THEORETICAL ORIENTATION: CONCEPTS OF ASPIRATION, PERSONALITY, SELF CONCEPT AND SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT
Before dealing with the methodological or technical aspects of the study, it would be desirable if one arrives at semantic clarification of the concepts involved in the study namely, aspiration, personality, self concept and school achievement.

In every day usage ambition and aspiration are nearly synonymous and are often used interchangeably. Ambition means an eagerness or an ardent desire to achieve a particular end - rank, fame, honour, superiority or power. Aspiration means a longing for and striving after something higher than one's self or one's present status. This longing may be ennobling or uplifting or it may be unwarranted or presumptuous. In aspiration, the motivation for achievement is improvement, while in ambition the motivation is the end result itself. It is somewhat closer to ambition but more realistic than ambition. Ambition is wider and vaguer than aspiration. Aspiration serves as an active psychological force. Aspiration differs from passive wish fulfilment, phantasies in that, here the individual strives positively towards the goal which is generally in keeping with his assets whereas in wish-fulfilling day dreams, one is just lost in them.
Aspirations are the ego-involved goals a person sets for himself. The more ego involved his aspirations are and the more they relate to areas of behaviour that are important to him, the greater will be their influence on his personality. Aspirations may be positive, negative, immediate, remote, realistic or unrealistic.

What kind of aspirations the person develops is greatly influenced by such factors as intelligence, sex, personal interests and values, family pressures, group expectations, cultural traditions, competition with others, past experience, the mass media and personal characteristics.

Among the many factors which have been found to influence performance requiring skill, knowledge or practice, in the attainment of goals, level of aspiration is one of the most important factors. It has been the subject of numerous researches from many angles as will be shown by the review of the literature dealing with this concept.

Concept of level of aspiration was first studied by Lewin and his students experimentally. According to Lewin behaviour is driven by tensions, moved by forces directed by valances and addressed to goals (Bolles 1967).
According to Hoppe (1930) "Level of aspiration is a person's expectations, goals or claims on his future achievement in a given task - the experience of a performance as a success or failure does not depend alone on its objective goodness, but on whether the level of aspiration appears to be reached or not reached." Some of Hoppe's chief findings were, that the subject's, experiences of success or failure are consequences not so much of absolute goodness of the performance but rather of attainment or non-attainment of the level of aspiration.

Subjects tend to lower or raise future goals depending on their success or failure in previous goals. Experiences of success and failure do not attend tasks which are too easy or too difficult. Hoppe inferred that levels of aspiration are chiefly determined by two sets of opposing principles in the individual (a) Ego forces which tend to set high goals even at the cost of failure, (b) Pleasure principle which seeks success, thus lowering the aspiration level.

Dembo (1931) suggested that the individual's level of aspiration affected his satisfaction with his performance.

According to Frank (1935) the term level of aspiration is defined as the level of future performance
in a familiar task which an individual knowing his level of past performance in the task, explicitly undertakes to reach. By level of past performance is meant the goodness of the individual's past performance as he knows it. It is assumed that the relation of the level of aspiration to the level of past performance at any time depends primarily on the relative strength of the following three needs:

(a) The need to keep the level of aspiration as high as possible regardless of the level of performance taken by itself. This need tends to keep the level of aspiration above the level of past performance.

(2) The need to make the level of aspiration approximate the level of future performance as closely as possible.

(3) The need to avoid failure, where failure is defined as level of performance below the level of aspiration regardless of its absolute goodness, this need tends to drive the level of aspiration below the level of past performance.

Frank found that the presence of ego-involvement as indicated by his two criterion of self-competition and awareness of social pressure is correlated with
divergence of level of aspiration. The aspiration may be higher or lower than the performance when ego involvement is present in terms of the degree of the person's involvement in the quality of his performance.

Level of aspiration represents as accurate as possible an estimate of a person's urge or drive to achieve certain goals or ends as he sees them. While the level of achievement is the sum total of the individual's present attainments as they are inferred by a competent outside observer from the individual's verbal reports and other behaviour (Lurie, 1939).

The early research on level of aspiration indicated that the experience of success or failure depends upon person's aspirations rather than on some objective standard of performance.

In recent usage level of aspiration usually designates goal seeking behaviour of the type where behaviour operates under cognitive influences.

Lewin, Dembo, Festinger and Sears (1944) preferred to give an operational definition of level of aspiration in terms of a sequence of events as follows: "A person has scored six in shooting at a target with ring at the centre. He decides the next time to try for eight.
He attains five, is much disappointed and decides to try the next time to reach six once more. This example contains many of the basic ingredients of behaviour involving Level of aspiration such as, (a) setting of goal, (b) goal attainment or discrepancy, (c) relative success or failure, (d) knowledge of past performance with hope, (e) expectation or drive for future performance and manner of reacting to actual performance. The paradigm can be extended to include other determinants or aspects of Level of aspiration e.g. social norms, reinforcement, difficulty of task, effects of performance in one task upon another, and correlation with other modes of behaviour.

From the variety of conditions found to effect Level of aspiration, it is obvious that it can not be restricted to attainment of goals. We must regard aspiration Level as one of the many factors that influence Performance Level.

Jucknet (1937) investigated the effect of success and failure in one field upon the displacement of the Level of aspiration in another field. She experimented upon some hundreds of school children and showed that success and failure in one field may importantly displace the Level of aspiration in another field upward or downward.

Fajans (1933) investigated success and failure in children from one to four years and infants of six months.
to one year; she found a very considerable displacement of the Level of activity of behaviours; characteriologically rather passive children can be moved by success to a rather active kind of behaviour and characteriologically rather active children can be reduced by failure to a rather passive kind of conduct.

Fajans discussed the relation of success and failure to embarrassment and to "going out of the field". It appears that the attainment of a substitute goal, a consolation and an encouragement is, for the child to a rather considerable degree the equivalent of a genuine success.

Gould (1939) has shown by an extensive Individual Interview technique that the stated Level of aspiration is directly employed by different individuals. For most people Level of aspiration functions as protectors of ego but the form that the protection takes may vary.

It has been shown (Gould, 1939, Sears, 1940, Festinger 1942) that to avoid the feeling of failure after a poor performance, the frame of reference is frequently shifted.

Other ways to avoid failure are various forms of rationalization (Hoppe 1930, Gould 1939), such as blaming a poor instrument for the shortcomings of the performance.

In this way the link between performance and one's own ability is cut, which is as we have seen, one of the
conditions for the phenomenon of aspiration. The relation between the feeling of success and failure, on the one hand and boundary of ability on the other, is operative only if other frames of reference, such as certain group standards do not become dominant.

A basic assumption in Level of aspiration studies is that LA statements mirror the internal aspirational state and that attainment of the Level described by the person produces success and non-attainment generates failure. If one stops to think about it, it seems most odd to believe that a person becomes a success barely when he attains or over attains what he said he would. What he has accomplished by stating a low aspiration level was to avoid being accused of bragging and thereby losing social value. Seen in this light Level of aspiration statements become strategies to avoid a loss in social value rather than a way to reduce fears of non-attainment. They do not mirror private aspirational status but are essentially interpersonal behaviours.

There are other reasons for setting low or high aspirational levels which do not involve the opinions of others. One function of a private goal setting is to convince oneself. If saying becomes believing (Janis and King, 1954), then an announcement to oneself of non-attainment might serve to reduce actual expectations and
thereby reduce the sense of disappointment when non-
attainment becomes a reality. On the other hand, high goal
setting may be used by a person to convince himself
that he could succeed "If only he tried".

According to Siegal (1957) the Level of aspiration
of an individual is a point in the positive region of
his utility scale of an achievement variable, it is at
the least upper bound of that chord (connecting two goals)
which has maximum slope i.e. the Level of aspiration is
associated with the higher of the two goals between
which the rate of change of the utility function is
maximum, in other words Level of aspiration is that goal
which has the largest distance (difference) in utility
between it and the next lower group.

It is the contention of the present writer that
the psychological situation established in Level of
aspiration experiments may profitably be characterized
as a decision situation, for, from the alternative
possible goals the individual must decide for which goal
he will strive. An individual's decisions underlying
his choices among alternatives involving uncertain out-
comes are based on the utilities of the entities
associated with the attainment of the entities. The
decisions are a function of these two variables (1)
utility (2) subjective probability. Hence an individual
seeks by his choices to maximize the sum of the products of probability and utility. Hence each level on an achievement scale has a certain utility for a person and that Level of aspiration may be conceived as a point on a scale of utility.

According to Smith (1961) the Level of aspiration is a goal or achievement gradient which is just above one's functional level of potentialities and is within his maximal capacities.

There is a close relationship between the Level of aspiration and goal setting and motivation.

Goal setting also recently labelled, 'risk taking' in this sense is today used as a synonym for 'Level of aspiration'. It is customary to understand Level of aspiration as the defined, absolute Level of goal pursued in performing a given task. The 'laws of shifting' (upward after success and downward after failure) however, are not meaningful from the point of view of motivational psychology. It is more productive to understand Level of aspiration as a relatively defined goal as a variation in the goal related to attained performance Level - "Goal Discrepancy".

According to Frank (1935) various motivational tendencies operate with differing weights from one person to another.
P.S. Sears (1940) used 10 and 12 year old Ss who were pupils striving for high achievement. Based on their standing in school, she divided them into success and failure groups. Successful pupils preferred to set realistic moderate goals while unsuccessful pupils selected either speculatively extreme or over-cautiously low goals (Jucknet, 1937).

Career goals have also been used as indicators of Level of aspiration. Mahone (1960) found that failure motivated adolescents make more unrealistic career choices than do success motivated adolescents, the career choices are either above or below their ability to achieve them.

Miner and Neel (1958) found that highly motivated persons throughout have a higher occupational Level of aspiration. In this respect, the demands for one's best performance are more decisive than the mere prestige of an occupation.

Success motivated Ss more than failure motivated Ss tend to lower their goals after failure and they have a more extended achievement related future time perspective (Heckhausen, 1963).

In general, the researches on the Level of aspiration can be put under three groups.
(1) In the first, one can include all those investigations where the main aim has been in determining principles applicable to the theory of personality.

(2) In the second group we can put those studies in which it has been used as a technique whose reliability and validity and assumptions have been attended to while interpreting its results.

(3) In the third group can be included such researches wherein this technique has been tried to investigate other personality variables also.

Factors Determining the Level of Aspiration

The factors determining a change in the Level of aspiration are manifold: (a) Jucknet (1937) found that with children from 9 to 15 years and with adults the distinction and the amount of the change in the Level of aspiration depends upon the degree of success and failure. In addition, within a given series of tasks the discrepancy is smaller for the same amount of success and greater for the same amount of failure, the closer the previous Level of performance comes to the extreme of the series of difficulties.

(b) The level of aspiration is much influenced by social pressure. In a situation of competition it might be increased (J.D. Frank, 1935).
(c) The knowledge of group standards may affect the Level of aspiration (Festinger, 1942). For instance the discrepancy between aspiration and performance increases towards a higher Level of aspiration if the person learns that his performance is below the standard of his own group or of a group which he considers to be lower. The discrepancy decreases if the opposite conditions obtain.

(d) The Level of aspiration is affected also by the degree of realistic judgement about one's own ability (J.D. Frank, 1935).

P. Sears (1940) found the average positive discrepancy (that is the amount by which the Level of aspiration exceeds past performance) to be greater in children after failure than after success, indicating a greater degree of realism after success than after failure. For the same individual, the direction and amount of discrepancy seem to be constant to a certain degree for a number of activities (J.D. Frank, 1935; P. Sears, 1940; Gardner, 1939).

P. Sears (1940) and Jucknet (1937) found the discrepancy to be greater in children of poor standing than in children of good standing in school. The influence of success in one ability on the Level of aspiration in another is slight, if the child has already found out his ability in the latter.
The Level of aspiration is closely related to the time perspective with respect to both the Psychological Past and the Psychological Future.

According to Escalona (1940) the Level of aspiration at a given time depends upon the strength of the valence of success and failure and upon the probability of success at that time. By representing this probability as the potency of the future success or failure situation, the basic facts concerning the Level of aspiration can be understood (Lewin, Dembo, Festinger and Sears, 1944).
There are few words in the English language that have such a fascination for the general public as the term Personality. Although the word is used in various senses, most of these popular meanings fall under one of two headings: The first usage equates the term to social skill 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 in others. A person may thus be said to have an "aggressive personality" or a "submissive personality" or a "fearful personality" etc.

While the diversity in ordinary use of the word personality may seem considerable, it is overshadowed by the variety of meanings with which the psychologist has endowed this term.

In fact no substantive definition of personality can be applied with any generality as the way in which a given individual will define personality will depend completely upon his particular theoretical preference. Once the individual has created or adopted a given theory of
personality his definition of personality will be rather clearly implied by the theory.

In an attempt to find out an operational definition of personality for this study, a few definitions would be analysed.

According to Hall and Lindzey "Personality consists concretely of a set of values or descriptive terms which are used to describe the individual being studied according to the variable or dimensions which occupy a central position within the particular theory described." (1964).

According to Thorpe and Schmuller, "An adequate definition of Personality needs to emphasize the point that the individual is a human being enmeshed in a social order - and symbolic culture - which influences his every action." (1965).

Allport defined Personality as, "Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psycho-physical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment." (1937).

Cattell equates personality with the individual aspects of behaviour and directs his attention to the behaviour of individual and maintains that it should have predictive power. His definition runs as follows:
"Personality is that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation .... Personality is concerned with all the behaviour of the individual both overt and under the skin." (1956). Cattell views personality as a complex and differentiated structure of 'traits', with its motivation largely dependent upon a subset of these, the so-called 'dynamic traits'. For him a trait is a "mental structure" and inference that is made from observed behaviour to account for regularity or consistency in this behaviour.

Cattell agrees with Allport in suggesting that there are "common traits" that are possessed by all individuals, or at least by all individuals who share certain social experiences. Moreover, he would argue that there are 'unique traits' that apply only to a particular individual and can be found in no other person in just that form.

Central to Cattell's point of view is the distinction between "surface traits", which represent clusters of manifest, overt, variables that seem to go together and 'source traits', which represent underlying variables that enter into the determination of multiple surface manifestations. Cattell considers source traits more important than the surface traits.

This follows not only because the source traits promise greater economy of description, as there are
fewer of them but more importantly because ... the source traits promise to be the real structural influences underlying personality which it is necessary for us to deal within developmental problems, psychosomatics and problems of dynamic integration.... As research is now showing, these source traits correspond to real unitary influences – physiological temperamental factors, degrees of dynamic integration, exposure to social institutions – about which much more can be found out once they are defined (Cattell, 1950).

Clearly, any single trait may represent the outcome of the operation of environmental factors, hereditary factors, or some mixture of the two. Cattell suggests that while surface traits must represent the outcome of a mixture of these factors it is at least possible that source traits may be divided into those that reflect heredity or constitutional factors and those derived from environmental factors. The traits that result from the operation of environmental conditions are called environmental-mold traits and those that reflect hereditary factors are called constitutional traits.

According to Cattell there are three major sources of data about personality: the life record or life data, the self rating questionnaire, or Q data and the objective...
test or T-data. The first of these involves actual records of the person's behaviour in society. Q-data involves the person's own statements about his behaviour and thus can provide a 'mental interior' to the external record yielded by L-data. T-data is based on special situations in which the person's behaviour may be objectively scored.

Cattell has sought to locate general traits of personality by conducting separate factor analytic studies using all three of the above data sources, on the assumption that if the same source traits emerged from all three this would provide strong presumptive evidence that the source traits were true functional units and not mere artifacts of method.

It is sometimes bemoaned that the factor analyst reduces the personality interactions to additive ones, whereas, in fact, they may be multiplicative or catalytic in some sense. It can not be doubted that there are likely to be instances where one factor does not merely add itself to another but greatly facilitates the second factor.... Related to this is the general assumption of linearity, whereas again it is likely that in some cases the relation of the factor to the performance will be curvilinear. Properly regarded these limitations are stimuli to fresh inquiry, but not criticisms of the factor
analytic method as such. One must walk before he can run. The fact is that the factor-analytic model in its present simple form certainly seems to give better predictions and greater constancy of analysis than in any other design that has been tried. As it progresses, it will doubtless become modified to meet the special needs of the possibilities just indicated (Cattell, 1956).

Cattell and his associates have carried out factor-analytic studies of personality at both adult and child levels. In an effort to develop devices capable of measuring the same personality factors at different ages, ranging from four-five years to adulthood although there is a tendency to obtain fewer factors at the younger ages. As all psychologists know it is difficult to be sure that purposed measures of the "same" trait at different ages are in fact measuring the same thing, a difficulty produced by the fact that one expects a particular aspect of the personality to be expressed through somewhat different behaviour at different ages. Cattell has suggested that one way of dealing with this predicament is to carry out bridging studies with intermediate age groups. Thus he has compared separately factored adult and eleven year old.

Versions of his personality questionnaire by giving both to an intermediate group of sixteen year olds
(Cattell and Beloff, 1953) the results were somewhat equivocal.

For the present study for the measurement of directly measurable aspects of personality, Cattell's definition and theory of personality has been accepted as a working definition of personality. Cattell's theory of personality being based upon factor analysis reflects current psychological emphasis upon quantitative methods. Guilford, Eysenck and Cattell as well as other working in this area have shown a ready inclination to convert their theoretical ideas into empirical steps.

In an area of psychology that has been characterized by sensitivity and subjectivity, factor theorists have introduced a welcome area by tough mindedness and emphasis upon the concrete. The factor theory puts forwards a simple and lucid set of dimensions on factors.

Not only is the factor theory economical and explicit in its formulations but it is also operational.

Whereas most personality theorists have arrived at their conception of the crucial personality variables through a process that is largely intuitive and unspecificied, Cattell's theory of personality provides an objective and replicable procedure for finding out the underlying variables.

The main personality factors that Cattell considers reasonably well established in both L and Q data as far as
the measurement of the personality of high school children is concerned are listed below.

**Brief Description of the 14 HSPQ Personality factors**

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<tr>
<th>Low score description</th>
<th>Alphabetic designation of factor</th>
<th>High score description</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Reserved, Detached, Critical</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>Warm hearted, outgoing, easy going, participating.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Less intelligent, concrete thinking of lower scholastic mental capacity</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>More intelligence, abstract thinking, bright, of higher scholastic mental capacity.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Affected by feelings, emotionally less stable, easily upset, changeable, of lower ego strength</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>Emotionally stable, mature, faces reality calm, of higher ego strength.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Obedient, mild, easily led accommodating, submissive</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>Assertive, competitive, aggressive-stubborn and dominant.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Disregards rules, Expedient, has weaker super ego strength</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>Conscientious, Persistent, Moralistic, Staid, Has stronger super ego strength.</td>
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<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<td>10. Zestful, likes</td>
<td>J</td>
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<tr>
<td>group action</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. Self</td>
<td>Assured, Placid, O</td>
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<tr>
<td>secure, Complacent,</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Untroubled</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>12. Sociably, group</td>
<td>Q2</td>
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<tr>
<td>dependent, A 'Joiner'</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>and Sound follower</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>13. Uncontrolled, Lax,</td>
<td>Q3</td>
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<tr>
<td>follows own urges, careless of social</td>
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<tr>
<td>rules, Has low integration.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>14. Relaxed, Tranquil,</td>
<td>Q4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Torpid, Unfrustrated,</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Composed.</td>
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The investigator did not take all the fourteen factors of personality of HSPQ (High school personality questionnaire) for study instead only eight were selected, which were thought to be having some relation with the main variable which is parental aspiration.

Following is the description of those eight factors:

Factor C

This factor is one of dynamic integration and maturity as opposed to uncontrolled, disorganized, general emotionality. The pattern has been shown to exist among normals as well as groups of neurotics, and in the latter has been called by Eysenck (1953), "general neuroticism", Circumspect, individualism, Reflective, Internally restrained.

Apprehensive, Self-reproaching, Insecure, Worrying, Guilt Prone.

Self sufficient, Prefers own decisions, resourceful.

Controlled, Socially Precise, Self-disciplined, Compulsive. Has high self concept, control.

Tense, Driven, Overwrought, Frustrated, Fritful? Fretful?
though research now shows it to be characteristically low in all kinds of clinical disorders. In its positive sense, it seems to be what the psychoanalysts have attempted to describe by the notion of Ego strength and weakness. In the questionnaire manifestation, the C-persons is easily annoyed by things and people, is dissatisfied with the world situation, his family, the restrictions of life and his own health, and he feels unable to cope with life. He shows generalized neurotic responses in the form of phobias, psycho-somatic disturbances, sleep disturbances and hysterical and obsessional behaviour.

Factor C appears to be the core also of what is viewed as capacity for frustration tolerance.

**Factor D**

This factor has some behaviour in common with C- but it is different in more immediate "temperamental" quality of the excitability, by a mind wandering distractibility, by insecurity, and by an irreversible positive, assertive emphasis in its emotionality e.g. an irrepressible impulsiveness. The D+ individual is restless sleeper, easily distracted from work by noise or intrinsic difficulty, is hurt and angry if not given important positions or whenever he is restrained or punished and so on.

Similarly, the high D scoring individual, though likable and affectionate in quieter moods, is apt to be
regarded as a considerable nuisance in restrictive situations, since he is so "impulsive". As Pierson (1964) has shown, delinquents tend to be high on D, though if this is the prime cause of their trouble the outlook for recovery is good.

Factor E

Dominance has been investigated by Maslow (1954), Allport (1961) and others in human beings and in animals. It has different leading pattern for men than for women. In either sex high dominance may lead to disobedience, head strong self will, independence and creativity of mind and anti-social behaviour. But the trait is not always rated undesirable.

From the ascendence - submission studies with Allport's test, Dominance is positively correlated with social status and both Allports and Cattell's results show it to be somewhat higher in leaders than in followers (Cattell, 1960).

Both extremes on the dimension pose problems for adjustment. High score (dominance) is part of delinquency-behaviour problem pattern in teen agers, but very low score is also 'pathological' for it occurs in neurotics (Cattell and Scheier, 1961).
Factor P

This is one of the most important components in extraversion (which is a second order composite of several source traits). At one time it was thought that this was largely a "state" of elation or of depression - but it is now clear that it represents a relatively fixed trait of seriousness, caution, and subduedness at the F-(desurgent). Pole and of debonair, happy-go-lucky light heartedness at the F+ (surgent) pole.

Research on origins show that surgent persons have generally had an easier, less punishing, more optimism creating environment, as they have acquired this more happy-go-lucky attitude through less exacting aspirations and indulgent, secure family atmosphere. Desurgent individuals have generally been brought up with more severe, exacting standards and difficult conditions.

Desurgency is also found with many chronic physical and mental illness. Desurgent children tend to be rated as secretive and day dreaming, with a proneness to nail-biting. The oldest child tends to be more desurgent and the youngest more surgent.

Factor H

Clinically, this is conceived as the temperament which in stress, shows proneness to schizoid disorders,
proneness to tuberculosis, ulcers etc. Such clinical associations are statistically supported while there is some evidence that the opposite pole H+ is associated with more heart attacks (Ostfield, 1964).

The H-individual is intensely shy, having unreasonable sense of inferiority, slow and impeded in expressing himself, disliking occupations with personal contacts, preferring one or two close friends to large groups. H-individual has initially an over responsive sympathetic nervous system which makes him especially 'threat reactive'.

The H+ person on the other hand shows little inhibition by environmental threat and is rated "lazy" in childhood and "thick skinned in social interaction. H+ person "feels free to participate" in group situations. H+ tends to increase with age as people become less "shy".

Factor Q

Earlier adjustment questionnaires have applied such terms as "Depressive tendency", "Moodiness", 'Emotional sensitivity', 'Self-depreciation' and even 'Neuroticism' to this factor and all these labels have some aptness. O+ person feels overfatigued by exciting situations and has a sense of inferiority and inadequacy in meeting the rough daily demands of life. He is unable to sleep
through worrying, is easily downhearted, and especially remorseful and guilty. His inclination to piety, points to guilt proneness in him. In addition, he gets emotionally upset by pressure from authority, and prefers books and quiet interests to people and noise.

In children, fears as well as a feeling of inadequacy and loneliness are prominent for O* scores (Cattell, 1957 and King, 1948).

Clinically, O is very important, first as one of the largest factors in Anxiety, and secondly as a tendency to be high in neurotics, alcoholics and many psychotics notably in non-paranoid schizophrenics (Cattell, Tatro and Komlos, 1964, 1965).

**Factor Q3**

According to loaded items, the Q3 + person shows socially approved character responses, self control, persistence, foresight, considerateness of others, conscientiousness and regard for etiquette and social reputation.

In group dynamics, a high Q3 score especially picks out persons who will be shown as leaders (Cattell and Stice, 1954). High Q3 is associated with success in mechanical, mathematical and productive organizational activities. The experimental evidence that Q3 correlates
with the self-sentiment, as independently measured by objective interest devices in the school Motivation Analysis Test (SMAT) and Motivation Analysis Test (MAT) agrees with the theory that Q3 expresses the degree to which the individual has adopted and invested his interest in an ideal "self regarding sentiment". This is to say, it represents the degree to which he directs his behaviour by reference to the concept of himself which he wants others to have of him and which he believes represents his real potential (Cronbach, 1956).

Clinically, it is of special interest as negatively loaded in the general anxiety second order factor.

**Factor Q4**

Children and adults scoring high on Q4 describe themselves as irrationally worried, tense, irritable, and in turmoil. They feel frustrated and are sensitively aware of being criticised by parents for untidiness, phantasy and neglect of good goals.

Some superficial resemblance can be noticed to Factor D, but the actual correlational connections of Q4 are rather with C, ego weakness and O+ guilt proneness, with which it shares strong common contribution to the pool of the anxiety second order factor (Cattell, 1960). Clinically Q4 strongly shares with O the capacity to differentiate neurotics from normals, for it is one of the three highest loaded factors in general anxiety.
SELF CONCEPT

The term Self-concept is so widely used in the field of education and psychology that it can be generally understood as the person's ideas, feelings and attitudes about one's self. By way of formal definition, self concept is the person's total appraisal of his appearance, background and origins, abilities, resources, attitudes and feelings which culminate as a directing force in behaviours (La Benne, Green, 1969). The concept of self is regarded as one of the main aspects of personality. In fact it is the mid point of personality and provides it with unity, equilibrium and stability.

Murphy (1947) said that a large part of behaviour that constitutes personality is self-oriented behaviour. Glanz and Watson (1958) say that what a person does or how he behaves is determined by his self-concept. The understanding of the self is the factor that makes various behaviours consistent, controllable and to some extent predictable. Self concept gives meaning to behaviour. Not only do the behaviour and self concept go together and have mutual interaction, but all behaviour is motivated and it is caused.

The study of self-concept is essential because it is a product of complex social milieu and one must find one's self in social setting. As Gale (1969) puts it,
the self is essentially a learned social product arising out of the experiences with the people, parents, siblings, relatives, peers and the general community with the settings of social cultural milieu. Gale views self as multifacel self, viz., the motivational self, emotional and feeling self, socio-cultural, and attitudinal self, physical and psycho-sexual self, intellectual self and learning self.

Symonds (1951) said that the self constitutes the ways in which the individual reacts to himself. It consists of four aspects (1) How a person perceives himself, (2) What he thinks of himself (3) how he values himself (4) how he attempts through various actions to enhance or defend himself. According to Symonds there is a considerable interaction between the self and the ego. If the ego processes are effective in coping with both inner demands and outer reality then the person tends to think well of himself.

Herbert Mead (1934) set forth a conception of the self that has had a strong impact upon psychological thinking. Mead's self is an object of awareness rather than a system of processes. It is a society formed self. It can arise only in a social setting where there is social communication.
Mead suggests that many selves may develop, each of which represents a more or less separate set of responses acquired from different social groups. For instance, the person may develop a family self which represents a structure of attitudes expressed by his family; a school self which represents attitudes expressed by his teachers and fellow pupils, and many other selves.

Sherif (1962) uses the terms ego and self, interchangeably.

Sherif and Centrill (1947) maintain that when the ego (self) attitudes are activated they energize direct and control the person's behaviour. Ego-attitudes are more effective motivators of behaviour than the non-ego motives.

Rogers (1959) said that self or self-concept denotes the organized, consistent conceptual gestalt composed of perceptions of the characteristics of the '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. It is a gestalt which is available to awareness though not necessarily in awareness. It is a fluid and changing gestalt, a process but at any given moment it is a specific entry. The self develops out of the organisms interaction with the environment and introjects the values
of other people. It strives for both interpersonal and interpersonal consistency, and experiences not consistent with the self are perceived as threats. In addition to the self as it is (the self structure), there is an Ideal self which is what the person would like to be. If the discrepancy between self and Ideal self is large, the person is dissatisfied and maladjusted.

Chein (1944) formulated a unified theory of ego and the self.

The self is not an object of awareness as the body is; rather it is the content of awareness and has no reality apart from such awareness. The self does not do anything; that is left to the ego. The ego is a motivational cognitive structure which is built around the self. The ego's motives and ideas serve the purpose of defending, extending, enhancing and perceiving the self. When the self is endangered, the ego comes to its assistance. However, not all of one's motives and thoughts are included in the ego. There is a non ego part of personality which also determines action. Consequently, some activities are ego-involved and others are not.

Hilgard (1949) meant by self - one's image of himself. "To feel guilty is to conceive of the self as an agent capable of good or bad choices. It thus appears that at the point that anxiety becomes infused with guilt-
feelings, self-reference enters. If we are to understand a person’s defences against guilt feelings, we must know something about his image of himself”.

Aspects of Self

Unconscious Aspects of the Self: For Sartain et al. (1958)... the self picture is .... more or less conscious aspect of the self. But the self also has unconscious but very real aspects. They also suggest the success of the unconscious elements. In the first place simply because we have not had the occasion to think of them, they may never have been challenged or attacked, so that upto the present we have accepted them without questioning. In the second place they may develop because we refuse to face them; we may forcibly put out of mind the unworthy impulses. Finally, there are some occasions when we do not recognize very favourably facts about ourselves, simply because they seem improbable to us.

Conscious Aspects of Self: are those which the individual is aware of. Smith (1961) talks of the Ideal, the Perceived and Real selves. Ruth strong (1957) refers to four dimensions of the self – the Basic Self concept i.e. perceived, the transitory perception of self, the social self and the ideal self.

Material self or Bodily Self – According to James (1950) the body is the inner most part of the material
self in each of us; and certain parts of the body seem more intimately ours than the rest.

Perceived Self - Strong (1957) defines it as individual's perception of his abilities and his status and roles in outer world. This is his concept of the kind of person he thinks he is.

Real Self or the Actual Self - Real self is what we actually are. A person is aware of some aspects but unaware of other aspects of his personality. The real self includes both what he is aware of and what he is not aware of it - it is the perceived self plus the unconscious self.

The Ideal Self - The Ideal self is part wish and Part "ought", the standard to be reached, remarks Staines (1971). Smith (1961) defines the ideal self as what we would like to be. It is regarded as the highest Level of the self and provides a standard against which the rest of the self is judged. Strong (1957) regards this self as the kind of person the individual hopes to be. Jonnard (1963) says the ideal self refers to a set of beliefs which an individual holds concerning how he should behave (beliefs as "self-expectations" or "self-demands").

Social Self - The Social self or the other self as Staines (1971) calls it, is our awareness of the way others
think of us. For James, Man's social self is the recognition he gets from his mates - (and) .... a man has as many social selves as there are individuals who recognize him and carry an image of him in their mind.

Spiritual Self - James (1910) writes "By the spiritual one' so far as it belongs to the empirical', I mean no one of my passing states of consciousness. I mean rather the entire collection of my states of consciousness my psychic faculties and disposition taken concretely." He finds these psychic dispositions as the most enduring and intimate part of the self.

Functions of the self Concept

(1) Self-evaluation e.g. Am I behaving well or poorly, honourably or dishonourably?

(2) Prediction of success or failure in the various activities in which one engages, thus information providing and data processing.

(3) Serving various personal survival, obtaining acceptance and social personal comfort, self-enhancement (such as gaining power and prestige) achieving personal competence and self-actualization.

(4) Inner or outer determined. By this is meant whether one's behaviour is insti-gated and rewarded
primarily by his own value and reward system or he reacts entirely according to external instigations and rewards.

**School Achievement**

According to Traverse the term *Achievement* refers to any desirable learning. Academic achievement has been considered as an important factor in life. Academic development shows through gradual progress in achievement from year to year. Achievement encompasses enhancement, "Self actualization, self improvement and some form of competitiveness (Maslow, 1954).

Success in school, says Strong (1967) may have a pervasive effect on the student's personality. As a young person improves his achievement, he develops his powers and his self confidence increases, the way pupils apply themselves is an important factor in scholastic achievement. School achievements in this study signify the average number of marks obtained by the students in their final examinations.