A Review of Self-Perceptions on Life Goals Achievements: Implications on Self-Development

N. Anthony Molesy PhD

Department of Educational Psychology, Faculty of Education, University of Buea, Buea, Cameroon

ABSTRACT

The claim that positive self-perceptions (or self-beliefs) are key elements of a positive and healthy personality has put them firmly on the political agenda. The idea that positive selfesteem, in particular, immunises people against susceptibility to a multitude of social problems has become hugely fashionable. The Achievement of life goals are cognitive representations that guide behaviour to a competence-related future end state. Existing theories and empirical findings suggest that life achievement goals are potentially related to life satisfaction. However, the relationship between life achievement goals and self-development remains relatively unexplored in psychology literature. In this study, we examined how, why, and when achievement goals affect life satisfaction with implications to self-development. The self-related perceptions of an individual are of great importance in creating, sustaining, improving and achieving the life goals of any individual. These self – related perceptions include: self-concept, self -efficacy, self – esteem, self-image, and self – worth. Every individual irrespective of the race, gender, culture or academic level, has ambitions, aspirations as well as goals in life which he/she aims or dreams to achieve. How to achieve these goals is based on every individual's self – perception, which determines his/her attitude, resilience and above all motivation to stay focus on achieving that which they set out to. The aim of this article was to highlight the importance of these self-related perceptions to every individual: those with positive self – related perceptions will have a positive outcome in their thriving to achieve their goals and other life related ambitions and the reverse is true for those with negative self-related perceptions.

KEYWORDS: Self-Perception, Life Goals, Achievement and self-development

INTRODUCTION

According to Hughes (2011), philosophers and others have been talking about the self since the advent of written history, thus giving it an important place in the study of humans. Added to this is the fact that modern day theories of self-perception have their roots in historical conceptions of the self (Hattie, 1992; Pajares & Schunk, 2002). This makes the self and especially knowledge of it very important in every human endeavour. Knowing who you are helps you determine what you become. Each profession requires particular skills, be it physical strength, mental ability or emotional stamina. Thus, knowing who we are becomes an important concept in drawing up, planning and achieving goals in life. This self – knowledge is covered by the umbrella term: self – perception, which according to Molesy (2020), refers to the way an individual views the self.

This umbrella term embodies many terms, all referring to how a person perceives the self such as: self – concept, self – esteem, self – efficacy, self – worth, self – image, self – knowledge, self – belief and the list can go on and on. But for the purpose of this article, only self – concept, self – efficacy, self – esteem, self – image, and self – worth are considered. We form perceptions of about ourselves from personal accomplishments, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological states (Bandura, 1977, 1986). The perceptions we form about ourselves can either be positive or negative; leading to success or failure. Positive perceptions of the self easily lead to success and the reverse is true for negative perception. It is therefore incumbent on humans to develop positive perceptions of them.

According to Schunk (1989), when students continually meet with failure in academic tasks or see their performance as less competent than other children to whom they are comparing themselves, they often exhibit less perseverance. Psychologists and motivating theorists have long believed that students' positive attitude toward learning and positive self–perception of their competence have great impact on their motivation thus enhancing their academic achievement (e.g., Harter, 1981; Bandura, 1994). According to Shen & Oleksandr (2003), many empirical studies have tested these assumptions and generally support it.

Thus, how the self is perceived, determines a lot how much that self will achieve in life. As human beings, we set goals, develop projects and dream to become a great person or achieve our self – actualisation. We literally have plans that we aim to achieve; these plans add up to make up our goals in life. Each one of us wants to achieve something, whether great or small, at some point in our lives. We have deep-seated hopes and dreams for the future and a burning desire to accomplish some great feats. It's stitched into the very

fabric of our society, woven into the core of who we are, deep down inside. It's emblazoned in our DNA, genetically pre-dispositioned, not just for mere survival, but also with a yearning passion to thrive (Adams, 2016). In fact, it is part of what has made us as a culture into who we are. Our species has more than just survived; we've quite literally thrived, achieving outlandish results thanks to the wild-eyed innovations that have sparked the possibility to make the seemingly impossible a reality in our lives. Not only have we wished for the moon, but we've also shot for the stars (Adams, 2016). This could only be possible because we perceived ourselves as being capable of doing it.

According to Wangshuai, Jie, Gong, Zhiming & Xin-an (2017), an achievement goal refers to "a future-focused cognitive representation that guides behaviour to a competence-related end state that the individual is committed to either approach or avoid" (Hulleman, Schrager, Bodmann, & Harackiewicz, 2010, p. 423) in (Wangshuai, Jie, Gong, Zhiming & Xin-an, 2017). In the past three decades, much has been published on achievement goals. Existing research shows that individuals differ in their behaviours and preferences in pursuit of achievement goals (harackiewicz & sansone, 1991). for example, one may easily recall that in school years, certain students worked hard and performed well on exams, demonstrating high achievement goals. In contrast, other students were not strongly concerned regarding academic performance, did not study, and had poor performance in exams, which denoted low motivation for achievement goals.

Situating the Context of Self-Related Perceptions and Life Goals Achievements
An achievement goal refers to "a future-focused cognitive representation that guides behavior to a competence related end state that the individual is committed to either approach or avoid" (Hulleman, Schrager, Bodmann, & Harackiewicz, 2010). Existing research shows that individuals differ in their behaviors and preferences in pursuit of achievement goals (Harackiewicz & Sansone, 1991). For example, one may easily recall that in school years, certain students worked hard and performed well on exams, demonstrating high achievement goals. In contrast, other students were not strongly concerned regarding academic performance, did not study, and had poor performance in exams, which denoted low motivation for achievement goals.

One stream of research has identified the antecedents of life achievement goals. For example, age is negatively related to achievement goals; females have a stronger mastery of goal orientation than males in an academic setting, whereas self-efficacy and perceived social environment, including peer relationships and sense of belonging, are positive predictors of achievement goals (Bong, 2009).

More recently, attention has been directed to the consequences of pursuing life achievement goals. For instance, achievement goals positively predict long-term academic performance (Elliot, 2000). Moreover, achievement goals can activate intrinsic motivation (Cury, Elliot, Sarrazin, Da Fonseca, & Rufo, 2002). Based on this finding, Lee, Sheldon, and Turban (2003) argue that achievement goals promote academic enjoyment. In contrast, researchers also find that negative emotions can be exacerbated by achievement goals due to * Correspondence:

mgmtli@i.shu.edu.cn high expectations. For example, students aspiring for high achievement goals may experience more anxiety during tests (Flanagan, Putwain, & Caltabiano, 2015).

The existing literature on life satisfaction shows that demographic variables, including gender, age, income, and education level, are associated with life satisfaction (Johnson & Krueger, 2006) and that a person who is more satisfied with life is more diligent, performs better at his/her job, and has a higher commitment to the organization (Efraty, Sirgy, & Claiborne, 1991). More recent research finds that expectation and aspiration are important to job and life satisfaction (Cheng, Wang, & Smyth, 2014). Similarly, academic goal progress is found to influence both academic and life satisfaction (Ojeda, Flores, & Navarro, 2011). Furthermore, Keller and Siegrist (2010) suggest that both goal pursuit and life satisfaction are psychological resources

Although these aforementioned studies suggest potential connections between achievement goals and life satisfaction, few studies have directly tested this relationship. In particular, it is unclear in the literature whether achievement goals influence life satisfaction in a positive or a negative way. On the one hand, individuals with high achievement goals can be substantially motivated by mental energy in the face of challenge (Grant & Dweck, 2003). On the other hand, these people also need to make a concerted effort in the stressful and laborious process of pursuing their goals (Senko & Harackiewicz, 2005).

People are paying increasing attention to the improvement of the quality of life. Life satisfaction's fundamental role and indispensability have been acknowledged by worldwide respondents (Diener, Oishi, & Lucas, 2003). Therefore, to help fill the gaps in the literature and to respond to the practical necessity, this research examines the association between self-related perception and life achievement goals. We also investigate why and when achievement goals influence life satisfaction by examining the underlying mechanism through perception of successful agency and the boundary condition of emotion reappraisal. It is also surprising that little research on achievement goals, successful agency, and emotional reappraisal have been conducted in non-western cultures, which leaves a potentially rewarding empirical research area to be explored. Existing studies suggest that there are significant cultural differences in positive psychology Wang, C. L. (2007). It is, therefore, very important to examine these constructs using data drawn from non-Western cultures.

Taken together, in this research, we first answer an important but unresolved question: what is the relationship between self-perception and life achievement goals? We further advance our study by reviewing potential mediation and moderation of this relationship. The current paper also has significant practical implications for self-development including but not limited to teachers and students on means to successfully pursue greater happiness.

Life satisfaction is a global cognitive judgment across a broad set of activities concerning one's quality of life. Various factors are related to life satisfaction, such as finances (Johnson & Krueger, 2006), family and marital relationships, health conditions (Canha, Simões, Matos, & Owens, 2016),

coping strategies (Nunes, Melo, Júnior, & Eulálio, 2016), and sexual behaviors (Cheng & Smyth, 2015). Although the direct evidence for the link between achievement goals and life satisfaction is limited, previous research has provided some indirect support. For instance, the self-determination theory theorizes two forms of motivation, which are controlled motivation and autonomous motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Controlled motivation originates either from self-imposed pressures or from external pressures, such as pleasing others or complying with demands, both of which have an externally perceived locus of causality. In contrast, autonomous motivation stems from one's self, thereby having an internally perceived locus of causality (Weinstein & Ryan, 2010). Setting high achievement goals, in many cases, reflects one's own values; thus, it is internally driven and inspires autonomous motivation (Cury et al., 2002). Importantly, literature based on self-determination theory indicates that autonomous motivation positively contributes to well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Moreover, individuals often want to maintain a sense of control, expecting everything to be in line with their plans (Park & Baumeister, 2017). However, there are always discrepancies between expectations and reality. Under certain circumstances, the experiences of hardships often demotivate people and make them feel dissatisfied with life. Achievement goals can provide a person with motivation (Pintrich, 2000), which serves as mental energy helpful in overcoming the difficulties and obstacles in life (Capa, Audiffren, & Ragot, 2008). As a result, people who set achievement goals for themselves are less affected by experiences that can have negative effects on life satisfaction.

Furthermore, researchers find that setting achievement goals is helpful to one's educational and occupational performance, since it results in better grades at school and upward career mobility (Gould, 1980; Harackiewicz et al., 2000; Harackiewicz, Barron, Tauer, & Elliot, 2002). The successes in academic and job domains boost selfefficacy and self-esteem (Bachman & O'Malley, 1977; Leary, Tambor, Terdal, & Downs, 1995; Tay, Ang, & Van Dyne, 2006), both of which can enhance satisfaction with life (Du, Bernardo, & Yeung, 2015)

Perception of successful agency is a sense of determination to be successful in pursuing goals, by which hope is fueled (Snyder et al., 1991). Perception of successful agency is conceptually similar to self-efficacy, and they are shown to be positively and moderately correlated (Magaletta & Oliver, 1999). However, successful agency is more future-oriented than is self-efficacy (Snyder et al., 1991). Thus, perception of successful agency is more closely related to achievement goals compared to self-efficacy. We hypothesize that achievement goals are positively related to perception of successful agency. This is because achievement goals usually lead people to maintain high standards and strive to accomplish difficult tasks (Phillips & Gully, 1997). After making every effort to ensure success, people are likely to hold positive expectations towards the outcomes. This notion is supported by the effort justification theory (Aronson & Mills, 1959), which states that people's expectations are in direct proportion to his/her effort. As expectations continue rising, they tend to attribute an even greater value to an outcome that they put effort into achieving.

The paper proposes that perception of successful agency is positively associated with life satisfaction for two reasons. First, perception of successful agency makes one's life meaningful. Feldman and Snyder (2005) suggest that perception of successful agency per se is actually a component of meaning, because factor analysis shows a single factor underlying the two constructs. People who feel that their life is more meaningful also report higher satisfaction with life (Park, Park, & Peterson, 2010; Steger, Frazier, Oishi, & Kaler, 2006). Second, according to the notion that hope copes with obstacles and enhances meaning in life, several empirical research has revealed a positive relationship between hope and life satisfaction Przepiorka, (2017). Because perception of successful agency is one dimension of hope, we expect its relationship with life satisfaction to be similar. Based on the above discussion, we hypothesize that; self-Perception of successful agency mediates the relationship between achievement goals and life satisfaction.

Individuals exert considerable control over their emotions but differ in their use of specific emotion regulation strategies. Of these, the two most widely used strategies are reappraisal and suppression. Emotion reappraisal is a cognitive change of emotional impact by construing a potentially emotion-eliciting situation. For example, people can feel upset or frustrated in a traffic jam. However, if drivers re-evaluate the current situation and consider a traffic jam as an unexpected opportunity to enjoy the beautiful scenery along the road, they can probably feel better off. This act of recognizing and changing the pattern of thoughts falls into emotion reappraisal. Compared with suppression, reappraisal is a much more effective regulation strategy. People who habitually use emotion reappraisal are less likely to be depressed (Feinberg, Willer, Antonenko, & John, 2012), experience more positive emotions and fewer negative emotions, and have better social functioning (Gross & John, 2003).

Life achievement goals promote one's expectation of the end state, which cannot always remain perfect. Failing to meet a goal means that most of the early efforts become sunk costs, which leads to decreased self-confidence and increased self-blame. These negative self-cognitions, in turn, trigger severe emotional reactions (Brown & Dutton, 1995), such as depression and anxiety (Ellenhorn, 2005; Hewitt & Flett, 1991). Consequently, when emotion reappraisal is low, the negative consequences caused by failure are unable to be adjusted in time, which lowers a person's perceived quality of life. In this condition, the positive relationship between achievement goals and life satisfaction is attenuated. In contrast, when emotion reappraisal is high, individuals take an optimistic attitude to negotiate stressful situations and thus become more immune to the pressure of goal failure (Gross & John, 2003). As a result, their satisfaction with life remains positively correlated with achievement goals. The study therefore, assumes that Emotion reappraisal moderates the positive relationship between self-perception and life goals achievements, such that the relationship is stronger when emotion reappraisal is high rather than low.

What are Life Goals?
Life goals according to Moore (2020), are what we want to achieve, and they are much more meaningful than just '*what we need to accomplish to survive*'. Unlike daily routines or short-term objectives, they drive our behaviours over the

long run. There's no single psychological definition for them, and they are not strictly a clinical construct, but they help us determine what we want to experience in terms of our values. And because they are personal ambitions, they can take many different forms. But they give us a sense of direction and make us accountable as we strive for happiness and well-being—for our best possible lives. Goals give purpose, focus and motivation in the life of an individual who thrives to accomplish them. Goals setting and achievement is influenced not just by who we are, but (and most largely so) by who we perceive ourselves to be.

Self – Perception

Self – perception according to Khan (2014) refers to how we perceive our self. Self-perception theory posits that people determine their attitudes and preferences by interpreting the meaning of their own behaviour. According to Molesy (2020), self – perception refers to the way an individual views the self; the ability, competence, motivation, worth and regard that an individual has for the self, which determines the values and aspirations that the person has or develops. One's self perception is defined by their self – concept, self – efficacy, self – esteem, self – image, and self – worth. Self – concept for example, forms a major part of self – perception. Daryl Bem (1967, 1972) introduced the name self – perception for the processes of self – observation and interpretations. He puts that we are in the same position as an outside observer of ourselves, and we must infer our own psychological states from our own actions. From this backdrop he developed the Self – Perception Theory.

This Self – Perception Theory, Bem (1967) states that in everyday life, people observe other people's actions and behaviours and make inferences about others' attitudes based on what they observe. Accordingly, when people are unsure of their own attitudes, one way to infer them is by looking at their behaviours and analyze it in the same fashion as they would analyze someone else's behaviour. Most people would agree, for example, that a person who perceives himself or herself as interested in reading may, as a result of that interest, buy books and also pay frequent visits to libraries. That is, the person's attitudes and self – perception influence his or her behaviour (Molesy, 2020), and aid in the achievement of life's goals. Self – perception is broken down into self – concept, self – efficacy, self – esteem, self – image, and self – worth.

Self – Concept

Baumeister (1999) defines self – concept as "the individual's belief about himself or herself, including the person's attributes and who and what the self is". According to Carl Rogers (1959), it is "the organized, consistent set of perceptions and beliefs about oneself." Each person has their own self – concept that reflects all of their personal attributes, beliefs and attitudes. One's self – concept (also called self-identity or self-perspective) is a collection of beliefs about oneself that includes elements such as academic performance, attributes and traits, gender roles and sexuality, racial identity, and many others. Generally, self – concept embodies the answer to the question "Who are you?" (Dur, Khan & Shaikh, 2014).

Self – concept is considered by many researchers as the central theme of life which affects all relationships, performances and achievements either positively or negatively. The basic assumption is that individuals who feel good about themselves and their abilities are the ones who are most likely to succeed (Lawrence & Vimala, 2013). Since they trust and belief in their ability, this gives them a strong motivation which is an important determinant of achievement. According to Lawrence & Vimala (2013), academic success or failure appears to be as deeply rooted in concept of self as it is in measured mental ability. Being the sum total of a person's perceptions about his/her physical, social, temperamental and academic competence, it covers aspects such as beliefs, convictions and values the person holds. It also includes attitudes of himself or herself as a person, his/her worth, his or her right to have his/ her own feelings and thoughts and making his /her own decisions (Sood, 2006). It thus plays a major role in the achievement of the life's goals which an individual has for him/herself.

Self – Efficacy

According to Bandura (1997), self – efficacy refers to one's beliefs in one's capability to organize and execute the courses of action required to achieve given results. In the 1994 Encyclopedia of Human Behavior, Bandura emphasized that "self – efficacy beliefs determine how people feel, think, motivate themselves and behave" (Bandura, 1994 p.71). According to Bandura (1997), of all the thoughts that affect human functioning, and standing at the very core of social cognitive theory, are self – efficacy beliefs, that is, "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances". This makes self – efficacy beliefs to stand out as the foundation for human motivation, well-being, and personal accomplishment. This is because unless people believe that their actions can produce the outcomes they desire, they have little incentive to act or to persevere in the face of difficulties (Pajares, 2002). Bandura's (1997) key contentions as regards the role of self – efficacy beliefs in human functioning is the fact that "people's level of motivation, affective states, and actions are based more on what they believe than on what is objectively true" (p. 2). For this reason, how people behave can often be better predicted by the beliefs they hold about their capabilities than by what they are actually capable of accomplishing, for these self-efficacy perceptions help determine what individuals do with the knowledge and skills they have. Self – efficacy beliefs as such can enhance human accomplishment and well-being in countless ways. They influence the *choices* people make and the courses of action they pursue. The Roman poet Virgil observed that "they are able who think they are able." The French novelist Alexander Dumas wrote that, when people doubt themselves, they make their own failure certain by themselves being the first to be convinced of it. There is now ample evidence to suggest that Virgil and Dumas were absolutely correct (Pajares, 2002).

Self – Esteem

Self – esteem according to Hughes (2011) is defined as the value that individuals place on themselves. It involves both judgements about a person's own worth, and the feelings associated with those judgements. It is the way individuals perceive themselves and their self-worth. A person with high self – esteem is satisfied with the person they are and meets their own standards as a human being (Coopersmith, 1967; Rosenberg, 1985). Self – esteem is classified between low and high, with high self – esteem being the most desirable

and recommended. There can be wide-ranging consequences for children who exhibit low self – esteem (Baumeister et al., 2003; Emler, 2001). They are more likely to have difficulties dealing with problems, be overly self-critical, and become passive, withdrawn and depressed. They are also more likely to be easily frustrated, may hesitate to try new things, may speak negatively about themselves, and often see temporary problems as permanent conditions. In essence, they tend to be pessimistic about themselves and their life. On the other hand, children who exhibit high self – esteem may laugh and smile more, are more likely to have a generally optimistic view of the world and their lives, and tend to find it easier to handle conflicts, resist negative pressures, and make friends. When individuals tap into their self – esteem perceptions they ask themselves questions that revolve around 'How do I feel?', 'Am I happy?', 'Do people like me?' Answers to these questions reveal whether an individual possesses high or low self – esteem (Hughes, 2011). Those with high self – esteem stand a better chance of achieving their goals in life, compared to those with low self – esteem.

Self – Image

According to Dur, Khan & Shaikh (2014), a person's self – image is the mental picture, generally of a kind that is quite resistant to change, that depicts not only details that are potentially available to objective investigation by others (height, weight, hair colour, gender, I.Q. score, etc.), but also items that have been learned by that person about himself or herself, either from personal experiences or by internalizing the judgments of others. A simple definition of a person's self – image is it is a person's mental model of him or herself. It is their answer to the question "What do you believe people think about you?" It is literally considered to be a person's personal identity.

We often speak of one's personal identity as what makes a person to be that person. Your identity in this sense consists roughly of what makes you unique as an individual and different from others. Or it is the way you see or define yourself, or the network of values and convictions that structure your life. This individual identity is a property (or set of properties). Presumably it is one you have only contingently: you might have had a different identity from the one you in fact have. It is also a property that one may have only temporarily, as one could swap his/her current individual identity for a new one, or perhaps even get by without being conscious of any (Ludwig 1997). Being "the idea, conception, or mental image one has of oneself," it is a number of self – impressions that have built up over time. Thus, self – image can be positive, giving a person confidence in their thoughts and actions, or negative, making a person

doubtful of his/her capabilities and ideas. Therefore, to be able to achieve goals or other ambitions in life, an individual must be conscious of and develop a positive self – image which will consequently lead to the development of the right motivation towards the achievement of such goals.

Self – Worth

Self – worth and self – value are two related terms that are often used interchangeably. Having a sense of self – worth means that one values the self, and having a sense of self – value means that one is worthy. The differences between the two are minimal enough that both terms can be used to describe the same general concept. Self – worth is defined by Merriam-Webster as: "a feeling that you are a good person who deserves to be treated with respect" (Ackerman, 2020). According to the self – worth theory, an individual's main priority in life is to find self – acceptance and that self – acceptance is often found through achievement (Covington & Beery, 1976) in (Ackerman, 2020). In turn, achievement is often found through competition with others. Thus, the logical conclusion is that competing with others can help us feel like we have impressive achievements under our belt, which then makes us feel proud of ourselves and enhances our acceptance of ourselves. This as such makes the perceptions of self – worth and competent (or incompetent) behaviour in various domains become important to the self both cognitively and affectively.

Based on the self – worth theory, self – worth is determined mostly by our self – evaluated abilities and our performance in one or more activities that we deem valuable (Ackerman, 2020). However, people commonly use other yardsticks to measure their self – worth. Here are five of the top factors according to Ackerman (2020) that people use to measure and compare their own self – worth to the worth of others: Appearance, Net worth, Who you know/your social circle, What you do/your career and What you achieve such as success in business, scores in an exam, or placement in a marathon or other athletic challenge (Morin, 2017) in (Ackerman, 2020). All these put together build the self – worth of an individual who can (based on those five parameters), develop self confidence or destroy it. With self confidence comes motivation and will to pursuit life's goals, which will consequently lead to their achievement.

Based on these five indicators of self – perception in this article, which are: self – concept, self – efficacy, self – esteem, self – image, and self – worth, a conceptual diagram can be developed to show their influence in the achievement of life's goals as can be seen on the figure below:
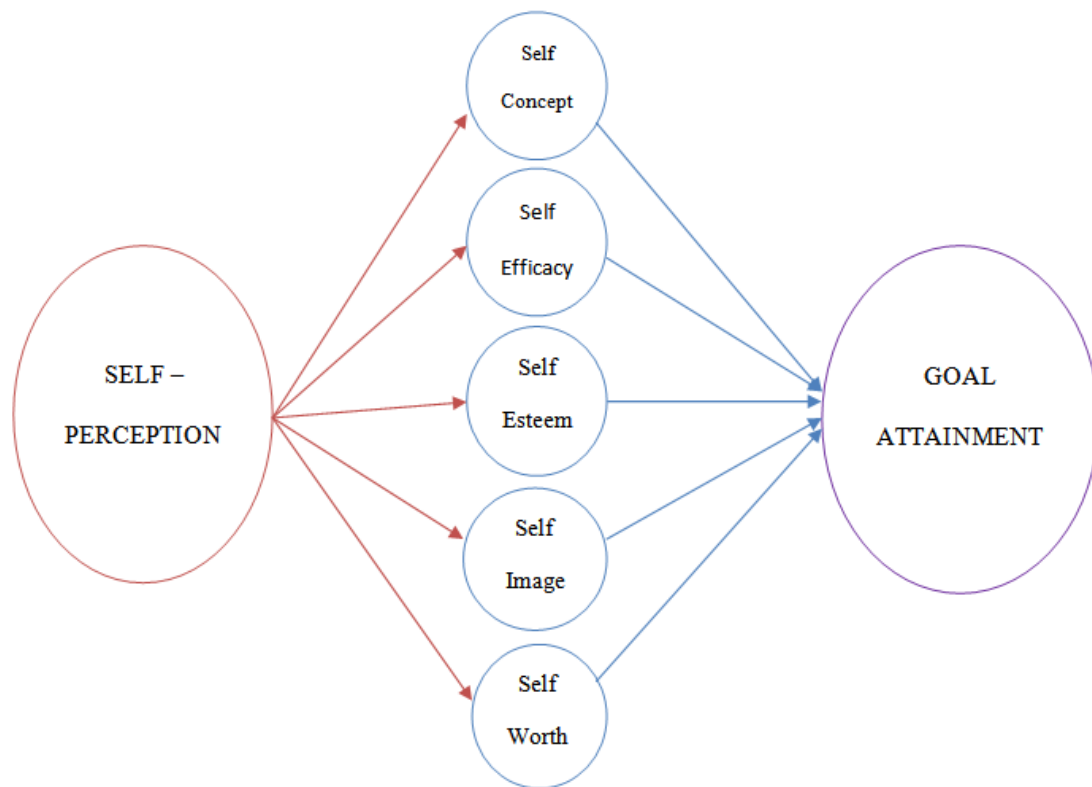
Figure 1: Conceptual diagram of Indicators of Self – Perception

Theoretical bearings of Self – Perception

Educational research values self-related perceptions because of their assumed importance as a causal or mediating influence over behaviour. The focus within education is on the contributions of three different types of self-perceptions self-esteem, self-concept and self-efficacy to academic behaviours and achievements. Definitions of these three self-constructs emphasise different internal components. Self-esteem and self-concept are two separate but related constructs. Self-esteem is defined as the value that individuals place on themselves. It involves both judgements about a person's own worth, and the feelings associated with those judgements. It is the way individuals perceive themselves and their self-worth. A person with high self-esteem is satisfied with the person they are and meets their own standards as a human being. This definition bring the notions of values into play – because being 'worthy' is inherently seen as more desirable or 'good' it is seen as a more valued trait to have, whereas being 'unworthy' is viewed as being undesirable, inferior, or 'bad'.

There can be wide-ranging consequences for children who exhibit low self-esteem (Baumeister et al., 2003). They are more likely to have difficulties dealing with problems, be overly self-critical, and become passive, withdrawn and depressed. They are also more likely to be easily frustrated, may hesitate to try new things, may speak negatively about themselves, and often see temporary problems as permanent conditions. In essence, they tend to be pessimistic about themselves and their life. On the other hand, children who exhibit high self-esteem may laugh and smile more, are more likely to have a generally optimistic view of the world and their lives, and tend to find it easier to handle conflicts, resist negative pressures, and make friends. When individuals tap into their self-esteem perceptions they ask themselves questions that revolve around 'How do I feel?', 'Am I happy?', 'Do people like me?' Answers to these questions reveal whether an individual possesses high or low self-esteem.

Self-concept is a more encompassing construct than self-esteem. Broadly defined, selfconcept is seen as an overall composite perception of oneself; it is a general, selfdescriptive construct that incorporates many forms of self-evaluative feelings, attitudes and aspects of self-knowledge, for example, about our abilities, skills, appearance and social desirability (Jerslid, 1965; Marsh & Shavelson, 1985; West & Fish, 1973). When individuals tap into their self-concept perceptions they ask themselves questions that revolve around 'Am I good at writing?', 'Am I good at driving a car?', 'Do I make friends easily?' Whereas self-esteem refers to feelings about the overall self, self-concept refers to what one thinks and believes about the self in various situations. It is therefore viewed as a multidimensional construct (this will be discussed in more detail later). Self-esteem is viewed as the global aspect of the self-concept (Marsh, 2006; Marsh & O'Mara, 2008), which is also variably referred to as global self-concept or global self-worth. Self-esteem is based more on generalised affective (or emotional) responses to the self, whereas self-concept perceptions are more cognitive and descriptive.

Some theoretical models contend that the self-concept is constructed of cognitive and affective (worthiness) components, with the cognitive component being further separated into both self-descriptions and self-evaluations (Bong & Clark, 1999). For these authors, descriptive and evaluative judgements interact with affective feelings to form the overall self-concept. Self-esteem is therefore seen as a specific component of self-concept. Other models of self-concept.

Harter's model assumes that self-concept is based on cognitive assessments of self-competence in various contextual domains. Self-competence assessments impact on self-esteem judgements (or self-worth judgements as she calls them), but self-esteem is not seen as a specific

component of self-concept. Competence is based on succeeding (or failing) at specific actions and behaviours. Self-worth, on the other hand, is more of a feeling or evaluation about the self, rather than a behaviour or outcome and involves subjective appraisals of value which are often based on social and interpersonal foundations. Perceptions of self-worth and competent (or incompetent) behaviour in various domains become important to the self both cognitively and affectively. Harter therefore recognises the importance of affect and its integration with cognitive processes but sees cognitive judgements of self-concept and affective judgements of self-esteem as separate processes (Harter, 1998).

The relationship between self-concept and self-esteem depends on the degree of salience or importance one ascribes to the conception of the self in a particular area (domain) (Harter, 1985a, 1986; Hattie, 1992). Hattie (1992) states that: "my acceptance of my concept of self in these two domains is independent of my knowledge and abilities. Only if I regard certain aspects of my self-concept as important will there be effects on my beliefs of self-esteem.". This is consistent with James' (1890/1963) early ideas about self-esteem. This also links to self-worth theory (Covington, 1992) which suggests that the ability to achieve is highly valued in society, thus people who regard themselves as competent in a particular domain are likely to have positive feelings of self-worth (i.e. more positive self-esteem).

Hence, there is not necessarily an automatic correspondence between cognitive and affective aspects of self-concept/self-esteem (Skaalvik, 1997a). For example, if it is not important to someone that they are a good football player then not being able to play football well is unlikely to affect their self-concept or self-esteem perceptions. Therefore, our capabilities and self-perceptions are only a function of the salience we place on them in specific situations or contexts. Skaalvik (1997a) argues that the descriptive/evaluative aspects of self-concept can be distinguished from affective aspects because affective components incorporate feelings of self-worth, refer to approval or disapproval of the self in a given situation, and are formed by comparing perceived competence to known values, standards or norms. Thus, the cognitive dimension gives rise to affective as well as motivational judgements. For example, thinking of oneself as smart (cognitive assessment) is likely to give rise to an affective or motivational reaction (Covington, 1984). Such reactions are regarded as motivational in that individuals who regard themselves as smart or competent, and who value smartness, are more likely to make a greater effort to succeed in future endeavours.

Perceived competence is also a primary component of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is defined as the belief that one has the capability to succeed in specific situations (Bandura, 1977). It is a context-specific judgement of capability to perform a task, or engage in an activity. It is a judgement of one's own confidence which depends mostly on the task at hand and is independent of any socially or culturally assigned values. One of the basic tenets of self-efficacy theory is that individuals who exhibit a strong sense of self-efficacy tend to consider setbacks and difficult obstacles as challenges and therefore generally perform at higher levels than individuals who question their self-efficacy. Individuals who exhibit weak or low self-efficacy often view challenges and setbacks

as threats, resulting in low aspirations and weak commitment to goals (Bandura, 1995). Individuals with strong or high self-efficacy tend to set higher goals and remain motivated in the face of failure and disappointment. When an individual taps into their self-efficacy perceptions they ask themselves questions that revolve around 'Can I?' How well can I write? Can I drive a car? Can I solve this problem? Could I easily make friends? Answers to these questions reveal whether an individual possesses high or low efficacy to accomplish a task/activity.

Self-efficacy is seen as dealing almost exclusively with cognitive perceptions of competence. These cognitive aspects also include an evaluative component. This is because judgements of competence necessitate evaluations of what one is or is not capable of achieving. The emotions that are generated following these evaluative judgements are likely to be different than those generated following self-concept evaluative judgements, however (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003). Affective or emotional self-components are recognised as being associated with cognitive self-efficacy perceptions and low self-efficacy is recognised as causing anxiety and stress (Bandura, 1986). However, self-efficacy researchers see affective/emotional responses as a consequence of self-efficacy perceptions, not as a constituent for defining them, as is the case with self-concept perceptions. For proponents of self-efficacy theory, competent functioning requires harmony between self-beliefs and abilities, skills, and knowledge. Self-efficacy theory does not suggest that accomplishment of difficult tasks is simply a result of believing that we can accomplish tasks beyond our capabilities, but rather that positive competence perceptions help determine how we use our current knowledge and skills. Self-efficacy perceptions are therefore critical determinants of whether one will actually expend effort on a task and persist under difficult conditions. As such, self-efficacy is essentially a motivational construct (Bandura, 1997).

Structure, dimensionality and specificity of self-perceptions
Structure and dimensionality
Self-esteem is typically seen as being a one-dimensional construct, such that it consists of an overall, or global, perception of the self. One-dimensional models define self-esteem as a composite score derived from multiple items, each of which taps into overall, global, feelings about the self (Byrne, 1996). Early self-concept models were also grounded in the notion that self-concept is one-dimensional, with measures devised such that item scores in different areas were summed to yield an overall score. Such models were analogous to the one-dimensional construct of self-esteem. Recent models of self-concept typically propose the notion of a more differentiated, multidimensional self, with domain-related (domainspecific) self-concepts that are functionally distinct (Bong & Clark, 1999). These can intercorrelate but can also be interpreted as separate constructs. Such models view self-esteem as being a component of the multidimensional structure. However, different models differ in the way that self-esteem is incorporated into that structure.

The correlated-factor model (Byrne, 1996) proposes that self-concept is composed of multiple domain-specific self-concept facets that correlate amongst themselves as well as

correlating with a separate global dimension of self-esteem (which Harter calls global self-worth). These facets can be interpreted as separate constructs and vary with age (Harter, 1983, 1990b; Marsh, 1989, 1990b). Measurement instruments developed within this model allow one to determine the extent to which domain-specific self-concepts affect global self-esteem.

Self-concepts in various domains (academic, social, behavioural, for example) may or may not be mutually exclusive and can be conceptualised from the very specific to the very global (the specificity of self-perceptions will be discussed later). Individual domain specific self-concept judgements can occur without reference to global self-esteem judgements (Harter, 1990c). The Self-Perception Profile for Children (SPPC; Harter, 1985b) and the Self-Perception Profile for Adolescents (SPPA; Harter, 1988) are two of the most notable and widely used examples of assessment instruments developed within the framework of this model. Harter and colleagues also developed instruments within the correlated-factor model for other age-groups (Harter & Pike, 1983; Messer & Harter, 1986; Neemann & Harter, 1986; Renick & Harter, 1988). Harter's research has revealed that not only does self-concept become increasingly differentiated with age as ability to judge self-worth increases, but correlations among domain-specific self-concepts decrease with age (Harter, 1990a). This latter finding has been supported by other researchers (Byrne, B. M. (2010).

The hierarchical model also proposes that the self-concept is comprised of multiple domain-specific self-concepts that correlate. However, underpinning this model is that global self-esteem is a higher-order factor that comprises self-concepts in various domains. Self-esteem judgements are therefore dependent on self-concept judgements in specific contexts. Byrne, B. M. (2010)were the first to propose a theoretical definition and model of self-concept that portrayed both a multidimensional and hierarchical structure (commonly cited as the Shavelson model). Categories within the hierarchy are differentiated by subject/area domain and organised with global perceptions of the self at the apex. At the next level of the hierarchy are academic and non-academic perceptions, and at the next are domain-specific self-perceptions.

These are further separated into more subject-specific/area-specific self-concepts, each of which is tapped by individual items which reflect self-perceptions in that subject/area. As one goes further down the hierarchy, therefore, self-concept becomes progressively more specific. Perceptions within each domain, or dimension, are expected to inter-correlate but can also operate as separately interpretable entities. The Shavelson model of self-concept served as a basis for the development of the Self-Description Questionnaire (SDQ) instruments devised by Marsh and colleagues, which have been produced for preadolescents, adolescents/late-adolescents, and young adults Byrne, B. M. (2010). The resulting self-concept model has become known as the Marsh/Shavelson model. Consistent with Harter (1990a), Marsh and Shavelson's research indicates that self-concept becomes increasingly differentiated with age. Harter's SPPC/SPPA measures and the SDQ measures reflect this age-related differentiation. Therefore, the number of subscales

they incorporate increases for older age-groups (although there are subscales common to all age-related versions).

In relation to self-esteem and self-concept, therefore, theoretical models of self-esteem are typically one-dimensional, whereas theoretical models of self-concept are typically multidimensional. This has contributed to the debate about what actually constitutes self-esteem and self-concept. In current literature, measures that assess the constructs unidimensionally are usually viewed as measuring self-esteem, whereas multidimensional measures are seen as measuring self-concept. Like self-concept, self-efficacy is proposed as a multidimensional construct with differentiation between domains of functioning. Research provides support for self-efficacy conceptualised as a multidimensional construct (Bong, 1997; Bong & Hocevar, 2002). This varies depending on gender, age and prior knowledge (Bong, 1999, 2001; Bong & Skaalvik, 2003).

It has also been suggested that self-efficacy has a 'loosely hierarchical' structure (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003), although this has yet to be confirmed. Preliminary evidence indicates that social, task management and academic higher-order factors underlie domain-specific self-efficacy precepts (Choi, Fuqua, & Griffin, 2001; Miller, Coombs, & Fuqua, 1999), although Miller and colleagues observed that these factors could be interpreted in a number of ways (for example, with task management factors being interpreted in either social or academic situations), and questioned whether they were theoretically meaningful. Studies also suggest that verbal and quantitative higher-order factors underlie problem-specific and subject-specific academic self-efficacy precepts (Bong, 1997, 1999, 2001). The study of self-efficacy hierarchy is very much in its infancy, however, and it has yet to be confirmed whether the internal structure of self-efficacy precepts resembles the hierarchical nature of self-concept.

It is entirely possible that part of an individual's representation of their self-efficacy exists at a higher-order level. There is likely to be some covariation in ability to perform different tasks within a specific domain – being good at simultaneous equations may well be correlated with being good at applying Pythagoras' theorem – because these tasks share the need for some common sub-skills. A student may therefore observe that they are competent at a range of tasks within a domain, and so develop a higher-order selfperception that they are capable in mathematics. Even if this were not the case, an individual's expectations about how they will perform in new situations tends to be based on experiences in similar types of situations, and this mechanism might in itself lead to the development of higher-order beliefs about their self-efficacy.

Forming self-perceptions at a general level of specificity can be problematic. This is because when individuals are asked to make domain-specific or subject/area-specific assessments in a given context they are expected to do so without reference to explicit performance criteria; judgements must be generated without a respondent having a clear task or activity in mind. Consequently, individuals have to make an aggregated judgement using competence information that is the most relevant to them within the wider domain, and which is most salient and readily accessible in the self-schema (Bandura, 1997; Bong &

Skaalvik, 2003). This means that by default, respondents are essentially choosing their own performance criteria against which to make self-perception appraisals. General measures can, therefore, suffer from questionable relevance to the domain of functioning being explored and result in a confounding mixture of items that reflect generalised personality traits, and the emotional and motivational effects of self-beliefs and past behaviours, rather than context-specific judgements Bandura, (1997).

Bandura has cautioned that self-efficacy should, in the main, be assessed using context-specific measures consistent with the achievement index with which they are being compared, rather than with more general measures. However, in instances where situational variants cannot always be specified in advance, or where considering self-efficacy (and self-concept) judgements for all variants within a general context is too time-consuming, assessing self-perceptions at domain- or subject/area-specific levels can expand the scope of pre-dictiveness, compared to measures that selectively explore specific tasks. For example, there may be more value in asking the general questions such as 'How well can you learn mathematics?' rather than specific questions about multi-digit addition, calculating angles, solving simultaneous equations, and so on.

Implications of self-perception on educational outcomes
Given that self-concept and school performance mutually influence each other, teachers and parents should aim to improve both academic achievement and self-concept in students and address potential mediators. Efforts to enhance self-concept or school performance alone can be expected to be transitory (Marsh & Craven, 2006).

As students form self-concept through social comparison, educators can help avoid or diminish views of low self-concept by minimizing social comparisons. More affirmatively, educators can help adjust the frames of reference students use in evaluating their competence (e.g., encouraging students to focus on the extent that they have improved over time rather than concentrating on how the other students are performing. Teachers can also minimize social comparison by avoiding competitions that acknowledge and praise only the "winners." Increasingly, efforts to enhance student self-concepts are focusing on enhancing feelings of empowerment and confidence by creating a friendly and encouraging school environment that appreciates personal strengths and assets (Liem, McInerney & Yeung, 2015).

At the same time, it is evident that a student's self-concept is not the only concern when it comes to helping enhance student school performance and well-being. That is why we advocate for embedding concerns about self-concept into a unified, comprehensive, and equitable system for addressing barriers to learning and teaching and re-engaging disconnected students. Such a system involves a fundamental transformation of current student and learning supports.

Conclusion
The development of self-awareness early in life reveals layers of processes that expand from the perception of the body in action to the evaluative sense of self as perceived by others. It reveals also what mature self-awareness is made

of. I propose that the self-awareness experienced by adults is made of the 5 basic levels discussed here. Self-awareness is a dynamic process, not a static phenomenon. As adults, we are constantly oscillating in our levels of awareness: from dreaming or losing awareness about ourselves during sleep, to being highly self-conscious in public circumstances or in a state of confusion and dissociation as we immerse ourselves in movies or novels. In fact, each of these oscillating states of self-awareness can be construed as constant transition between the 5 levels emerging early in life. These levels form the degrees of liberty of self-awareness as a constantly fluctuating process.

We all have dreams, but some merit more of our energy than others. When we reflect on our aspirations along with our personal values, we're already on the way to setting life goals (Moore, 2020). Whether you've got no clue what you want, or you have a mile-long bucket list, hopefully, look up 'a life without goals' and you may quickly find yourself surrounded by disheartening clichés like "going nowhere" and "race with no finish line". But while there are real benefits to goal-setting, is the absence of goals really so terrible? The answer is obvious: YES! A goal is a target toward which an individual can direct his/her efforts. Without a goal one is bound to move off in the wrong direction, thus wasting time and effort. A goal should be more specific and less general than simply getting a college education. Each individual needs to formulate a clear notion of not only what he/she wants in college and in life, but also why he/she wants it. It is the goal that establishes the deep-seated almost blind faith that if one keeps going; things will work out all right (LAC, 2020). Educational research values self-related perceptions because of their assumed importance as a causal or mediating influence over behaviour, motivation and achievement. The focus in this article is on the contributions of five different types of self – perceptions: self – concept, self – efficacy, self – esteem, self – image, and self – worth to achievement of life goals.

References

[1] Ackerman, E. (2020). What is Self-Worth and How Do We Increase it? Retreived on 20/04/202 from https://positivepsychology.com/team/courtney-ackerman/

[2] Adams, R.L. (2016). 7 Steps to Achieving Any Goal in Life. retrieved on the 20/04/2020 from https://www.entrepreneur.com/slideshow/346623

[3] Bandura A. (1994). Self-efficacy. In: Ramchaudran VS, editor. *Encyclopedia of Human Behavior*. Vol. 4. Academic Press; New York, NY, USA.

[4] Bandura A. (1997). *Self-Efficacy: The Exercise of Control*. New York, NY, USA: WH Freeman.

[5] Bandura, A. (1977). Self – efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioural change. *Psychological Review*, 8(2), 191-215.

[6] Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action*. Upper Saddle River. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

[7] Bandura, A. (1997). Self-efficacy: The exercise of control. New York: W. H. Freeman and Company.

[8] Bandura, A. (2001). Guide for constructing self-efficacy scales (Revised ed.). Stanford, CA: Stanford University.

[9]   Bandura, A. (2006). Guide for creating self-efficacy scales. In F. Pajares & T. Urdan (Eds.), Selfefficacy beliefs of adolescents (pp. 307-337). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.

[10] Bandura, A. (Ed.). (1995). Self-efficacy in changing societies. New York: Cambridge University Press.

[11] Bandura, A. (1997). Self – efficacy: *The exercise of control*. New York: Freeman.

[12] Bandura, A., Barbaranelli, C., Caprara, G. V., & Pastorelli, C. (1996). Multifaceted impact of selfefficacy beliefs on academic functioning. Child Development, 67(3), 1206-1222.

[13] Bandura, A., Barbaranelli, C., Caprara, G. V., & Pastorelli, C. (2001). Self-efficacy beliefs as shapers of children's aspirations and career trajectories. Child Development, 72(1), 187-206.

[14] Bandura, A., Pastorelli, C., Barbaranelli, C., & Caprara, G. V. (1999). Self-efficacy pathways to childhood depression. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 76, 258-269.

[15] Bem, D. J. (1967). Self-Perception: An Alternative Interpretation of Cognitive Dissonance Phenomena. Psychological Re-view, 74, 183-200.

[16] Bem, D. J. (1972).Self-Perception Theory.In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), Advances in Experimental Social Psychology (Vol. 6, pp.1-62). New York: Academic Press.

[17] Bong, M. & Skaalvik, M. (2003). Academic self-concept and self-efficacy: How different are they really? *Educational Psychology Review*, 15(1), 1–40.

[18] Bong, M. (1997). Generality of academic self-efficacy judgements: Evidence of hierarchical relations. Journal of Educational Psychology, 89(4), 696-709.

[19] Bong, M. (1999). Personal factors affecting the generality of academic self-efficacy judgments: Gender, ethnicity, and relative expertise. Journal of Experimental Education, 67, 315-331.

[20] Bong, M. (2001). Between- and within-domain relations of academic motivation among middle and high school students: Self-efficacy, task- value, and achievement goals. Journal of Educational Psychology, 93(1), 23-34.

[21] Bong, M. (2002). Predictive utility of subject-, task-, and problem-specific self-efficacy judgements for immediate and delayed academic performances. Journal of Experimental Psychology, 70(2), 133.162.

[22] Bong, M. (2004). Academic motivation in self-efficacy, task value, achievement goal orientations, and attributional beliefs. Journal of Educational Research, 97, 287-297.

[23] Bong, M. (2009). Age-related differences in achievement goal differentiation. Journal of Educational Psychology, 101, 879–896 doi: 10.1037/a0015945.

[24] Bong, M., & Clark, R. E. (1999). Comparison between self-concept and self-efficacy in academic motivation research. Educational Psychologist, 34(3), 139-153.

[25] Bong, M., & Hocevar, D. (2002). Measuring self-efficacy: Multitrait-multimethod comparison of scaling procedures. Applied Measurement in Education, 15(2), 143-171.

[26] Bong, M., & Skaalvik, E. M. (2003). Academic self-concept and self-efficacy: How different are they really? Educational Psychology Review, 15(1), 1-40.

[27] Bono, J. E., & Judge, T. A. (2003). Core self-evaluations: A review of the trait and its role in job satisfaction and job performance. European Journal of Personality, 17, S5-S18.

[28] Bouffard, T. (2000). Changes in self-perceptions of competence and intrinsic motivation among elementary school children. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans.

[29] Burnett, C. (1996). Children's Self-talk and Significant Others' Positive and Negative Statements. *Educational Psychology*, 16(1), 57–67.

[30] Byrne, B. M. (2010). Structural equation modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications and programming. Hove, East Sussex: Routledge.

[31] Canha, L., Simões, C., Matos, M. G., & Owens, L. (2016). Well-being and health in adolescents with disabilities. Psicologia: Reflexão e Crítica, 29(1), 32–39 doi:10. 1186/s41155-016-0041-9.

[32] Cheng, Z., Wang, H., & Smyth, R. (2014). Happiness and job satisfaction in urban China: a comparative study of two generations of migrants and urban locals. Urban Studies, 51, 2160–2184 doi: 10.1177/0042098013506042.

[33] Choi, N., Fuqua, D. R., & Griffin, B. W. (2001). Exploratory analysis of the structure of scores from the Multidimensional Scales of Perceived Self-Efficacy. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 61(3), 475-489.

[34] Cury, F., Elliot, A., Sarrazin, P., Da Fonseca, D., & Rufo, M. (2002). The trichotomous achievement goal model and intrinsic motivation: a sequential mediational analysis. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 38, 473–481 doi: 10.1016/ s0022-1031(02)00017-3.

[35] Diener, E. D., Oishi, S., & Lucas, R. E. (2003). Personality, culture, and subjective well-being: emotional and cognitive evaluations of life. Annual Review of Psychology, 54, 403–425 doi:10.1146/annurev.psych.54.101601.145056.

[36] Dramanu, Y. & Balarabe, M. (2013). Relationship between academic self-concept and academic performance of junior high school students in Ghana. *European Scientific Journal*, 9(34), 93–104.

[37] Dur, S., Khan, M. & Shaikh, A. (2014). Study on Self-Perception and Impression. Sydenham Management Review. DOI: 10.13140/RG.2.2.33463.57762

[38] Efraty, D., Sirgy, M. J., & Claiborne, C. B. (1991). The effects of personal alienation on organizational identification: a quality-of-work-life model. Journal of Business and Psychology, 6, 57–78 doi:10.1007/bf01013685.

[39] Flanagan, M. J., Putwain, D. W., & Caltabiano, M. L. (2015). The relationship between goal setting and students' experience of academic test anxiety. International Journal of School & Educational Psychology, 3, 189–201 doi:10. 1080/21683603.2015.1060910.

[40] Grant, H., & Dweck, C. S. (2003). Clarifying achievement goals and their impact. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 85, 541–553 doi:10.1037/0022-3514.85.3.541.

[41] Harackiewicz, J. M., & Sansone, C. (1991). Goals and intrinsic motivation: you can get there from here. Advances in Motivation and Achievement, 7, 21–49.

[42] Harter, S. (1978). Effectance motivation reconsidered: Toward a developmental model. Human Development, 1, 34-64.

[43] Harter, S. (1980). A Scale of Intrinsic versus Extrinsic Orientation in the Classroom. Denver, Colorado: University of Denver.

[44] Harter, S. (1981). A model of intrinsic mastery motivation in children: individual differences and developmental change, in: A. Collins (Ed) Minnesota Symposia on Child Psychology (pp. 215-255) (Hillsdale, Erlbaum).

[45] Harter, S. (1981). A new self-report scale of Intrinsic versus Extrinsic Orientation in the Classroom: Motivational and informational components. Developmental Psychology, 17(3), 300-312.

[46] Harter, S. (1982). The perceived competence scale for children. Child Development, 53, 87-97.

[47] Harter, S. (1983). The development of the self system. In M. Hetherington (Ed.), Handbook of child psychology, Vol. 4: Social and personality development (pp. 275-385). New York: Wiley.

[48] Harter, S. (1985a). Competence as a dimension of self-evaluation: Toward a comprehensive model of self-worth. In R. L. Leahy (Ed.), The development of the self (pp. 55-122). Orlando, FL: Academic Press.

[49] Hughes, A. (2011). PhD Thesis on The Relationships between Self-Related Perceptions, Motivation, Aspirations and Achievements in an Academic Setting.

[50] Hulleman, C. S., Schrager, S. M., Bodmann, S. M., & Harackiewicz, J. M. (2010). A meta-analytic review of achievement goal measures: different labels for the same constructs or different constructs with similar labels? Psychological Bulletin, 136, 422–449 doi: 10.1037/a0018947.

[51] Johnson, W., & Krueger, R. F. (2006). How money buys happiness: genetic and environmental processes linking finances and life satisfaction. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 90, 680–691 doi:10.1037/0022-3514.90.4.680.

[52] Jolly, M. (2017). Self-perception and Academic Achievement. *Indian Journal of Science and Technology*, 10(14), 98-112.

[53] Keller, C., & Siegrist, M. (2010). Psychological resources and attitudes toward people with physical disabilities.

[54] Lawrence, A.S. & Vimala, A. (2013). Self-Concept and Achievement Motivation Of High School Students. *Conflux Journal of Education* ISSN 2320-9305 Volume 1, Issue 1

[55] Learning Assistance Center (LAC), (2020). Setting Goals for Yourself, and Motivating Yourself to Succeed. Retrieved on 20/04/202 from www.uc.edu/LearningAssistance

[56] Lee, F. K., Sheldon, K. M., & Turban, D. B. (2003). Personality and the goalstriving process: the influence of achievement goal patterns, goal level, and mental focus on performance and enjoyment. Journal of Applied Psychology, 88, 256–265 doi:10.1037/0021-9010.88.2.256.

[57] Marsh, H. W., & Craven, R. G. (2006). Reciprocal effects of self-concept and performance from a multidimensional perspective: Beyond seductive pleasure and one-dimensional perspectives. Perspectives on Psychological Science, 1(2), 133-163.

[58] Marsh, H. W., and Ayotte, V. (2003). Do multiple dimensions of self-concept become more differentiated with age? The differential distinctiveness hypothesis. Journal of Educational Psychology, 95, 687-706.

[59] Marsh, H. W., Byrne, B. M., & Shavelson, R. J. (1988). A multifaceted academic self-concept: Its hierarchical structure and its relation to academic achievement. Journal of Educational Psychology, 80, 366-380.

[60] Marsh, H. W., Byrne, B. M., & Shavelson, R. J. (1992). A multidimensional, hierarchical selfconcept. In T. M. Brinthaupt & R. P. Lipka (Eds.), The self: Definitional and methodological issues (pp. 44-95). New York: State University of New York Press.

[61] Marsh, H. W., Byrne, B. M., & Yeung, A. S. (1999). Causal ordering of academic self-concept and achievement: Reanalysis of a pioneering study and revised recommendations. Educational Psychologist, 34(3), 155-168.

[62] Molesy, A.N. (2020). Ph.D. Thesis on Oroko students' self – perception of their cultural practices and the effect on their educational aspirations.

[63] Moore, C. (2020). How to Set and Achieve Life Goals the Right Way (Unpublished)

[64] Nunes, R. P., Melo, R. L. P. D., Júnior, S., & Eulálio, M. D. C. (2016). Relationship between coping and subjective well-being of elderly from the interior.

[65] Ojeda, L., Flores, L. Y., & Navarro, R. L. (2011). Social cognitive predictors of Mexican American college students' academic and life satisfaction. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 58, 61–71 doi:10.1037/a0021687

[66] Pajares (2002). *Overview of social cognitive theory and of self-efficacy*. Retrieved on 20/04/202 from http://www.emory.edu/EDUCATION/mfp/eff.html

[67] Schunk, H. (1989). Self – efficacy and cognitive achievement: Implications for students with learning problems. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 22, 14-22.

[68] Senko, C., & Harackiewicz, J. M. (2005). Achievement goals, task performance, and interest: why perceived goal difficulty matters. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 31, 1739–1753 doi: 10.1177/0146167205281128.

[69] Shen, C. & Oleksandr, T. (2003). The Effects of Self-perception on Students' Mathematics and Science Achievement in 38 Countries Based on TIMSS 1999 Data

[70] Skaalvik, E. M. (1997a). Issues in research on self-concept. In M. L. Maehr & P. R. Pintrich (Eds.), Advances in motivation and achievement (Vol. 10, pp. 51-97). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

[71] Skaalvik, E. M. (1997b). Self-enhancing and self-defeating ego-orientation: Relations with task and avoidance orientation, achievement, self-perceptions, and anxiety. Journal of Educational Psychology, 89(1), 71-81.

[72] Skaalvik, E. M., & Bong, M. (2003). Self-concept and self-efficacy revisited: A few notable differences and important similarities. In H. W. Marsh, R. G. Craven & D. M. McInerney (Eds.), International advances in self research (Vol. 1, pp. 67-89). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.

[73] Skaalvik, E. M., & Hagtvet, K. A. (1990). Academic achievement and self-concept: An analysis of causal predominance in developmental perspective. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 58, 292-307.

[74] Skaalvik, E. M., & Rankin, R. J. (1995). A test of the Internal/External Frame of Reference Model at different levels of math and verbal perception. American Education Research Journal, 32(1), 161-184.

[75] Skaalvik, E. M., & Rankin, R. J. (1996a). Studies of academic self-concept using a Norwegian modification of the SDQ. Paper presented at the XXVI International Congress of Psychology, Montreal, Canada.

[76] Skaalvik, E. M., & Rankin, R. J. (1996b). Self-concept and self-efficacy: Conceptual analysis. Paper presented at the Annual meeting of The American Educational Research Association, New York.

[77] Skaalvik, E. M., & Rankin, R. J. (1998). Self-concept, self-efficacy, and achievement in mathematics: A test of causal relations. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Diego, CA.

[78] Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. (2004a). Self-concept and self-efficacy: A test of the internal/external frame of reference model and predictions of subsequent motivation and achievement. Psychological Reports, 95(3), 1187-1202.

[79] Skaalvik, E. M., & Valas, H. (1999a). Achievement and self-concept in mathematics and verbal arts: A study of relations. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association, Montreal, Canada.

[80] Skaalvik, E. M., & Valas, H. (1999b). Relations among achievement, self-concept, and motivation in mathematics and language arts: A longitudinal study. The Journal of Experimental Education, 67(2), 135-149.

[81] Skaalvik, S., & Skaalvik, E. M. (2004b). Gender differences in math and verbal self-concept, performance expectations, and motivation. Sex Roles, 50(3/4), 241-252.

[82] Wang, C. L. (2007). Guanxi vs. relationship marketing: exploring underlying differences. Industrial Marketing Management, 36, 81–86 doi:10.1016/j.indmarman.2005.08.002f.

[83] Wangshuai, W., Jie, L., Gong, S., Zhiming, C. & Xin-an, Z. (2017). Achievement goals and life satisfaction: the mediating role of perception of successful agency and the moderating role of emotion reappraisal. *Wanget al. Psicologia: Reflexão e Crítica*. DOI 10.1186/s41155-017-0078-4.