

CHAPTER II

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CONCEPTUAL FRAME WORK AND

REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCHES

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2.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with conceptual foundations of the variables which the investigator has selected for her study. It includes concept and theory of the self, consonance / dissonance and academic motivation. It also describes the concept of academic and non-academic performance.

The investigator further reviews the researches of the factors related to self-concept, academic achievement and motivation of the pupils. The study of these variables has been a problem of continuing interest to the researchers. Since 1960 there has been a fresh and invigorating amount to research into the relationship between the self-concept and academic achievement.

One of the earliest comprehensive reviews of studies in the field of academic achievement was made by Harris (1931). He summarised the results of the past investigation dealing with school as well as college grades concentrating on factor other than intelligence. Such factors as attitudes, study habits, interests, co-curricular activities, age, health, outside work, recreation and personality etc. were attempted. Over the years many more correlates of academic performance have been studied by a large number of researchers.

Whereas the output of research on academic motivation is rather scant in India. The pioneering work in this area in India and in Gujarat particularly, is done by Desai. Desai (1970) obtained the permission of Frymier to translate his tool the JIM Scale in Gujarati and administer it to the pupils of the schools in Gujarat State. He studied the JIM score of 275 pupils from eight schools of Gujarat State. The score range varied from 79.3 to 119.4. Efforts were also made to study the effects of achievement motivation development on the pupils' motivation towards school. Frymier (1970) who developed the Junior Index of Motivation (JIM) conceptualised the whole gamut of pupils' attitude towards school. It includes such areas as an individual's attitude towards school, the extent to which the value, which attributed to ideas, his concern for material things, his personal determination and his attitudes towards himself are among other things.

In this chapter a review is presented of some researches dealing with the co-relational, comparative and experimental which have relevant to the present study. While reviewing the various studies, results of the findings, rather than theories and methodologies have been given greater weightage. Attempt has, however, been made to describe methodology wherever new or different approach appeared to have been undertaken. Some attempts at the synthesis of research results have been made whenever such generalizations seemed possible.

2.2 Self-Concept

(A) Concept :

(i) The Self - Self-Concept (Self-Image) : The 'Self' is the tendency to regard oneself as an object. The term 'self-concept' is an abbreviated way of saying 'attitudes towards and conception about one's self'. Our world is populated by many people, we observe but we do not know, a moderate number we know casually, and a few we know quite well. The people we know well are distinguished from the less well-known by the fact that we not only possess more information about them, but also have an interrelated and more or less integrated set of feelings and attitudes regarding them. Furthermore, we tend to think of them as occupying positions and playing roles in a miniature social system. At the center of that social system is the person we know best, ourselves. This self represents an individual like the others we know, but differs from the others in the sense that it has greater value and created perceptual images for us.

George Herbert Mead (1934) observed that the self is a product of our symbolic interaction with others and that we can perceive ourselves only as a reflection in the eyes of another. MEAD drew heavily on the writing of C.H.Cooley (1902), who described our tendency to use others as a kind of looking glass in which we can view ourselves. 'In Imagination', he wrote, 'we perceive in another's mind some thought of our appearance.'

manners, aims, deeds, character, friends, and so on, and are variously affected by it.'

The analogy to the looking glass, however, falls somewhat short of how we actually respond to the imagined percepts of others. The looking glass is a neutral and uncritical agent, whereas, what others perceive in us is affected by the bias of what they are prepared to perceive, and what we think they perceive is further distorted by our own perceptual bias.

The 'self' may thus be thought of as an 'image' - the impression it makes on others, and the impression it makes on ourselves, as perceived in terms of the impression we think it makes on others. The self in this sense is referred to at times as the 'self-image', a term which is sometimes used as synonymous with 'self-concept'. Strictly speaking, however, self-image refers more to the impression aspects of the self, whereas self-concept includes the idea of impression but also such other aspects as attitudes, values, motives, goals, expectations and the like.

(ii) The Role Relationships and ^{the} Self : The first pair of roles in which we are involved is of course, the infant - mother relationship. By the time the child has developed any inkling of his self as an object, he is already launched into a more complex set of role relationships : those of his immediate family. Through their evaluations and re-actions to him, he

learns to evaluate himself and his own behaviour. He not only becomes an object to himself but he also tends to take on the views of others toward himself. Others indicate to us directly or indirectly, what they think of the way we are carrying out our path of the role relationship, and we reciprocate in kind.

As the child emerges from the home into neighbourhood play groups and school, he becomes involved in more complexly organised sets of role relationships and learns to use the percepts of an ever-widening circle of others in appraising and re-shaping his self-concept. M. Brewster Smith (1969) notes that :

' As the 'generalized other' whose perspective the child adopts becomes progressively more generalized, his reflected view of himself becomes more 'objective' less depended upon the contingencies of particular role relationships at the same time that he becomes equipped with the role repertory to participate effectively in the full range of social life.'

(B) Theory :

(i) Field Theory and Self-Theory : Field Theory, as introduced by Kurt Lewin (1935), stems from a different tradition -that of physics. Newton's theory of mechanics was basically an explanation of physical phenomena in terms of the

behaviour between particles. This idea was challenged, as Morton Deutsch (1968) has pointed out, by the electromagnetic field that influences the behaviour of particles and that has a distinct reality apart from them. As a further extension of such concepts, Einstein developed the idea of space as a distribution of forces within a given environment, that, in turn, determine how objects will behave.

Field-theory ideas in considerably simplified form may be found in the writings of Carl R. Rogers (1951, 1961) and author to Combs and Donald Snygg (1959), who conceived of the field as existing in and responding to a field of psychological forces. 'Self-theory' is a term that has been applied to such concepts. Psychiatrist Harry Stack Sullivan (1947) also contributed to self-theory in his writings about interpersonal attitudes and feelings. Although each proponent of a field, self or interpersonal theory introduces elements that cause his theory to differ somewhat from the others, the theories do have much in common. For one thing, they all emphasize perception and all can be referred to as 'cognitive theory'. Interpersonal relations play a large part in all the theories; indeed, Harry Stack Sullivan insists that personality exists only in terms of our interaction with others.

(ii) Psychoanalytic Theories of the Self : Psychoanalytic theories contributed to ideas relating to the nature of the

self. For instance, some behavioural scientists use Sigmund Freud's term 'ego', to refer to the 'self'. However, Freud uses the term 'ego' in somewhat different ways. The 'ego' may refer to an 'entity' or 'object'. Freud is using the term in this sense when he refers to the 'ego' being dominated by the 'id' (instinctual processes) or by the 'super ego', Freud also uses 'ego' to refer to processes whereby the individual becomes aware of external reality and makes judgements or decisions about what actions are relevant and appropriate. The term 'self' generally refers to 'image', the impression one has about one's behaviour and one's impact on others, and to 'identify', the relationship between 'oneself' and the 'surrounding social environment'. Both 'ego' and 'self' are included in the more general concept of personality.

The ego is said to play a central and vital part in the organism's attempt to deal with instinctual and moral forces, as well as with external reality. If it is placed under too much pressure from any of these sources, it is likely to operate ineffectively. Certain distortions in perception are, therefore, invoked in order to 'protect' the ego from injury. These distortions are what Freud calls 'ego defenses'. For example, repression enables the ego to deny or 'ignore certain kinds of forbidden motives; projection enables the ego to attribute the individual's own unworthy motives to others, sublimation enables the individuals unworthy motives to be expressed in socially

acceptable ways without outraging the 'superego'.

People who have a firm grasp on reality are said to have 'ego strength', whereas the individual who is swayed from one extreme to another by conflicting demands from 'super ego', 'id', and 'the social environment' is said to have a 'weak ego'.

(iii) The 'Ideal-Self' : Other psychologists refer to the 'self ideal' or the 'ideal-self' terms that have much the same meaning. The use of such terms assumes a difference between the self that one perceives as the 'real self' and the 'self' that one ought to have or ought to be. Carl Rogers (1951) theorized that the existence of a large gap between the 'perceived self' and the 'self-ideal' is generally an unhealthy state of affairs. Individuals whose behaviour continually falls short of what they believe it should be are likely to be plagued by anxiety, self hate, and feelings of inferiority. One of the objects of psychotherapy, according to Rogers, is to help individuals attain a greater and fuller degree of 'self-acceptance'. Evidence for this point of view is provided by studies carried out at Rogers' clinic, which showed that discrepancies between patients' perceived selves and their self-ideas tended to diminish during the course of successful psychotherapy (Rogers and Dymond, 1954). Similarly, Gerald P. Koocher (1971) used pre-test and post-test measures of the discrepancy between ideal self and self concept of 65 boys aged 7 to 15 who attended a YMCA summer camp, and he

found that learning to swim reduced the discrepancy significantly. Boys who already knew how to swim or who did not learn to swim showed no changes in discrepancy between ideal self and self-concept.

Phyllis Katz and Edward Zigler (1967) found that the disparity between the 'real-self' (or self-concept) and the 'ideal-self' tends to increase between the ages of 11 and 17, with more intelligent children showing greater disparity than less intelligent ones.

(iv) The Phenomenal Self : Arthur W. Combs and Donald Snygg (1969) conceived of the self-concept as the center of a system of percepts that they called the phenomenal environment - the environment as it is perceived by the individual. The portion of the phenomenal environment that is perceived as being related or somehow involved with the self they termed the phenomenal self. Within this area are to be found objects and events that the individual sees as somehow important to him. The use of the modifier 'my' may be considered as an indicator of what is included in the phenomenal self. 'His car' or 'cars' in 'general' (as long as they can be perceived) may be within my phenomenal environment, but not within the boundaries of my phenomenal self. However, if I buy one of these cars, it becomes 'my car' and becomes located somewhere within the phenomenal self. Even a car in which there

is little self-involvement can suddenly become psychologically very important. If I am standing near my office window and hear the crash of metal in collision, I may think only, 'some fool' did not watch where he was going'. But when I go down stairs later to drive home and find that it was 'my' car that was smashed, I suddenly feel very involved in the accident. I will probably think, feel, and act for the moment as though I myself had been hit. I will feel outraged, hostile, angry, and intent on securing punitive damages from the culprit. To my detached, objective observer, the car is definitely not me nor a part of me, yet I am acting as though it were a part of me. From a phenomenological point of view, it is an extension of myself and hence may be considered as located within the boundaries of the phenomenal self. If I behave in an outraged way because of the damage that my car has sustained, it is because I perceive that my phenomenal self is sustaining a threat. Any event may become a threat, if the individual perceives it as bringing about some un-welcome change within his system of precepts - what might be called the 'self-structure'. Combs and Snygg state that the primary need of the organism is to enhance and maintain the phenomenal self. Anything that might interfere with our ability to enhance and maintain the phenomenal self is perceived as a threat. In the instance just cited, the damage to the car becomes a threat because someone has been able to damage an

object with which the self is identified and has been able to escape with impunity. In the example of the individual who refuses to believe that he has any talent, the investment is in the precept; it is his way of perceiving himself that is being threatened and he defends it by being rigid and dogmatic about evidence.

(v) The Self as a Source of Meaning : We organise our phenomenal world in a way that enable us to enhance and maintain our phenomenal selves. In other words, we sort things out, so to speak, in terms of whether they have a relationship to us and in terms of whether that relationship is positive, negative or neutral. The resulting arrangement enable us to determine the degree to which we should concern ourselves with the events and objects we encounter and the kind of concern we should express.

Our daily lives are full of instances in which we make choices; some of them major, but most of them minor; that have the purpose of strengthening and confirming our concepts of ourselves and the world as we see it. We perceive or do not perceive events in terms of whether they will enhance and maintain our phenomenal selves. We cannot perceive everything, and hence tend to notice only those events that are somehow related to us, that is, have meaning for us. Structuring our environment in this way enable us to make

predictions, to order our behaviour, and to determine relationship between ourselves and the past, the present and future events.

2.3 Cognitive Dissonance Theory

Theoretical Background :

The theory of cognitive dissonance, as propounded by Leon Festinger (1957), is one of the most important concept in social psychology today. It is applicable to a wide variety of situations, both in the psychological laboratory and in everyday life, and has stimulated a great deal of research in the relatively brief period since its appearance.

Festinger's theory rests on the assumption that the individual attempts 'to establish internal harmony, consistency, or congruity among his opinions, attitudes, knowledge and values,' - what Festinger terms 'cognitive elements,' He observes that pairs of cognitive elements may exist in irrelevant, consonant, or dissonant relationships with each other. The relationship is irrelevant one if the two elements have nothing to do with each other; is consonant if one element follows from the other, and is dissonant if, considering these two elements alone, the obverse of one element follows from the other.

In as much as the individual strive to maintain harmony or consonance among cognitive elements, the presence of dissonance leads to pressure to reduce the dissonance, the amount of pressure being consistent with the amount of dissonance that exists. Festinger points out that dissonance function like a drive, need or tension. Its presence leads to action to reduce it, just as the presence of hunger leads to action aimed at reducing the hunger. Dissonance can be resolved or at least reduced by changing one of the cognitive elements involved, by adding new elements, or by decreasing the importance of elements. For instance, dissonance that results when others disagree with us can be reduced by changing our opinion, by getting other to change their opinion, or by deciding that there is no basic disagreement.

Other writers in the field point out that dissonance operates mainly when a person has made a choice ~~that~~ he believes is free, in which he acts of his own volition and is not coerced (Brehm and Cohen, 1962). If the individual has no choice in following an action that is contrary to his pre-existing beliefs, he does not feel any need to change his attitudes toward the actions, but if he makes the choice to perform the action freely, dissonance is created and he feels some pressure to reduce it. When individuals follow orders to do something that is contrary to their values or their best judgement, there is no cognitive dissonance, because they do not feel responsible

It is only when they feel free to choose, and are aware of the probable outcome of their choice, then cognitive dissonance can occur.

2.4 Motivation : The Mainspring and Gyroscope of Learning

(A) CONCEPT :

Motivation gives both direction and intensity to human behaviour. Motivation to learn gives direction and intensity to human behaviour in an educational context. Motivation to learn in school gives direction and intensity to students' behaviour in a school situation.

Motive relate to the 'why' aspect of human behaviour. What people do, how they do it, when or where it is done are all important, but 'why' people do what they do is the motivational question.

- Why do people pollute the rivers and air ?
- Why do nation go to war ?
- Why does one man murder another ?
- Why do workers go on strike ?
- Why do some students try to learn in school ?
- Why do some students not try to learn in school ?
- Why do teachers teach ?

These are all motivational questions. But to say that 'motivationa gives both direction and intensity to behaviour' is to beg the question : 'What is 'motivation'. To be more

precise, we have to say that motivation is 'that which' gives direction and intensity to behaviour. And motivation to learn is 'that which' gives direction and intensity to human behaviour in an educational context in general. And motivation to learn in school is 'that which' gives direction and intensity to students' behaviour in a school situation.

Motivation is an Inferred Construct : Direction implies selection from possible variations in purposes or goals. Intensity implies possible variation in terms of degree of effort or energy put forth to attain the goal. Each of these three factors are discussed below :

(1) Motivation is inferred : To say that motivation is that which gives direction and intensity to behaviour, is not very helpful but describing and understanding 'motivation' or 'motivation to learn' or motivation to learn in school' must begin at this point.

In many ways, the problem is similar to the one we face in dealing with intelligence. In an educational setting, we always infer the nature and degree of intelligence from observations of a student's behaviour. No one really knows what intelligence is ? Therefore, we simply watch what a student does (or study his performance or standardized tests) and then make inferences about his intellectual ability. We never actually measure his intelligence but only how he used

that which he has. We have to use the same process to understand which gives direction and intensity to what young people do in school.

However, over the years, the power of the concept of intelligence has become so great that few persons have even attempted research studies without starting from the assumption that measured ability is the most influential variable involved.

This is unfortunate. The great strikes in understanding of human intelligence have contributed measurably to our knowledge of what man is and how he learns. But an educational blind spot seems to have developed along with these advances in research on intellectual abilities. I.Q. scores appear to be exact, while other variables such as motivation or personality or cognitive style seem slippery and difficult to pin down with precision. The correlations between I.Q. and achievement, however, always have much to be desired. Students who score high on measures of I.Q. tend to do better in school than students whose measured I.Q. is low, but discrepancies persistently occur. All of the research in the area of underachievement, for example, reflects both an awareness of a probing interest in the fact that some students do not do as well as they 'ought' to', when they 'ought to' is defined in terms of measured aptitude or I.Q. something else must be involved.

Most educators account for the difference between predicted achievement and actual achievement by postulating the concept of motivation. In other words, motivation is invariably inferred from observations of behaviour, usually in conjunction with a consideration of ability or I.Q.

In the conventional wisdom of education, 'motivation' and 'ability' are recognized as relatively discrete phenomena. Because research and instrument development have proceeded unevenly and much more rapidly in the area of intelligence than in the area of motivation, however, our understanding of learning ability is much greater than our understanding of motivation to learn. Both are inferred constructs, however, 'ability' summarizes observations about what an organism can do. 'Motivation' summarizes observations about what an organism 'can do', 'Motivation' summarizes observations about what an organism 'will do' or 'wants to do'. This brings us to a consideration of the 'direction' and 'intensity' factors shown above.

(2) Motivation gives Direction to Behaviour : Human behaviour is purposive. Life is not without direction. Motives flow from the well-spring of life itself. They are energetic in action; philosophy and physiology are fused in it. Thus, motivation leads to goal and to behaviour of the human organism.

Our concern here, however, is with 'motivation' in an educational sense, such as 'motivation to learn' or 'motivation to learn in school'. These differentiations, although apparently simple, are actually quite complex. 'Education' is not 'schooling' and though educators are concerned with learning, 'schooling' does not necessarily result in 'education'. The point is made because children who are 'motivated to learn in school' may actually be motivated to 'get good marks', 'do as they are told', 'obey the rules', 'write really', 'be punctual', or any one of a hundred things which may or may not be related to 'education' but which they have 'learned in school' therefore, 'motivation to learn' rather than 'motivation' or 'motivation to learn in school' will be explored. There are obvious relationships between these concepts, and every effort will be made to relate 'learning' to 'learning in school' in such a way that the concepts have both clarity and utility.

The basic purpose of school is to help children learn. But helping children learn means helping children learn the following behaviours :

1. To value learning
2. To want to learn
3. How to learn
4. To value knowledge

5. To acquire knowledge
6. To understand knowledge
7. To behave according to knowledge

The ultimate objective of the educational effort is to help youngsters learn to 'behave' according to the best knowledge that is available at any given point in time. And 'motivation to learn' ought to aim people in that direction.

But helping people behave according to factual knowledge is not possible unless people understand that knowledge, unless they give meaning to that knowledge based upon their own past experience. Meaning always comes from the individual and what he has already learned. Understanding represents the union of past experience and new stimuli in the learner's mind. Because acquisition of knowledge precedes understanding, schools must help youngsters to acquire knowledge. Helping children acquire information and knowledge is an educational objective that must be realised before those students who can proceed to objectives such as ; understanding and behaving.

In the same way, helping children to acquire knowledge is hardly meaningful unless those children who value knowledge first. Unless they believe in the importance and value of information and facts and knowledge, mere acquisition is pointless.

This logic goes even further. Valuing knowledge is not possible unless youngsters have learned how to learn. That is,

the skills of learning are not only means to more noble ends but purposes in their own right.

Learning how to learn, however, is meaningless if students have not learned to want to learn. In other words, learning to want to learn is an educational objective.

Helping children learn to want to learn through, presumes that the children value learning, which is the most basic educational objective of all. Unless children have learned to believe in the value of learning as a human activity, nothing else will count much anyway.

To begin with the idea that motivation is that which gives direction and intensity to behaviour is not to suggest, therefore, that the direction is aimless or unknown. Quite contrary, 'motivation to learn' means many things, and the general direction in which such learning should lead, according to the values and understandings. Because these purposes are functionally related to one another, however, there is an immemorable logic to the direction which has been denied. This logic leads towards the idea of 'rational man'.

Motivation presumes valuing, and values are learned behaviours; thus, motivation, at least in part, is learned and it can be taught. Therefore, motivation gives direction to behaviour.

3. Motivation gives Intensity to Behaviour : In the human organism, intensity implies effort, activity and energy output. If values are the part of motivation which gives direction to human behaviour, what causes the organism to strive ? To initiate ? To carry through ? Five factors seem especially important :

- (i) Availability and quality of stimuli
- (ii) Perceptual openness
- (iii) Handling of dissonance
- (iv) Physiological functioning
- (v) Anxiety.

Research studies have repeatedly shown that motivation is either affected by or a function of the number, quality, richness, intricacy, uniqueness, and complexity of stimulus material. The organism needs stimulation. When it is deprived of stimuli, the organism seeks stimuli or even makes its own. Over extended period of time, those organisms which exist in stimulus - deprived environments develop lower mental abilities or in extreme cases they die. On the other hand, those which exist and function in stimulus environments which are rich and varied develop higher mental abilities. Organisms of all levels and kinds are attracted to rich stimulus sources, especially sources which are extensive, varied and novel.

A second factor which affects the intensity of motivation is the personality structure of the learner, and especially his openness of experience. Those persons who are maximally perceptive, adequate, and relatively unthreatened are drawn to the new and the novel and the unknown. Those who are psychologically 'closed' who have extensive defense mechanisms and perceptual barriers, tend to repel new stimuli. Openness is a function of self-concept and manifests itself especially in the response of the organism to stress or threat, but the open individual is more curious, more inquiring, more excited and more 'motivated'.

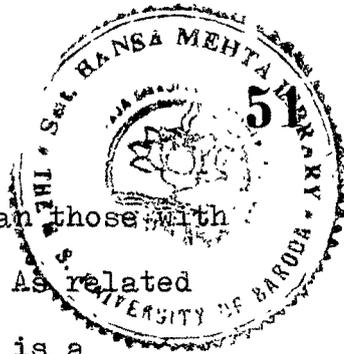
If openness might be considered, the extent to which an organism is perceptually capable of receiving and possessing stimuli, the style or manner in which he handles dissonance or ambiguous stimuli is another factor which affects the intensity of motivation. Dissonance may appear in either one or both of two forms, and the way in which the individual copes with either affects his motivation. On the one hand, there may be a discrepancy between where the individual is and what he wants in the valuing sense.

Inconsistencies, anomalies and ambiguities appeal to those persons who are psychologically open, and they work to resolve the dissonance. Likewise, when the individual senses that where

he is and where he wants to go are not the same in terms of his value framework, he acts to resolve kind of inconsistencies, too. In other words, both cognitive and affective dissonance contribute to motivation.

The physiological functioning of the individual is another factor which affects the intensity of his motivation to learn. Basal metabolic rate, endurance, cardio vascular functioning, strength and the like all play a part in affecting motivation.

Anxiety is another factor which affects the intensity of behaviour. Anxiety is apprehensiveness in any given situation, and results from the interaction of the individual's concept of the self, the number and the quality of stimuli, and the dissonance which is perceived. A certain degree of anxiety seems to lure the learner forward in the learning task. Too much anxiety unquestionably drives him away. When the individual finds himself confronted with an ambiguous or value conflict situation, he becomes uncomfortable and apprehensive. Whether the anxiety induced attracts him forward or drives him back is partially a function of the type and extent of the dissonance involved, partially a function of the adequacy and security of the self; and partially a function of the number and type of stimuli present. Those persons who have clear, strong, positive concepts of self are capable of perceiving and coping



with greater dissonance and with more stimuli than those with less clear, weaker, more negative views of self. As related to motivation, the important point is that there is a curvilinear relationship between anxiety and achievement behaviour. This means that motivation can be too 'high'. Too much motivation, in other words, gets in the way of a student's learning. Stated more precisely, the relationship between achievement and motivation is curvilinear rather than linear; thus, there is a point beyond which motivation is debilitating rather than facilitating of learning. For this reason motivation should probably be thought of in optimal rather than maximal terms.

Again, motivation is a relatively constant phenomenon: it does not change much, except over extended periods of time. Values, cognitive style, perceptual defenses, and self-concept, for example, are all relatively durable. They will change, but generally only slowly. Interest and perseverance are related to but different from motivation. Interest is basically short-term commitment. Perseverance is basically, working style. The optimally motivated youngster find it difficult in persisting and may even lack interest in the immediate task at hand, but still be motivated to learn. And the opposite might also be true.

In summary, motivation to learn is that which gives both direction and intensity to human behaviour in an

educational context. As such, motivation can only be inferred; it is a function of values and educational purposes; and it is affected by the kind and quality of stimuli available, openness to experience and perceptual style, dissonance, anxiety, and the physiological functioning of the individual learner involved. Furthermore, it is probably durable rather than fragile, and because of the variety of factors, motivation needs to be thought of in optimal rather than maximal terms, since too much motivation evidently 'gets in the way' of positive learning. The point is, motivation to learn is complex and elusive.

(B) A Theoretical Model of Academic Motivation :

Research in the area of motivation has identified many kinds of human motives : affiliative, achievement, sex, hunger, power, economic and aesthetics.

The term 'academic motivation', however, may be too narrow. In the conventional academic setting, students are motivated in many different ways, not all of which are positive. For example, some students are obsessed with a desire to 'get good grades' but to presume that 'grades' relate directly to 'learning' as it was outlined above is certainly questionable in some cases, at least. It is true that students whose motivations to learn are positive will tend, on the average, to learn more, and thus, they will generally receive higher marks from their

teachers than students whose motivations to learn are otherwise. But it is also true that some youngsters become puppet like and parrot like in the educational context, simply in order to get 'good grades' and is forced to conclude that their conformity behaviours are basically unhealthy and undesirable. However, the fact that some students, 'do as they are told' in order to benefit positively from the experience and learning. Thus, conforming is the best rather than the worst sense of that term, complicates the matter still further.

The question arise as to what causes students to strive in school and what factors are considered when teachers 'grade' their achievement. These are complex and interrelated and must be dealt within terms of the complexities and inter-relationship which are involved. For instance, the fact that research studies have repeatedly demonstrated that students' grades are a function of achievement, congruence with teachers' values, socio-economic background, intelligence, social acceptance, and motivation among other things, tends to negate the usefulness of many existing measures of academic motivation which have been validated almost exclusively against grade point average as a criterion. Such instruments may very well measure the 'motivation to get good grades', but to equate the factor with 'motivation to learn' would be a mistake of the most serious order. That such instruments

often correlate positively with conformity and negatively with creativity, simply underscores the point in another way.

Overview of the Theoretical Model : Academic motivation has several dimensions. Three are described below. These 'dimensions' might ultimately prove to be 'factors' in the statistical sense of the term, and there may be very well be more than three. However, the three basic dimensions of academic motivation seem to be (i) internal external, (ii) intake-output, and (iii) approach-avoidance. The labels are arbitrary. The dimensions appear to be real. A graphic portrayal of the model is the traditional three dimensional cube as shown in Figure I.

Dichotomizing each dimension into its polarized categories. We get two by two (2 X 2) graphic model as outlined in Figure 2.

Described this way the model seems to have eight 'cells' or 'categories'. Before these categories are described, however each dimension will be set forth in more detail.

(i) Internal - External Dimensions : Motivation to learn is in part a function of that which lies within the individual learner and in part a function of that which he experiences from his learning environment. Because these two interact and affect one another, but it is undoubtedly a dimension with many aspects or many parts.

The 'internal' portion of this dimension refers to those aspects of those personality and value structure which the

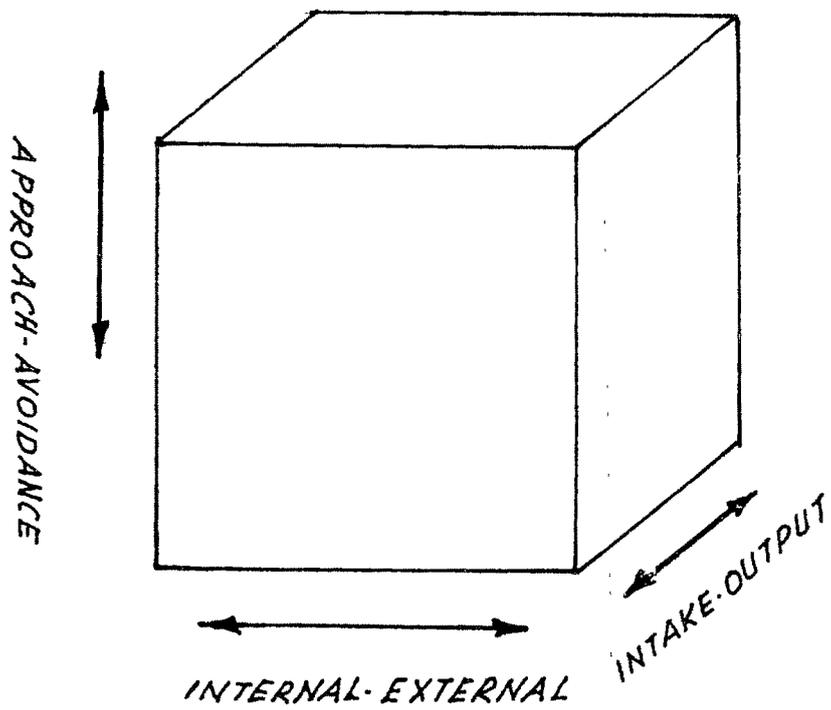


FIG. 1
DIMENSIONS OF ACADEMIC MOTIVATION

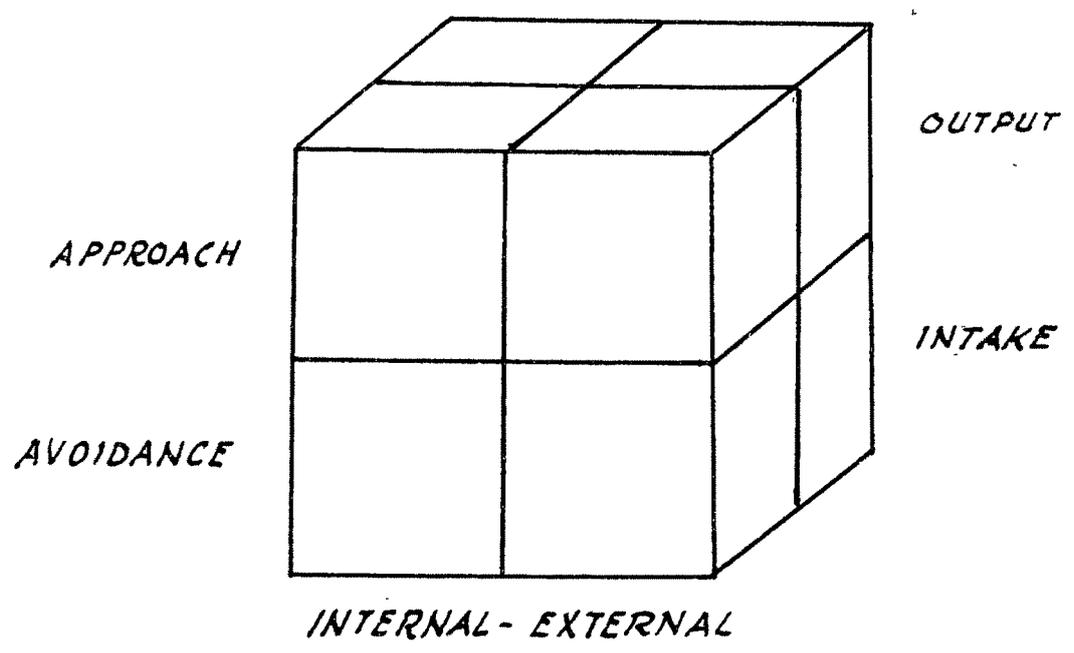


FIG. 2
A THEORETICAL MODEL OF ACADEMIC MOTIVATION

individual learner brings with him to the learning situation. Self-concept, perceptual style, belief - system, and the like make up the internal part of academic motivation.

The 'external' portion of this dimension refers to the environment as a stimulus source, and only those stimuli which are available within the immediate external environment are considered relevant: text-books, parental approval, facial expression of the teacher, filmstrips, blackboard diagrams, teacher talk, reference-material, materials in the school or home library, peer reactions, quality of language spoken in the home, number of new ideas encountered during the day, and the like.

The internal - external dimension appears to reflect the source of academic motivation. That is, motivation to learn is in part a function of what resides within the individual and in part a function of the external world he encounters. Some positively motivated youngsters, seem to draw most heavily upon forces located within themselves to enhance their learning. They believe in learning and knowledge, for example, they are intrigued by the new and novel, ambiguity and uncertainty excite them. They feel adequate, unthreatened and secure.

Other students, equally well motivated, seem to be positively affected by the quality and quantity of stimuli which they experience in school. Exciting lectures, and intense discussions

are likely to speak these students' efforts.

To say it in still another way, some students apparently draw primarily upon internal factors in their desire to learn in school. Other students seem to draw primarily upon external factors. Still others draw heavily upon both. In other words, as far as the internal - external dimension is concerned, there does not seem to be one 'right' balance or ratio of internal and external factors, but there undoubtedly is a 'right' direction to both of these factors. That is, a student whose motivation to learn is positive almost inevitably evidences 'good mental health' and functions most productively in a rich and varied stimulus environment. Youngsters who hold negative feelings about themselves, who are insecure, frightened, inadequate people or who repeatedly encounter a barren stimulus situation - limited number or poor quality of ideas, books, discussions, pictures - are much less apt to be positively motivated to learn.

(iii) Intake - Output Dimension : Motivation to learn manifests itself in many ways, and these manifestations are encompassed here by what is called the intake - output dimension or what might be called the consumption - production aspect of academic motivation. Some students seem moved to consume the learning world around them, while others are producers, in the main.

Students who are avid readers and thoughtful listeners - who seek information and new experience in every way - are 'intake' types. Other students are output. They write; They talk a lot. They generate ideas and concepts. Their motivations propel them to be active rather than passive roles. The intake-output dimension, then, seems to reflect the form or style of academic motivation; the actual substance of motivated behaviour when it appears. Again, there is probably no 'right' form of academic motivation, although there are undoubtedly various types of persons. That is, some positively motivated students are intake persons, in the main, whereas other students are output. Still others reflect a balance between these two styles. Negative academic motivation would probably reflect themselves in very different behaviours.

(iii) Approach - Avoidance Dimension : Any careful study of learning in an academic setting suggests clearly that some students move toward teacher approval, stimulus, ambiguity, novelty, social acceptance, and the like, which other students move away from such things. The approach avoidance dimension, therefore, seems to be the directional dimension of academic motivation. However, once again the positive and negative aspects of the directional dimension are complex and not easily ascertained or understood. Though some students move toward 'good grades' and teacher approval, for instance, other students move away from such phenomena, but either group of

students might be identified as 'positively motivated' or 'negatively motivated', depending upon the other factors which are involved. Eventhough the approach-avoidance dimension suggests directionality, therefore, that concept applies to the behaviour of the learners in relation to the attainment or rejection of certain objectives or goals, irrespective of whether an outside observer would categorize those goals as related to positive or negative motivation.

The point is, some students who are positively motivated move toward good grades and teacher approval, whereas other students who are not positively motivated move away from such factors or do not move at all, and the differences probably reside in whether the source of motivation for the individual is primarily internal or external or whether the motivation is mainly intake or output in form. In other words, the directional dimension is only meaningful when understood in relationship to the other dimensions ; it is the interaction of this dimension with the other dimensions which reveals whether a student's motivation is positive or negative. To say it still another way, it is the pattern of relationships among dimensions which is crucial.

(iv) Relationships among Three Dimensions : Any observer of the educational scene knows that some students whose

motivation to learn is positive may move toward (approach) reading (intake) and exciting novel experiences (external stimulus) whereas other youngsters who are also positively motivated might move away from (avoidance) teacher approval (external stimulus) in order to generate (output) a graphic description of social equality for a history course.

The concepts of 'positive' and 'negative' motivation, therefore, are only meaningful if the pattern of relationships among dimensions is considered. Some internal factors are positive, some internal factors are negative. Some external factors are positive, some external factors are negative. The same thing is true for approach - avoidance, intake, and output aspects of the other dimensions, some positive forms of academic motivation express themselves in certain types of intake or output or approach avoidance behaviours in response to various internal - external sources. But negative motivation is expressed through such behaviours also, therefore, it is only through a consideration of the precise pattern of relationships among dimensions which brings meaning and utility to the concept of academic motivation.

Figure 3. One of the cells has been singled out and identified by special markings. This is the external intake-approach cell.

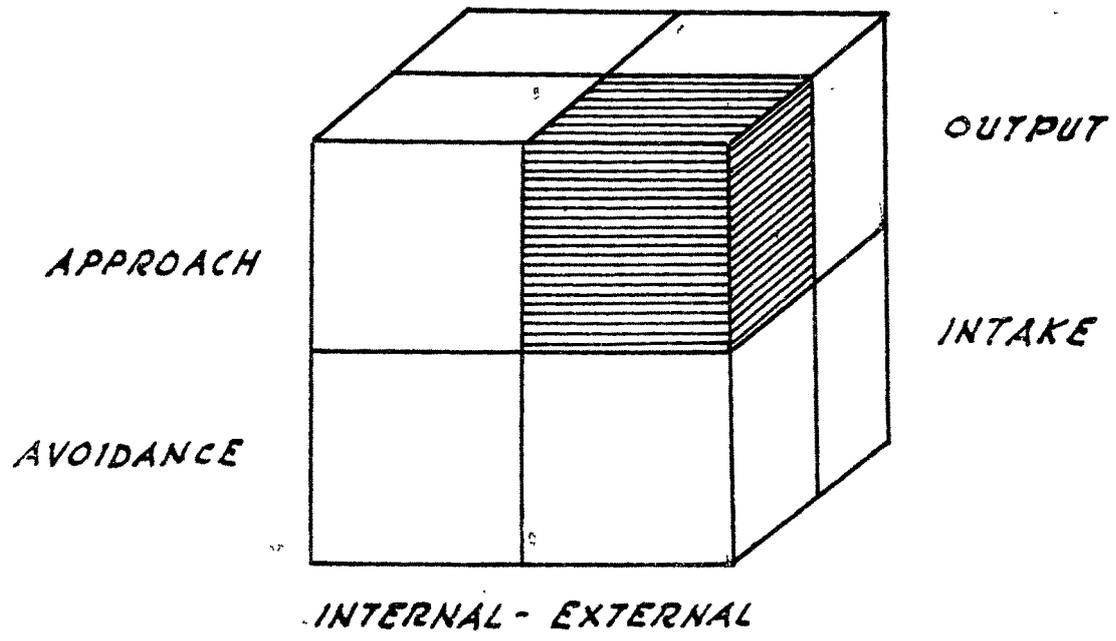


FIG. 3
A THEORETICAL MODEL OF ACADEMIC MOTIVATION

Figure 4 suggests pictorially, that it is possible to think about the various dimensions of academic motivation both in relationship to one another, in positive and in negative terms. Employing such a logical approach, it is immediately evident that there are 16 different facets to academic motivation according to the theory described

Figure 4

1. Internal - Intake - Approach - Positive
2. Internal - Intake - Avoidance - Positive
3. Internal - Output - Approach - Positive
4. Internal - Output - Avoidance - Positive
5. External - Intake - Approach - Positive
6. External - Intake - Avoidance - Positive
7. External - Output - Approach - Positive
8. External - Output - Avoidance - Positive
9. Internal - Intake - Approach - Negative
10. Internal - Intake - Avoidance - Negative
11. Internal - Output - Approach - Negative
12. Internal - Output - Avoidance - Negative
13. External - Intake - Approach - Negative
14. External - Intake - Avoidance - Negative
15. External - Output - Approach - Negative
16. External - Output - Avoidance - Negative

The following are illustrations of behaviours within the frame work of the individual dimensions set forth. An elaboration of such listings might be an appropriate point at which to begin. It is the pattern of relationships among the dimensions which is foremost rather than the specific incidents

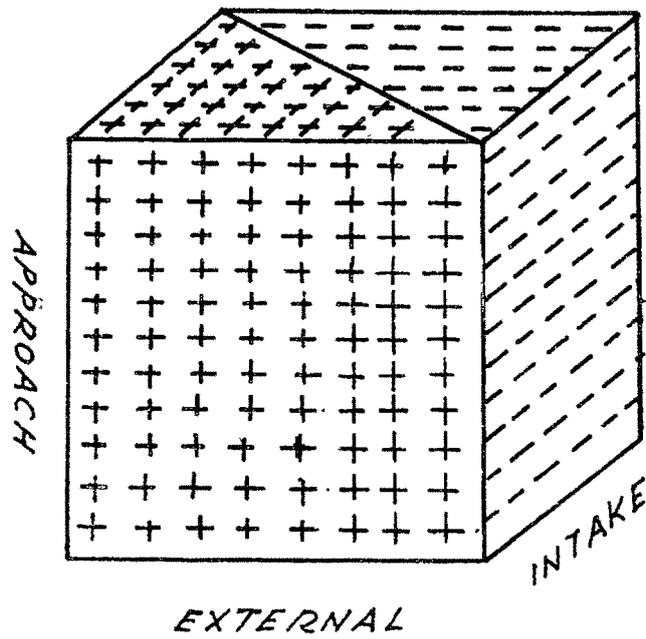


FIG. 4
POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE ASPECTS OF
A MOTIVATIONAL CELL

or specific behaviour themselves. Even so, a consideration of such specific behaviours may be one place to start

Positive Examples of the Internal - External Dimension

- (I) Sense of worth
- (I) Feelings of acceptance
- (I) Ability to tolerate ambiguity
- (I) Positive concept of other persons
- (I) Lack of prejudice
- (I) Belief in the importance of information
- (I) Minimum of defence mechanisms
- (E) Variety of points of view
- (E) Validity of information
- (E) Variation in sequence of stimuli
- (E) Multi - sensory stimuli
- (E) Accessibility of stimuli

Negative Examples of Internal - External Dimension

- (I) Excessive anxiety of fear
- (I) Jumping to conclusions
- (I) Fear or dislike of authority per se
- (E) Limited sources of information
- (E) Information embedded in other stimuli (hard to get at)
- (E) Sequencing of stimuli unduly repetitive
- (E) Validity postulated with few or no external referents.

Positive Examples of Intake - Outtake Dimension

- (I) Voracious reading
- (I) Sensitive, attentive listening
- (I) Surprise when confronted with novelty
- (I) Question - asking for information

- (I) Browsing in the library
- (O) Writing extensively
- (O) Practicing skills
- (O) 'Arguing' fine points in a discussion
- (I.O) 'Insisting' that contrary views be presented.

Negative Examples of Intake - Output Dimension

- (I) 'Being quite' but not 'hearing'
- (I) 'Reading the assignment' without comprehension
- (I) Inattentiveness
- (O) Disruptive talk during discussion
- (O) 'Talking about boys' all the time (for girls)
- (O) Throwing spitballs
- (O) 'Telling Teacher off'.

Positive Examples of Approach - Avoidance Dimension

- (AP) Attending at non-required lectures, museums, etc.
- (AP) Ordering information source by mail
- (AP) Seeking out persons with opposing points of view
- (AP) Establishing and following definite study routines
- (AV) Dropping a course which is 'poorly taught'.
- (AV) Turning off radio during study hours.
- (AV) Staying away from 'the gang' some of the time.

Negative Examples of Approach - Avoidance Dimension

- (AP) Going to movies instead of doing home - work
- (AP) Doing home - work just to get teachers approval
- (AP) Copying from seatmate during examination
- (AP) Excessive talking with friends on the telephone
- (AF) Dropping out of school
- (AV) Day dreaming
- (AV) 'Giving up' during test
- (AV) Reluctance to ask questions when in doubt.

Three things, at least, are important about these listings. First, they are neither complete nor discrete nor adequately described in the limited space here. Second, only the inter-action among the dimensions are ultimately of assistance to the person who wants a valid conceptualization of academic motivation. Third, all ignore what must be a very important, mediating type behaviour.

(v) Implications for Teaching and Research : Motivation, to learn is a function of values, stimulation, personality structure, dissonance and anxiety, among other things. Because these factors can be affected or controlled, at least in part by the teacher, implications for teaching obvious what teacher say, how they say, and the values which they reflect in their daily teaching all become perceivable substances from the learner's point of view. They are the feedback which pupils use to build their own conceptions of self.

Feedback is the 'stuff' out of which self-concept and values are built. Teachers must be aware of the kinds of feedback they provide for their pupils to perceive.

If motivation presumes values, and if values give direction toward particular objectives of learning goals, then educators' conceptions of objectives and purposes become central to any consideration of what will help pupils learn to want to learn in school.

Working to 'clarify goals' and 'state objectives precisely in behavioural terms' will help pupils learn to want to learn if the goals acceptable to them.

2.5 (A) Conceptual Background of Academic Performance

The word 'academic performance' can be termed as academic achievement by some educationists. It is a very broad term, which indicates generally the learning outcome of pupils. Achievement of these learning outcomes require a series of planned and organized experiences and hence learning is called a process. In this process of change in behaviour one cannot say that all pupils reach at the same level of change during the same span of time. The level of achievement reached by the pupils in schools, is called school performance or academic performance of the pupils.

(i) cognitive

Learning affects three major areas of behaviour of pupils, /
(ii) Affective (iii) psycho-motor respectively. It is difficult to say without proper evidence, that pupils reach at the same level in all the three domains at a time. Pupils may be at a somewhat higher level in one domain and at a somewhat lower level in the other domain. This means that pupils may be at a different level of learning outcome in different areas. As the area of affective and psycho-motor domain are not sufficiently explored, it is generally a custom to rest the term 'school performance' to the level of achievement of the pupils in the

cognitive areas of various school subjects.

Evaluation is the integral part of the teaching learning process and it involves (i) identifying and defining instructional objectives in behavioural terms (ii) using suitable learning experiences and (iii) constructing suitable evaluational instrument and appraising various learning outcomes.

Virtually all the teachers use some kind of test to assess the progress of their students. Here are some of the principles of measurement of educational achievement as given by Robert Ebel (1971) :

1. The measurement of educational achievement is essential to effective education.
2. Educational test is no more or less than a device for facilitating, extending and refining a teacher's observation of pupils achievement.
3. Every important outcome of education can be measured.
4. The most important educational achievement is command of useful knowledge.
5. Written tests were suited to measure the students' command of useful knowledge.

Evaluating instruments play an important role in influencing the performance of the pupils in schools. Brown and Holtzman 1955 concluded that 'Motivation' appeared to be a more important factor in effective study. Patterson (1916) found

that if students had an 'active attitude in the process of learning' - that is, if they know they were to be tested - their learning was positively influenced. White (1932) and Glass (1935) showed that the students' awareness of the 'type' of examination to be given affected his study procedures and consequently his memory set.

Here one should not restrict oneself to only academic performance but also to the accomplishments in other areas i.e. non-academic performance.

2.5 (B) Non-Academic Performance

In classroom the teacher imparts knowledge to the subjects. The knowledge contains cognitive, affective and psycho-motor skills. Non-academic performance is overt behaviour of the pupils' learning the knowledge of all the subjects. This performance is much affect and action oriented and much expressive in nature. The school organises these activities in terms of co-curricular programmes in school. Thus, non-academic performance is much concerned with how to make a learning process affective leading a child in social development. In many schools the following non-academic programmes are implemented :

- (i) Fine Arts : Music and dance, drawing and picture competition.

- (ii) Literacy : School publication, hand written script, discussion and debate.
- (iii) Study Circle : Project, assignment, bulletin, news collection, exhibition, tour, film-strip and surveys.
- (iv) Social Activities : Adult education, scouts and guides, NDS, NSS, NCC, village cleanliness, community development and co-operative stores.
- (v) Physical Activities : Games, mass drill.
- (vi) Leadership Activities : Care and cleaning of the school building, school parliament, classroom leadership, school assembly, self-organised school activities.
- (vii) Hobbies : Gardening, decoration, hand work and film observation.

Meghalaya in particular also follows more or less the same pattern of programmes as mentioned above. The Meghalaya Education Commission (1977) mentioned, 'co-curricular activities constitute an important part of school life. Pupils who are shy and do not participate in school can be helped to a better adjustment and even to some degree of participation in the social life through co-curricular activities.' It further mentioned 'Physical fitness is a very important for intellectual activity, as intelligence and skill can function at their best only when the body is healthy and strong. A physically fit person should have an ability to adjust to all the physical, social and emotional demands of the society.'

Therefore, the major aim of non-academic performance is to relate it with the academic performance of the pupils learning through activities in various subjects. It makes the pupil understand, co-operate and help each other, ita also makes the group cohesive, healthy, alert and enthusiastic leading them towards active participation in learning processes.

2.6 Comparative Research of the Variables under Study

(a) Academic Motivation and Academic Performance :

Foreign Studies

Frymier (1970) constructed a tool known as Junior Index of Motivation or JIM Scale to measure motivation of pupils from various angles. He found some qualities of poorly motivated pupils and highly motivated pupils. According to him low motivated pupils as compared to highly motivated pupils are not motivated to do good work in school. The pupils who do not show willingness to do good work will have poor performance in their academic pursuits, and ultimately they leave the school. They also immediately turn away from the school if they find something wrong in the school system.

The National Education Association (NEA) (1961) studied on dropouts found that there are some specific reasons why pupils leave school. Some dropouts, when questioned about reasons for leaving school, replied that they disliked certain

teachers. In another study by the same association, it was found that pupils complained that the instructional lessons were ⁱⁿ⁻sufficiently explained and that they did not get individual attention from the teachers.

Kurtz (1951) came out with a very significant finding that attitude towards school and academic achievement are positively related.

McClelland (1954) regards the need to achieve as learned behaviours. These learned behaviours stem from the basic drives which biologist postulates. Motivation to do good work in school is also a learned behaviour.

Researches have identified three basic of pupils' motivation to do good work in schools viz. values, personality and curiosity.

Warren (1958) found that these some evidences that pupils who are not motivated to do good work in school are more materialistic and object - centred than highly motivated youngsters.

Yoder (1960), David (1962) and Dalton (1949) said that ability is another factor which evidently affects pupil's motivation towards school. Their studies pointed out that dropouts have lower ability as measured by conventional paper and pencil intelligence tests than these pupils who remain in school till they complete their studies successfully.

What about pupils who do not possess academic aptitude ? Why do they not progress in school ? Two reasons appear clear. Either they cannot succeed with the educational opportunities available, or they got no satisfaction from the experiences even if they can succeed. In either case, these factors probably influence a young persons desire to try to do good work. Ability is not something over which teacher invites youngsters, with these abilities is another problem.

Ballnitz (1950), Cross (1950), Holmes (1958), Welfbein (1959), Young (1954) found that pupils who stay in school are generally successful academically, while those who leave have often poor records of scholastic achievement. It may be that low motivation causes successive failures but it seems equally possible that failure in school causes low motivation. It can safely be said that one of the causes of low motivation is related to failures, and whether pupils succeed or fail is more within the jurisdiction of the teacher than the learner. (the teachers make out grades).

According to Bowman and Cook (1956) and Visci (1958) another factor frequently mentioned as a characteristic of dropouts is the poor attendance records. Looked at objectively, whether pupils attend school regularly or not at least partially a school responsibility. Home conditions and academic factors are certainly important.

Weiner (1966) assessed the relationships among anxiety, achievement motivation and reports of success and failure on learning tasks. He found that pupils were high in easy tasks but worst on a more difficult task.

Forte (1982) found that motivation towards school as measured by the Junior Index of Motivation (JIM) was significant and positively correlated to academic performance ($r = .42$, $P < .01$).

Indian Studies

Desai's (1970) efforts to study the effects of achievement motivation development on the pupils' motivation towards schools found that pupils' motivation towards their schools was lower as compared to the American pupils.

Choksi (1972) studied the JIM scores of 170 pupils of five English medium schools of Baroda city. The JIM score manifested positive correlation with pupils' achievement motivation score. The result indicates that pupils with higher academic motivation have high achievement motivation.

Chandrakala (1972) studied 84 pupils of ten special class of Higher Secondary School of Patna found the academic motivation and examination marks show positive and highly significant relationship between the two variables - academic motivation

and performance in examination. Secondly, those pupils who get high marks in school examination, are significantly higher in academic motivation score. The mean difference between the two groups on the AMI was 4.7. The t was 5.05 which was significant at .01 level.

Dave (1973) took a sample of 236 pupils from the six schools of Anand town of Kheda District found the JIM score showed positive and significant correlation with Achievement Thema ($r = .61$, significant at .05 level), with educational level of parents ($r = .65$, $p = .05$), and occupational level of parents ($r = .66$, $p = .05$) and with classroom Trust score of the pupils ($r = .60$, $p = .05$). This means that the pupils with high academic motivation have higher classroom trust and higher Achievement Thema, as they come from high occupational groups. The mean score of JIM varied from school to school. The highest score was 94.84 and the lowest was 86.22. As regards boys and girls, they had 88.5 and 88.8 as the mean of JIM score respectively and they did not differ significantly.

Singh (1971) studied one hundred and sixty (53 from the sub-urban and 107 from the rural schools) found that scholastic attainment shows a higher positive correlation with academic motivation. All the six rho - coefficients between academic motivation and school performance went beyond the .01 level of confidence.

Chauhan (1982) studied the academic motivation of IX and X girls! High school, Simla total 70, found that academic motivation of girls in general is lower than the average academic motivation of general population of boys and girls. Academic motivation is highly correlated with intelligence. The correlation between academic motivation and intelligence came to be .6.

Conclusion :

Studies on relationship between academic motivation and academic performance indicates that most of the findings are positive having significant relationship with each other. It is further revealed that pupils who do not show good will, have poor performance in their academic pursuits as well as they are more materialistic and object-centred than high motivated pupils. The pupils who stay continuously in school are generally successful in their academics. Those who leave schooling have poor records and dislike teachers. Bowman and Cook (1956) and Visci (1958) found that home condition and academic factors are certainly important for the development of pupil's growth.

The studies conducted in India at school levels as well as on urban and sub-urban (1971) population has provided conclusive evidences that academic motivation and academic performance of all the studies have shown positive and significant

relationship with each other. Eventhough the finding of Desai (1970) indicates that pupils of America are higher than the pupils of India on JIM score.

(b) Self-concept and Academic Motivation :

Foreign Studies

The way pupils view themselves influence their motivation towards schools. Over-achievers have higher opinion of themselves than underachievers.

Geisler (1968) found a strong correlation between self-concept and academic achievement. Two studies suggest that large perceived discrepancy between actual self and ideal self may be a motivator at least with certain kinds of individuals.

Friedman (1969) studied the relationship between the self-concept reflected in an index of self-ideal, self-disparity, and scholastic achievement and intellectual ability. A trend was noted towards higher self-ideal, self-disparity scores as ability increased for middle and higher achievers and towards lower scores for lower achievers. From the studies cited above one can say that self-concept affects motivation.

Social acceptance affects achievement and achievements affects social acceptance. The way in which an individual views himself affects how he sees other people and his general sense of security. Pupils under authoritarian teachers, experience and

fears evolve pupils' needs for social affiliation, their need for acceptance is apparently greater than their need to achieve. They are motivated by a desire for social approval, values, personality structure and curiosity also affects the academic motivation.

These are some of the main factors revealed in researches that seem to contribute to the motivation of pupils towards school.

Frymier (1970) constructed a tool known as Junior Index of Motivation (JIM) to measure motivation of pupils from various angles. He found some qualities of poorly motivated pupils and highly motivated pupils. According to him low motivated pupils feel themselves unhappy, and they feel themselves non-confident, they manifest resistance against change; and they like to be away from the school.

Martire (1956) found that subjects with high need achievement scores had a greater discrepancy between ideal and actual self-concept under both neutral and achievement motivating conditions.

Cohen (1964) suggests that very high and very low goal setting are both related to a high degree of self-rejection.

Galiguri (1966) found the responses of 425 poverty Negroes to open-ended questions dealing with self-concept had only

minimal relationship to academic concerns.

Gay (1966) tried to determine the relationship between the self-concepts of 207 Negroes eight grader, and their intelligence and academic achievement. The relationships among these variables were significant for both sexes and the best predictor of academic achievement was found to be teacher's estimate of students' self-concept. Self-concept was apparently a greater motivational factor in achievement than intelligence.

Knop (1967) found out that college students who compiled with institutional conception of students' role received positive feed-back which produced enhance self-concept and discourage dropping out.

Rogers (1979) found that a statistically significant relationship between the self-concept and attitude toward school scores of black eight students in racially balanced schools and white majority schools.

Oyeshiku (1981) derived from the significance of the teacher as an influence on students, found that white students viewed their white teachers as having little influence on them in the area of self-concept and in total teacher influence. Black teachers were rated highest by white students in the area of teaching motivation.

Indian Studies

Choksi (1972) studied the academic motivation (JIM) scores of 170 pupils of 5 English medium schools of Baroda city. The JIM scores manifested positive correlation with the perception of pupils. This indicates that pupils with higher academic motivation have better or higher perception of the self and the world.

Aram (1980) found that (JIM) is positively related with the components of self-concept, namely, goal-oriented activity, global stage, problem avoidance and significant at .01 level, whereas with the other components namely internal resources and total self-concept are significant at .05 level. Boys got higher mean score (94.67) for JIM than girls (89.65). The difference is at .01 level.

Pupils of high self-concept group got highest mean score (93.51) for JIM while pupils of average group and low got (92.33), (91.52) respectively mean score for JIM.

Conclusion :

A close look at the foreign studies reveals that one out of ten studies have been conducted at college level. Though, majority of the investigations shows a positive relationship between self-concept and academic motivation,

there is no conclusive evidence that self-concept is a key factor influencing the academic motivation of the pupils. The study in 1964 (Cohen) shows that high and low self-concept related to high degree of self-rejection. Again the study of 1966 manifested minimal relationship to academic concerns.

The two Indian studies (1972) and (1980) reported significant positive relationship between self-concept and academic motivation. On both the studies, JIM score manifested positive correlation with the perception of pupils i.e. pupils with higher academic motivation have better or higher perception of the self and the world. The study of 1980 further clarifies that boys got higher for JIM score than girls.

(c) Self-concept and Academic Performance :

Foreign Studies

William (1973) studied teacher perceptions of student academic ability and student achievement and reported that student academic ability was found to correlate with student self-concept of academic ability with r 's ranging from .456 to .631, with co-efficients of determination between .208 and .398. It was also observed that teachers perceived girls as having more academic ability than boy, although

there were no statistically significant differences between them as measured by an intelligent test.

Jamerson (1974) studied ninth grade level of public school instruction. The racial or ethnic composition of the total group was sixty four percent white and thirty six percent black. By sex, the classes were composed of fifty five percent males and forty five percent females. The accumulated evidence from the research project utilizing the self-concept of art and academic ability scale shows that they are capable of somewhat accurate, predicting relationships of the self-concept scales and achievement.

Simmons (1975) sought to determine whether a significant relationship exists between intelligence and self-concept of the incarcerated college students of 133 males and one hundred males regular college students. It was found a significant difference between the mean of regular and incarcerated college students on intelligence scores. Regular college students' mean scores were significantly higher at the .01 level.

Funaki (1976) investigated the relationship between the self-concept and academic achievement of Tongan students. The self-concept of ability was measured by the Maryland Self-concept as a Learner Scale (MSCLC) and the Brookover self-concept of Ability Scale (BSCAS); academic achievement

was indexed by GPA and the English and Tongan scores on the Higher Learning Examination (HLE). It was found that (1) academic achievement was not significantly related to the perceived evaluation of significant others, namely of parents. Of friends and of teachers and (2) the linear combination of the self-concept variables of both scales correlated substantially with academic achievement; the correlation was higher for the female Tongan students than the male Tongan students.

Carey (1976) investigated the nature of the relationship between the self-concept and academic performance of black students on white campus who participated in black studies in relation to those who did not participate. Analysis of the data collected indicated significant differences were found between three of the four measures of academic performance among students at the school with high, medium and low quality. Further analysis indicated that the participants in Black studies differed from the non-participants in that they were older single males from families of low to moderate income who lived in large cities.

Freeman's (1976) study was relating the two self-concept variables, pupils classroom behaviour and academic achievement. He studied the student population consisted of 190 fifth and sixth grade males. His study showed that neither of the two

self-concept variables had significant relationships with achievement when I.Q. was statistically controlled. Only the school self-concept had a significant and positive relationship with achievement ($p < .05$) when I.Q. was not statistically controlled.

Dowdle (1977) had done a related study of the relationship between self-concept and academic performance of high and low performers in a collegiate school of business. In his study it was assumed that self-perception is a determinant of behaviour and more specially, that poor academic performance is largely a consequence of faulty perceptions of the self. The sample of 50 freshmen was selected and were classified as high performers (HP) and low performers (LP) based on a discrepancy range of the difference between actual and predicted grade point average. It was found that the HP group had higher scores on the other sub-scales than did the LP group; however, the differences were not statistically significant.

Armstrong (1978) conducted a study to determine the effect of group counselling and on the self-concept, academic performance and reading level of a selected group of high school students. A group counselling technique, using as a rationale the satisfaction of basic needs posited on the work of Maslow, was used as a method of improving self-concept, academic performance and reading levels. Group counselling was

provided for twenty, tenth grade students with normal intelligence quotients who tested six months to two years below grade level in reading. It was found there was no significant difference in the experimental and control groups' population. The mean gains of males and females either between or within experimental or control group revealed no statistically significant differences. A Pearson Product - Moment correlation co-efficient examination of the mean gain in reading level, self-concept, and grade point average revealed a significant correlation between reading level and grade point average.

Henein (1978) using a longitudinal study of a nationally representative sample of 1628, tenth grade boy conducted by the Institute for Social Research. The University of Michigan, Measures of Self-Concept of school ability, intelligence, socio-economic status, academic achievement and educational attainment were collected once each year for four years. It was found that self-concept of school ability was significantly related to academic achievement and educational attainment. High achievers felt more positive about themselves than low achievers. A high significant correlation was found between self-concept and intelligence. When educational attainment group were separated, the highest significant co-relation between self-concept and intelligence existed among those with college experience; the lowest among high school dropouts. Self-concept of school ability was a better predictor of academic

achievement than intelligence, but educational attainment was predicted better by intelligence than by self-concept of school ability.

Jones (1979) selected a study of the self-concept of adult students enrolled in selected technical institutes and association of their self-concept with academic achievement. A random selection of 218 students from three technical institutes was made. Analysis of variance, co-relation coefficient, and multiple regression analysis were the methods used to analyse the data. It was found that the self-concept and grade point average of the subjects shown a significant positive relationship, as well as self-concept of students enrolled in adult education programs of study is positively associated with level of academic achievement when scholastic aptitude both is and not held constant.

Galluzzi (1979) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between self-concept and the others concept of regular class children and student and teacher perception of classroom environment. Subjects of this study were 441 students enrolled in 25 regular fifth grade classes and their respective teacher. It appears that correlational analysis indicated that the self-concept and other concept were statistically related to perceptions of classroom environment.

Analysis of variance applied to group membership indicated that children in the high self and others - concept group had significantly greater or more positive mean score on the classroom environment factor. Involvement, Affiliation, Teacher Support and Satisfaction and a significantly lower mean score on the factor friction than children in the low self and other self-concept group. A chi-square analysis indicated that significantly more children who have low self and others - concepts differ from their teachers' perceptions on selected classroom environment factors than children who have high self and others - concepts.

Washington (1979) comparative study of 250 junior college freshmen of black and non-black to compare the self-concept, attitude toward school and level of achievement. It was found that there was a significant relationship among self-concept, attitude toward school and academic achievement. Males and females did not differ in terms of attainment, self-concept or attitude towards school. Black did not differ from non-blacks in terms of achievement and self-concept or attitude toward school.

Friedman's (1979) study was to assess the relationship between similarity of trainer participant self-concepts and the participants' self-concept change as a result of participating in an experimental group course. The study was

based on Roger's theoretical views of self-concept change and utilized Q. sort methodology.

The subject included 174 students, 64 males and 110 females drawn from psychology of personal growth courses. The instructors of psychology of personal growth courses were involved in the study, five males and five females. Testing was administered in the beginning and in the end of the program.

Results revealed that in general there was evidence of growth in congruence from pre to post testing. The overall gains was significant at the .01 level. Positive change took place through adjustment of the Real-Self to conform to the Ideal-self but not through adjustment of the Ideal-Self to conform to the Real-Self. It was also found that students' selves became more similar to the trainees toward the end of the course. It was appeared that students who were more congruent in the end of the course and have changed in a positive direction were also more satisfied with the instructor and experienced more positive change than male students.

Askew (1979) explored to determine if there were significant differences on measures of self-concept and academic achievement with respect to identifications, sex,

age and varying shades of skin colour among black children. Two hundred and forty black males and females were randomly selected to participate in the investigation.

Statistical analysis of the data was a factorial analysis of the variance; the F test was $p < .05$; the Scheff Test of pairwise comparison calculated the differences between the means within the cells; and the critical F ratio ($p < .05$) was 3.84 for each hypothesis tested with (1 and 225 degree of freedom).

It was found that the older subjects have a higher self-concept than younger subjects; that male subjects have higher self-concepts than females; that matched subjects have higher self-concepts than mismatched subjects; that matched brown females have higher self-concepts than dark or light matches females. That female scores higher on academic achievement than males; that light subjects scores higher than dark or brown subjects on academic achievement; that matched light females score higher than any group or combination groups on academic achievement and that matched subjects score higher than mis-matched subjects on academic achievement.

Ismail (1979) studied self-concept in adolescence from sixth, ninth and twelfth grades. Each group consisted of 40 students (20 males and 20 females).

The twenty statements test was used to obtain the students' responses to the question 'who am I now?' and to the question

'who will I be 3 years from now' ? to assess the present and the future self-concept.

It was found that performance on formal task showed an increase with increase in grade level. 2. Correlations among the formal task generally ranged from low to moderate. 3. Level of abstractness and level of complexity of self-concept showed an increase in grade. 4. Correlation between level of abstractness and complexity of self-concept and performance on formal tasks were generally low. 5. The results of the regression analysis indicated that the amount of variance in self-concept accounted for by performance on formal tasks or grade, either singly or together, only slightly exceeded 20 percent.

Huff (1979) explored the relationship between developmental task achievement and perception of the college environment for undergraduate students. One college was predominantly black (A), the other predominantly white (B). Statistically, significant differences were found at each college on achievement of development tasks and sub-tasks. White students tended to out score black students, and males generally reported higher levels of task achievement than females. Seniors tended to report significantly higher level of task achievement than freshman. At college A, mean scores for white students were lower than those for black students on five cues scales. At college B, black students perceived a greater scholarship press while white students scored higher on community.

Legette (1979) studied the relative value of intellectual and non-intellectual predictors of scholastic performance. The tests were administered to 374 students in the seventh, ninth and eleventh grades. It revealed that global self-concept shows a significant, positive correlation with achievement. Certain of the non-academic aspects of self-concept were also significantly and positively related to scholastic performance. The data re-affirmed that the self-concept does bear a statistically significant relationship to success in school.

Zirges (1979) conducted a study to determine the affective teaching skills by which teachers improve the measured self-concept of low self-concept students. Second, if self-concept scores improved would reading scores also improve? The study supports the belief that specific behaviour learned by the teachers has a significant impact in the improvement of student self-concept as measured by SEI.

Arap (1979) reported that self-concept and the teacher's perception were the strongest predictors of grade attainment. The pupils who thought highly of their abilities significantly outperformed those who had low perception of their abilities. Similarly, those pupils who were highly thought of by their teachers had higher grade scores and higher self-concept scores. The teacher's perception score correlated significantly with their achievement and self-concept scores and less than 1% level of significance.

The significant differences were found that girls are not doing as well as boys do in all the achievement variables. It was concluded that pupils' differences in self-concepts and their teachers' perceptions, contribution to the differences in their performance.

Cooper (1980) tried to investigate possible differences in feelings of self-concept and general school attitude between regular class students, low achievers in regular classes and main stream learning disabled students as measured by School Moral Inventory -(SMI) for Attitude and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) for self-concept. It was found that (1) the regular class student population and the learning disabled student population had significantly higher self-concept than low achiever population as measured by the TSCS. (2) There was no significant difference in self-concept as measured by the TSCS when examine the variables of sex, age, race and socio-economic status for all the groups. The low achiever student population had a more positive school attitude than the regular class student population as measured by the SMI.

Lopez (1980) studied whether the self-concept and academic achievement of elementary Mexican American and Anglo American school children were enhanced by their participation in a bilingual - bi-cultural education program. It was found that self-concept of Mexican, American children participating in a bilingual - bi-cultural education program is possibly depressed

by their presence in the program; but the self-concept of Anglo-American children is enhanced by their presence in the program. The quality of the variety of the implementation factors in specific programs account more for the level of self-concept and academic achievement of the student, than do overall concept and purposes of bilingual bi-cultural education.

Poloai (1980) conducted a study to determine the relationship between the self-concept and academic achievement of Samoan students. Results of the stepwise regression analysis were used to determine significant correlations and to develop prediction equations for each of the selected academic achievement variables. It was found that academic achievement was significantly related to the perceived evaluation of parents, or friends and of teachers and the linear combination of self-concept variables of both scales correlated significantly with academic achievement.

Michaud's (1981) study was designed to investigate the effects of self-concept of fourth and fifth grade students as a result of their participation in a group therapy enhancement program. It was also investigated the effects of this group intervention program on academic achievement and behaviour. Studies have shown that a positive self-concept is related to academic achievement.

Bulbul's (1981) study was relating self-concept and academic achievement. His study showed that significant positive

relationship were found to exist between self-concept scores and academic achievement for the total sample and all the groups by achievement level, sex and grade level. The analysis of variance test for significant differences in self-concept scores between the means of the groups, showed that high achieving children, regardless of sex or grade, obtained significantly higher scores on self-concept inventory than did low achieving children. It was also found that the fourth and fifth grade children scored significantly higher on the self-concept inventory than did third grade children.

Sampson (1981) investigated the Self-concepts of black, white and Indian students, grades three through twelve living in an urban and rural setting. It was found the interaction effects of ethnicity and grades and sex were found to be significant at the .05 level. A trend analysis for cubic effects of orthogonal polynomials further revealed a linear decreasing trend for grade four through twelve. A 't' test for the difference between the mean self-concept score of rural Indian students was significantly more positive than the mean self-concept scores of urban Indian students. Self-concepts of females were more positive than those of males.

Kalama (1982) had done a related study between the self-concept and academic achievement. He studied Hawaiian students in Public High Schools. Academic achievement was indexed by the

high school grade point average (GPA). The Self-concept of ability was measured by the Maryland Self-Concept as a Learner Scale (MSCLC) and the Brookover Self-Concept of Ability Scale (BSCAS).

The results of the statistical analysis system stepwise regression were used to determine significant correlations.

It was found that (1) academic achievement was highly correlated to the perceived evaluation of 'significance others' (parents, friends and teachers); and (2) the Self-concept variables of both scales correlated significantly with academic achievement, the Brookover Scale being more significant.

Stanfort (1983) studied if teacher can develop a positive self-concept in students, thereby enhancing the student's academic achievement. It was reported that significant results were obtained for academic achievement and self-concept gain scores at the .01 level of significance. Pearson's correlation test results indicated that these students with the lower absentee rate had the higher academic achievement and self-concept. The results also indicated that the higher the students self-concept the higher his academic performance.

Macci (1983) found statistical significance at the .0152 level between the number of children with a high self-concept and the parenting style categorized as authoritative. One of

the factor scores with a self-concept on the MZSSC (Martinek Zaichkowsky Self-Concept Scale) home and family relationship showed statistical significance to the child's self-concept.

(c) Self-Concept and Academic Performance :

Indian Studies

Studies on self-concept conducted in India are not many but the findings of these studies are significant. One of the important studies in the field was conducted by Agarwal and Brijbhusan in (1967) at the college level. The investigator had a sample of 120 college students (age group 18 to 21 years) of Kurukhstra. Techniques used for making inferences about self-concept of student were of two different methods. In one, the subject accepts or rejects the statements that have been pre-judged for the favourability and non-favourability. In the second method of the subject responds to the items twice - once as he thinks he is and then as he would like to be. It was found a positive relationship between self-concept and academic achievement scores of students. The value of r was .35, highly significant at .01 level.

Deo and Sharma (1970) studied 700 students, randomly selected from the final year of thirteen secondary schools. All the 700 achievement scores were converted into percentage scores. It was found that the value of r between self-concept

scores and achievement scores was .037 ($N = 700$), which was significant. The 'F' test was found to be 1.70, which was significant at .06 level. The significant of eta coefficient (Walker and Lev 1953) of 0.18 ($N = 700$) was tested and value of 'F' was observed to be 1.64 which was found to be significant at .06 level.

In (1969) Ramkumar investigated the relationship between self-concept and achievement of college students and the influence of certain variables on that relationship. Hypotheses in the study were : (a) There exist a positive relationship between self-concept and achievement, and self-concept and intelligence; (b) the relationship of environmental variables to self-concept is similar to their relationship with academic achievement and (c) it is possible to differentiate high and low achiever's on the basis of their self-concepts.

The sample was selected from the population of 2,539 students enrolled for the pre-degree course in all the colleges situated in one educational district in Kerala. A stratified random sample of 700 was drawn.

The self-concept was defined as 'the cluster of the most personal meanings of person contributes to the self' was measured by using a Q - sort measure prepared for the study. Nafde's non-verbal test of Intelligence was administered to obtain intelligence test scores. Information about community

of students was collected through a personal data sheet. The averages of the total marks obtained in two term examinations for all the subjects were taken as the index of achievement. It was found that (1) positive relationship existed between self-concept and achievement ($r = .43$), between self-concept and intelligence ($r = .11$) and intelligence and achievement ($r = .25$) (2) high and low achievers could be differentiated on their self-concept scores. They could also be differentiated when drawn from the sub-samples as boys, girls, and forward community, urban and rural students, small and big size families and ordinal positions in the family; (3) low and high achievers classified on residential area, community and family size could be differentiated on self-concept scores; (4) certain demographic and environmental variables were related to self-concept as well as achievement though the degree varied.

The importance of findings is enhanced when it is added that, with intelligence kept constant, the differences manifested in self-concept and achievement have a direction, i.e. low self-concept is associated with low achievement and high self-concept with high achievement. Self-concept, thus, becomes an important factor in measurement and prediction of school achievement as well as in the explanation of behaviour in other areas.

Inamdar (1974) took a selected sample of 100 pupils out of 280 students of Desai's study, Inamdar selected 33 with very high,

33 with average and 34 with very low achievement motivation. These were taken in order to study their perception level of the achievement related ideas. As Desai (1972) had tried out a curriculum to develop an achievement level of pupils. These curriculum booklets were further analysed by Inamdar in minute details to study the perception of the high's and low's about their self-image, their goals, their concern, their dream etc. These were the main results :

1. The JIM score showed positive and significant correlation with Achievement Motivation Inventory score of pupils ($r = .27$; $p = .01$).
2. The high JIM score pupils showed greater attachment to the former and reflected greater amount of Help Imagery.
3. The high JIM score pupils showed positive correlation with concern for excellence in their choice of things in the world.
4. The results also suggest that the pupils with high JIM score manifest greater achievement motive, greater optimism and greater ego manifestation.
5. The pupils with high JIM score liked the learning process more than the pupils with low JIM score.
6. The pupils with high JIM score on 'Ladder of Progress' liked affiliation of the Heroes more than lows. They also liked the achievement concern in their Heroes more than lows.
7. The pupils with high JIM score in 'My Aim', item show greater concern for excellence, and high concern for power; while pupils with low JIM score showed more concern for achievement and affiliation.

Rao (1975) in a study of self-perception, achievement motivation and academic performance of the prospective secondary school teachers reported the relationship between total perception and academic performance was highly significant beyond .01 level of probability. Brown's Self-Report Inventory was administered to measure positiveness or negativeness or indifference of attitude toward self and various segment of phenomenal world. Rao found the women students scoring significantly higher in self-perception than men students.

Lakshmi (1976) after conducting achievement motivation development programme on teacher trainees and studying its effects on their performance came to the conclusion that self-perception (measured by Brown's S.R.I.) is an important in determining performance.

Sarabhai (1976) came out with a different findings. She studied students of ages 11 to 19 studying in seventh, ninth and final year of school and first and third year of undergraduate courses in colleges of Ahmedabad. Self-concept, defined as one's image of self in terms of efficiency as measured by 'who am I' test, bore no relation with achievement of the students. The findings indicated very slight negative correlation of $-.09$ between grades and self-concept at .02 level of significance. Sarabhai found that the boys scored significantly higher self-concept scores than the girls.

Buch et al., (1979) studied 160 students of IX grade of Gujarati medium school. Out of this, 55 were boys and 105 were girls. It was found self-concept and achievement were not significantly correlated with each other when the effect of intelligence was partially out. Intelligence and achievement were found to be significantly correlated when the effect of self-concept was partially out and boys and girls did not differ in their intelligence and self-concept respectively.

Shah (1979) studied 718 pupils of grade IX and X drawn from ten different secondary schools of Bhavanagar city. Thus, the sample included 368 boys and 350 girls of whom 188 boys and 160 girls were drawn from IX grade. It was found that there is no significant sex difference at grade IX (i.e.301.24), (304.88) and grade X (301.16), (308.50), sex difference is statistically significant. Thus, the girls as a group, do not indicate higher positive self-concept. There is no significant difference in the self-concept of pupils studying in grades IX and X and that the relationship between the self-concept and academic achievement was not supporting the inverted U hypothesis. Rather than relationship was positively significant and linear.

Goswami (1980) studied intelligence and adjustment measured by administering (i) Samanya Mansik Yogyata Pariksha (A test of general mental ability) by M.G.Joshi and (ii) Vyaktitva Parakash Prashnavali by M.S.L.Sexena respectively, students' marks

obtained at the high school examination of U.P. Board (1976) served as an index of their scholastic achievement. A set of self-concept, Swatva - Both Parikshan was prepared by the investigator to find out the self-concept of the adolescent. The samples were 760 students, 450 were boys (217 from rural and 233 from urban) and 315 were girls (108 from rural and 207 from urban) pupils of class X. The following were the main results.

1. In respect of sex it was found that male adolescents had better global self-concept than female adolescents.
2. The relationship between self-concept and intelligence was found to be significant at .01 level for the total population as well as for the male - female and urban - rural sub-populations of the adolescents; However, the correlations lay in the range 0.22 to 0.31 and variances ranging only from 4.84 to 9.61 percent in the self-concept scores were accountable by intelligence.
3. It was found that the difference between the means of the self-concept scores of the urban and rural adolescents was not significant ($P > .05$).
4. It was found that a positive and significant correlation ($P > .01$) existed between global self-concept and scholastic achievement. Also this relationship was positive and significant for male-female and urban-rural sub-populations of the adolescents.
5. Positive and significant correlation between self-concept and adjustment was found. This relationship

was significant at .01 level for the total population and also for male - female and urban - rural sub-population separately.

Interestingly, the relationships between self-concept and scholastic achievement was stronger among the girls than among the boys.

Aram (1980) studied 23 schools - pupils of IX standard. The sample were 1031 pupils, 560 were boys and 471 were girls. It was found that mean score of self-concept is 5.60 which is an average mean. Self-concept is positively related with all the components, namely, goal oriented activity, internal resources, external resources, awareness of block personal, global stage - initiative, parental dependent, societal commitment and problem avoidance and all are significant at .01 level. Pupils of high academic performance group got highest mean score (6.09) for self-concept while pupils of average group got (5.59) and low (5.11) mean scores for self-concept. The difference of all three groups are significant at .01 level. Pupils of 12 year old (lowest age group) got lowest mean score (2.50) for self-concept. Boys got higher mean score (5.70) for self-concept than girls (5.49) which is not significant at any level. Pupils of low self-concept group got the highest mean score (3.71) for academic performance followed by an average group got (3.30)

and high group got lowest mean score (3.16). The differences between high and low group and between average - low group are significant at .01 level.

Sundaram (1981) studied 61 students (27 boys and 34) girls of second year B.A. history from two colleges in Madras city found that self-concept was not positively related to performance. Low and high achieving group does not differ significantly in their motivation and self-concepts (low 15.37), (high 17.88) achievement motivation. Self-concept (low 32.62), (high 33.42). There was no significant difference between boys and girls in their self-concept i.e. (33.37), (33.72) respectively.

Desai and Uchat (1983) studied 370 high achieving and low achieving of first year students of one arts college, one science college and one commerce college of Rajkot city. Of which, 94 were women students and 276 were men students. It was found high achieving students have significantly higher perception for 'me as a student' and 'community acceptance of me', than low achieving students. Low achieving students have significantly higher perception for 'Teachers, the examination system' and 'social activities', than high achieving students, and high achieving students possessed higher perceptions of 'self' possessed lower perception of 'college' as compared to low achieving students. This results show that the 'college' has been less favourably by high achieving students.

Conclusion :

Studies on the relationship between self-concept and academic performance present a confusing picture. Out of 28 studies, one was conducted at Technical Institute, three at college level and the rest were conducted at school level. Majority of the investigations have found self-concept had significant and positive relationship with academic performance. High grade pupils have been found higher self-concept than the younger ones. Washington (1979) found that males and females did not differ in terms of attainment, self-concept or attitude towards school. William (1973) Funaki (1976), Friedman (1979) and Sampson (1981) found that females students are more positive self-concept than males. The most unexpected finding of Cooper (1980) was that low achievers' student population were more positive towards school attitude than the regular class students' population as measured by SMI.

Of 13 Indian studies, four have been conducted at college level. Majority of the investigations reported significant positive relationship between the self-concept and the academic performance. Sarabhai's (1976) findings are unexpected when the nature of the tool and sample are considered. She used a semi projective test ('Who am I test') to probe the personality resource awareness of the subjects and found low negative correlation between self-concept and grades of the students.

Since the importance of the use of this type of test in getting a meaningful measure of individual's self-concept has been stressed by the psychologists. Further studies using the same test would help to conclude that self-concept measured on this test bears relationship with academic achievement.

In deriving all the research findings of the various studies done in India and abroad, the present study focusses on the perceptual consonance / dissonance and pupils' motivation towards school in relation to performance which is clarified much in detail in the third chapter.
