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This Chapter reviews the major theoretical approaches to the nature of the self-perception, various methods developed by psychologists for the study of self-perception and major studies undertaken to measure the relation between the variables selected in this study.

I. REVIEW OF CONCEPTS

An exhaustive account of the major theoretical contribution of various psychologists on self, self-concept and self-perception has been given by Hall and Lindzey (1957). When all the individual contributions of different authors are reviewed, there emerge two major approaches; the psychoanalytic approach emphasizing the role of the unconscious repressed desires and the genetic approach emphasizing the role of learning and development with associated experience. These two approaches are discussed below at some length to bring out their main features.

Psychoanalytical Interpretation of the Self

Psychoanalysts place considerable emphasis on the emergence of the personality structure as a consequence of the interaction of certain psychic forces, i.e. the Id, Ego
and Superego. They operate at various levels of consciousness and together make up the personality. The Id is an inherited mass of energy which is thought to be the repository of the sex drives, mastery, pleasure, aggressive and other instinctual drives that crave for expression. They are the primitive, uncivilized, uninhibited aspects of personality which seek gratification without concern for the welfare of the individual or society.

The Ego is a controlling force which emerges through socialization and represents the conscious aspects of mental life. Its main function is to interpret reality and exercise restraints upon the Id so that the latter in its blind struggle for expression will not lead the individual into pain or destruction. In due course of time the Ego becomes that aspect of personality which organizes and controls perceptions, protects the person against unreasonable pleasure seeking tendencies and make him aware of realities of life.

The Superego functions in two ways: as the Conscience and the Ego Ideal. The Conscience is the prohibitive punitive aspect of personality which distinguishes right behaviour from wrong. It is formed initially from internalized symbols of parental control. At first the young child conforms to the rules of parents because it is rewarded for good behaviour and punished for the bad. By the time it has finished fourth year, it has internalized so many parental prohibitions and moral concepts that a part of the
Ego becomes differentiated as the Conscience. In due course of time, the Conscience is fully formed and firmly established. In later life, there may be changes in the individual's overt behaviour, but the basic moral character laid down in the early years is more or less permanent.

The Ego ideal consists of goals or standards by which the Ego measures itself and towards which it seeks to develop. The ego-ideal grows out of series of identifications first with parents, then with teachers, relatives, peers and other people. Fantasy figures and fictional characters derived from movies, novels, radio and television also influence the identification process in the formation of the Ego ideal, i.e. the person one would like to be. The Conscience and Ego ideal together provide a set of inner moral principles which guide behaviour.

Personality and the Development of Self

Each of us is a different person because of the distinctive pattern of relationship developed between the Id, Ego and Superego. Normal development requires the emergence of an adequate ego which is capable of regulating the Id impulses and meeting the demands of the Superego and at the same time adapting to the external reality. If the Ego can maintain control over these inner forces, the individual develops as a rational, competent human being.

The necessary condition for the development of a healthy
Ego is a home atmosphere where security, affection and approval are wisely tempered with control and encouragement. During his school years, the child's Ego may be expanded, changed or undermined depending upon the success and acceptance he encounters in his academic and social relationships. Ego development is possible if the child experiences the feelings of self-worth through academic success and encouragement. Denied these opportunities, the proper development suffers from immaturity or misdirection.

During the period of prepuberty, the child manages to establish a rather stable concept of himself based on childhood values and relationships. With the onset of puberty, these values and relationships change. The physiological changes together with altered social relationships require the Ego to be re-established in terms of the revised sense of reality. The individual begins to search for new channels through which to restore his sense of self-identity. As new perceptions and relationships develop, the Ego emerges in its mature form.

Super Ego and Id in Personality Formation

The role of the Superego and Id should not be undermined in the formation of personality. The type of Superego a child develops has an important influence on its inner life and the way it views himself and the world. If the Superego is weak, the child will lack the inner controls needed to
regulate his behaviour morally and socially. Too rigid Superego, on the other hand, would result in a severely conscientious, perfectionist, i.e. personality that aspires for very high moral standards. The kind of Superego structure found in well-adjusted people is one which interacts freely with the Ego and the Id, being neither too weak to provide a moral direction to behaviour, nor so strong that it exerts a tyrannical force over the individual.

Thus, the emergence of the self, according to the psychoanalytical theory is a matter of shaping the three phases of mental life -- Id, Ego and Superego -- into a state of suitable equilibrium. If the Ego is adequate and capable of harnessing the Id energies, and the Superego is not overly harsh, the individual is expected to develop a positive sense of self-identity and a capacity for self-direction.

Genetic Approach to the Self-Perception

The emergence of self-perception is considered here as a developmental process of growth, maturation and learning which begins in infancy and is controlled, not by internal psychological forces, but by the totality of the individual's growth experiences. It is mainly phenomenological and minimizes the role of the unconscious motivation in the process.

The Genetic Theory of self-development begins with the
new born infant, incapable of distinguishing between itself and its environment and for whom the whole world is a "blooming, buzzing mass". Gorden (1963) describes the initial conditions that help the child to distinguish between himself and the outside world. The primary stage of self-perception begins with the body image which it considers as its own and something different from the external environment. Gesell and Ilg (1949) have outlined these experiences from the stage of primary awareness of existence to that of the distinct awareness of one's personality and self.

Next to the body image, comes the awareness of the reactions of other people and of the rules governing human relationships (Kaplan, 1963). The child tests and reacts to these rules and ultimately in normal development incorporates and integrates most of them into his own behaviour. Through a series of such integrations of experiences, he gradually develops a stable perception of who he is, what he is, what he can and cannot do and how other people are affected by him.

The major difference between the Psychoanalytical Theory and the Genetic Theory consists in ascribing the necessary time limit for the full development of the self-perception. The former view believes that the process terminates after puberty and no further development can be expected in the major personality structure because the psycho-sexual development has reached its final stage. The Genetic Theory,
on the other hand, believes in the continuity of the process of development of the self-perception not only during the adolescence but also upto and including the adult years. The major features of the adult self-perception are as follows:

1. The self-identity is stabilized at a higher level of integration. This means the self-perception has incorporated finer and minor details of personality with a clearer view of their evaluation.

2. The overall evaluative process ultimately results in the self-acceptance. The individual has accepted himself for what he is with a feeling of self-esteem. According to Rogers (1952), this is the criterion of healthy and adjusted personality. Those who lack it, require special help of the therapist to attain this stage.

3. The adult self-perception is characterized by objective self-perception or in the words of Mead (1934), "Self-other" attitude. This means the individual is able to view himself as others view him, and thereby is in a better position to understand their behaviour as well as the impression created on them by his behaviour. In fact, according to the Genetic Theory, this is the most important feature of Self-perception. It is also supported by Cooley's "Looking-glass" Theory of the self (1902) which emphasizes the role of "Significant others" in the process of self-perception.
The major aspects of the self-concept emerge from the following definition given by Rogers (1952):

"...that organized, consistent, conceptual gestalt composed of perceptions of the characteristics of "I" or "me" and the perceptions of the relationships of the "I" or "me" to others and to various aspects of life together with the values attached to these perceptions".

This definition is in keeping with the first psychological definition of the self given by William James (1902) when he included the "material" and "social" self as part of the total self. The self, according to the Genetic Theory may be further analyzed into the following components:

(i) Self-Image: It implies the individual's basic perceptions of the world as well as himself, his feelings of adequacy and inadequacy and how he thinks others look upon him. It is mainly determined by one's body image, primary family interactions and extra-familial interactions coming mainly through the peer group and school life.

(ii) Self-Ideal: This is a composite of desires, aspirations, fantasies and dreams derived from a series of interactions with real and imaginary figures. It is derived from his mother and father, siblings as well as a variety of nonfamily figures like other children, teachers, heroes, movie and television personalities and fictional figures.
According to the Genetic Theory, the development of the Self-Ideal is a continuing process which is not limited to childhood, but continues through the period of adolescence and adulthood. Adults alter their self-ideal by adopting some of the behaviour patterns of significant people with whom they associate. Husbands and wives take on the characters of one another, friends adopt each other's mannerisms, modes of speaking and attitudes and workers, their supervisors or employers. To measure the individual's degree of adjustment, the usual procedure is to measure the discrepancy between the self-ideal and self-image. Greater discrepancy is taken to be an indication of maladjustment.

(iii) The Self-Role: A person's sense of self identity is influenced by the way other people react to him as he performs various roles. In the words of Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachy (1962): "A role can be seen as encompassing the duties or obligations of the (social) position...... A role can also be seen as encompassing the rights of the position". Sherif and Sherif (1969) define role relations as "Patterns of reciprocal behaviour and associated expectations between two or more individuals that are characteristic and recurrent in interaction or consequence to them". We all play many roles in life and each role involves
a different aspect of the self. This is equivalent to what William James regards as the "public selves". One of the major tasks of self-development is to integrate the conflicting roles into a stable pattern of self-identity.

The process of role-integration requires some experimentation in the beginning. In imitating the roles of various social figures, the young child comes to experience certain roles that are personally comfortable and socially encouraging, and approved. Gradually, there emerges a primary role in which the individual feels most comfortable and around which secondary, tertiary and other roles are organized. This central-core role, together with the satellite roles which complement and support the central role is a significant part of the self-identity of the individual. In the words of Sherif and Sherif (1969) there is "hierarchy of importance attached to various components in the self."

In short, according to the Genetic Theory, the individual's self consists of various layers:

1. An outer, relatively impersonal layer;
2. A sensitive stratum below this;
and 3. A very sensitive nucleus.

Experiences which affect only the outer layer of the self can be handled quite objectively. As they approach
nearer the inner core, they evoke emotionalism and are strongly resisted. Because of this, the Individual and Clinical Psychologists consider it as an inevitable hypothetical construct responsible to maintain the stability and consistency of behaviour.

This in short is the brief review of the Genetic Theory of self-perception. The present author believes it to be more acceptable compared to the Psychoanalytical Theory because of the following reasons:

1. The very concept of the "self" and "self-perception" belongs to the phenomenological field and therefore the scientist who is interested in the study of self-perception should select the Theory that gives due emphasis to the conscious, and not the unconscious, aspect of personality.

2. The techniques required to explore the unconscious aspects of personality include various methods such as psychoanalysis and projective techniques. The realistic use of these techniques requires highly technical training and intensive clinical experience. In spite of this, the inter-scorer reliability of these techniques has not been found to be very high (Shaffer & Lazarus, 1952). The greater emphasis upon the phenomenological approach to the study of SELF is mainly because the methods of self-study based on this approach are objective, easy to score, administer
and interprete (Wylie, 1961). This objectivity in interpretation is an important factor to increase the use of the techniques representing the phenomenological approach.

3. The psychoanalytical theory is better suited when one is dealing with the Ss referred to the mental clinic, having serious adjustment problems. The major objective of the present study however is to investigate the self-perception and its correlates in the normal high school going population. As Rogers ([?5?]) has pointed out, a normal adolescent can and does possess sufficient self-insight and can report it faithfully if sufficient rapport is established. This is an additional support for the selection of the phenomenological approach in the study of self-perception.

The present study aims to study the correlation between the Self-perception of the high-school going adolescents with their perceived parental perception held for their mother and father, their IQ, their School Achievement Level (SAL) and their Socio-Economic Status (SES).
II. REVIEW OF RESEARCH

This Section reviews the research work bearing upon the major problems selected for the thesis. Unfortunately, all the five areas mentioned in the previous section have not been explored to the same extent. The present author has failed to find a study in which intelligence has been introduced as an independent variable, nor are there studies where there is consistent agreement about the instruments, the samples and the number of variables controlled. The dearth of research work in these areas has encouraged the present author to undertake the present study.

The studies selected for review have been presented in some details to clarify their methodology, the number of independent variables involved and their findings. This may help to compare the findings of the present work, wherever possible with the findings obtained in the past.

Studies Involving Self-Perception and Perceived Parental Perception

Jourard and Remy (1955) take the point of view that attitudes about oneself are acquired in some way from parents and "significant others" in one's life. Self-value of the child is obviously related to the parental value placed upon the child. Jourard and Remy postulate that:
A person's attitudes toward his body and his self vary with his beliefs concerning the attitude of his parents toward his body and his self.

Ss who believe that their parents hold negative attitudes toward their bodies, show signs of insecurity.

Ss who believe their parents dislike many of their traits show signs of insecurity.

Ss were 99 undergraduate students falling within the age group of 18-23, 51 women and 48 men, who answered items related to their bodies and about themselves (self and Body Cathexis). They were also required to answer how they felt their mothers and fathers would answer about them on the same items. The Maslow Test of Security-Insecurity was also answered by the Ss.

The results indicating relationship between the three variables may be summarized as follows:

There is positive correlation between a favourable self and body cathexis with security (.68, P < .01 for women; .84, P < .01 for men).

There is also significant correlation between the negative self-appraisal based upon a perceived negative parental appraisal of oneself on one hand and insecurity on the other.
In this study, actual attitudes of parents were not involved, only the Ss' reported perception of what they felt the attitudes of their parents to be. In short, the study deals with what in the present thesis is taken as Perceived Parental Perception. The present author feels however that the age group selected by Jourard is not adequate for studying the influence of perceived parental perception. Students by the time they have finished the high school education and have entered the college are in the state of "family emancipation". Over and above their parents, the teachers, the peer groups, and other public figures have already entered their perceptual horizon. It is difficult, therefore, to get the clear idea of parental influence at such a later stage. Jersild (1962) supports this statement.

Helper (1955) attempted to enlarge upon the findings of Jourard and Remy by using actual ratings of children by parents. Fifty sets of junior high-school student-mother-father were asked to respond to a questionnaire comprised of 46 pairs of bipolar adjectives. The child responded as it "is", "would like to be", "would least like to be", and as his mother and father appear to it. Parents answered similarly, including rating their spouse and describing the child as they "would most like it to be". Peer status of children was determined by sociometric rating.

Helper had postulated that a child's Ideal Self-concept would be more similar to the "Ideal-child" concept held by
his own parents in particular rather than the "Ideal-child" concept of the parents in general. The results, even though statistically not significant, were in the predicted direction. The correlation between the child's Ideal Self-concept and its own parents Ideal-child concept did not differ significantly from the correlation between the child's Ideal-Self concept and the Idea-child concept held by parents in general. Helper has argued that parents do not have particular Ideal-child concepts about their own children; rather it reflects a social stereotype in parent's Ideal-child concept. These results therefore should not be interpreted as absence of parental influence upon the personality development of the child. Further analysis revealed that the degree of correlation between a boy's Ideal-self concept and his father's Ideal-son concept was positively related with the degree of reward (i.e. praise and encouragement) given by the mother to the child for similarity with the father. Similar relationship was also established between the boy's self-concept and his concept of his father. There was positive relationship between the Self-concept and high peer status among boys. It is important to note that none of the above relationships was significant for girls.

Another study by Helper (1958) reported a slight but real tendency toward similarity between parent's evaluations of their children and children's self-evaluations; the favourable responses of the parent were positively correlated with the
favourable comments of the child about himself; parental acceptance of the child was also consistently related to the child's acceptance of itself.

Helper suggested that the actual rating of the child by its parent (indicating parental favourability) reflected a description of the child in evaluative terms, while acceptance of the child (the discrepancy between "actual" and "ideal" ratings of the child by the parents) indicated the attitude toward the individual with his existing defects or assets. Acceptance was assumed to be the more emotionally loaded of the two variables, more significant for interpersonal relations.

Ausubal et.al (1954) have attempted to study the effect of parental attitudes on children's self-concept. Their major hypotheses are as follows:

(i) The child's self-concept develops according to the pattern of parent's rewards and punishments;

(ii) When undue stress is put on the child's objective success rather than his intrinsic needs, unfortunate personality characteristics may develop.

These authors developed a scale they call "Extrinsic Valuation" that measures the parent's excessive concern about the child's school achievement which they regard as a factor that enhances their own status. They developed another scale called "Could you Ever?" in which there are 80 questions
dealing with the child's ability to achieve a number of goals, some probable while some improbable. The purpose of this scale was to measure the degree of grandiose among the children. The findings are as follows:

(i) Children whose parents showed excessive extrinsic valuation showed greater degree of grandiose than the children whose parents did not.

(ii) These children were also persistent to an unrealistic degree in believing they could do well "the next time" on a task at which they were consistently failing.

(iii) These children as rated by their teachers, also manifested emotional immaturity than those children who were loved for themselves. In other words, the youngsters who are loved for themselves alone seem to be better adjusted than those who are loved as show pieces.

McIntyre (1952) investigated Roger's contention that better self-perception will cause an S to have better interpersonal relationships with others. A sociometric test was administered to 224 second semester freshmen to determine acceptance by their peers. The upper and lower 25 percent were then given a questionnaire to determine their attitudes toward themselves and toward others. Results indicated that attitudes toward self and others were positively related, but did not support the contention that better interpersonal
relationships were a function of better attitudes toward self and others.

These few studies suggest that the value an individual has of himself is influenced by the persons who are in close relation with him. The closer the relationship between individuals the more likely it is to influence the self-perception. There is also some evidence that children reported with maladjustment see their parents' view of them as differing from each other, i.e. difference between mother and father in their perception of the child.

In terms of the parents-child relationship the implications of these findings are obvious. The way in which parents respond toward their child provides the basis for learning self-evaluations. In the normal child, a favourable evaluation by the parents should result in a generally favourable self-evaluation. Considering the importance given to the parent-child interaction and the self-perception by many theorists, Wylie (1961), after an extensive review of the literature available, comments: "The paucity of available studies on parent-child interaction is amazing" (p,122).

Self-Perception & School Achievement

The studies involving the interrelationship between the self perception and school achievement are very limited in number and have mainly concentrated on the self-perception of the under-achievers, i.e. students who fail to gain a
reasonable school achievement level as compared to their intellectual capacity. Their self-perception is compared either with the "average" achievers or with that of the "over" achievers.

Watson (1956), using various projective devices, has attempted to compare the self-perception of under-achievers with the average achievers. The sample selected consisted of boys of two intellectually matched groups of 20 each with the I.Q. above 120, but having tremendous difference in the actual school achievement. The under-achievers fell in the lowest quarter of their class while the "average" achievers ranked in the top-half of the class. The sample ranged from the second through the fifth grade.

They were given the Driscoll Playkit consisting of a play house, toy furniture and a doll family. They were also read nine incomplete stories which they were required to finish and were required to prepare a tenth story of their own. From their "play activity" as well as their story endings they were judged on (i) freedom of action, (ii) freedom and adequacy of emotional expression, (iii) feelings of belongingness, (iv) response to environmental stimulation and (v) sex-typing, i.e. the degree of normal "maleness".

The results revealed significant differences between the groups in three out of these five areas. The low achievers revealed their heroes lacking in (i) freedom of
action, (ii) feeling and adequacy of emotional expression, and (iii) response to environmental stimulation.

A similar study undertaken by Mehta (1968) attempted to study the self-perception of bright under-achieving male high school students. This study differs from the previous study in that it has used an inventory, instead of a projective technique, to study the self-perception of the sample.

The sample consisted of bright students selected from the top classes of the high school-going population. They were selected on the basis of their performance on Jalota's Group Test of general mental ability. To overcome the large variability in school marks of different schools, the marks of each student in each subject were converted into standard scores. The Achievement Score for each student was a composite T score obtained by averaging his T scores in all the subjects. On the basis of the distribution of these T scores, the students above 75 were taken as bright-achievers and those below the mean were identified as under-achievers. A special self-perception inventory was constructed of 136 items and it covered the following aspects of the self-concept: (i) feelings of adequacy, (ii) emotional instability, (iii) withdrawal tendencies; (iv) positive attitude toward achievement, prestige and recognition, and (v) self-confidence.

The results revealed significant differences between
the groups in all five dimensions and in the hypothesized direction. A greater proportion of under-achievers than over-achievers was found to express feelings of inadequacy, defeatism and resignation amounting to almost fatalism. The positive aspects of self concept were consistently lacking in terms of lack of ambition, indifferent attitude toward success and very little concern about prestige in the eyes of others.

In terms of interrelation between the self-perception and school achievement, the implications of these studies are obvious. Self-perception includes self-evaluation and self-ideal. This implies that the individual sets certain goals which he considers adequate for himself. Adequate self-perception leads the person toward school achievement level, i.e. within his limits; inadequate self-perception in terms of under-estimation keeps the person always below the level of his actual achievement potential; over-estimation of oneself interferes with the actual goal achievement and leads to frustration. Therefore, self-perception and level of school achievement may be regarded as significantly related.

Self-Perception and Social Class

In this Section, only those studies will be cited that deal directly with the comparison of self-perception of people belonging to different socio-economic groups. Here, also there is dearth of studies that actually concentrate on the comparison, even though there are many studies about the intergroup comparison between various ethnic groups.
Chapman and Yolkman (1939) asked the college students to predict their performance on a literary test about which they knew nothing except the reported performance of other groups of testees. When told, the average score of a group of "literary critics", the individual predictions of their own performance were markedly lower. When they were told the average score of a group of unskilled workers, predictions of their own performance were markedly higher. These fluctuations suggest that one's standards of self-evaluation are in part dependent upon his comparisons of himself with known social reference groups.

This study does not compare social classes as such; it rather compares the influence of contrasting reference (comparison) groups.

Another study concentrated on the comparison of adolescents from lower and middle class homes about their self-acceptance (Himmelwelt, 1955). The Ss selected were 600 British adolescents from lower and middle class. They were investigated intensively through a variety of personality measures including attitude scales, projective tests and open ended interviews. In general, middle-class children showed greater evidence of feelings of overall self acceptance and higher self-esteem than did lower class children. Similar findings have been reported by Sewell & Haller (1956) while working on Elementary School children.

These studies support the hypothesis that the social
class status does have some influence on the self-perception of different class members. The influence, however, is comparatively low, because the class structure as such is not as direct in influencing the behaviour as family of school. Moreover, the consciousness of social class is relatively late to enter the social horizon of the child because children during the early years lack the "class consciousness" as defined by adults. Its effect, therefore, is nebulous that is difficult to be pinpointed in terms of specific stimuli. In spite of this, the all pervading effect of social class cannot be completely ignored. In studying the social class as an independent variable, the scientist has to keep in mind the age level of his sample.

Another factor determining the degree of influence of class-consciousness on self-perception, is the degree of heterogeneity existing in society. Heterogeneity means there are a great number of sub-classes within the main social structure well defined in terms of social roles and obligations, each occupying a definite position in social hierarchy and defining the status (position) of its members. Mobility in terms of change of membership from one class to another is usually difficult though not impossible. Societies in which class discrimination is comparatively less, the class status may not be an important variable in influencing self-perception; on the other hand, societies that are highly "status conscious" are likely to influence the attitudes of their members about their class membership. So far, no
comparative studies have been reported on the influence of the "simple" vs "complex" societies on self-perception. In the present study, therefore, "social class" is taken as an independent variable to compare the influence of homogeneous vs heterogeneous social structure on self-perception.

III. REVIEW OF VARIOUS METHODS STUDYING THE SELF-PERCEPTION

Before embarking upon the discussion of individual methods employed to study the self-perception, it is necessary to bring out their common features:

1. Most of these methods depend upon the conscious knowledge of the individual about himself and hence rely upon the verbal or written responses of the respondents.

2. These methods, generally aim at studying the interrelationships among various aspects of the self; and the influence of certain personality and environmental variables on the self-perception.

3. These methods are used to study the self-perception of both the normal as well as emotionally disturbed subjects.

4. Most of the studies have been confined to the senior high school and college students; Even though some attempts have been made to study the self-perception of young children about the age of four years.
5. Most of these methods are correlational in nature, even though certain experimental techniques too have been used.

A critical review of these features is given by Wylie (1962).

The Q-Sort Technique

One of the most commonly used techniques for assessing the self-perception is the Q-Sort developed by Stephenson (1935). Here, a large number of items describing various aspects of personality are sorted by the Ss into seven or nine piles, which are arranged on a continuum according to the degree to which the S thinks they are characteristic of him. The Ss are forced by the instruction to place a specified number of items in each pile so as to yield a quasi-normal distribution of the items, e.g. if there are 44 items then the S is instructed to observe the following pattern of distribution:

2. 4. 8. 16. 8. 4. 2

The first righthand pile represents the traits "most like me". Still next pile stands for those traits that are "usually like me" and so on, till the last pile includes only those traits that are "Never like me". The quasi-normal distribution is based on the assumption of the normal distribution of any personality trait in a population. On the basis of this assumption, it can be argued that within any individual there should be certain traits existing at
their extreme degree, certain traits existing in moderate
degree and certain traits existing at their minimum or
virtually absent. By asking the S to distribute the
personality traits in the manner of normal distribution
he is, in fact, asked to show the extreme as well as the
average traits of his personality as perceived by himself.

Once the S has distributed the cards into the prescribed
number of piles that would bring out his self-perception,
he is instructed again to distribute the cards keeping in
mind what he would like to be. The principle of distribu-
tion is the same. By studying the difference between two
distributions the psychologist is able to find out the
degree of discrepancy between the Ss' actual self-perception
and self-ideal. Greater the discrepancy, greater the
maladjustment.

The Q-sort has been successfully used to study the
discrepancy between the self-perception and self-ideal;
one's personality traits as perceived by oneself and as
one thinks they are being perceived by one's parents,
friends, teachers and so on. It is also used to study the
effect of psychotherapy, where the S is required to Q-sort
before and after the therapy. Various studies using
Q-sort to compare different aspects of personality have been
discussed by Wylie (1962).

The method has certain limitations:
1. It can be used only with such Ss as are capable of adequate introspection and discrimination. This naturally excludes children, mentally disturbed, very aged and mentally retarded.

2. It cannot be administered as a Group Test. As an individual test, it is highly time consuming. Its wide spread use, therefore, cannot be recommended.

3. Some persons, highly deviant from the normal (but not abnormal) may perceive themselves to possess a larger number of traits as most like him and a few rather unlike this, giving a \( \sim \) shaped distribution in them. For such persons, Q-Sort is not useful. This method is limited for its use only with those persons who perceive their traits to be normally distributed.

In spite of these limitations, this method has been successfully used by Butler and Haigh (1954) and Rogers and Dymond (1954) to study the effect of psychotherapy on self perception. Till now about more than 30 sets of items for Q-Sorts have been developed by different research workers. A detailed account is given in Wylie (1962).

**Adjective Check-List**

In this method, all the available personality traits are arranged on a continuum in pairs of opposite personality traits with a neutral point remaining in between them. The S is required to mark any step he thinks
is best describing him,

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textbf{e.g. Honest} ----- \textbf{Dishonest}
  \item \textbf{Regular} ----- \textbf{Irregular}
\end{itemize}

Each interval step is usually given some numerical value and the total score consists of the summation of all the individual item scores obtained by the \textit{S}. The best known instrument of this type in the study of self-perception is The Interpersonal Check-list developed by Laforge and Suczek (1955). It is mainly used to study existing self-evaluation, self-ideal and the discrepancy between the two. Other workers using this method are: Alfort (1958), Linton and Graham (1959), McKee and Sheriffs (1959), Sarbin and Jones (1955) and Sarbin and Rosenberg (1959).

A successful use of the check list depends upon the following considerations:

1. Each and every personality trait is properly defined and explicitly described to make its meaning clear to the \textit{S}, otherwise it may generate mechanical responses.

2. The number of Step Intervals should be decided in advance. Very few intervals would miss the finer differences of the trait to be measured. Too many intervals would demand very superior precision and discrimination from the respondents which most of them would be incapable of doing.
3. The basic assumption of this method is that each and every human trait has its natural opposite. This method is adequate in the case of only those traits that fulfill this requirement. Hence, the adjective check list can be used, only when a Segmental Study of Self-perception is aimed at; for an all-inclusive approach to Self-perception, this method cannot be recommended.

Projective Techniques

Projective technique, as defined by English and English (1958), is a procedure for discovering a person's characteristic modes of behaviour (his attitudes, motivations or dynamic traits) by observing his behaviour in response to a situation that does not elicit or compel a particular response. To achieve this objective, the situation is deliberately kept ambiguous. The most extensive use of projective techniques has been done by psychoanalytically oriented psychologists. It appears contradictory to discuss projective techniques in connection with the study of self-perception because, traditionally they are associated with the study of the unconscious. The self-perception by definition emphasizes only the conscious aspect of personality. These techniques, therefore, cannot be used fruitfully in this field.

In spite of this limitation, there are many studies on different aspects of self-perception that have partly or
fully utilized these techniques. The use is justified on the following grounds:

1. The use of the projective technique does not necessarily imply the exploration of the unconscious process. As has been pointed out by Shaffer and Lazarus (1952), the purpose of the projective technique is not simply to explore the unconscious aspect of personality; rather it is to bring out those aspects of personality about which the person is not clear, his views are not crystallized and would feel guilty while expressing before the clinical psychologist. In other words, the projective technique is not invariably associated with the unconscious rather it is also associated with those nebulous areas of personality about which the person though conscious, is not clear or would not like to express frankly (Seltiz, Jhahoda et al, 1952). Projective tests attempt to identify a person's motives and mechanisms by introducing an ambiguous stimulus of some kind for interpretation.

The use of projective techniques in the study of the mental processes other than the unconscious has been more and more undertaken by the psychologists who belong to the transactional school of thought. A number of psychologists have concentrated on the study of motivation through the study of perception. Best known studies have been conducted by Murphy (1942), Bruner
and Postman (1949) and McClelland and Atkinson (1948). Here the only technique used is the projective test.

2. One of the criticisms against Q-Sort, Adjective Checklists and Personality Inventories (to be discussed later) is that they limit the choice of the S to the number of statements already prepared by the research worker (Shaffer and Lazarus, 1952). The overall integrative picture of personality is difficult to assess from the responses given to these techniques. The projective techniques give greater freedom to the S in expression that reveals the personality dynamics as a whole.

3. Compared to the other techniques, the projective techniques are more "disguised". The Ss, who are more self-conscious or deliberately want to 'cheat', would be better handled by this method. The degree of "disguise" may differ in various techniques, the ISB may be regarded to contain it to the minimum level while the Rorschach Test, to the maximum, and the TAT coming in between. The Ss cannot fake responses due to the absence of face validation in various projective techniques. Failure to make out the intent of the question does not enable them to give "Good" responses and not the correct ones. It is assumed that the Ss, when not knowing the direct interpretation of their responses are able to perform more naturally than it would be otherwise.
4. They are also taken as a validating criterion for the more explicit and transparent tests like the inventories. The Ss given an inventory purported to measure self-perception, they are also given one variety of the projective technique. Degree of correlation between the results of the two is taken as a degree of validity for the inventory. Wylie (1962) has reported a number of studies of this type of cross validation.

5. They are also used along with other techniques as an additional measure to study the self-perception of Ss. Ss are given an inventory, the TAT, the Sentence Completion Test, they are also interviewed and are required to write an essay on "what I think I am?". The results of all these tests are finally integrated to arrive at a more comprehensive picture of the S. Here the use of the projective technique is mainly as a supplementary method.

In the present study an I3B prepared by Rotter and Rafferty (1950) has been used for validating purpose.

Self Report Techniques

This is a kind of paper pencil test in which the S is required to answer a number of questions describing the human behaviour in either 'yes', 'no' or 'don't know'. This is a popular form of personality measurement known as Inventory. It is based on the assumption that it is
possible to translate human personality into a simple test score or a series of scores even though they are based on what the person is willing to say about himself. Freeman (1950) points out that there are probably around 500 or so personality tests and inventories. Many of them are assumed to measure one particular aspect of personality such as neurotic tendency, introversion-extroversion, dominance-submission and adjustment to various fields of society such as family, education, vocation, etc.

Shaffer and Lazarus (1952) have pointed out three major advantages of paper-and-pencil tests over other methods. They are economy, simplicity and objectivity. This method is economical because it can be given to a very large number of people at a time and can be scored within a short time with the help of scoring keys. It is simple because the questions or the statements are comparatively easy to understand and answer for the S and it does not require very special training either for administration or scoring and interpretation. Objectivity emphasizes the direct response by the S and machine scoring without the intermediate interpreter. Because of machine scoring the tester's subjectivity or biases do not enter the interpretation. Shaffer and Lazarus (1952) summarize:

"The objectivity of the inventory has also been a major inducment for Psychologists who have been unhappy with the problem of subjective approaches to personality measurement."
Since the test requires a simple objective answer it may be scored with a minimum of observer error and bias. There is no need to obtain elaborate information about observer agreement, since it must of necessity be nearly perfect. Moreover, since it is so economical in time, it is possible to sample a wide variety of areas.

One person's answers may be readily compared with another's because they are both responding to the same questions. It is possible to obtain a tremendous amount of information concerning how various diagnostic classes of patients, as well as normals, deal with the material.

In spite of these advantages, these techniques are not free from limitations.

1. Transparency of Meaning of the Questions:
   As the test questions are worded in simple language, the S can very easily understand what are the "good" answers and what are the "bad" answers. He can, therefore, produce any kind of personality picture he has intended. The successful use of these techniques, therefore, presupposes a very good rapport with the S. They are to be explained the importance of the test, the significance of their correct answers and are to be assured about the confidentiality of the results. This generally helps in controlling the "faking" in these tests.
2. Dependency Upon the Subject's Knowledge of Himself:
By definition, self-report techniques imply sufficient maturity, self-insight and more or less objective evaluation of one's assets and limitations. This does not exist in young children, mentally retarded or disturbed, or people suffering from brain damage. It is also possible that every person may not have equally accurate knowledge of himself. This test, therefore, is limited in its scope. This is a serious limitation of this technique which every research worker should keep in mind while using it.

3. Literary Requirement:
The Ss selected for this test should be able to read and write at a fairly high level. This is necessary because usually the tests have been developed on the college students. The language of the questions is sometimes very technical for the lay man even though he may be literate. The possible solution to this difficulty is two fold. The Ss included in the preliminary try out of the inventory should include some laymen; at the time of actual administration, the psychologist should remain present to explain any question the S finds difficult to interpret. In extreme cases, it becomes necessary to paraphrase each and every question to the S when the sample is atypical. The mailing method can be recommended only when the sample is highly educated, preferably in the area under investigation.
4. Restricted Freedom:
   It is pointed out that Ss have to select only one answer from the given answers. He cannot show his individual choice if he differs from the given answers. Spencer (1938) has demonstrated the negative reactions developed because of this. Because of this restriction inventories are generally not used to study the personality dynamics. They are mainly used for screening purposes when a number of personality variables are reported by S as perceived by himself. Then it is supplemented by depth interviews and other projective devices. The research worker therefore should restrict his generalizations based on inventories, understanding this limitation.

5. Predictive Validity:
   It has been argued that the predictive validity of inventories is very low. This should restrict its unlimited use, especially in the diagnostic field. This limitation is correct in so far as the criteria against which an inventory is validated are themselves of doubtful validity. If the validating criterion is another inventory of equally doubtful validity, then predictions are bound to be low. Shaffer and Lazarus (1952) have discussed various validating criteria and pointed out that it is not so important a problem to know whether the inventory is validated as much as it is to know it is validated against what.
Today Inventories, are mostly used when a relatively larger size of the sample of normal population is to be assessed for one or more personality traits within a short time span. They are mainly helpful in revealing the existing trends at a particular time, rather than in the dynamics of the development of those trends. They are also used to study the intercorrelation among different personality variables as well as the correlation between personality variables and other social variables. In the present study, the main problem is to study the intercorrelations between the Self-Perception with Perceived Parental Perception (Father and Mother), IQ, School Achievement Level and the Socio-Economic status in the high school going Urban and Rural School children. Therefore, special inventories were constructed for the measurement of self-perception and perceived parental perception (Mother and Father). The procedure of test construction and validation is discussed in the next Chapter.