ABSTRACT. The aim of this instrumental study is to determine whether the empirical data confirm the structure of the Personal Self-Concept (PSC) Questionnaire, made up of four scales: Self-fulfillment, Autonomy, Honesty and Emotional self-concept. The inclusion of these scales is justified according to the conceptual review of the personal development, as well as the review of the instruments, which partially measures this domain of the self-concept. A total of 1,135 people completed the questionnaire; 559 randomly selected responses of people between 15 and 65 years old were used for a confirmatory factorial analysis. Of the three models assessed (unidimensional, four interrelated factors and four factors and one second-order factor), the four-dimensional one has the best goodness of fit, though the second-order factor model hasn’t that bad fit index. Finally, the practical implications of the identification of specific dimensions of self-concept are discussed, and new research questions are posed in light of the results obtained.


RESUMEN. El objetivo de este estudio instrumental es verificar si los datos empíricos confirman la estructura del Cuestionario de Autoconcepto Personal (APE) constituido por cuatro escalas: Autorrealización, Autonomía, Honradez y Ajuste emocional. La inclusión de estas escalas se justifica a través de la revisión conceptual del desarrollo del autoconcepto. Se analizaron 1,135 respuestas de personas entre 15 y 65 años, de las cuales se seleccionaron al azar 559 para realizar un análisis factorial confirmatorio. De los tres modelos evaluados (unidimensional, cuatro factores interrelacionados y cuatro factores y un segundo factor), el modelo de cuatro factores tiene la mejor medida de ajuste, aunque el modelo de segundo factor no tiene un ajuste tan bueno. Finalmente, se discuten las implicaciones prácticas de la identificación de dimensiones específicas del autoconcepto, así como se plantean nuevas preguntas de investigación a la luz de los resultados obtenidos.

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personal, así como de la revisión de instrumentos que evalúan en parte el dominio del autoconcepto. Responden al cuestionario un total de 1135 personas de entre 15 y 65 años, siendo utilizadas las respuestas de 559, seleccionadas aleatoriamente, para un análisis factorial confirmatorio. Entre los tres modelos evaluados (el unidimensional, el de cuatro factores interrelacionados, y el de cuatro factores y uno de segundo orden), el tetradimensional mostró el mejor ajuste a los datos, aunque el modelo factorial de segundo orden tampoco muestra mal ajuste. Se discuten, por último, las implicaciones prácticas de la identificación de dimensiones concretas del autoconcepto y se plantean nuevos interrogantes de investigación a partir de los resultados obtenidos.


The study of self-concept has interested psychologists since its very beginnings as a scientific discipline, and continues to arouse interest today. It is obvious that self-concept includes references to how one sees oneself, not only physically and from an academic/professional and social perspective, but also within the most private and personal spheres of life. It is not possible to answer the question «who am I?» without considering one’s self-perception as a singular individual, independent from the physical self and social self, in aspects which have generally been studied under the label of ethical-moral self-concept, self-perception of the personal self or emotional self-concept. Unlike in the exemplary case of physical self-concept (Goñi, 2008), here there is a distinct lack of models which aim to integrate the diverse components or dimensions of personal self-concept which may account fully and completely for this notion.

In order to justify the proposal of the conceptual model presented here, we must first chart the developments of past research into the dimensions which have traditionally been studied in relation to personal self-concept. Having done this, the paper then presents a four-dimensional questionnaire which was designed with the aim of adjusting to this structure (Ramos-Álvarez, Moreno-Fernández, Valdés-Conroy, and Catena, 2008). One study that had a considerable impact was the review carried out by L’Ecuyer (1978) of the different notions of self-concept in psychological studies which featured the Personal self alongside four other structures: the Material self, the Adaptive self, the Social self and the Self-non self. The term Personal self-concept also appears in the different versions of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale by Roid and Fitts (1991), which has been widely used in the Spanish language (Garanto, 1984). However, psychological research has focused mainly on two dimensions of personal self-perception: moral self-concept and emotional self-concept (Goñi, 2009).

The fact that Ethical-moral self-concept is a basic constituent of self-concept seems to have been accepted with no apparent discussion. There are many questionnaires which offer moral self-concept indexes, albeit sometimes under different names, such as honesty or values self-concept: the Self-Concept Factor Scale by Tamayo (1981); the Self-Perception Profile for College Students by Neeman and Harter (1986); the Self Description Questionnaire III (Marsh, 1992); the Offer Self-Image Questionnaire Revised by Offer, Ostrov, Howard and Dolan (1992); and the Adult Source of Self-Concept Inventory by Man, Tam and Li (2003).
For its part, in models such as the one proposed by Shavelson, Hubner and Stanton (1976), emotional self-concept is considered one of the four main domains of self-concept (alongside social, academic and physical). Emotional self-concept is understood as the subject’s perception of their emotional status and their responses to specific situations, with a certain degree of commitment and involvement in their everyday lives (García and Musitu, 2001). Under either this name, or that of affective self-concept, this dimension appears in questionnaires which measure affection (the Multidimensional Self-Concept Scale by Bracken, 1992), emotionality or emotional stability (the Escala Multidimensional de Autoconcepto by De La Rosa and Díaz, 1991; the Self-Description Questionnaire III by Marsh, 1992; the AF5 by García and Musitu, 2001) or emotional tone (the Offer Self-Image Questionnaire, by Offer et al., 1992). However, it has yet to be clarified what relationships exist between ethical and emotional self-concept, whether they contribute to configuring the same domain (i.e., personal) of self-concept and whether both dimensions are sufficiently able, alone, to explain self-perception within personal development. In this sense, it makes sense to return to the two following questions: 1) What are the basic dimensions of personal development?; and 2) How do people perceive themselves in each of these basic dimensions of personal development?

Personal development, in the broadest sense of the term, encompasses all those aspects related to the person, both individually and socially, including all the different aspects of human psychological development (Madariaga and Goñi, 2009). However, in a more restricted sense, the term personal, as opposed to social, refers to those more specific, individual or private aspects of this development. What are these aspects? Psychological theories have been explaining individual psychological development for decades; and an overview of these theories (Goñi, 2000) would lead us to consider at least the four following dimensions: self-fulfillment, autonomy, honesty and emotional adjustment. Consequently, it is logical to assume that these four dimensions of personal development structure self-perception, or in other words, that personal self-concept consists of the following four components: affective-emotional self-concept (how a person sees themselves in relation to emotional adjustment or regulation); ethical/moral self-concept (the extent to which a person considers themselves to be honest and decent); self-concept of autonomy (the perception of the extent to which each person makes decisions about their life in accordance with their own criteria); and self-concept of self-fulfillment (how a person sees themselves in relation to achieving the aims and objectives of their life). The term personal self-concept is preferred over other labels (such as emotional self-concept or moral self-concept, etc.) since it is more comprehensive and includes all the others: the personal domain of self-concept refers, in short, to the way in which a person sees themselves as an individual. This theoretical model served as a reference for the design and development of the Personal Self-concept (PSC) Questionnaire, the first version of which consisted of 22 items, and the final version of 18 (see Table 1).
TABLE 1. Items of the Personal Self-Concept (PSC) Questionnaire.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item num.</th>
<th>Statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 (SF)</td>
<td>I am satisfied with what I am achieving in my life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (AU)</td>
<td>I depend on other people more than the majority of those I know.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (ESC)</td>
<td>If I’m feeling down, I find it hard to snap out of it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 (SF)</td>
<td>So far, I have achieved every important goal I have set myself.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 (HON)</td>
<td>I am a trustworthy person.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 (AU)</td>
<td>In order to do anything, I first need other people’s approval.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 (ESC)</td>
<td>I consider myself to be a very uptight and highly strung person.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 (SF)</td>
<td>I have yet to achieve anything I consider to be important in my life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 (HON)</td>
<td>I am a man/woman of my word.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 (AU)</td>
<td>I find it hard to embark on anything without other people’s support.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 (ESC)</td>
<td>I am more sensitive than the majority of people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 (SF)</td>
<td>I have always overcome any difficulties I have encountered in my life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 (HON)</td>
<td>I am a decent, honest person.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 (AU)</td>
<td>When taking a decision, I depend too much on other people’s opinions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 (SF)</td>
<td>If I could start my life over again, I would not change very much.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 (HON)</td>
<td>I try not to do anything that might hurt others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 (AU)</td>
<td>I find it difficult to take decisions on my own.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 (ESC)</td>
<td>I am an emotionally strong person.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 (SF)</td>
<td>I feel proud of how I am managing my life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 (ESC)</td>
<td>I suffer too much when something goes wrong.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 (HON)</td>
<td>My promises are sacred.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 (ESC)</td>
<td>I know how to look after myself so as not to suffer.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. SF: Self-fulfillment; AU: Autonomy; ESC: Emotional adjustment; HON: Honesty. *Items eliminated from the definitive version of the questionnaire.

Based on the conceptualization outlined above, and bearing in mind the questionnaires cited previously, an initial group of 38 items was established. Next, using a table of specifications, a group of experts selected the 22 items which, in their opinion, best represented the four dimensions, in order to guarantee the validity of the questionnaire’s content (Verdugo, Arias, Gómez, and Schalock, 2010).

Two studies were carried out using this experimental questionnaire. When administered to 506 subjects aged between 12 and 36 (Goñi and Fernández, 2007), the questionnaire was found to have a Cronbach’s alpha reliability index of .85, as well as an acceptable four-factor solution in the exploratory analysis which explained 52.56% of the variance. However, four items (numbers 2, 13, 16 and 22) failed to reach the required saturation level in their established factor. In the second study (Goñi, 2009), the same analyses were carried out with a broader sample group (1,135 people). Subjects were aged between 15 and 65 and were randomly divided into two sub-groups. Among the analyses carried out with the first half of the group, the Cronbach’s alpha of the instrument was .83 and that of the scales was around the required .70 (Carretero-Dios and Pérez, 2007). The KMO index (.86) was adequate and Bartlett’s test of sphericity indicated that the relationship between scores was significant; consequently, an explanatory factorial analysis was performed using the oblique factorial rotation method,
given the existence of a certain relationship between the scales (Pardo and Ruiz, 2002). The percentage of variance explained by the four hypothesized factors was 49.57%, although the communality of two of the items (num. 2 and 22) was lower than .30 and the saturation of three of them (numbers 13, 16 and 22) was lower than .40 or crossed in more than one factor. In all cases, responses to the PSC correlated with those given to questionnaires with similar objectives, specifically with the personal self scale which is included in the translated Spanish version of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (Garanto, 1984; \( r = .18; p < .001 \)). Also, significant positive relationships were found between personal self-concept and other variables theoretically related to the construct: a) life satisfaction \( (r = .44; p < .001) \), measured on the Satisfaction With Life Scale in the Spanish version translated by Atienza, Pons, Balaguer, and García-Merita (2000); and b) psychological wellbeing \( (r = .71; p < .001) \), measured on the Spanish version of Ryff’s Psychological Wellbeing Scale (Díaz et al., 2006).

This verified that the experimental PSC had appropriate psychometric characteristics, but that these four items failed to comply with the established requisites (Carretero-Dios and Pérez, 2005, 2007). They were therefore eliminated. One of them (number 2, which aimed to measure autonomy) included a comparative element with others, which may have prompted doubts in the respondents’ minds regarding the degree of autonomy perceived by others; in the case of items 13 and 16 (measuring honesty) and item 22 (measuring emotions), their elimination resulted in a higher level of reliability for both scales and a greater discriminatory capacity. Therefore, the reading of this measurement errors is based on the item and the construct characteristics (Herrero, 2010).

What remained to be determined, however, was whether this version of the PSC, consisting of 18 items, could be accepted as definitive and representative of the four-dimensional model of personal self-concept. To this end, the confirmatory factorial analysis offers a precise method (cf., for example, Escartín, Rodríguez-Carballeira, Gómez-Benito, and Zapf, 2010; Frutos, Ruiz, and San Martin, 1998; Tomás and Oliver, 2004) for correcting the limitations of psychometric analyses carried out using exploratory techniques. Indeed, the aim of this instrumental study (Montero and León, 2007) is precisely to determine whether, using the appropriate confirmatory factorial analyses, the structure of the Personal Self-Concept (PSC) Questionnaire, consisting of the self-fulfillment, autonomy, honesty and emotional adjustment scales, can be confirmed.

In order to analyze the dimensionality of the PSC, the following three models were compared. The first one (M1), which had four interrelated factors, assumed that the four hypothesized factors are different, although correlated; this approach supports the theory of the multidimensional nature of self-concept. The single-dimension model (M2) assumed the existence of a single component underlying all the items; this approach supports the more global and historical notions of self-concept. The third model (M3), consisting of four dimensions and a second-order (latent) factor, supports the theory that the four scales of the PSC not only measure respective independent dimensions, but that together, they configure a second-order factor which could be identified as the personal domain of self-concept.

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Method

Participants
Initially, participants comprised 1,200 subjects. Of these, 1,135 complied with the sincerity and consistency requisites in their responses: 453 men (39.90%) and 682 women (60.10%). The responses of one randomly-established half of the valid sample group (567 people) were used for the confirmatory factorial analysis; the age of participants ranged from 15 to 65 ($M = 30.17; SD = 14.81$).

Instruments
The definitive version of the Personal Self-Concept (PSC) Questionnaire consists of 18 items which aim to measure personal perceptions regarding Self-fulfillment (6 items), Honesty (3 items), Autonomy (4 items), and Emotional self-concept (5 items). It has yet to be established whether or not it also offers a measure (second-order factor) of general personal self-concept or the personal domain of self-concept. The questionnaire is a Likert scale with five response options ranging from totally disagree to totally agree. Each of the dimensions is understood as follows:

Self-fulfillment (SF): how each person sees themselves in relation to achieving the objectives they have set themselves in their life, feeling fulfilled, meeting their targets, rising to challenges and their general achievements.

Honesty (HON): how each person sees themselves in the sense of being honest, upright and trustworthy in their behavior. It includes aspects such as being a valuable, honorable and consistent person who tries not to harm others; a man or woman of their word.

Autonomy (AU): how each person sees themselves as an individual equal to, but different from others. This includes aspects such as: the perception of oneself as someone who is independent and different from others; the feeling of not being dominated by others; being able to function without depending on others.

Emotional Self-concept (ESC): how each person sees themselves in the emotional dimension, in relation to the more impulsive and reactive aspects of their personality. This includes the perception of the following components: emotional balance, sensitivity, recognition and control of one’s emotions.

General Personal Self-concept (GPSC): the way in which each person sees themselves as an individual, independently from their physical and social environment.

Procedure
In the case of adolescents and university students, the data were gathered from classrooms and lecture halls during school/university hours, and in the case of adults, from the places in which the subjects engaged in their work/leisure activities (workplace, association, study center, civic center, etc.). The PSC was administered alongside a number of other questionnaires as part of a broader study, and was overseen in the different participating centers by people fully versed in the instructions and procedure, with whom a way of presenting the instructions had previously been agreed upon in order to guarantee homogeneity of application. Only in the case of schools with minors was the consent of the students’ parents or legal guardians sought for participation in the study.
The time required to complete the battery of questions was approximately 40 minutes, of which around 10 minutes were required for the PSC. Consequently only one session was required with each group. The questionnaire was administered during the 2007-2008 and the 2008-2009 academic years.

After the questionnaires had been collected, those subjects deemed not to have given reliable, valid answers were eliminated. Three criteria were used to eliminate subjects with non reliable and/or invalid responses: analysis of the random response control items or «trick» items, analysis of the consistency of responses to similar items (lack of sincerity), and the total number of items answered (subjects who failed to respond to at least 80% of the items were eliminated).

Data analysis

In order to carry out the confirmatory factorial analysis, the covariance matrix and the MTMM procedure were used for imputing cases with incomplete answers. Using the LISREL 8.7 statistical program for Windows (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1993), the weighted least squares (WLS) method was applied, since the required normality condition was not fully complied with and the scale used was a Likert scale. The aim was to test all the hypothesized explanatory relations.

In order to compare the models’ fit, absolute fit ($\chi^2$, SRMR and RMSEA), normed fit (NFI and NNFI), incremental fit (IFI) and comparative fit (CFI) measures were applied. This is the most commonly used combination of index of models’ adjust (Esnaola, Rodriguez, and Goñi, 2011). Other indexes verified were either cross or incremental, in order to determine whether or not the data supporting a model indicated that its fit was significantly different from the fit of the alternatives: we checked whether the ECVI cross validation index was outside the ECVI interval of the other models; whether the increase of the CFI index was above .10; and whether the differentials between $\chi^2$ and the models’ degrees of freedom were significant. The acceptance threshold of the values for almost all the indexes is .90, and the values must exceed this figure, except in the case of the RMSEA and the SRMR, whose ideal maximum values for being considered acceptable are .60 and .90 (respectively) (Batista and Coenders, 2000).

Results

The goodness of fit of all three models was tested. The first model (M1) had four interrelated factors of personal self-concept, the second (M2) was a unidimensional model and the third one (M3) consisted of four factors and one general second-order factor.

Table 2 shows the data relating to the chi squared ($\chi^2$) goodness of fit test and the degrees of freedom ($df$) for each model, as well as the differential of these indexes for the four-dimensional model in relation to the other two. Accompanying these data are indexes of a different kind, such as the absolute, parsimony adjusted and normed indexes, as well as others which are comparative and incremental in nature.
The χ² goodness of fit test does not indicate the statistical significance of the result, which is why it is important to perform a calculation to compare the values of the different models. Having calculated the ratio between the chi-squared value (an index which is sensitive to sample size) and the degrees of freedom (χ²/gl), the score for the four-dimensional model (3.82) was found not to correspond (Marsh and Hau, 1996) to that indicative of good fit (between 2.00 and 3.00), although it was close to the maximum value in this range. The quotients for the other two alternative models (5.33 for the second-order factorial model and 13.97 for the unidimensional one) were further from the upper threshold of 3.00, indicating that these models have a worse fit. In any case, the chi-squared is not the only indicator of a model’s goodness of fit, and indeed, in order to carry out a thorough assessment of a model’s fit, it is considered necessary to adopt a global, holistic approach which encompasses the many different indexes which currently exist (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, and Müller, 2003).

It should be noted that both the four-factor model (M1) and the model containing four factors and a second-order factor (M3) offer an adequate fit, although the former has better indexes. The absolute data shall be dealt with first: a) In the Root Mean Square Error Approximation (RMSEA) index, the four-dimensional model scored .07, a score which is substantially lower than that of the other two models. The RMSEA is a degree of freedom discrepancy measure (Browne and Cudeck, 1993) which provides a parsimony weighted indicator that enables models with different levels of complexity to be compared. b) Alongside the RMSEA, the SRMR was also analyzed. This index provides information regarding the standardized residuals of each model. The four-dimensional model scored almost the ideal value of .60, while the other two scored much higher, higher even than .90, which is considered the upper limit of acceptability.

As regards the normed, comparative and incremental fit indexes, again the four-dimensional model had acceptable values which were better than those obtained by the other two. Scores for the Incremental Fit Index (IFI) and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI)
were .94, a value above the minimum acceptable limit (.90) and close to the ideal value (.95). The model with four interrelated factors scored over the reference value of .90 for the Normed and Non-Normed Fix Indexes, obtaining .92 and .93 respectively.

Given that the best fit indexes were achieved by the four-dimensional model, it was important to check whether this model differs significantly enough from the other two models studied to be considered different, particularly in relation to the second-order model. To this end, three types of procedure were used: a) The differentials of the four-dimensional model in relation to the unidimensional one ($\chi^2 = 1,393.13; df = 6$), and the second-order factor one ($\chi^2 = 221.84; df = 5$) were found to be statistically significant. b) The increments of Bentler’s CFI index (Cheung and Rensvold, 2002) for the four-dimensional model in comparison with the second-order factorial model and the unidimensional model were .02 and .18 respectively; the increment required (.01) to sustain that the models are substantially different in their fit (Elosua, 2005) was exceeded in both comparisons. The same difference was found between the IFI results for each model. c) The four-dimensional model, with an RMSEA index of .07, differs significantly from the second-order factorial model (confidence interval of between .082 and .095) and the unidimensional model (interval between .15 and .16), since these values are outside the confidence interval of the alternative models, a finding which supports the significance of this difference. Thus, the model containing four interrelated factors, graphically represented in Figure 1, is verified as having a better goodness of fit than the other two alternative models.

**Discussion**

The main objective of this study was to validate a new and genuine measurement scale for personal self-concept. The study charts the process followed and outlines the results obtained during the attempt to specify the internal structure of personal self-concept, understood as each person’s perception of their own most private and individual aspects of their personality. It provides empirical corroboration of the proposal that four self-perceptions (one’s image of oneself as a self-fulfilled, autonomous, emotionally adjusted and decent person), although related, are nevertheless independent of each other. The data fit this four-dimensional model of personal self-concept better than the other alternative models, as in the case of another domain of the self-concept: the physical one (Goñi, Rodríguez, and Esnaola, 2010). Also, statistical analyses support a previously established theoretical model over and above the, sometimes abusive, procedure of constructing theories on the basis of interpretations of the factorialization of groups of items. The study therefore provides a new instrument with psychometric characteristics suitable for both research and psychological intervention. The definitive 18-item Personal Self-Concept (PSC) Questionnaire is the result of a careful process of design and development, the steps of which are both detailed and justified in this paper.

Differentiating between specific types within generic constructs is proving both beneficial and necessary in diverse psychological areas, such as assertiveness (Santos-Iglesias and Sierra, 2010), bullying (Escartín et al., 2010), wellbeing (Rodríguez, 2008) and
FIGURE 1. Four-dimensional model of personal self-concept.
self-concept itself (Tomás and Oliver, 2004). Having a detailed view, not just of self-concept (self-esteem) in general, but also of the diverse components which structure it, opens up new avenues for psychological understanding and intervention, especially bearing in mind the key psychological importance of this construct in human behavior (Buelga, Musitu, and Murgui, 2009). This coincides with the theoretical assumptions of Marsh and Shavelson’s model (1985), according to which global self-concept is made up of various domains (academic, personal, social and physical), each of which is divided into a series of sub-domains, facets or more specific dimensions. One of the principal postulates of this model is that, although global self-concept itself is resistant to change, its specific dimensions can be modified, and therefore require specific psychological intervention.

Indeed, it is precisely the intervention expectations in both the field of physical education and the clinical context which has, from the nineteen-nineties onwards, driven research into physical self-concept (Goñi, 2009). A series of direct relationships were identified between distortions in body image and diverse psychopathologies, particularly eating disorders (De Gracia, Marcó, Fernández, and Juan, 1999). This relationship between the perceived physical self and eating disorders has mainly been analyzed from the perspective of clinical approaches to body image, although over recent decades the field has been enriched by various studies based on the physical self-concept model (Goñi and Rodríguez, 2004, 2007). However, physical self-concept is associated with a large number of social and personal traits (Infante and Goñi, 2009): including physical activity, body mass index, healthy living, psychological wellbeing and anxiety, etc. Identifying this type of connection is extremely useful, since it reveals avenues through which educational interventions aimed at improving personal adjustment can be applied.

A similar contribution may be expected from a more precise knowledge of the structure and dimensions of personal self-concept, a variable which is clearly related to elements such as psychological wellbeing, which are vital to our health (Goñi, 2008). Having a measurement instrument with adequate psychometric characteristics, such as the PSC, will enable a more precise understanding of the function of self-concept, and each of its components, in human behavior.

In short, this study fulfilled the objective of providing an adequate psychometric measurement instrument of four different dimensions of self-concept, which supports the widely accepted multidimensional view of self-concept. However, it also poses a number of unanswered questions. A second-order factor not only fails to indicate an increase in the model’s fit, it also results in a slight decrease in the means of the standardized residuals. This finding coincides with those of other studies (Frutos et al., 1998). From this, we can conclude that it is best to recommend a different measure for each of the dimensions; otherwise, if a single general factor (M2), or a general underlying factor (M3) is assumed, the explanatory capacity of the variability offered by the four interrelated dimensions of the PSC is lost.

Nevertheless, the results do not fully resolve all existing questions regarding the composition and global structure of self-concept. It has yet to be determined, for example, whether some of these dimensions (e.g. emotional self-concept) are in fact domains in themselves (equivalent to physical or academic self-concept) or whether the
self-perception of honesty (which supposedly belongs to the personal domain of self-concept) actually overlaps with the self-perception of social responsibility, which has been attributed in some proposals (Fernández-Zabala, 2010) to social self-concept. This opens up a number of new avenues for research, just as this view of personal self-concept implies the need to study the relationships between each of the dimensions and other psychological variables, such as psychological wellbeing, life satisfaction and emotional intelligence.

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