass Index (BMI) were used to collect the data. Result of the study indicated that athletes did not have higher level of disordered eating behavior and attitudes than their non-athletic counter parts. Athletes had less negative views of life than non-athletes. However, perfectionist tendencies may put some athletes at risk. The findings indicated that high school athletes were not at greater risk for the development of an eating disorder than other students. Athlete’s positive outlook on life and high self-efficacy may serve as protective factors. Alternatively athletes may not be at risk until they train for one particular sport in a highly competitive environment.

In an investigation Carless (1999) studied the Career Assessment. He tried to study Holland’s Vocational Interests, personality characteristics and abilities. Two study designs were used in the study. The sample used in study one was 139 individuals and
the sample in the study two was 669 men and 206 women. The scale used in study one was self – Directed search, the revised NEO personality inventory and the Wechsler adult intelligence scale. The scale used in study two was the SDs, the Myers Briggs type inventory and a measure of general abilities the PL – PQ. In both studies, conceptually similar vocational interests and personality were found to be empirically related. A weak moderate relationship was observed between general abilities and investigative interests and between general abilities and the personality characteristics of openness to experience and intuition. It was concluded that assessment of three domains of interest’s abilities and personality has several advantages for assisting clients seeking vocational counseling.

Krueger (1999) in an investigation investigated personality traits in late adolescence predict mental disorders in early adulthood. Personality traits were assessed through self report questionnaire at age 18 and mental disorders were assessed through diagnostic interview at both ages 18 and 21. Findings showed that high “Negative emotionality” at age 18 were linked with affective, anxiety, substance dependence and antisocial personality disorders at age 21 when corresponding mental disorders at age 18 were controlled low “Constraint” (difficulty inhibiting the expression of affect and impulse) at age 18 was linked with substance dependence and antisocial personality disorders at age 21 when corresponding mental disorders at age18 were controlled.
Dennis, Zuckerman and Kraft (1999) in one study examined the personality characteristics of male and female in team sports. Result showed that all teams were significantly higher on the anxiety and lower on neuroticism – Anxiety scale than the general college population of the University of Delaware. Lacrosse’s and field hockey athletes were higher in activity than equestrians and baseball player’s. Equestrians and baseball players were higher than football player on this scale. Contrary to prediction, football player scored lower than the general university male population on impulsive sensation seeking and the lacrosse’s and field hockey players did not differ from the general college female on impulsive sensation seeking. The baseball players also scored lower on this scale. The hypothesis that body contact sports attract high sensation seeking and aggressive participants was not supported. Sensation seeking is more characteristic of participants in high risk sports unusual sensation and personal challenges.

Spangler (1997) evaluated the psychological and physiological responses during an exam and their relation to personality characteristics. The sample of the study was 23 students. The findings of the study demonstrated different emotional and physiological response pattern to examinations as compared to the control conditions. Heightened anxiety was observed only before the exam, where as within situation physiological responses (higher hear periods, cortical and sign A, lower vigil tone) were observed both under the exam and control conditions, responses to exam condition indicated pre exam anticipatory activation and post exam restricted to recovery responses. With regard to personality characteristics subjects with high ego – resiliency showed more flexible
adaptation than subjects with low ego resiliency both on the emotional level (anxiety down – regulation after exam) and on the physiological level (situation – specific responses quick recovery). Subjects with high ego control exhibit a lower physiological reactivity under both conditions i.e. they seemed to maintain longer their control also on a physiological level independent of the type of situation.

In an investigation Brent et al. (1994), investigated the personality Disorder, personality Traits, Impulsive violence and committed suicide in Adolescents. The no. of sample used in the study was 86. Semi structural interviews and self report forms were used to collect data. The findings showed that probable or definite personality disorders were more common in suicide victims than in controls, particularly cluster B. (impulsive dramatic) and C type (avoidant dependent) disorders. Suicide victims also showed greater scores on lifetime aggression even after controlling for differences in psychopathology between suicide and control.

In one study Wong and Zentmihalyi (1991), studied the Motivation and academic achievement. He investigated the effect of personality traits and duality of experience. The sample of the study was 170 students in which there were 68 males and 102 females. Personality research form was used to collect the data. The result of the study revealed that controlling for ability, work orientation a PRF factor was a better predictor of grade than experience. However, an experimental variable intrinsic motivation while studying was related to the difficulty level of courses students look over the 4 years in high school. The result supported the notion that there are two kinds of motivation in
scholastic achievement, one directed toward long term goals, the other directed toward ongoing experience.

Tarter et al. (1984), in one study studied Alcoholics sons of Alcoholics: Neuropsychological and personality characteristics. In this study, Adolescents sons of alcoholics and non-alcoholics were compared on a battery of intellectual, neuropsychological, personality and behavioral measures. The former group demonstrated certain neuropsychological deficits in perceptual motor ability, memory and languages processing. They also had auditory and visual alertbonal impairments and a low level of achievement in reading comprehension. In addition, the sons of non-alcoholics presented a more neurotic personality profile than son of non-alcoholics. They were, however less impulsive than the comparison group. More developmental and familial problems were noted in the alcoholic’s offspring as well.

In an investigation Schaie and Parham (1976) studied stability of adult personality Traits, Fact or fable. Results of a sequential study of 19 personality factors over 9, 7 years period and with participants ranging in age from 22 to 84 years suggested that stability within generations appears to be the rule, albeit combined with many differences between successive population cohorts and subject to transient Swear trendy. A typology of 13 possible models is offered to account for the different developmental trends observed for the various personality factors.

In chapter two an attempt has been made by the investigator to review the studies conducted in the particular area. The investigator had gone through the last 10 years
of studies in the past and found this field interesting. The investigator did not found any study on students on the above mentioned variables at a time. Therefore he chooses the present problem to compare different groups of professional students with different groups of non-professional students on the above mentioned variables.

**Aims and objectives**

Present study proposed to study self-identity, value preferences, level of aspiration and personality characteristics among professional and non-professional students. Present study is a comparative study of different groups of professional and non professional students. In the light of the reviewed relevant literature the following objectives of the present study were formulated:

1. To determine that there is any difference between professional and non-professional students on self-identity.
2. To determine that there is any difference between professional and non-professional students on the preferences of the six values (Theoretical, Economic, Aesthetic, Social, Political and Religious.)
3. To determine that there is any difference between professional and non-professional students on level of aspiration.
4. To determine that there is any difference between professional and non-professional students on the five personality traits (Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness).
METHODOLOGY

Research in social sciences are carried out as the sheer requirement of social science researches is to control, predict, describe and explain the phenomena with which they deal. There are a number of approaches developed, many designs created to carry on researches, but before we move, we should understand what exactly research is. Research is a systematic activity directed towards discovery and development of an organized body of knowledge. It’s a methodological investigation into a subject in order to discover facts. It becomes much important for research investigators to take into consideration the various steps that are essentially required in carrying out the research and to draw conclusions. The investigator must take utmost care in working out a neat experimental design and the study to be conducted in a planned and objective manner, because every piece of research requires systematic activity to discover the facts and interpret the findings obtained in the light of the findings of earlier research.

A research work should be called scientific if it is carried out in a planned and objective manner. Therefore it is necessary for the investigator to be careful in selecting the sample by utilizing the most appropriate sampling technique, selecting suitable and standardized tools and choosing most appropriate statistical techniques for data analysis.

As discussed earlier, the present research aims to study self Identity, value preferences, level of aspiration and personality characteristics among professionals and non-professionals students. It is a comparative study and in order to have a complete view of the problem and to make our result more reliable the students of professional and non-professional courses were divided into four different groups i.e. Professional males and females and non-professional males and females.
The details of method and procedure adopted in the present research have been divided into following parts:-

1. Sample
2. Psychological Tests
3. Procedure
4. Statistical Analysis
5. Hypothesis

Sample

Sampling is that part of statistical practice concerned with the selection of a subset of individuals from within a population to yield some knowledge about the whole population, especially for the purpose of making predictions based on the statistical inference. The main advantages of sampling are that the cost is lower, data collection is faster, and when the data set is smaller, it is possible to ensure homogeneity and to improve the accuracy and quality of the data. It is not possible for the researcher to survey the entire population, so an appropriate sample is drawn from the whole population to make our results reliable.

The sample of the present investigation comprises of four hundred (N=400) students studying in various professional and non-professional courses. According to the aim of the study, two hundred (N=200) students from professional courses and another two hundred (N=200) from non-professional courses were chosen. The data was collected through random sampling sometimes individually and sometime in a group of two or three students. The investigator prepared a list of the students from the register of the
class teacher and prepared the slips of the names of the students. Then he used lottery method to collect the data. The data was collected from different faculties of Aligarh Muslim University and H.R. institute of pharmacy of Ghaziabad.

**BREAK UP OF SUBJECTS**

400 Students

![Diagram showing break up of subjects]

Professional Students

- Male: 106
- Female: 94

Non-professional Students

- Male: 131
- Female: 69
The number of students of both the courses depended upon the availability of the students. The age of both professional and non-professional students ranges from 18 to 25 years.

**Tools**

To measure and understand human behavior psychological tests are developed and used. It is a matter of fact that there is not a single tool or psychological instrument which may tell about all aspects of behavior because of complex and varying psycho-emotional attributes of personality. Hence there is need for developing psychological instrument for each specific purpose. Among various methods used in behavioral sciences, especially in psychology, Questionnaire method is considered as the best method to collect information. Hence we have used the same in the present study. Following tools were used to gather information about the subjects.

**Self-Identity Scale**

Self-Identity scale developed by Sengupta (2008) in a research project on choice of carrier, self-identity and success amongst college Teachers was used in the present investigation. There are 45 items in the scale. Each item has to be rated on a 4 point scale. The total score of the scale ranges from 45 to 180. All the items are positively true statement. Each item has 4 alternatives where 1 point is given when the subject
responded never or rarely, 2 point for occasionally, 3 points for frequently and 4 point for always. The responses and their rating may be tabulated as:-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No.</th>
<th>Response(s)</th>
<th>Scores Assigned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Never or Rarely</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Frequently</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The test was found to be highly reliable and valid, and was suitable to collect the information.

**Study of values**

Study of values scale developed by Ojha and Bhargava (1971) was used to measure the different values. Theoretical value, Economical value, Aesthetic value, Social value, Political and Religious value are the six dimensions that are measured through this scale. The study of values Test is self–administering. It consists a number of questions based upon a familiar situation. The test has two parts- first part consist of 30 items with two alternative answers and second part consist of 15 items with four alternative answers. In all there are 45 questions with 120 alternative answers. Roughly 20 alternative answers belong to each of the six values. The subject records his preferences numerically by the side of alternative answers.

Part one has 30 items and each item has to be rated on a 3 point scale. Each item has two alternatives i.e. agree or disagree. The scores for each item will be equal to 3.
The total score of part one will be 90. Part one has two options for the subject. If he is agree with answer A and disagree with answers B, then he has to give 3 points to answer A and 0 to option B. But if he wants to give more preference to answer A and less preference to answer B, then he has to give 2 point to option A and 1 point to option B.

Part two has 15 items and each item has to be checked on a 10 point scale. This part has 4 alternatives A, B, C, D. The subject has to give 4 point to the alternative by which he is impressed most. Then he has to give 3 points to the alternative by which he is impressed less in comparison to the first answer. In the same way he gave 2 points to the alternative by which he is impressed a little and 1 point when he is not impressed at all. The score of each item will be equal to 10. So the total score of part two will be 150. The subject has to answer each item and cannot repeat the sequence of the number.

This scale also records the background information of the subjects. The biographical information includes the Name, Age, Sex, Cast, Religion, Rural/Urban, Educational Qualification and Occupation of father, your Occupation, Date and Place of the Subject.

It is a revised edition of study of value scale. The split–Half Reliability for different values was different. The split –Half reliability of revised form for Theoretical value was found to be .78, for Economical value .81, for Aesthetic value .76, for social value .82, for political value .83, and for religious value it was .84.

The scale was found to be highly reliable and valid and was suitable to gather information from the respondents for this small piece of research work.
Level of Aspiration Scale

In order to measure the level of aspiration among students, a test conducted by Singh & Tiwari (1976) was used. Although there are many tests of level of aspiration but this scale was found suitable because this is very simple but highly effective scale.

The test consisted of ten level of aspiration forms. There are five rows of forty eight half inches squares in each test sheet. In first, third and fifth row, there are ten squares and in second and fourth row, there are nine squares. In total there are forty eight squares. On the left hand corner of the test, there is a space for expected scores and on the bottom right hand side there is space for actual scores. For administration of the test only stop watch is needed with test sheets. It may be administered to a group as well as to an individual. Only two signals, “Start” and “Stop” are given to the subject. The task is to draw “satis” (SATIS) in the squares of the test sheet within a given time of 60 seconds. Only ten trials are given to a subject.

Neo five Factors Inventory

The NEO-FFI was used by present investigator. It was designed by Costa and McCrae (1992) which contains 60 items to provide self and other reported measures of the five factor model of personality. Neuroticism (N), Extraversion (E), Openness (O), Agreeableness (A), and Conscientiousness (C) are the personality dimensions measured by the test. The NEO-FFI was developed from factor-analytic work on data from a 1986 administration of NEO-PI to 986 men and women. (Costa and McCrae 1988).
In a study with 983 adults, Costa and McCrae (1988) found that the NEO-FFI scales showed correlation ranging from .75 for conscientiousness to .89 for N. When correlated with the NEO-PI, internal consistency for the NEO-FFI was calculated using alpha coefficient, values were .89, .79, .74, and .84 for N, E, O, A, and C, respectively.

The validity of the NEO-FFI scales was tested by correlating the scales of the NEO-FFI to other measures of the five-factor model based on self-report, rating by spouses, and by peer rating of the NEO-PI factors. On the self reports, the convergent correlations ranged from .56 to .62, divergent correlation ranged from p<.20. The spouse reports of the NEO-PI factors showed convergent correlation ranging from .39 to .53. The divergent correlation were p<.30. On the peer rating of the NEO-PI factors, the convergent correlations ranged from .34 to .59 and all divergent correlations were p<.19 Costa and McCrae (1985).

**Procedure**

A good rapport was established with the students before we asked them to fill the questionnaires and care was taken to remove any misconceptions regarding the proposed study. Subjects were assured that the information gathered from them would be kept secret and were requested to extend their co-operation.

First the investigator administered the Tests of self-Identity, value preferences and personality characteristics. The questionnaires were distributed to the subjects. The questionnaires were explained to the subjects by the investigator and the subjects were instructed to read the questionnaires carefully and if there is something vague in the written material, they were asked to make it clear by asking the investigator.
The subjects were then asked to complete the questionnaires. The subjects took one to one and half hours to complete the questionnaires. They were asked to fill the background information given in the scale of values. After completing the questionnaires the subjects were asked to return their questionnaire to the investigator. After returning the questionnaires, the test of level of aspiration was administered to the subjects individually.

The investigator instructed the subjects that they had to draw “satia” (_satia_) in the columns of the given form of level of aspiration. They had to draw as many “satia” as they could within 1 minute. Only signals “start” and “stop” were given to the subjects. Before starting the work, subjects were asked to write down the expected scores in the given column. When they had done it, they were given a “start” signal and work was started and after one minute “stop signal” was given to the subject to stop the task. After completing the forms investigator asked the subjects to count their performance scores and write down their actual scores in the column which is there on the bottom of the form.

In this manner, all the ten forms one by one were given to the subject and they have to complete it within a period of one minute. After completing the task, subjects returned the form to the investigator. The investigator scored them and calculated the D-Score through the following formula:-

\[ D\text{-Score} = \text{Actual Score} – \text{Expected score of the next trial}. \]

Similarly the mean of all the D-Scores of each trial were computed to draw the level of aspiration of the subjects.
Statistical Analysis

The selection of appropriate statistical technique for the purpose of data analysis depends upon the nature of data and design of the proposed work. In the proposed study self-identity, value preferences, level of aspiration and personality characteristics are used to compare different professional and non-professional students. The data obtained from various groups of students could be analyzed by means of other statistical method but ‘t’ test was found more suitable to serve the purpose. This test serves the purpose of finding out the significance of mean differences among the students studying in professional and non-professional courses.

Hypothesis of the present study-

The formulation of hypothesis plays a significant role in drawing inferences about the population from which the sample is drawn. Hypothesis is the assumption regarding the population parameter. It is the prime objective of the investigator to formulate hypothesis before conducting the study. To determine the objectives of the present research certain null hypothesis were formulated for the purpose of drawing conclusions regarding the population-

Ho₁-It is expected that there will be no difference between professional and non-professional students as a whole on self-identity.

Ho₂- It is expected that there will be no difference between professional males and females on self-identity.
Ho3- It is expected that there will be no difference between non-professional males and females on self-identity.

Ho4- It is expected that there will be no difference between professional and non-professional males on self-identity.

Ho5- It is expected that there will be no difference between professional and non-professional females on self-identity.

Ho6- It is expected that there will be no difference between non-professional females and professional males on self-identity.

Ho7- It is expected that there will be no difference between professional females and non-professional males on self-identity.

Ho8- It is expected that there will be no difference between professional and non-professional students as a whole on the six values (Theoretical, Economic, Aesthetic, Social, Political and Religious).

Ho9- It is expected that there will be no difference between professional males and females on the six values (Theoretical, Economic, Aesthetic, Social, Political and Religious).

Ho10- It is expected that there will be no difference between non-professional males and females on the six values (Theoretical, Economic, Aesthetic, Social, Political and Religious).
Ho$_{11}$- It is expected that there will be no difference between professional and non-professional males on the six values (Theoretical, Economic, Aesthetic, Social, Political and Religious).

Ho$_{12}$- It is expected that there will be no difference between professional and non-professional females on the six values (Theoretical, Economic, Aesthetic, Social, Political and Religious).

Ho$_{13}$- It is expected that there will be no difference between non-professional females and professional males on the six values. (Theoretical, Economic, Aesthetic, Social, Political and Religious).

Ho$_{14}$- It is expected that there will be no difference between professional females and non-professional males on the six values (Theoretical, Economic, Aesthetic, Social, Political and Religious).

Ho$_{15}$- It is expected that there will be no difference between professional and non-professional students as a whole on level of aspiration.

Ho$_{16}$- It is expected that there will be no difference between professional males and females on level of aspiration.

Ho$_{17}$- It is expected that there will be no difference between non-professional males and females on level of aspiration.

Ho$_{18}$- It is expected that there will be no difference between professional and non-professional males on level of aspiration.
Ho$_{19}$ - It is expected that there will be no difference between professional and non-professional females on level of aspiration.

Ho$_{20}$ - It is expected that there will be no difference between non-professional females and professional males on level of aspiration.

Ho$_{21}$ - It is expected that there will be no difference between professional females and non-professional males on level of aspiration.

Ho$_{22}$ - It is expected that there will be no difference between professional and non-professional students as a whole on the five personality traits (Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness).

Ho$_{23}$ - It is expected that there will be no difference between professional males and females on the five personality traits (Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness).

Ho$_{24}$ - It is expected that there will be no difference between non-professional males and females on the five personality traits (Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness).

Ho$_{25}$ - It is expected that there will be no difference between professional and non-professional males on the five personality traits (Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness).

Ho$_{26}$ - It is expected that there will be no difference between professional and non-professional females on the five personality traits (Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness).
$H_{o27}$: It is expected that there will be no difference between non-professional females and professional males on the five personality traits (Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness).

$H_{o28}$: It is expected that there will be no difference between professional females and non-professional males on the five personality traits (Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness).
RESULT

Research in any disciplines and subjects must begin with a goal. Research is undertaken within most professions, more than a set of skills research is a way of thinking examining critically the various aspects of our day to day professional work understanding and formulating guiding principles that govern a particular procedure. Research is a systematic process of collecting and analyzing information to increase our understanding of the phenomenon under study. It is the function of the researcher to contribute to the understanding of the phenomena and to communicate that understanding to others. A crucial point in any research that is undertaken is to present cogently the findings that have come to the light and indicate what they mean, to what extent questions posed by the researcher have been answered, what the answers are and what new questions have been raised by our findings must be elucidated.

The present chapter shows the statistical analysis of the data obtained for this investigation, interpretation and discussion. As pointed out in the preceding chapter, in order to study the self identity, level of aspiration, value preferences and personality characteristics of professional and non-professional students ‘t’ test was used and also in order to answers the questions raised earlier it seems pertinent to interpret the result table wise and observe the significance of differences, if any, among various groups of subject.
Table 1. Represents the t value, Ns, Mean’s and SDs of Self-identity scores of various groups of professional and non-professional students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. D.</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>110.91</td>
<td>7.54</td>
<td>11.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>98.17</td>
<td>13.55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Professional (Male)</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>112.65</td>
<td>7.78</td>
<td>3.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional (female)</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>108.95</td>
<td>6.77</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>101.69</td>
<td>10.59</td>
<td>5.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Female)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>91.49</td>
<td>15.94</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Professional (Male)</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>112.65</td>
<td>7.78</td>
<td>8.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>101.69</td>
<td>10.59</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Professional (female)</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>108.95</td>
<td>6.77</td>
<td>9.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (female)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>91.49</td>
<td>15.94</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Non Professional (female)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>91.49</td>
<td>15.94</td>
<td>11.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional (Male)</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>112.65</td>
<td>7.78</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Professional (Female)</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>108.95</td>
<td>6.77</td>
<td>5.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>101.69</td>
<td>10.59</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Above table is divided into seven different groups. The first part indicates comparison of professional and non-professional students on Self-identity. Result shows that the mean self-identity score of professional students is higher than non-professional students. The mean score of the first group is 110.91 and for the second group it is 98.17. The SD of the first group is found to be 7.54 and for the second group it is 13.55. The ‘t’
The value obtained is 11.61 which is significant at .01 level of confidence showing that professional students has a high degree of self-identity than non-professional students. So the null hypothesis is rejected.

The second group shows mean self-identity scores of professional males (M = 112.65) and females (M = 108.95). The SD’s of the two groups are 7.78 and 6.77 respectively. The ‘t’ value calculated for the two groups is 3.56 which is significant at .01 level of confidence. It shows that male professional students have a high degree of self-identity than female professional students. So the result leads to the rejection of null hypothesis.

The third group shows a comparison between non-professional males (M = 101.69) and females (M = 91.49). The SD’s of the two groups are 10.59 and 15.94 respectively. The ‘t’ value calculated is 5.40 which is significant at .01 level of confidence which clearly indicated that the two groups significantly differ with regard to self-identity. So the result compels to the rejection of null hypothesis.

The fourth group shows a comparison between professional males (M = 112.65, SD=7.78) and non-professional males (M = 101.69, SD=10.59). The ‘t’ value is found to be 8.88 which is significant at .01 level of confidence, it indicated that both the groups differ significantly with regard to self-identity. So the result leads to the rejection of null hypothesis.

The fifth group shows the mean scores of professional females (M = 108.95) and non-professional females (M = 91.49). The SD’s obtained of the two groups are 6.77 and 15.94 respectively. The ‘t’ value obtained is 9.51 which is significant at .01 level of
confidence. It shows that professional females have a high degree of self-identity than non-professional females. So the result leads to the rejection of null hypothesis.

The sixth group shows a comparison between non-professional females (M = 91.49) and professional males (M = 112.65). SD of the first group is found to be 15.94 and for the second group it is 7.78. The obtained ‘t’ value is 11.70 which is significant at .01 level of confidence showing that professional males have a high degree of self-identity than non-professional females. Hence the null hypothesis has to be rejected.

The seventh group shows mean and SD’s for professional females and non-professional males. The mean score of the first group is 108.95 and for the second group it is 101.69. SD of the first group is found to be 6.77 and of the second group it is 10.59. The ‘t’ value obtained is 5.84 which is significant at .01 level of confidence showing that professional females has a high degree of self-identity than non-professional males. So the null hypothesis is rejected.
Table 2 Represents the t value, Ns, Means and SDs of value (theoretical Value) scores of different groups of professional and non-professional students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. D.</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>39.56</td>
<td>5.91</td>
<td>.097</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>39.51</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Professional (Male)</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>39.90</td>
<td>5.37</td>
<td>.853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional (Female)</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>39.18</td>
<td>6.47</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>39.66</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>.706</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Female)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>39.22</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Professional (Male)</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>39.90</td>
<td>5.37</td>
<td>.368</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>39.66</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Professional (Female)</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>39.18</td>
<td>6.47</td>
<td>.041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Female)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>39.22</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Non Professional (Female)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>39.22</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>.892</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional (Male)</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>39.90</td>
<td>5.37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Professional (Female)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>39.18</td>
<td>6.47</td>
<td>.671</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>39.66</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Above table which is divided into different seven groups shows a comparison of professional and non-professional students over values. The result of first group presented above shows the mean value (theoretical value) scores of professional (M = 39.56) and non-professional (M = 39.51) students. The SD’s of the two groups are 5.91 and 4.25 respectively. The ‘t’ value obtained is .097 (insignificant) showing no difference
between professional and non-professional students over preference to theoretical value. So the result compels to the acceptance of null hypothesis.

The second group shows a comparison of value (theoretical value) scores of professional male and females. It clearly indicated that there is no difference between the two groups as the ‘t’ value obtained is .853 which is insignificant. But the mean scores of professional males (M = 39.90) is higher than the mean scores of professional females (M= 39.18). As the ‘t’ value is insignificant the null hypothesis is accepted.

The third group shows a comparison of non-professional males (M = 39.66) and non-professional females (M = 39.22). The SD’s of the two groups are 4.33 and 4.10 respectively. The ‘t’ value .706 (insignificant) indicated no difference between the two groups over preference to theoretical value. So the null hypothesis is accepted.

The fourth group shows a comparison of professional males (M = 39.90) and non-professional males (M = 39.66). The ‘t’ value computed between the scores of the two groups is .368 (insignificant) which reveals no difference between the two groups over preference to theoretical value. So the result compels to the acceptance of null hypothesis.

The fifth group shows a comparison of professional females and non-professional females with mean scores 39.18 and 39.22 respectively. The ‘t’ value obtained for the two groups is .041 (insignificant). It clearly reveals that there is no difference between the two groups over theoretical value. So the null hypothesis has to be accepted.
The sixth group shows mean scores and SD’s for non-professional females and professional males. The mean and SD’s of non-professional females are 39.22 and 4.10 respectively and the mean and SD of professional males is 39.90 and 5.37 respectively. Although the mean of professional males is higher than the non-professional females but the obtained ‘t’ value (.892) insignificant shows no difference between the two groups over preference to theoretical value. So the null hypothesis is accepted.

The seventh group shows that there is no significant difference between professional females and non-professional males as the ‘t’ value is found to be .671 (insignificant). The mean scores of non-professional males (M = 39.66) is higher than the professional females (M= 39.18). But as the ‘t’ value is insignificant, the result leads to the acceptance of null hypothesis.
Table 3 Represents the t value, Ns, Mean’s and SDs of value (economic value) scores of different groups of professional and non-professional students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. D.</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Professionals</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>41.72</td>
<td>6.15</td>
<td>.721</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professionals</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>41.29</td>
<td>5.75</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>1.25</td>
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<tr>
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<td>69</td>
<td>41.99</td>
<td>6.17</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>41.88</td>
<td>5.71</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>40.92</td>
<td>5.51</td>
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<td>Professional (female)</td>
<td>94</td>
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<td>6.64</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (female)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>41.99</td>
<td>6.17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>6</td>
<td>Non Professional (female)</td>
<td>69</td>
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<td>6.17</td>
<td>.119</td>
</tr>
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<td>Professional (Male)</td>
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<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>40.92</td>
<td>5.51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the above table we see a comparison of professional and non-professional students over economic value. The result of first part shows that the mean value (Economic value) scores of professional students (M = 41.72, SD = 6.15) is higher than the non-professional students (M = 41.29, SD = 5.75). But the 't' value (.721) presented
above shows no significant difference between professional and non-professional students over economic value. So the null hypothesis has to be accepted.

The second group shows the mean scores of professional males (M = 41.88) and professional females (M = 41.53). The SD’s of the two groups are 5.71 and 6.64 respectively and the ‘t’ value of the two groups is found to be .395 (insignificant). It indicated no difference between the two groups over preference to economic value. So it leads to the acceptance of null hypothesis.

The third group made a comparison of non-professional males (M = 40.92) and non-professional females (M = 41.99) and the SD’s of the two groups are found to be 5.51 and 6.17 respectively. The ‘t’ value obtained is 1.25 (insignificant) showing no difference between the two groups over economic value. So the null hypothesis is to be accepted.

The fourth group shows a comparison of professional and non-professional males. The mean and SD of professional males are 41.88 and 5.71 respectively and the respective mean and SD of non-professional males are 40.92 and 5.51. The calculated ‘t’ value 1.31 indicated no significant difference between the two groups over preference to economic value. So the result leads to the acceptance of null hypothesis.

The fifth group made a comparison between professional and non-professional females with mean scores 41.53 and 41.99 respectively. The SD’s of the two groups are found to be 6.64 and 6.17 and the ‘t’ value computed is .443 (insignificant) showing no difference between the two groups over preference to economic value. So the null hypothesis is accepted.
The sixth group shows mean scores of non-professional females (M= 41.99) and professional males (M= 41.88). Although the mean of non-professional female is higher than professional males but the ‘t’ value is found to be (.119) which is insignificant indicating no difference between the two groups over preference to economic value. So the null hypothesis is accepted.

The seventh group shows a comparison of professional females and non-professional males with mean scores 41.53 and 40.92 respectively. The SD of professional females is found to be 6.64 and for non-professional males it is 5.51. The ‘t’ value computed of the two groups is .758 (insignificant) which indicated no difference between the two groups over preference to economic value. So the result compels to the acceptance of null hypothesis.
Table 4 Represents the t value, Ns, Mean’s and SDs of value (aesthetic value) scores of professional and non-professional students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. D.</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Professionals</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>36.23</td>
<td>7.55</td>
<td>.259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professionals</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>36.05</td>
<td>6.69</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Professional (Male)</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>35.52</td>
<td>7.74</td>
<td>1.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional (female)</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>37.03</td>
<td>7.28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>35.98</td>
<td>6.54</td>
<td>.197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Female)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>36.17</td>
<td>7.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Professional (Male)</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>35.52</td>
<td>7.74</td>
<td>.494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>35.98</td>
<td>6.54</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Professional (female)</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>37.03</td>
<td>7.28</td>
<td>.754</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (female)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>36.17</td>
<td>7.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Non Professional (female)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>36.17</td>
<td>7.02</td>
<td>.567</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional (Male)</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>35.52</td>
<td>7.74</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Professional (Female)</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>37.03</td>
<td>7.28</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>35.98</td>
<td>6.54</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Above table is divided into seven different groups. The first group shows a comparison of professional and non-professional students over aesthetic value. The result clearly shows that the mean value scores (Aesthetic Value) of professional students (M= 36.23, SD= 7.55) is higher than the non-professional students (M= 36.05, SD= 6.69) but the ‘t’ value .259 (insignificant) shows that there is no difference between the two groups over preference to Aesthetic value. So the null hypothesis is to be accepted.
The second group shows mean, SD and ‘t’ value for the two groups namely professional males and professional females. The mean scores of professional males (M=35.52, SD=7.74) is lower than the professional females (M= 37.03, SD=7.28) and the ‘t’ value is found to be 1.41 which is insignificant showing no difference between the two groups over preference to Aesthetic value. So the null hypothesis is accepted.

The third group shows the mean scores of non-professional males (M= 35.98) and females (M= 36.17) and the SD’s of both the groups are found to be 6.54 and 7.02 respectively. The computed ‘t’ value of the two groups is .197 (insignificant) which indicated no difference between the two groups over Aesthetic value. So the result leads to the acceptance of null hypothesis.

The fourth group presented a comparison of professional and non-professional males. The mean scores of professional and non-professional males are found to be 35.52 and 35.98 respectively and the SD’s of the above two groups are 7.74 and 6.54 respectively. The ‘t’ value is found to be .494 which is insignificant, it reveals no difference between the two groups. So the null hypothesis is accepted.

The fifth group made a comparison of professional females (M = 37.03) and non-professional females (M= 36.17). The SD’s of the two groups are 7.28 and 7.02 respectively and the ‘t’ value is found to be .754 (insignificant) indicating no difference between the two groups over preference to Aesthetic value. So the result leads to the acceptance of null hypothesis.

The sixth group shows a comparison of non-professional females (M = 36.17) and professional males (M = 35.52) with SD’s 7.02 and 7.74 respectively. Although the mean
of non-professional females is higher than professional males but the ‘t’ value computed for the two groups is .567 which is insignificant, it reveals no difference between the two groups over Aesthetic value. So the result compels to the acceptance of null hypothesis.

The seventh group presents means and SDs of professional females and non-professional males. The mean and SD for professional females are 37.03 and 7.28 respectively and the respective mean and SD of non-professional males are 35.98 and 6.54. The obtained ‘t’ value of the two groups is 1.13 which is insignificant. It clearly indicated that there is no difference between the two groups over preference to Aesthetic value. So the result compels to the acceptance of null hypothesis.
Table 5 Represents the t value, Ns, Mean’s and SDs of value (social value) scores of different groups of professional and non-professional students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. D.</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Professionals</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>40.41</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td>2.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professionals</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>41.61</td>
<td>5.68</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Professional (Male)</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>40.42</td>
<td>5.49</td>
<td>.029</td>
</tr>
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<td>Professional (female)</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>40.39</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>41.68</td>
<td>5.71</td>
<td>.237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Female)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>41.48</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Professional (Male)</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>40.42</td>
<td>5.49</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>41.68</td>
<td>5.71</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Professional (female)</td>
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<td>40.39</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (female)</td>
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<td>5.65</td>
<td></td>
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<td>5.49</td>
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<td>Professional (Female)</td>
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<td>5.10</td>
<td>1.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
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<td>41.68</td>
<td>5.71</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows a comparison of professional and non-professional students over social value. The result of first group clearly shows that the mean scores of professional students are higher than non-professional students. The mean and SD of professional students are 40.41 and 5.29 respectively and the respective mean and SD of non professional students are 41.61 and 5.68. The computed ‘t’ value of the two groups is found to be 2.19 which is significant at .05 level of confidence. It shows that the two
groups differ over preference to social value. So the result leads to the rejection of null hypothesis.

The second group shows the mean scores of professional males (M = 40.42, SD= 5.49) and professional females (M = 40.39, SD= 5.10). The ‘t’ value .029 is found to be insignificant which indicated no difference between professional males and females over social value. So the null hypothesis is accepted.

The third group shows the comparison of non-professional males and females. The obtained ‘t’ value .237 of the above two groups is insignificant. The mean of non-professional males is found to be 41.68 and of non-professional females it is 41.48. The SDs of the two groups is found to be 5.71 and 5.65 respectively. The ‘t’ value (insignificant) indicated no difference between the two groups over social value. So the result compels to the acceptance of null hypothesis.

The fourth group shows a comparison between professional males (M= 40.42, SD=5.49) and non-professional males (M = 41.68, SD=5.71). The ‘t’ value obtained for the above two groups is 1.72 which is insignificant. It clearly reveals that no difference was found between the two groups over preference to social value. So the result leads to the acceptance of null hypothesis.

The fifth group made a comparison of professional and non-professional females with mean scores 40.39 and 41.48 respectively. The ‘t’ value is found to be 1.28 which is insignificant indicating no difference between the two groups over social value. So the null hypothesis is accepted.
The sixth group shows a comparison of non-professional females (M= 41.48) and professional males (M= 40.42) with SD’s 5.65 and 5.49 respectively and the ‘t’ value calculated is 1.23 (insignificant) which shows that the two groups do not differ with each other over preference to social value. So the result compels to the acceptance of null hypothesis.

The seventh group shows the mean scores of professional females (M= 40.39, SD= 5.10) and non-professional males (M = 41.68, SD=5.71) and the ‘t’ value is found to be 1.73 which is insignificant showing no difference between the two groups over social value. So the null hypothesis is accepted.
Table 6 Represents the t value, Ns, Mean’s and SDs value (political value) scores of various groups of professional and non-professional students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. D.</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>.556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professionals</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>39.83</td>
<td>5.27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
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<td>.656</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>5.23</td>
<td>.646</td>
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<td>5.37</td>
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</tr>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Professional (Male)</td>
<td>106</td>
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<td>5.64</td>
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<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
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<td>5.23</td>
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</tr>
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<td>1.09</td>
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<td>5.37</td>
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<td>5.37</td>
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<td>39.89</td>
<td>5.64</td>
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<td>.553</td>
</tr>
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<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
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<td>40.00</td>
<td>5.23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the above table which is divided into seven different groups we see a comparison of professional and non-professional students over political value. The result of the first group shows that mean scores of professional students (M = 40.12) is higher than non-professional students (M = 39.83). The SD’s of both the groups are found to be 5.33 and 5.27 respectively and the ‘t’ value obtained is .556 (insignificant) which
indicated no difference between the two groups over preference to political value. So the result leads to the acceptance of null hypothesis.

The second group shows the means and SDs of professional males and females. The mean and SD of professional males are 39.89 and 5.64 respectively and the respective mean and SD of professional females are 40.38 and 4.97. The ‘t’ value of the two groups is found to be .656 (insignificant) showing no significant difference between the two groups over preference to political value. So the null hypothesis is accepted.

The third group shows the mean scores of non-professional males (M= 40.00) and females (M= 39.49). The SD’s of both the groups are 5.23 and 5.37 respectively. The ‘t’ value computed for the two groups is .646 which is insignificant, it reveals no difference between the two groups. So the null hypothesis is to be accepted.

The fourth group shows a comparison of professional and non-professional males with mean scores 39.89 and 40.00 respectively. The ‘t’ value of the two groups is found to be .160 (insignificant) which shows no difference between professional and non-professional males over preference to political value. So the result compels to the acceptance of null hypothesis.

The fifth group made a comparison of professional and non-professional females with mean scores 40.38 and 39.49 respectively. The SDs of the two groups is found to be 4.97 and 5.37. The t’ value obtained 1.09 (insignificant) indicated no difference between the two groups over political value. So the null hypothesis is accepted.

The sixth group shows a comparison of non-professional females (M = 39.49) and professional males (M = 39.89). The SDs of both the groups are found to be 5.37 and
5.64 respectively and the ‘t’ value obtained for the two groups is .460 (insignificant) showing no difference between the two groups over preference to political value. So the result leads to the acceptance of null hypothesis.

The seventh group shows the mean scores of professional females (M= 40.38) and non-professional males (M= 40.00) with SD’s 4.97 and 5.23 respectively. The ‘t’ value .553 (insignificant) shows no significant difference between the two groups over preference to political value. So the null hypothesis is to be accepted.
Table 7 Represents the t value, Ns, Mean’s and SDs of value (Religious value) scores of different groups of professional and non-professional students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. D.</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>1</td>
<td>Professionals</td>
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<td>6.82</td>
<td>.329</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Non Professionals</td>
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<td>41.68</td>
<td>5.55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Professional (Male)</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Professional (female)</td>
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<td>41.39</td>
<td>7.28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
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<td>5.76</td>
<td>.038</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Non Professional (Female)</td>
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</tr>
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<td>5.76</td>
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</tr>
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</tr>
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<td>Non Professional (female)</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Professional (Male)</td>
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<td>7</td>
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<td>41.39</td>
<td>7.28</td>
<td>.311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>41.66</td>
<td>5.76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows a comparison of professional and non-professional students over religious value. The result of first group presented above shows that mean scores of professional students (M = 41.88) is higher than non-professional students (M = 41.68). The SDs for the two groups are found to be 6.82 and 5.55 respectively but the ‘t’ value computed for the two groups is .329 (insignificant) which shows no significant
difference between the two groups over preference to religious value. So the result compels to the acceptance of null hypothesis.

The second group shows the mean scores for professional males (M= 42.31, SD=6.39 ) and professional females (M = 41.39, SD= 7.28) and the ‘t’ value computed for both the groups is .949 (insignificant) which indicated no difference between the two groups over religious value. So the result leads to the acceptance of null hypothesis.

The third group made a comparison of means, SDs and ‘t’ value for non-professional males and females. The mean and SD of the two groups are found to be 41.66, SD=5.76 and 41.70, SD=5.18 respectively and the ‘t’ value come to be .038 (insignificant) showing no difference between the two groups over religious value. So the null hypothesis is accepted.

The fourth group shows a comparison of professional and non-professional males with mean scores 42.31 and 41.66 respectively. The obtained ‘t’ value is .818 (insignificant) which indicated no difference between the two groups over preference to religious value. So the result compels to the acceptance of null hypothesis.

The fifth group shows a comparison of professional and non-professional females with mean scores 41.39 and 41.70 respectively. The SD’s of both the groups are 7.28 and 5.18 and the ‘t’ value is found to be .294 (insignificant) which reveals no difference between the two groups over religious value. So the null hypothesis is accepted.

The sixth group made another comparison between the two groups of non-professional females (M = 41.70) and professional males (M= 42.31). The ‘t’ value .669
(insignificant) shows that the two groups do not differ significantly over preference to religious value. So the result compels to the acceptance of null hypothesis.

The seventh group shows a comparison of professional females (M = 41.39) and non-professional males (M = 41.66) and the SD’s for both the groups are 7.28 and 5.76 respectively. The ‘t’ value obtained is .311 which is insignificant indicating no difference between the two groups over religious value. So the null hypothesis is accepted.
Table 8 Represents the t value, Ns, Mean’s and SDs of level of aspiration scores of various groups of professional and non-professional students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. D.</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<td>200</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>8.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Professional (Male)</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>5.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional (Female)</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>1.60</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
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<td>1.41</td>
<td>3.80</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1.64</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Professional (Female)</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>7.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Female)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Non Professional (Female)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>7.53</td>
</tr>
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<td>Professional (Male)</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Professional (Female)</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>4.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows the comparison of professional and non-professional students on level of aspiration. The result of first group presented in the above table shows that the mean level of aspiration score of professional students (M=4.46, SD=1.94)) is higher than the non-professional students (M = 2.56, SD=1.55). The ‘t’ value is found to be 8.35 which is significant at .01 level of confidence. It clearly
indicated that professional students have a high level of aspiration than non-professional students. So the null hypothesis has to be rejected.

The second group shows the comparison of professional males and females. The mean and SD of professional males are found to be 4.51 and 1.64 respectively while the respective mean and SD for professional females are found to be 3.17 and 1.60. The ‘t’ value computed between the means of professional males and females is 5.81 which is significant at .01 level of confidence. It shows that professional males are higher in level of aspiration than professional females. So the result compels to the rejection of null hypothesis.

The third group shows a comparison of non-professional males and females. The mean and SD of non-professional males is found to be 2.33 and 1.41 and the mean and SD of non-professional females is found to be 1.58 and 1.12 respectively. The obtained ‘t’ value is 3.80 which is significant at .01 level of confidence showing that non-professional males have a higher level of aspiration than non-professional females. So the result leads to the rejection of null hypothesis.

The fourth group shows a comparison of the scores of professional males (M = 4.51) and non-professional males (M = 2.33). The SD of the first group is 1.64 and of the second group it is 1.41. The ‘t’ value computed of the two groups is 8.35 which is significant at .01 level of confidence. It indicated that the two groups differ significantly over level of aspiration. So the null hypothesis is to be rejected.

The fifth group shows a comparison of professional females (M = 3.17) and non-professional females (M= 1.58). The SD of the first group is found to be 1.60 and of the
second group it is 1.12. The ‘t’ value is found to be 7.05 which is significant at .01 level of confidence showing that professional females has a high level of aspiration than non-professional females. So the null hypothesis is to be rejected.

The sixth group shows a comparison of non-professional females and professional males. The ‘t’ value computed of the two groups is 7.53 which is significant at .01 level of confidence. The mean scores of professional males (M = 4.51, SD=1.64) is higher than the non-professional females (M= 1.58, SD=1.12). So the result compel to the rejection of null hypothesis.

Similarly seventh group shows a comparison between professional females (M = 3.17, SD=1.60) and non-professional males (M = 2.33, SD=1.41). The ‘t’ value is found to be 4.14 which is significant at .01 level of confidence showing that non-professional males and professional females significantly differ over level of aspiration. So the null hypothesis is rejected.
Table 9 Represents the t value, Ns, Mean’s and SDs of Neuroticism scores of different groups of professional and non-professional students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. D.</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Professionals</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>22.51</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>15.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professionals</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>27.19</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Professional (Male)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Professional (female)</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>21.02</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>28.49</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>9.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Female)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>24.72</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Professional (Male)</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>23.83</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>14.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>28.49</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Professional (female)</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>21.02</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>8.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (female)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>24.72</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Non Professional (female)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>24.72</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>2.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional (Male)</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>23.83</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Professional (Female)</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>26.04</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>5.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>28.46</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The result presented in the above table is divided into different seven groups. The first group shows a comparison of professional and non-professional students over neuroticism. Result clearly shows that the mean neuroticism scores of professional students (M=22.51) is lower than non-professional students (M=27.19). The SD of the first group is 3.10 and of the second group it is found to be 3.12. The ‘t’ value computed of the two groups is 15.03 which is significant at .01 level of confidence. It shows that...
the two groups differ significantly over neuroticism. So the result leads to the rejection of null hypothesis.

The second group shows a comparison of professional males (M=23.83) and females (M=21.02). The SD’s of both the groups are found to be 2.60 and 2.94 respectively and the ‘t’ value calculated is 7.15 which is significant at .01 level of confidence. It indicated that professional males and females differ significantly over neuroticism. So null hypothesis is rejected.

The third group shows the mean scores of non-professional males (M = 28.49) and females (M = 24.72). The mean of non-professional males is higher than non-professional females and the ‘t’ value obtained is 9.87 which is significant at .01 level of confidence showing significant difference between the two groups over neuroticism. So the null hypothesis is rejected.

The fourth group shows a comparison of professional and non-professional males with mean scores 23.83 and 28.49 respectively. The ‘t’ value of the two groups is found to be 14.14 which is significant at .01 level of confidence. It reveals that there is significant difference between the two groups over neuroticism. So the result compels to the rejection of null hypothesis.

The fifth group shows Means, SDs and ‘t’ value for professional and non-professional females. The ‘t’ value calculated of the two groups is 8.13 which is significant at .01 level of confidence. The mean and SD of professional females are 21.02 and 2.94 respectively and the mean and SD of non-professional females are 24.72 and
2.76 respectively. The ‘t’ value shows that professional and non-professional females differ significantly over neuroticism. Hence the null hypothesis is rejected.

The sixth group shows a comparison of non-professional females (M = 24.72) and professional males (M = 23.83). The ‘t’ value is found to be 2.16 which is significant at .01 level of confidence indicating significant difference between the two groups over neuroticism. So the result compels to the rejection of null hypothesis.

The seventh group shows a comparison between professional females (M = 26.04) and non-professional males (M = 28.46). The SD’s of the two groups are 4.55 and 2.46 respectively. The ‘t’ value obtained is 5.24 which is significant at .01 level of confidence showing significant difference between the two groups over neuroticism. So the null hypothesis is rejected.
Table 10- Represents the t value, Ns, Mean’s and SDs of extraversion scores of different groups of professional and non-professional students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. D.</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Professionals</td>
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<td>27.74</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>1.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professionals</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>27.20</td>
<td>3.74</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Professional (Male)</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>28.05</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional (female)</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>27.38</td>
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</tr>
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<td>3.60</td>
<td>3.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Female)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>25.96</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Professional (Male)</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>28.05</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>.409</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>27.85</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Professional (female)</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>27.38</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>2.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (female)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>25.96</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Non Professional (female)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>25.96</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>3.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional (Male)</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>28.05</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Professional (Female)</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>27.38</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>.935</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>27.85</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows a comparison of professional and non-professional students over extraversion. Result of first group shows that mean of professional students (M = 27.74) is higher than the non-professional students (M = 27.20) but the obtained ‘t’
value is 1.42 which is insignificant indicating no significant difference between the two groups over extraversion. So the null hypothesis is to be accepted.

The second group shows mean scores of professional males (M = 28.05) and females (M = 27.38). The SD’s of both the groups are found to be 3.90 and 3.77 respectively. The obtained ‘t’ value is 1.21 which is insignificant showing that the two groups do not differ significantly over extraversion. So the result leads to the acceptance of null hypothesis.

The third group shows the means and SDs for non-professional males and females. The mean and SD of non-professional males are 27.85 and 3.60 respectively and the respective mean and SD for non-professional females are 25.96 and 3.72. The ‘t’ value calculated is 3.48 which is significant at .01 level of confidence indicating difference between non-professional males and females over extraversion. So the result leads to the rejection of null hypothesis.

The fourth group shows ‘t’ value of professional and non-professional males which is found to be .409 (insignificant). The mean scores for professional males (M = 28.05) is higher than non-professional males (27.85) but the insignificant ‘t’ value indicated no significant difference between the two groups over extraversion. So the result leads to the acceptance of null hypothesis.

The fifth group shows a comparison of professional and non-professional females. The mean of professional females is found to be (M = 27.38) and the mean of non-professional females is found to be (M= 25.96). The SD’s of the two groups are 3.77 and 3.72 respectively. The ‘t’ value calculated is 2.39 which is significant at .01 level of
confidence. It shows that the two groups differ significantly over extraversion. So the null hypothesis is rejected.

The sixth group shows a comparison of non-professional females (M= 25.96) and professional males (M=28.05). The SD’s of both the groups are 3.72 and 3.90 respectively. And the ‘t’ value is found to be 3.52 which is significant at .01 level of confidence, it shows that professional males and non-professional females differ significantly over neuroticism. So the result leads to the rejection of null hypothesis.

The seventh group shows a comparison of professional females and non-professional males with mean scores 27.38 and 27.85 respectively. The ‘t’ value obtained is .935 which is insignificant showing no difference between the two groups over extraversion. So the result compels to the acceptance of null hypothesis.
Table 11 - Represents the t value, Ns, Mean’s and SDs of openness scores of different groups of professional and non-professional students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. D.</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Professionals</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>24.44</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>8.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professionals</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>21.49</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Professional (Male)</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>26.64</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>2.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional (female)</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>25.21</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Female)</td>
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<td>2.66</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Professional (Male)</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>26.64</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>5.42</td>
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<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
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<td>3.26</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>6</td>
<td>Non Professional (female)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>21.04</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>10.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional (Male)</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>26.64</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Professional (Female)</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>24.61</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>6.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>21.72</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Above table presents a comparison of professional and non-professional students over openness. The first group shows that the mean openness scores of professional
students (M = 24.44) is higher than non-professional students (M = 21.49). The SD’s of both the groups are 3.81 and 3.08 and the ‘t’ value is 8.50 which is significant at .01 level of confidence. It clearly indicated that the two groups differ over openness. So the result leads to the rejection of null hypothesis.

The second group shows a comparison of professional males and females with mean scores 26.64 and 25.21 respectively. The SD’s of the first group is 4.01 and for the second group it is 3.14. The ‘t’ value is found to be 2.77 which is significant at .01 level of confidence showing significant difference between the two groups over openness. So the null hypothesis is rejected.

The third group shows mean and SD of non-professional males and females. The mean and SD of non-professional males are 21.73 and 3.26 respectively and the respective mean and SD of non-professional females are 21.04 and 2.66. The ‘t’ value calculated of the two groups is 1.50 which is insignificant showing no difference between non-professional males and females over openness. So the result takes to the acceptance of null hypothesis.

The fourth group shows a comparison of professional males (M = 26.64) and non-professional males (M = 21.73). The SD’s of the two groups are found to be 4.01 and 3.26 respectively and the obtained ‘t’ value is 5.42 which is significant at .01 level of confidence indicated significant difference between the two groups over openness. So the null hypothesis is to be rejected.

The fifth group shows a comparison of professional and non-professional females with mean scores 25.21 and 21.04 respectively. The ‘t’ value calculated of both the
groups is 8.90 which is significant at .01 level of confidence showing that the two groups differ over openness. So the result compels to the rejection of the null hypothesis.

The sixth group shows a comparison of non-professional females (M= 21.04) and professional males (M= 26.64). The SD’s of the first group is 2.66 and for the second group it is 4.01 and the ‘t’ value calculated is 10.20 which is significant at .01 level of confidence. It reveals that the two groups differ significantly over openness. So the null hypothesis is rejected.

The seventh group shows mean scores of professional females (M = 24.61) and non-professional males (M= 21.72) and the ‘t’ value obtained is 6.30 which is significant at .01 level of confidence indicated no difference between the two groups over openness. So the null hypothesis has to be rejected.
Table 12- Represents the t value, Ns, Mean’s and SDs of agreeableness scores of different groups of professional and non-professional students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. D.</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>Professional (Male)</td>
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</tr>
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<td>22.03</td>
<td>2.44</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Professional (Male)</td>
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<td>26.79</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>8.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>22.80</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
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<td>94</td>
<td>23.99</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>4.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (female)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>22.03</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Non Professional (female)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>22.03</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>9.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Professional (Male)</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>26.79</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
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<td>94</td>
<td>23.99</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>2.90</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>22.80</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The result presented in the above table is divided into seven different groups. The first group shows a comparison of professional and non-professional students over agreeableness. The result of first group presented above shows that the mean score of professional students is higher than the non-professional students. The mean of the first
group is 25.48 and of the second group it is 22.54. The ‘t’ value calculated of the two groups is 8.78 which is significant at .01 level of confidence showing that the two groups differ significantly over agreeableness. So the null hypothesis has to be rejected.

The second group shows the mean scores of professional males (M = 26.79) and females (M = 23.99). It clearly reveals that the two groups significantly differ over agreeableness as the ‘t’ value is found to be 5.56 which is significant at .01 level of confidence. So the result compels to the rejection of null hypothesis.

The third group shows that non-professional males (M = 22.80) and females (M = 22.03) has no difference over agreeableness as the ‘t’ value is found to be 1.86 which is insignificant. So the null hypothesis is accepted.

The fourth group shows the comparison of professional and non-professional males. The mean score of first group is 26.79 and the mean of the second group is found to be 22.80. The SD’s of the two groups is found to be 3.88 and 2.93 respectively. The ‘t’ value calculated for the two groups is 8.99 which is significant at .01 level of confidence indicating difference between the two groups over agreeableness. So the result compels to the rejection of null hypothesis.

The fifth group shows the mean scores of professional and non-professional females. The mean of the first group is found to be 23.99 and the mean of the second group is found to be 22.03. It clearly indicated that there is significant difference between the two groups over agreeableness as the ‘t’ value obtained is 4.30 which is significant at .01 level of confidence. So the null hypothesis is rejected.
The sixth group shows a comparison of non-professional females (M = 22.03) and professional males (M = 26.79). The ‘t’ value of the two groups is found to be 9.07 which is significant at .01 level of confidence showing that the two groups differ over agreeableness. So the result leads to the rejection of null hypothesis.

The seventh group shows a comparison of professional females (M = 23.99) and non-professional males (M= 22.80). The SD’s of both the groups are 3.14 and 2.93 respectively and the ‘t’ value calculated of the two groups is 2.90 which is significant at .01 level of confidence. It reveals significant difference between the two groups over agreeableness. So the null hypothesis has to be rejected.
Table 13- Represents the t value, Ns, Mean’s and SDs of conscientiousness scores of different groups of professional and non-professional students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. D.</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
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<td>Professionals</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professionals</td>
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<td>23.29</td>
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<td>5.99</td>
<td>2.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>26.16</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>23.44</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>.682</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>23.00</td>
<td>4.32</td>
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<tr>
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<td>28.34</td>
<td>5.99</td>
<td>7.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>23.44</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Professional (female)</td>
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<td>26.16</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>4.57</td>
</tr>
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<td>4.32</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>28.34</td>
<td>5.99</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Professional (Female)</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>26.16</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>4.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Professional (Male)</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>23.44</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Above table which is divided into seven different groups shows a comparison of professional and non-professional students over conscientiousness. Result shows that the mean conscientiousness score of professional students (M = 27.32) is higher than the non-professional students (M = 23.29). The ‘t’ value of the two groups is found to be
8.27 which is significant at .01 level of confidence. It clearly shows that the two groups differ significantly over conscientiousness. So the null hypothesis is rejected.

The second group shows mean conscientiousness score of professional males and females. The mean of professional males (M = 28.34) is higher than the professional females (M = 26.16) and the SD’s of both the groups are 5.99 and 4.37 respectively. The ‘t’ value calculated is 2.90 which is significant at .01 level of confidence. It clearly indicated that professional males are higher in conscientiousness than non professional females. So the result compels to the rejection of null hypothesis.

The third group shows a comparison of non-professional males and females. The mean for the first group is 23.44 and for the second group it is 23.00. The ‘t’ value calculated for the two groups is .682 which is insignificant. It shows that the two groups have no difference over conscientiousness. So the result takes to the acceptance of null hypothesis.

The fourth group shows a comparison of professional and non-professional males. The mean score of the first group is 28.34 and for the second group it is 23.44. The SD’s of the two groups are 5.99 and 4.27 respectively and the calculated ‘t’ value is 7.34 which is significant at .01 level of confidence. It clearly indicated that the two groups differ over conscientiousness. Hence the result has to reject the null hypothesis.

The fifth group shows mean scores of professional females (M = 26.16) and non-professional females (M = 23.00). The ‘t’ value is found to be 4.57 which is significant at .01 level of confidence showing significant difference between the two groups over conscientiousness. So the null hypothesis is rejected.
The sixth group shows a comparison of non-professional females ($M = 23.00$) and professional males (28.34). The obtained ‘t’ value of the two groups is 6.38 which is significant at .01 level of confidence. It indicated that the two groups differ significantly over conscientiousness. So the result compels to the rejection of null hypothesis.

The seventh group shows a comparison of professional females ($M = 26.16$) and non-professional males ($M= 23.44$). The SDs of the first group is 4.37 and for the second group it is 4.27. The obtained ‘t’ value is 4.67 which is significant at .01 level of confidence which reveals significant difference between the two groups over conscientiousness. So the result leads to the rejection of null hypothesis.