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Self-concept change of secondary school students as a function of exposure to a student-centered English curriculum.

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SELF-CONCEPT CHANGE OF SECONDARY SCHOOL
STUDENTS AS A FUNCTION OF EXPOSURE TO
A STUDENT CENTERED ENGLISH CURRICULUM

A Dissertation Presented

By

PATRICK JOHN O'CONNOR

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

April

1977

Education

3/16

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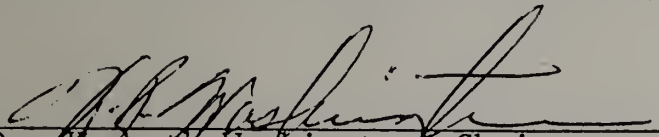
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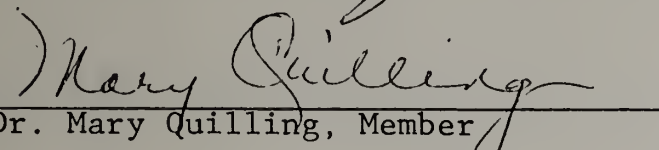
A Dissertation Presented

By


PATRICK JOHN O'CONNOR

Approved as to style and content by:


Dr. Kenneth Washington, Chairperson


Dr. Mary Quilling, Member


Dr. Michael True, Member


Mario Fantini, Dean
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DEDICATION

TO MY FAMILY

WHO WALK THROUGH THESE PAGES:

Patrick and Eleanor, my parents,
who struck the spark.

Mary O'Leary, my grandmother,
who held me in the sunlight.

Jerry, my brother,
who nurtured the possibility.

Eileen, my sister,
whose love kept me above the shadowy
underground of self-doubt.

And Patrick, my son,
whom, I hope,
will never forget to fly. . .

I dedicate this dissertation.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

In this poem "Ulysses," Tennyson creates an image of a man who rejects limitations—a man who realizes it is never too late for a new beginning, a new discovery:

I am a part of all that I have met;
Yet all experience is an arch where through
Gleams that untraveled world whose margin fades
Forever and forever when I move.
How dull it is to pause, to make an end,
To rust unburnished, not to shine in use!
As though to breathe were life.

Such are the inspirations an author receives which enable him to undertake an ambitious research project. Without the direction and counsel of caring teachers, however, this project would never have been realized and completed. For their gift of knowledge and energy, I am privileged to express gratitude to my dissertation committee:

Dr. Kenneth Washington, Committee Chairman and principal advisor, whose leadership, encouragement, and belief in me helped sustain this project and bring it from idea to reality. His contributions to this study, as my teacher and mentor, will be remembered always.

Dr. Mary Quilling who lent support and advice in addition to providing invaluable statistical help on the research aspects of this work.

Dr. Michael True who, in life, has embodied the ideals of the teacher, scholar, and humanitarian. His

generosity and constructive criticism will always be appreciated.

I would also like to acknowledge my debt to many friends, colleagues, and students who at one time or another during the past few years provided advice, constructive criticism, and intellectual stimulation. In particular, I wish to single out the following: Anthony Wondolowski, my friend and teacher; Jerry Weinstein for his contribution to the area of self-concept analysis; and Charles Burack who helped me overcome the problems and frustrations of graduate study.

A special thanks goes to the administration and staff of South High School who were always cooperative in helping me gain access to student records and in obtaining subjects. Mr. Joseph Kenneally, principal at South, complied with my requests on all occasions. I am very grateful for the support I received from other colleagues at South High, particularly my fellow teachers on the English faculty, who demonstrated they were with me all the way. For their encouragement and for their prayers, I wish to thank especially three of my colleagues: Edna McNamara, Carolyn Burns, and Alfred Foley. The assistance I received from Andrew Power, English Department Chairman, made my efforts to complete this project much easier.

I am also indebted to Bernadette McDonald, my typist, whose efforts helped me meet the deadlines for this manuscript.

Finally, I want to thank the students at South High to whom, I hope, I have indicated what can be accomplished with effort, good will and the help of that capricious damsel, lady luck. To them, I leave, as my final debt, these words, from Tennyson about the ceaseless journey of the self:

Though much is taken, much abides; and though
We are not now that strength which in old days
Moved earth and heaven, that which we are,—
One equal temper of heroic hearts
Made weak by time and fate, but strong in will
To strive, to seek, to find, and not to yield.

Know Thyself

Socrates.

If I am not for myself, who will be for me?

If I am for myself only, what am I?

If not now — when?

Talmudic saying
Mishmah, Abot.

"I think

one must finally take one's life

in one's arms."

From After the Fall
Arthur Miller

ABSTRACT

SELF-CONCEPT CHANGE OF SECONDARY SCHOOL
STUDENTS AS A FUNCTION OF EXPOSURE TO
A STUDENT-CENTERED ENGLISH CURRICULUM

Patrick J. O'Connor, B.A., Assumption College
M.A., Niagara University, Ed.D., University of Massachusetts

Directed by: Kenneth R. Washington, Ph.D.

The purpose of this study was to determine whether the self-concepts of white inner-city students could be improved as a function of exposure to a student-centered English curriculum. In addition, the study was intended to investigate how the variables of sex, I.Q., grade point average, and socio-economic status related to the self-concept change of students exposed to this curriculum.

The data for this investigation were collected from a sample of 104 students enrolled in English classes in a public high school in central Massachusetts. There were 54 students in the experimental group and 50 in the control group. The accessible population from which the sample was drawn totaled 250 students enrolled in sophomore English classes. The treatment, a student-centered

curriculum, consisted of a six week (30 day) unit organized around the following eight activities: (1) TEXTS: two books, *Uptight* and *A Piece of the Action*; (2) FILM: "IT'S YOUR MOVE"; (3) INTERACTION--DISCUSSION GROUPS; (4) CLASSROOM WRITING ASSIGNMENTS; (5) ROLE-PLAYING ACTIVITIES; (6) VALUE CLARIFICATION EXERCISES; (7) SELF-CONFRONTATION REVIEWS; (8) A film strip program, "VALUES FOR TEENAGERS: THE CHOICE IS YOURS."

The instrument used to measure self-concept change was a five point Likert-type attitude scale designed by the author. To insure internal reliability for this instrument, the author conducted a pilot study with 110 high school students. The 30 test items, chosen on the basis of their clarity and appropriateness for high school students, were correlated with the total test score. Two items were found to have negative correlations with the total test scores and were eliminated from the instrument. To establish test reliability, the author utilized the split-half method. Using the Spearman-Brown formula to correct reliability calculated by the split-half method, the researcher found a test reliability of .80.

The following hypotheses were tested to determine the effect of the student centered English curriculum on the self-concept of secondary students in the sample group:

Hypothesis I

There is no significant difference between the self-concept mean scores of students exposed to the student centered English curriculum in comparison to students not exposed to this curriculum.

Hypothesis II

There are no significant post experimental differences between the self-concept mean scores of boys and girls.

Hypothesis III

There are no significant post experimental differences in the self-concept mean scores of students whose I.Q. is above the median in comparison to students whose I.Q. is below the median.

Hypothesis IV

There are no significant post experimental differences in the self-concept mean scores of students whose grade point average is above the median in comparison to students whose grade point average is below the median.

Hypothesis V

There are no significant post experimental differences in the self-concept mean scores of students whose socio-economic status is high, middle, and low.

With respect to the first hypothesis, it was found that for the variable "self-concept mean scores," no significant difference existed between the self-concept mean scores of students exposed to the student-centered English curriculum in comparison to the scores of students not exposed to this curriculum. The null hypothesis regarding differences in mean scores associated with the treatment effect was therefore accepted. However, the difference that was found (gain scores) favored the experimental group.

The results of the analysis for Hypothesis II were not significant. The findings revealed that the interaction between sex and treatment produced no effect on self-concept scores. The null hypothesis regarding differences in mean scores attributable to the variable of sex was therefore accepted.

Hypothesis III was tested to determine if the interaction between I.Q. and treatment would produce an effect on self-concept scores. No significant differences were found. The null hypothesis regarding differences in mean scores related to I.Q. was therefore accepted.

With respect to Hypothesis IV, no significant differences on self-concept scores were found when the interaction between grade point average and treatment was analyzed. None of the differences tested were significant. The null hypothesis regarding differences in

scores attributable to grade point average was therefore accepted.

With respect to Hypothesis V, it was found that the interaction between socio-economic status and treatment produced no effect on self-concept scores. None of the differences tested were significant. The null hypothesis regarding differences in mean scores associated with socio-economic status was therefore accepted.

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C H A P T E R I

INTRODUCTION

General Statement of the Problem

The United States has cherished a great dream: education. In the past, America became the nation to which most educational reformers looked for leadership and emulation. Here the majority of children, so it seemed, enjoyed the blessings of quality schooling up to the eighteenth year. At the present moment, however, there is more doubt than security. Enthusiasm for education is faltering. Our situation in the decade of the 70's has become somewhat paradoxical--we have produced a monumental educational system that far surpasses the dreams of the visionaries of earlier centuries, yet a considerable number of reformers (e.g., Silberman, Leacock, Fantini and Weinstein, Kohl, etc.) consider the quality of education in the nation's urban schools to be uninspiring, unenlightened, and repressive.

What is particularly significant, however, is that those critics have demonstrated that public schools in general and urban schools in particular have failed to focus on self-concept development, an affective component that is crucial to the learning process. Erik

Erikson, a psychiatrist interested in the psychological effects of schooling, addressed this problem when he wrote: "The most deadly of all sins is the mutilation of a child's spirit."¹ However unpleasant and disturbing it may be for some to acknowledge, the research and writings by the men cited above demonstrate that, all too often, the public schools destroy the sense of self. It is not an exaggeration to suggest that urban schools, to borrow a phrase that Lillian Smith applied to the institution of slavery, are "killers of the dream."²

One reason for this pervasive disappointment has grown out of the failure of educators to design and develop curriculum models to improve self-concept. Philip Jackson has pointed out that existing curriculum models fail to take into account the importance of self-concept to achievement.³ Within schools, especially urban schools, partial, segmental, and piecemeal curriculum change has ruled the day. For too long, urban schools in America, like their suburban counterparts, have focused most of their attention on the cognitive development of pupils. This over emphasis

¹Erik Erikson, cited by Charles Silberman, *Crisis in the Classroom* (New York: Vintage Books, 1970), p. 10.

²Lillian Smith, *Killers of the Dream* (New York: W. W. Norton Co., 1949), p. 11.

³Norman Overly (ed.), *The Unstudied Curriculum: Its Impact on Children* (Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, 1970), pp. ix-xi.

on cognition has not improved achievement largely because much of school instruction has ignored the students' feelings, particularly their feelings about self. The present study maintains that the affective domain must become an important part of curriculum. Urban schools will continue to fail as long as they focus upon cognitive instruction alone.

Weinstein and Fantini in their book *Toward Humanistic Education: A Curriculum of Affect* have clearly addressed the failure of curriculum programs in urban schools to focus adequately on and develop the affective domain--the domain of the self-concept. They write that:

Our proposal is to reverse the direction of the prevailing cognitive emphasis. We suggest that knowledge alone does not adequately produce the behavior necessary to such a society. . . . For the so-called disadvantaged children generally, we believe the affective realm contains intrinsic forces for motivation and, consequently, may have greater impact on behavior and on realizing human potential. We regard cognition and affect as complimentary, not contradictory forces. They have not played balanced roles in education because affect has received such meager recognition, experimentation, and practice.⁴

Additional evidence supporting the argument that existing curriculum models have ignored or failed to focus sufficiently on student self-concept can be drawn from the work of Eleanor Leacock.⁵

⁴Gerald Weinstein and Mario Fantini, *Toward Humanistic Education: A Curriculum of Affect* (New York: Praeger Publishing, 1970), pp. 31-32.

⁵Eleanor Leacock, *Teaching and Learning in City Schools* (New York: Basic Book Publishers, 1969), pp. 71-73.

Leacock found that in urban schools many teachers tend to behave like the second-grade teacher cited by Leacock as representative of inner-city teachers. Although she was warm and supportive with her students, this teacher continually ignored or negated the concrete life experiences of her students. Her classroom was made up of children from low-income homes. According to the teacher, there was nothing in the students' background which could be incorporated into the curriculum. Leacock points out that this condescending attitude can destroy the essential respect that must develop between teacher and student if real learning is to take place.

Gerald Levy in his book *Ghetto School* has demonstrated how teachers in urban schools tend to use the curriculum for disciplinary rather than educational purposes. Employing this approach, the teacher finds a simple task, such as copying sentences or words off the blackboard or looking up words in a dictionary. Those tasks involve no teaching but can control classroom behavior for hours at a time. Levy cites teachers in New York's Midway School who maintain that their survival does not depend on educating children but on "containing them."⁶

Louis Rubin has also argued that the existing curriculum, in suburban as well as urban schools, is

⁶Gerald Levy, *Ghetto School: Class Warfare in an Elementary School* (New York: Pegasus, 1970), pp. 54-56.

incomplete.⁷ A dominant idea in his research is the necessity for a new kind of curriculum--one that engages the students' feelings. At present, most of the educational process is out of touch with the life experiences of the students. Rubin maintains that curricular obsolescence will continue as long as cognitive instruction receives sole priority. He believes that knowledge is essential but mere cognition does not determine behavior. As a result, if the school intends to influence behavior significantly, the curriculum must focus on the feelings, attitudes, and self-concepts of the students.

Without question, academic concerns are a crucial aspect of schooling for all children. To urge that the urban school curriculum become more concerned with self-concept is not to argue that feelings should receive priority over intellectual skills. On the contrary, cognitive mastery should increase a student's ability to develop his inner needs. Ideally, the more analytic a person becomes, the more means he has available for satisfying his feelings and concerns. Curriculum, then, should actively foster a harmony between cognition and self understanding. Existing schools, however, tend not to promote rapport between cognition and self understanding. Given the day-to-day reality of school, cognitive instruction often takes place at the expense of the student's affect.

⁷Louis Rubin, et al., *Facts and Feelings in the Classroom* (New York: Walker and Company, 1973), pp. 3-28.

David Krathwohl has underscored one significant reason why students' feelings are ignored in most urban classrooms.⁸ He observed that the prevalent feeling is that the students' beliefs, attitudes, and feelings are private and should not be dealt with in school. According to Krathwohl, society has been ambivalent regarding the affective objectives it will allow the school to develop. Within schools, political and social forces are continually at work, pressing for some affective objectives and actively placing restrictions on the development of others. As a result of this pressure, teachers and school administrators have now become wary of focusing on student feelings. Since cognitive issues are seldom dangerous or controversial, schools retreat to these as their main objectives.

Agreeing that modern schools place exclusive priority on subject matter and cognitive processes, Weinstein and Fantini have pointed out the consequences of this emphasis.⁹ In their view, the entire atmosphere of the school, including its reward system, reflects a bias in favor of cognitive achievement: grades, promotion, social recognition, and status are usually based on the degree of mastery of the cognitive. More importantly,

⁸David Krathwohl, Benjamin Bloom, and Bertram Masis, *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* (New York: David McKay, 1956), pp. 90-91.

⁹Gerald Weinstein and Mario Fantini, *Toward Humanistic Education: A Curriculum of Affect* (New York: Praeger, Publishers, 1970), pp. 26-28.

however, this pervasive emphasis on cognition and its separation from student feelings about self poses a basic threat to our society. In the opinion of Weinstein and Fantini, American educational institutions will produce many cold, detached individuals who are uncommitted to humanitarian objectives.

Clearly, such an over emphasis on cognitive mastery is particularly damaging for students in urban schools. Fantini and Weinstein point out that:

The urban school has attempted to shy away from things going on in the real world which are part of an urban child's experience. Thus, there is dichotomy and tension between the child's urban curriculum and the antiseptic curriculum--a dichotomy that usually leads the urban child to label the school's curriculum as 'phony'.¹⁰

Faced with such a curriculum, it is not hard to understand why, in recent years, many teachers have become severe critics of traditional practices. In particular, Herbert Kohl's experience with school is both representative and instructive.¹¹ Working with a sixth grade class in Harlem, in 1965, Kohl found that using the school's reading texts presented difficulties. These texts only presented what was pleasant in life. In addition, the people in the stories were all middle class and

¹⁰Mario Fantini and Gerald Weinstein, *Making Urban Schools Work: Social Realities and the Urban Schools* (New York: Holt, Reinhart and Winston, 1968), p. 10.

¹¹Herbert Kohl, *36 Children* (New York: The New American Library, 1967), pp. 19-27.

their simplicity, goodness, and self confidence were totally unrealistic. Kohl stated that he could not believe in such a caricature of life. He knew, moreover, that anyone who ever bothered to observe human life wouldn't accept such literature. Nevertheless, he was required to teach these stories, and through them make reading important and valuable to his students. While exposed to this curriculum, Kohl's students were bored and restless. Gradually, he became frustrated and depressed. He found the curriculum so dull that he began to despair. Knowing how essential it is to be honest with children, Kohl felt betrayed into hypocrisy by such texts. He finally realized that no hypocrite can gain the respect of children, and without respect real teaching is impossible.

Such reports as those cited above clearly indicate that self concept is a critical area for curriculum development. This is especially true for urban educators since institutional pressures within schools have contributed to the low self perception many inner-city students have of themselves. Paul Bowman has summarized some crucial research that suggests that there are important differences between city children who drop out and those who are successful in school and eventually graduate from high

school.¹² Bowman reports that these differences between successful and unsuccessful inner-city students center around four aspects of self-concept:

1. a sense of personal failure;
2. a feeling of isolation;
3. a lack of control over one's fate;
4. a sense of hopelessness.

Despite the implications of the literature cited above, few researchers have attempted to develop curriculum units to improve student self-concept. In her exhaustive study published in 1961 of the literature on self-concept, Ruth Wylie examined over four hundred empirical studies of the self-concept construct.¹³ Not one of these studies, however, focused on the relationship of school curriculum to self-concept. More recently, Huroshi Kanno reviewed the literature on self-concept and concluded that:

There is some evidence that successful experiences have a positive effect on the self-concept of adolescents. However, there are no studies that specifically relate a positive educational experience to an increase in self-concept levels.¹⁴

¹²Paul Bowman, "Improving the Pupil Self-Concept," *The Inner City Classroom: Teacher Behaviors*, Robert Strom, editor (Columbus, Ohio: Charles Mervall Books, Inc., 1966), pp. 75-87.

¹³Ruth Wylie, *The Self-Concept: A Critical Survey of Pertinent Research Literature* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1961), pp. 114-128.

¹⁴Huroshi Kanno, "A Study of the Relationship of Self-Concept and Achievement in High School Dropouts" (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, The Univ. of Massachusetts, Amherst, Mass., 1973), p. 48.

Responding to this critical neglect, the researcher of this study believes that the present failure syndrome of inner-city students will continue to be alarming unless curricula used in urban schools concentrate more directly on self concept.

Specific Statement of the Problem

The specific purpose of this dissertation is to determine whether the self-concepts of high school students can be improved as a function of exposure to a student-centered curriculum unit. Through a series of value clarification exercises, selected literary texts, and a variety of written assignments, this unit promotes the student's awareness of self. Given such an emphasis it differs sharply from the traditional English curriculum which assigns priority to information, skills, and established literary values. In order to determine whether this curriculum unit will affect student self-concepts, the following major hypothesis will be tested:

Hypothesis I

There is no significant difference between the self-concept mean scores of students exposed to the student centered English curriculum unit in comparison to students not exposed to this curriculum.

In addition, the following related hypotheses will also be tested:

Hypothesis II

There are no significant post experimental differences between the self-concept mean scores of boys and girls.

Hypothesis III

There are no significant post experimental differences in the self-concept mean scores of students whose I.Q. is above the median in comparison to students whose I.Q. is below the median.

Hypothesis IV

There are no significant post experimental differences in the self-concept mean scores of students whose grade point average is above the median in comparison to students whose grade point average is below the median.

Hypothesis V

There are no significant post experimental differences in the self-concept mean scores of students whose socio-economic status is high, middle, and low.

Significance of the Problem

Curriculum programs that stress affective development are rarely if ever to be found in the modern public school. In fact, one who carefully examines public school life in the United States cannot fail to observe one

characteristic that the schools share in common--the pre-occupation with academic skills, and achievements. Because of institutional pressures, very few teachers are able to design their curricula so that the socio-emotional needs of students receive priority. After devoting serious thought to assessing the quality of public school curricula, Laurence Kubie concluded that:

Self knowledge is the Forgotten Man of our entire educational system and indeed of human culture in general. Without self knowledge it is possible to be erudite, but never wise. My challenge to all of us is to have the humility to face this failure and to do something about it before it is too late.¹⁵

The results of this neglect have been especially damaging for students' self-concepts, particularly in urban schools. Commenting on this neglect, Stanley Coopersmith summed up the challenge faced by educators interested in designing curriculum programs to improve self-concept.

While it seems obvious that an individual's concept of himself would have significant implications for his actions, that idea has had little effect upon educational theory and practice. Many psychologists are quite intrigued by the child's concepts of space, number, time, and morality because they believe such knowledge provides basic understanding about the child's mode of thinking and adapting to the environment. At the same time they are uncertain or skeptical that the child's concept of himself is significant to teaching and learning.

¹⁵Laurence S. Kubie, "The Forgotten Man in Education," *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, R. M. Jones, editor (New York: Harper and Row, 1967), p. 71.

Part of the difference between the attention to concepts regarding self and other objects appears to stem from the conviction that the educational process should focus upon materials and the content of the subject matter and not become involved in matters relating to personality, emotions, or the student's interests and concerns.¹⁶

In addition to Kubie and Coopersmith, several other authors have pointed out how schools ignore students' affective needs. In particular, the provocative writings of Clark,¹⁷ Herndon,¹⁸ and Silberman¹⁹ among others, demonstrate that the typical classroom of suburban and inner-city schools fails to provide an atmosphere that encourages the development of positive self-concept in students.

No educator would view the condition described by Kubie, Coopersmith, Clark, Herndon, Silberman and others as desirable educational outcomes. Nevertheless, these conditions have become firmly entrenched curriculum patterns. How can they be changed? Public schools, particularly urban schools, have failed to find any consistent formula for reform. At present, the norm in most urban schools is an

¹⁶Stanley Coopersmith, "Implications of Studies on Self Esteem for Educational Research and Practice" (Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association (AERA) Convention, Los Angeles, Calif.: February (1969).

¹⁷Kenneth Clark, *Dark Ghetto* (New York: Harper and Row, 1965).

¹⁸James Herndon, *The Way It Spozed To Be* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1968).

¹⁹Charles Silberman, *Crisis in the Classroom* (New York: Random House, 1972).

authoritarian atmosphere where the relations between teachers and students are based on mutual mistrust and hostility. Moreover, it appears that the present cognition centered curriculum model is inadequate in the sense that it fails to adequately nurture the students' sense of self. Since it seems clear that all of these factors have combined to create a curriculum of neglect, it is imperative that ways be found to make the six hours a day that students spend in the educational system as fruitful as possible for individual growth.

What is needed, then, is a curriculum approach that is student-centered--an approach that allows the inner-city student opportunities to develop a strong positive self-concept. Placing the student in the center of the learning process, this approach would effectively shift the focus of schooling away from its present singleminded preoccupation with cognitive performance. If curriculum programs were given such an emphasis, student achievement scores might begin to reverse the steady decline they have manifested since 1964.

If this change in emphasis is successful, the author of this study believes that the negative self-concepts of many children can be improved. Consequently, the failure syndrome of inner-city children will, perhaps, not continue to be so appalling. Within this context, the results of this study can have far reaching implications for public school students.

Limitations of the Study

This study is limited for the following reasons:

1. Self-concept is an abstract personality construct. A self report construct, self-concept is difficult to measure by paper and pencil testing such as that used in this study. The instrument used in this study is subject to the limitations of self-concept tests.
2. Participation in this study was limited to high school sophomore students enrolled in five General English classes and no attempt was made to generalize the results to any other group.
3. The study was conducted in a moderately large (190,000 population) Northeastern industrial city. The characteristics of the sophomore students who participated in this study may differ significantly from those of sophomore students in other metropolitan areas.
4. The main weakness of the research design was its failure to control for history. History refers to the specific events occurring between the first and second measurement in addition to the experimental variable.
5. Another possible, but unknown, limitation may have been the respondents' understanding of the questions and directions of the test, along with their sincerity of response.

6. This study was limited by testing conducted in the spring of the academic year with no opportunity for a long-range study.
7. Finally, the results were limited by the degree to which the population and instruments met the statistical limitations imposed by the tests of significance employed--e.g., t-test and analysis of variance.

Plan and Content of this Dissertation

This chapter has presented both a general and specific statement of the problem to be investigated. Five hypotheses have been stated. The significance of this study and its major limitations have also been outlined

Chapter II contains a review of literature related to the investigation of the problem.

The methodological procedures are outlined in Chapter III. This chapter also includes a detailed description of the samples used in the study, the operational definition of terms, a description of the treatment and the research instrument, and a description of the statistics used to test the hypotheses.

In Chapter IV, an analysis of the data is presented. Overall comparisons of the groups are made.

Chapter V concludes the study. The research findings and implications for further study are presented.

Recommendations for additional studies are included as well as a reflections section in which the author explores his views on some possible changes for schools.

C H A P T E R I I

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The analysis of self-concept has produced a significant and extensive body of literature. In fact, the meaning and definitions of this concept are so wide ranging and varied that implications for it can be found in the vast conceptual literature of philosophy, psychology, and sociology. In addition to these sources, references to self-concept occur frequently in the literary works (novels, plays, poems, essays) of the existentialists. Men as ancient as Aristototele and as contemporary as Charles Silberman have contributed ideas that pertain to some aspect of self-concept. The author of this study recognizes the importance of this literature, but, because of its vastness, will not examine it here. In the pages that follow, the author will present a review of literature on self-concept which bears directly on educational issues. This review will contain three major sections:

1. the concept of the self-theoretical bases;
2. self-concept and school achievement;
3. English curriculum approaches to improve self-concept.

The Concept of Self-Theoretical Bases

While it is clear that ancient civilizations must have reflected on the idea of self, the early Greek thinkers were among the first people to attempt a detailed definition of self. The distinction made by Aristotle and other Greek philosophers between the physical and non-physical aspects of humanness has played an important role in the study of behavior. For Aristotle, the main concept of non-physical existence was "soul." While the meaning of this term was never very precise in early Greek thought, it was used to refer to that which is essential to mental functioning. This concept ("soul") has a great deal in common with what later theorists meant by "self."²⁰

The Greeks, then, initiated a discussion about the self which prompted later thinkers to focus on questions such as the distinction between the self and the mind, understanding the existence of mind, the nature of human experience, and the nature of experiencing the self. These questions became central to later definitions of the self, particularly those by Hobbes, John Stuart Mill, and Descartes.²¹

²⁰Kenneth J. Gergen, *The Concept of Self* (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1971), pp. 5-6.

²¹*Ibid.*, p. 6.

Descartes, in particular, is a pivotal figure in the history of self-concept development. He initiated a turning point in man's thinking about his non-physical being with the publication of his *Principles of Psychology* in 1644. Essentially, Descartes reasoned that since the reality of thinking was undeniable ("I think, therefore I am"), so was the existence of the thinker, of the I. This notion of I, the thinking, knowing entity, became in the late 19th century the direct predecessor of the self-concept in the field of psychology.

Gradually, other philosophers, particularly Spinoza and Leibnitz, continued to add their ideas about the mystery of the non-physical aspect of man. This philosophical tradition persisted until the end of the 19th century. Writing at the turn of the 20th century, Sigmund Freud subordinated the self under his concept of ego development. However, the Freudians, and the Neo-Freudians failed to make the self a primary psychological unit. Consequently, they did not give it a central importance in their theoretical formulations.²²

For William James, on the other hand, the self becomes a primary issue in his psychology. With painstaking effort and detail, he pointed out in 1891, the danger of disregarding the unity which this mental function

²²William W. Purkey, *Self-concept and School Achievement* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1970), pp. 3-4.

provided for the individual.²³ In a later work first published in 1892,²⁴ James provided formulations about the nature of self and self-concept that are still pertinent and exert influence in current theoretical and experimental discussions of self. He distinguished between subjective and objective aspects of self, and "I" and the "me." The "I" is the knower and the active experiencer, who at any given moment is in the process of changing consciousness. The "me" or empirical ego is "man's sum total of all he can call his." It includes a "material me," and a "social me," and a "spiritual me." According to James, this dichotomy between the subjective and objective implies attributes of self that are both constant and enduring.

How one regards or values himself, for James, is a function of how successful he is in relation to his "pretension" (level of aspiration). Dissatisfaction with self, or poor self-esteem, can be the result, therefore, of pretensions that are too high or of too few successes within the range of the aspirational level.²⁵

After James, the notion of self continued to grow in importance. Charles Horton Cooley, a contemporary of

²³William James, *The Principles of Psychology*, Vol. I (New York: Dover Publications, Inc., 1950), pp. 336-340.

²⁴William James, *Psychology: The Briefer Course*, edited by Gordon Allport (New York: Harper & Row, Pub., 1960), pp. 43-55.

²⁵*Ibid.*

James, became absorbed with this concept. In particular, he was preoccupied with the importance of others in the development of self-concept. Cooley believed there is no "I" without its correlative sense of "you," "he," or "they." Formulating the idea of the "looking-glass self," Cooley was one of the first psychologists to emphasize the environment as a determinant of attitudes. Man does not form attitudes directly from attitudes of others, but rather through now he imagines others are reacting to him.²⁶

The research of G. H. Mead follows logically from Cooley's efforts. Mead was dissatisfied with the vague concept of "looking-glass self" and attempted to pin the process down more precisely. He believed that the development of the self evolves as the individual assumes attitudes and roles of others who were important to him early in life ("significant others": mother, father, brothers, etc.). The individual, then, identifies with or internalizes the attitudes and attributes of significant people in his environment. According to Mead, the individual builds up a system of expectations about how significant people in his environment will behave, and from this builds up expectations about his own behavior.

²⁶Charles Horton Cooley, *Human Nature and Social Order* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1902), pp. 136-157.

In this way, man develops enduring attitudes about himself which control or direct his conduct. An individual, then, who is treated by his family as "incapable" would eventually see himself in the same way.²⁷

These psychologists, from James to Mead, are called self-theorists. They have in common the belief that feelings of self emerge early in childhood when the infant differentiates between self and other. Gradually, ideas of self develop as a result of a combination of complex interactions:

1. the child's relationship with important persons in his environment;
2. their attitudes and behavior towards the child;
3. the child's perception of these attitudes. As a consequence of this developmental process, the self becomes the frame of reference through which the child views his world and reacts to it.

After the work of Mead, research studies focusing on self-concept underwent a decline. During the first half of the twentieth century, the Behavioristic school gained popularity and attempted to make psychology "scientific." This emphasis led to a neglect of such constructs as self-concept. In fact, in 1925, an influential work by

²⁷George H. Mead, "The Genesis of the Self" cited by Chad Gordon and Kenneth J. Gergen (eds.), *The Self and Social Interaction*, Vol. I (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1968), pp. 51-59.

James B. Watson, *Behaviorism*, redirected the attention of psychologists to external, observable stimuli. As a result of Watson's efforts, the inner consciousness of the individual was labeled as beyond the scope of psychology. During the 1920's through the 1940's, as Wylie²⁸ points out, the self-concept received scant attention from the behavior oriented psychologists who dominated American psychology.

Nevertheless, interest in the role of the self in personality theory became renewed during the years just before 1950. The writings of Lecky,²⁹ Rogers,³⁰ Snygg and Combs,³¹ and Maslow,³² in particular, postulated the central role of an individual's view of himself in his social relationships. Snygg and Combs who have been called "phenomenologists" because of the importance they assign to the conscious thoughts and feelings concerning the self, proposed that the basic drive of the individual is the

²⁸Ruth C. Wylie, *The Self-concept: A Critical Survey of Pertinent Research Literature* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska, 1961), p. 1.

²⁹Prescott Lecky, *Self-consistency: A Theory of Personality* (New York: Island Press, 1945).

³⁰Carl Rogers, *Client-centered Therapy* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1951).

³¹Donald Snygg and Arthur D. Combs, *Individual Behavior: A New Frame of Reference for Psychology* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949).

³²Abraham H. Maslow, *Motivation and Personality* (New York: Harper and Row, 1954).

maintenance and enhancement of the self. They further stated as their basic postulate that "all behavior, without exception, is completely determined by and pertinent to the phenomenal field of the behaving organism."³³ In other words, behavior is determined by the totality of experience of which an individual is aware at an instant of action, his "phenomenal field."

Snygg and Combs' insistence on giving major importance to the way in which people see themselves and their worlds was a significant contribution to psychology and education. In the past 30 years, variations from this postulate have generated considerable research on the relationship of self-concept and school achievement.

Self-concept and School Achievement

In the past three decades an ever-increasing body of literature has developed which suggests that self-concept is a major factor in school achievement. Since this literature is extensive, the present review will be brief and selective.

In a study that has become a classic compilation of pertinent research, Wylie critically reviewed 15 early studies assessing the effects of success or failure upon the self image.³⁴ Although she expressed reservations

³³Snygg and Combs, *Individual Behavior*, p. 15.

³⁴Wylie, *op. cit.*, pp. 184-199.

because each study involved a unique combination of assumptions, hypotheses, procedures, and measuring instruments, Wylie concluded that individuals are likely to alter their self-evaluation following a success or failure experience induced by an experimenter.³⁵ Several studies completed since 1960 have established that attitudes of success and failure concerning academic achievement also are related to evaluations of self-concept.

Brookover, Paterson, and Thomas conducted a six-year study of self-concept and school success.³⁶ After developing an instrument to measure students' perceptions of themselves as learners, the experimenters administered the instrument to over 1,000 seventh graders. The research team reported several substantial correlations. With the effect of intelligence partialled out, the self-concept/Grade Point Average (G.P.A.) correlation was .42 for males and .39 for females.³⁷

However, when the I.Q./G.P.A. correlation (with self-concept partialled out) was compared to the multiple correlation of I.Q. plus self-concept to predict G.P.A., the correlation increased from .48 to .69 for males, and from .53 to .72 for females.³⁸ Moreover, after a six-year

³⁵*Ibid.*, p. 198.

³⁶Wilbur B. Brookover, Ann Paterson, and Shuler Thomas, *Self-concept of Ability and School Achievement* (East Lansing: Michigan State University, Office of Research and Publications, 1962).

³⁷*Ibid.*, p. 40.

³⁸*Ibid.*

period involving the same sample population, positive and substantial correlations between self-concept and scholastic success were maintained.³⁹

Administering the Brookover instrument at the college level, Jones found that the self-concept as a learner score was "the most effective and consistent predictor of scholastic achievement even better than the Scholastic Aptitude Test."⁴⁰ Jones concluded that non-intellectual factors such as the self-concept were reliable predictors of achievement at the college level as well as at the high school level. Moreover, it was even possible that self-concept was equal to or better than standard measures of intelligence or aptitude in predicting scholastic success.

Correlational studies at the elementary school level have also yielded significant and positive correlations between self-concept and school achievement. For example, at the middle grade levels, correlations ranging from .32 to .58 have been reported by Coopersmith,⁴¹

³⁹Wilbur B. Brookover, E. L. Erickson, and L. M. Joinen, *Self-Concept of Ability and School Achievement. III: Relationship of Self-Concept and Achievement in High School* (East Lansing: Michigan State Univ., Office of Research and Publications, 1967).

⁴⁰John G. Jones, "Measures of Self-Perception as Predictors of Scholastic Achievement," *Journal of Educational Research*, LXIII (January 1970), p. 203.

⁴¹Stanley Coopersmith, "A Method for Determining Types of Self-Esteem," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, LIV (February 1959), pp. 89-94.

Piers and Harris,⁴² Beldsoe,⁴³ and Caplin.⁴⁴

Research methodologies other than correlational studies have been utilized to determine the influence of self-concept on school achievement. A common research procedure has been to identify students with similar levels of measured intelligence who have shown different patterns of scholastic achievement. A measure of self-concept has been administered to the samples and a comparison made between the level of self-concept for the high achievers and the low achievers.

Shaw, Edson, and Bell examined the results of a self-descriptive adjective checklist administered to high school juniors and seniors who were classified as inadequate achievers (cumulative G.P.A. of 1.75 or below).⁴⁵ Each one of the 87 students had a measured I.Q. of at least 113. This study indicated that underachievers of both sexes held more negative feelings about themselves when compared with students whose academic achievement was more consistent with their intellectual ability. A follow

⁴²Ellen Piers and Dale B. Harris, "Age and Other Correlates of Self-Concept in Children," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, LV (April 1964), pp. 91-95.

⁴³Joseph C. Bledsoe, "Self-Concept of Children and Their Intelligence, Achievement, Interest and Anxiety," *Children Education*, XLVII (March 1967), pp. 436-437.

⁴⁴Moris D. Caplin, "The Relationship Between Self-Concept and Academic Achievement," *The Journal of Experimental Education*, XXXVII (Spring 1969), pp. 13-16.

⁴⁵Merville C. Shaw, Kenneth Edson and Hugh M. Bell, "The Self-Concept of Bright Underachieving High School Students Revealed by an Adjective Checklist," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXIX (November 1960), pp. 193-196.

up study to the above project was completed by Shaw and Alves.⁴⁶ In this study, the results of the Bell's Index of Adjustment and Values for 78 high school juniors and seniors were examined. All students had an I.Q. of 110 or above. Achievers were defined as those students having a cumulative G.P.A. of 2.5 or above. Once again, this study demonstrated that both male and female underachievers held more negative self-concepts when compared with students whose academic achievement was more consistent with their intellectual ability.

In a related study, Fink obtained the judgment of three psychologists concerning the self-concept of matched pairs of achievers and underachievers.⁴⁷ Fink studied twenty pairs of ninth-grade boys and twenty-four pairs of ninth-grade girls. All students had a measured I.Q. in the 90-110 range. Underachievement was defined as a G.P.A. below the class median. The results showed that the three psychologists rated the achievers as far more adequate in their self-concepts than the underachievers. Fink concluded that there is a positive relationship between self-concept and academic achievement.

⁴⁶Merville C. Shaw and Gerald J. Alves, "The Self-concept of Bright Academic Underachievers Continued," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XLII (December 1963), pp. 401-403.

⁴⁷Martin B. Fink, "Self-concept as it Relates to Academic Achievement," *California Journal of Educational Research*, XIII (February 1962), pp. 57-62.

More recently, a study of gifted students at the elementary school level supported the results of the earlier studies. Durr and Schmatz examined personality differences between gifted high and low achievers in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades.⁴⁸ All 81 students scored above the ninetieth percentile on the Lorge-Thorndike Non-verbal Intelligence test. Approximately half of the students scored above the ninetieth percentile on the total score of the California Achievement test battery; the remaining students scored below the sixtieth percentile. The latter group were considered to be low achievers. Data for each student were gathered from the results of the California Personality test, and two non-standard personality measures.

Results indicated that the low achievers exhibited less self-reliance, and less sense of personal worth and freedom. In addition, the low achievers exhibited feelings of inadequacy, a negative attitude toward school in general, and less satisfaction with the quality of their school work.

Research studies on self-concept also demonstrate that the relationship between academic achievement and self-concept is not restricted by racial membership. Soars

⁴⁸William K. Durr and Robert R. Schmatz, "Personality Differences Between High-achieving and Low-achieving Gifted Children," *Reading Teacher*, XXII (January 1964), pp. 251-254.

and Soars had concluded that, in segregated settings, the self image of black school children was not significantly low or more negative than the self-concept of white students.⁴⁹

Elaborating on this approach, Fredericks investigated whether or not the tendency for poor self-esteem associated with low academic achievement would hold in a segregated setting.⁵⁰ He administered a self-esteem scale to 78 black inner-city sixth graders, and analyzed the results in terms of the students' overall grade point average, reading level, and I.Q. scores. Fredericks found the mean self-esteem score significantly higher for the high G.P.A. group over the low G.P.A. group. The same results were found for the high readers over the low readers. No significant difference in mean self-esteem scores was found between the high and low intelligence groups.

There is also evidence that the relationship between school success and self-concept is maintained across grouping procedures. Dyson compared the academic self-concepts

⁴⁹Anthony T. Soars, and Louise M. Soars, "Self-perception of Culturally Disadvantaged Children," *American Education Research Journal*, VI (January 1969), pp. 31-42.

⁵⁰Allen H. Fredricks, "Relationship of Self-esteem of Disadvantaged to School Success," *Journal of Negro Education*, XL (Spring 1971), pp. 117-120.

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of homogeneously grouped seventh graders with the self-concepts of heterogeneously grouped seventh graders.⁵¹ Regardless of grouping procedures, high achievers consistently reported significantly more positive academic self-concepts than did the low achievers.

In all of the studies reviewed here, the results have been consistent: students who have a history of academic success report a higher level of self-esteem than students who have experienced poor academic achievement. Judging from this evidence, there can be little doubt that there is a persistent relationship between self-concept and scholastic success. This relationship, however, cannot be clearly identified as to a cause-effect pattern. In this regard, Purkey stated:

. . . a great deal of caution is needed before one assumes that either the self-concept determines scholastic performance, or that scholastic performance shapes the self-concept. It may be that the relationship between the two is caused by some factor yet to be determined. The best evidence now available suggests that it is a two-way street, that there is a continuous interaction between the self and academic achievement, and that each directly influences the other.⁵²

Despite Purkey's caution, an objective observer must conclude that there is a substantial correlation

⁵¹Ernest Dyson, "A Study of Ability Grouping and the Self-concept," *Journal of Educational Research*, LX (May 1967), pp. 403-405.

⁵²William W. Purkey, *Self-concept and School Achievement* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1970), p. 23.

between self-concept and general academic achievement. Without question, there is persuasive evidence to indicate that schools have neglected to place sufficient emphasis on how students feel about themselves. The research of Kenneth Washington, in particular, has documented this neglect for students in urban schools. Washington points out that "It is the inner-city child who is most affected by the tendency of educators to neglect development in the affective domain."⁵³ In a more recent article, this author describes "Success Counseling," a group counseling technique he designed to help inner-city students develop positive self-concepts. After careful exposure to this model, students are organized into discussion groups. Many students, according to Washington, report that they have more awareness of their personality strengths. As a result of positive reinforcement from group members, most students state that they feel more positive about themselves.⁵⁴

The research cited above demonstrates clearly that schools must make every effort to develop educational environments that foster positive self-concepts.

⁵³Kenneth R. Washington, "Self-Concept Development: An Affective Educational Experience for Inner-City Teachers," *Young Children*, V (July 1974), p. 305.

⁵⁴Kenneth R. Washington, "Helping Urban Adolescents Develop Positive Self-Concepts," *Journal of Non-White Concerns in Personnel and Guidance*, IV (January 1976), p. 80.

English Curriculum Approaches
to Self-Concept

Although convincing arguments exist maintaining that the English curriculum can improve self-concept (Moffet,⁵⁵ 1968; Dixon,⁵⁶ 1967; Holbrook,⁵⁷ 1965; Simon, Hawley and Britton,⁵⁸ 1973; Shugrue,⁵⁹ 1968), research in this area has been limited to theoretical formulations with little support from experimentally derived data. The following studies are representative of this research.

Theoretical Studies

Commenting on the use of writing in an English curriculum, Gibson and Higgins point out that:

The writing of an autobiography gives the student an opportunity to discuss as freely as he desires his problems, fears, and other matters of importance to him. It presents him with a means of getting things off his chest--of relieving his tensions without any threat to his well being.⁶⁰

⁵⁵James Moffett, *A Student-Centered Language Arts Curriculum, Grades K-13: A Handbook for Teachers* (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1968), pp. 3-32.

⁵⁶John Dixon, *Growth Through English* (Reading, England: National Association for the Teaching of English, 1967), pp. 4-9.

⁵⁷David Holbrook, *English for the Rejected* (Cambridge, England: The University Press, 1965), pp. 3-86.

⁵⁸Sidney Simon, Robert Hawley, and David Britton, *Composition for Personal Growth: Values Clarification Through Writing* (New York: Hart Publishing Co., 1973), pp. 11-13.

⁵⁹Michael F. Shugrue, *English in a Decade of Change* (New York: Pegasus, 1968), pp. 126-127.

⁶⁰Robert L. Gibson and R. E. Higgins, *Techniques of Guidance: An Approach to Pupil Analysis* (Chicago, Illinois: Science Research Associates, 1966), p. 161.

According to Starr, using the English curriculum in this way causes a person "to organize past, present and future experience in such fashion as to see their personal significance."⁶¹ This idea is reflected in Jourard's statement that it may be possible for an individual "to achieve catharsis, insight into compassion for himself, through writing a poem, a novel, a play."⁶²

A similar approach to the English curriculum was reported in a book dealing with ghetto children, *The Me Nobody Knows*. Through specific writing assignments, the author was able to prompt his students to reveal their feelings:

I've found that some kids will write what they think you want and some will put you on, but most of them write for keeps because they need to, and because the talented and dedicated people who are their teachers make it possible for them to tell it like it is, or at least how it is to them.⁶³

Through writing, these children were able to reveal their inner worlds and give an account of their self-concept. This methodology allowed students the freedom to express themselves in their own way without the threat of adult criticism.

⁶¹ G. G. Starr, "An Evaluation of Student Autobiography as an Aid in the Guidance Program," *Education*, 63 (1942), pp. 40-47.

⁶² Sidney M. Jourard, *The Transparent Self* (Princeton, New Jersey: D. van Nostrand Co., 1964), p. 42.

⁶³ Sidney M. Joseph, *The Me Nobody Knows: Children's Voices From the Ghetto* (New York: Avon Books, 1969), p. 13.

Fader and McNeil developed a similar writing program called "English in Every Classroom." Designed for public school students, this program issued students notebooks, called journals, in which they were asked to write two pages a week. The teacher read the journal only if invited to do so by the student. Grammar, spelling, and content were not considered, so that the students were free to write anything they wished in any manner they desired. Assessing the value of student journals, the authors write:

Of the many varied encouragements and inducements to writing within the scope of *English in Every Classroom*, none has been more consistently successful than the journal. The journal has been used in schools before. English teachers and teachers of other subjects have occasionally turned to it as a support for more formal writing assignmentsWherever they have been included in the school program, they seem to have pleased teacher and student alike.⁶⁴

The authors conclude their comments on the beneficial aspects of "English in Every Classroom" in the following way:

When a child turns his eyes inward he gets an image of himself--of who and what he is--and he reacts intellectually and emotionally to his judgment of what he sees. With his inner eye he takes the measure of himself--his characteristics, his physique, his looks, his style of life--and compares this self-view, for better or for worse, with the way others see him. His view of himself is also constructed of reflected appraisals, i.e., the kind of

⁶⁴ Daniel Fader and Elton McNeil, *Hooked on Books: Program and Proof* (New York: Berkley Medallion Books, 1968), p. 35.

person other people think he is. What do I think I am? What do others think I am? What do I want to be? Such are the questions asked of the self, in the answers to those questions we find a well spring of motivation for human behavior.⁶⁵

Empirical Studies

The studies cited above suggest that self-concept improvement can result from effective use of the English curriculum. There are, however, very few studies which provide stringent analysis of this question. As a result there is a paucity of controlled experimental research designed to examine the relationship between the English curriculum and self-concept growth. The studies reviewed here are the best examples of this research.

Popovic conducted a study in which he assigned the writing of self-report essays to one group of adolescents while maintaining a control group with little practice in essay writing. After a period of years, he observed that the experimental group was able to control its instinctive and emotional life more adequately than the control group. Popovic concluded that his method had educational value since it enabled students to gain self insights.⁶⁶

⁶⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 202.

⁶⁶ S. Popovic, "Self Reports as a Means of Exercising the Introspection of Adolescents," *Psychological Abstracts*, VIII (1934), No. 2841.

Castner⁶⁷ measured change in self-esteem of school children, in connection with the keeping of journals. Using an experimental journal keeping group and a control non-journal keeping group of sixth grade students, Castner reports that the students who kept a journal (4 week period) scored significantly higher in measured self-esteem. This difference between the mean self-esteem was significant at the .002 level. The results, however, were obtained by removing each child from the classroom setting for the time set aside for written assignments. In addition, there was no measurement of the self-esteem level of the two groups prior to the experimental intervention. Consequently, it was not possible to determine the extent of change in self-esteem which resulted from journal keeping. Nevertheless, this study is valuable as a first step in pointing the way to further research.

In a carefully controlled study, Sussman⁶⁸ sought to determine if an English curriculum organized around the writing of a personal journal had an effect on the self-esteem of fifth and sixth grade children. In his study,

⁶⁷Alice E. Castner, "The Relationship Between the Process of Keeping Journal and Self-Esteem using Sixth Grade Students," (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Maryland, 1969).

⁶⁸Gilbert Sussman, "The Effects of Writing About Self on the Self-Esteem of Fifth and Sixth Grade Children," (Doctoral Dissertation, Fordham University, New York, 1973).

Sussman used four classes of fifth and four classes of sixth grade children from a suburban public elementary school. Four additional classes served as a non-writing control group. Students were asked to keep personal journals in which they wrote for ten-minute sessions three days a week for a period of eight weeks. The control writing group was asked to write about external matters of an intellectual nature. After analyzing his data, Sussman found that there were no significant differences in the self-esteem between fifth and sixth grade students who kept personal journals and those who did not. He recommends that further studies be designed to measure specific changes occurring within similar groups.

Agnew sought to determine whether improvement in self-concept, as well as gains in reading and listening achievement, would result for students who participated in a six week language art program.⁶⁹ Agnew's sample consisted of an experimental group of 75 students (2nd and 5th graders) and a control group of 75 (2nd and 5th graders). The experimental group was exposed to a six week language arts program which focused on exercises to develop reading, writing, listening and speaking skills.

Analysis of the data revealed that there was no evidence that pupils who participated in the language

⁶⁹Ann Agnew, "The Effects of a Summer Communication Skills Program upon Selected Language Arts Skills and Dimensions of the Self-Concept of Disadvantaged Students," (Doctoral Dissertation, New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, New Mexico, 1973).

arts program made positive gains in self-concept. Agnew explains this result by suggesting that teacher expectation may have played a role in the lack of change in pupil self-concepts. The author maintains that since pupils were referred to the program because of poor achievement, some teachers may have held low expectations concerning pupil growth. In subtle ways, these attitudes may have been communicated to the pupils.

In a related study, Romer⁷⁰ developed a curriculum designed to increase the self-esteem of sixth grade students. This curriculum, *You and Me: Education for Emotional Growth*, consisted of exercises organized around games, role-playing, the visual arts, and the arts of movement and drama. Thirty-six sixth grade students were randomly assigned to the experimental and control groups. The main research hypothesis states that students in the experimental group receiving the curriculum, *You and Me: Education for Emotional Growth*, would obtain significantly greater gains in self-esteem than students in the control group. A sociogram, in addition to other instruments, was used to measure self-esteem growth.

Results indicated that the main research hypothesis was supported by the pre-post gain scores on the sociogram. Students in the experimental group gained significantly

⁷⁰Nancy H. Romer, "Increasing Self-Esteem and Acceptance of Others in the Sixth Grade," (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Connecticut, 1972).

more ($p \leq .05$) than those in the control group. According to the author, both pupils and teachers reacted enthusiastically to the various curriculum units.

Summary

The literature reviewed in this chapter has been divided into three sections. From a theoretical and empirical perspective, these sections focus on the importance of self-concept to school achievement.

The concept of "self," the theoretical basis for the present study, was briefly reviewed in historical context. The contributions of the Greeks, particularly Aristotle, were cited as the first theorists to attempt a detailed definition of self. The work of Descartes added a significant philosophical dimension to the discussion of self. Subsequently, other philosophers, particularly Spinoza and Leibnitz, contributed to the discussion about self as the non-physical aspect of man. This philosophical dialogue continued until the end of the 19th century. At this point William James, demanding empirical referents for the concept of self, made this issue the primary focus of his psychology. Influenced by James, other theorists, especially Cooley and Mead, were cited as psychologists who contributed to certain present day aspects of self-concept. As a result of the Behavioristic approach to psychology, research studies on self-concept declined during the first half of the

twentieth century. However, theorists such as Lecky, Rogers, Snygg and Combs, and Maslow were cited as men who have re-introduced the idea of self-concept as a pivotal issue in psychology and education.

Research that focused on the relationship of self-concept to school achievement was also summarized. Wylie reviewed 15 early studies that assessed the effects of success or failure upon the self-concept. She concluded that individuals are likely to change their self-evaluation following a success or failure experience induced by an experimenter. Brookover, Erickson, and Joinen conducted a six-year study of self-concept and school success. This research team found substantial correlations between self-concept and grade point average for junior and senior high school students. Jones found that self-concept was a reliable predictor of achievement at the college level as well as at the high school level. Researchers such as Coopersmith, Piers and Harris, and Bledsoe have found significant positive correlations between self-concept and school achievement for elementary school students. Research studies by Shaw; Edson and Bell; Fink; Soars and Soars; and Dyson demonstrate that students who have a history of academic success report a higher level of self-concept than students who experience poor academic achievement. The research of Kenneth Washington has documented that positive changes in self-concept can be brought about through curriculum models.

The final section of the review of literature examined English curriculum approaches to improve self-concept. Mention was made of the relatively small amount of experimental data available to the researcher. However, studies by Popovic, Castner, Sussman, Agnew, and Romer were cited which suggest that the English Curriculum can have a powerful positive effect on student self-concept.

C H A P T E R I I I

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Introduction

The purpose of this investigation was to determine whether there was a significant difference between the self-concept mean scores of students exposed to the student centered English curriculum in comparison to students not exposed to this curriculum. In addition, the study investigated four related questions.

1. whether there were any significant post experimental differences between the self-concept mean scores of boys and girls;
2. whether there were any significant post experimental differences in the self-concept mean scores of students whose I.Q. was above the median in comparison to students whose I.Q. was below the median;
3. whether there were any significant post experimental differences in the self-concept mean scores of students whose grade point average was above the median in comparison to students whose grade point average was below the median;
4. whether there were any significant post experimental differences in the self-concept mean scores

of students whose socio-economic status was high, middle and low.

In a powerful book, Herbert Ginsburg cites what he calls the obvious facts which explain the failure of urban schools:

Nearly everyone agrees that the schools do not function properly, and to a large extent are unsuccessful in coping with the problems of poor children. . . violence and boredom pervade the schools; the curriculum is dull; the teaching, despite educators' good intentions, is too often unimaginative and sterile; and frequently poor children are locked into a cycle of academic failure from the earliest grades of school.⁷¹

Calling for basic reform in urban schools, Donald Smith argues that judged by any fundamental criteria--number of dropouts, level of achievement, number of college entrants, duration and type of employment--urban schools have been pitifully ineffectual. According to Smith, one crucial imperative for urban education is the need for curriculum change within the schools. In particular, he maintains that curriculum must be approached in terms of its potential for self-concept development. This emphasis will solve many problems of student motivation, since "School curriculum will have to be restructured to be responsive to the affect as well as the cognitive needs of disadvantaged pupils."⁷²

⁷¹Herbert Ginsburg, *The Myth of the Deprived Child* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1972), p. 7.

⁷²Donald H. Smith, "Imperatives in Urban Education," *Teaching Social Studies to Culturally Different Children*, James A. Banks and William W. Joyce, Editors (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1971), p. 384-394.

Responding to this appeal, Douglas Heath maintains that the existing curriculum neglects self-concept emphasis. Consequently, students, according to Heath, become alienated because the curriculum only imparts information and academic skills. In fact, Heath cites data which points out that over 80 percent of classroom tests deal only with the acquisition of information.⁷³

Without question, the English curriculum has too often been a participant in this tendency, cited by Ginsburg, Smith and Heath, to separate the self-concept from school learning. There is little doubt, however, that approached properly, the English curriculum can focus on the most vital needs of students. David Holbrook, in particular, has shown how this curriculum can be implemented in a way that enhances student self-concept.⁷⁴

Self-insight and self-mastery can become achievable objectives for a high school English curriculum. As a result of working closely and directly with both achieving and underachieving students, the researcher observed

⁷³Douglas H. Heath, *Humanizing Schools: New Directions, New Decisions* (New York: Hayden Book Company, Inc., 1971), p. 116.

⁷⁴David Holbrook, *English for the Rejected* (Cambridge, England: The University Press, 1965), pp. 3-31.

striking differences between the way these students perceived themselves and others. Additional observations about the importance of self-concept prompted the researcher to become familiar with the research of Carl Rogers,⁷⁵ as well as the vast body of literature dealing with self-concept issues. Gradually, then, a casual interest grew into an active concern and finally into a firm resolve to investigate the relationship between self-concept and the English curriculum.

During the Fall of 1974, the researcher met with the principal of a medium-sized urban high school and members of the English Department. At this meeting, a lively discussion was held dealing with the problems caused by an English curriculum that avoided any serious considerations of students' affective needs. As a way of correcting this neglect, the researcher outlined plans for a student-centered language arts curriculum which, if implemented as a research study, might have substantial educational benefits.

The student-centered language arts curriculum, compiled and designed by the researcher from several unrelated materials, is a curriculum unit designed to improve self-concept. This unit consists of a thirty day educational program organized around the following eight

⁷⁵Carl Rogers, *On Becoming a Person* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1961), pp. 243-270.

activities: (1) FILM: "IT'S YOUR MOVE"; (2) CLASS TEXTS: *UPTIGHT* and *A PIECE OF THE ACTION*; (3) CLASS INTERACTION-DISCUSSION GROUPS; (4) CLASS WRITING ASSIGNMENTS; (5) ROLE PLAYING ACTIVITIES; (6) VALUE CLARIFICATION EXERCISES; (7) SELF-CONFRONTATION REVIEWS; and (8) FILMSTRIP PROGRAM "VALUES FOR TEENAGERS: THE CHOICE IS YOURS."

After securing permission to implement the study, the researcher administered a self-concept test in the classrooms of the groups designed for pre-testing, the experimental and control groups. For the experimental group, this was followed by a six week exposure to the student-centered language arts curriculum. This treatment took place for 30 consecutive school days during the regularly scheduled 44 minute English classes.. To make adjustment for the Hawthorne effect, the control group received the traditional curriculum. At the conclusion of this period, both groups were given the post-test with the self-concept instrument.

The Sample

The sample for this study was comprised of sophomore students enrolled in General English classes in a public high school located in central Massachusetts. The experimental group was exposed to all aspects of the student-centered English curriculum. Personal information on the students and their families were gathered from

Student Cumulative Records located in the Guidance Office at the school.

Five complete, intact classes of sophomore students were selected for this study. In order to insure uniformity of administration, the pre-test and the post-test for the experimental and control groups were administered by the researcher. All students were asked to respond to these tests during the first 30 minutes of class. The accessible population from which the sample was drawn totaled 250 students. There were 104 students in the sample, 50 in the control group and 54 in the experimental group. Personal data for the students participating in this study is presented in Table 1. The median referred to applies to the groups tested.

Definition of Terms

Urban Students.--For purpose of this study, urban students refers to students who attend schools serving children from lower socio-economic areas. The school designated as urban for this study is composed of a population of predominantly white children from low-income neighborhoods.

Secondary Students.--Refers to students who are enrolled at the high school level of academic work.

Student-Centered English Curriculum.--For purposes of this study, this curriculum refers to a six week, structured educational design which places the student in

TABLE 1
COMPOSITION OF CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Categories	Control Group	Experimental Group
<u>Age</u>		
14-15	26	26
16-17	24	28
<u>Sex</u>		
Male	24	27
Female	26	27
<u>I. Q.</u>		
Above Median	24	26
Below Median	26	26
<u>Grade Point Average</u>		
Above Median	24	28
Below Median	26	26
<u>Socio-economic Status</u> ⁷⁶		
High	5	5
Medium	25	18
Low	20	31

⁷⁶William Warner, Marcia Meeker, and Kenneth Eells, *Social Class in America* (New York: Harper and Row, 1960), pp. 140-141.

the center of the learning process. For a detailed description of the eight stages of this program, refer to pages 51 to 57.

Self-Concept.--Self-concept is an abstract personality construct that is inferred from behavior. In view of the lack of agreement on the definition of the construct self-concept, Wylie suggested that this term be considered as a group.⁷⁷ For purposes of this study, however, self-concept is considered to be a series of conscious evaluative attitudes an individual has towards himself. The construct expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval, and indicates the extent to which an individual considers himself to be capable, important, successful, and worthy.⁷⁸

Treatment: English Curriculum Unit

Compiled and designed by the researcher, the student-centered language arts curriculum is a curriculum unit designed to improve self-concept. This unit consists of a thirty day educational program organized around the following eight activities:

1. FILM--"IT'S YOUR MOVE," a film running 13 minutes which contains four separate vignettes. Three of

⁷⁷Ruth Wylie, *The Self-concept: A Critical Survey of Pertinent Research Literature* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1961), p. 3.

⁷⁸Stanley Coopersmith, *The Antecedents of Self-esteem* San Francisco: W. H. Freeman and Company, 1967), p. 5.

them are open-ended problem situations relevant to the lives of inner-city students. The problem involved in each episode focuses on self-concept and is briefly and powerfully presented. The vignettes end before any conclusion is reached. Students, consequently, must supply their own conclusions. The fourth vignette is based on a taped interview with several adolescents who discuss personal values and the problem of identity.

2. TEXTS-- Two books, *UPTIGHT* and *A PIECE OF THE ACTION* form the core of the curriculum unit. Twelve stories have been selected for use in the student-centered English curriculum unit. These stories are listed in Appendix A. The author selected each story on the basis of two criteria: first, the story must provoke and hold the interest of high school students; second, the story must center on some aspect of self-concept. Each story, in addition, presents a problem for the class to solve. This emphasis encourages the discovery method of teaching.
3. INTERACTION—DISCUSSION GROUPS. The class is divided up into groups of five or six students. After reading the assigned stories, students are given a series of questions that focus on self-concept issues. Using the discovery approach,

students are encouraged to try to solve, by themselves, the problems raised in the stories. The teacher can move from group to group to assist where needed.

4. CLASS WRITING ASSIGNMENTS. This phase of the program, called "writing encounters with the self," consists of a series of creative assignments designed to promote students' awareness of the self. Using composition in this manner, the teacher enables the student to reflect upon the student's unique experience. More importantly, students are given opportunity for self-discovery. The following is an illustration of this technique:

Topic:	The Magic Box ⁷⁹
Purpose:	To help students gain an awareness about themselves and their values.
Procedure:	The teacher instructs students in the following way. In front of you is a magic box capable of making itself very small or very large. Best of all, it can contain anything you want it to contain. The teacher then asks the students, "If you came home from school today and found the magic box waiting for you to open, what would be in it? Remember, it can have anything you want, tangible or intangible." Students then write out their answers.

⁷⁹Sidney B. Simon, Robert C. Hawley, and David D. Britton, *Composition for Personal Growth: Values Clarification Through Writing* (New York: Hart Publishing Company, 1973), p. 28.

5. ROLE PLAYING ACTIVITIES. This section contains a few role-playing activities which combine practice in oral expression with the chance to gain further insight into the self. Many teachers are afraid that drama will become disorganized and create chaos. . . Used appropriately, as in this unit, role-playing has the tendency to lower tensions and to help students enjoy their reading and writing assignments.
6. VALUE CLARIFICATION EXERCISES. The author has selected four exercises, numbers 1, 33, 50, and 54 from Sidney Simon's text.⁸⁰ Each exercise is a strategy designed to help a student clarify his sense of self. A standard format is established for each strategy. In the first step, the purpose of the exercise is defined. The second step describes in detail the procedures to be used. The four exercises selected are entitled:
- a. "Twenty Things I Love To Do" (#1);
 - b. "The Pie of Life" (#33);
 - c. "Aligator River" (#50);
 - d. "Who Am I?" (#54).

A copy of these exercises is presented in Appendix B.

⁸⁰ Sidney Simon, Leland Howe, and Howard Kirschenbaum, *Values Clarification: A Handbook of Practical Strategies for Teachers and Students* (New York: Hart Publishing Company, 1972), pp. 30-34; 228-231; 290-294; 306-307.

7. SELF-CONFRONTATION REVIEWS. Compiled by the researcher, these exercises for the development of self-insight are a four session sequence. They are utilized as weekly reviews (see Appendix C). The following is a brief summary of each session:

I. Self-confrontation Through Self-Rating.

The purpose of this exercise is to provoke awareness by having students become curious about themselves. Students should realize that self-analysis is a part of a healthy adjustment and is an effective means of becoming a fully functioning individual. Through self-confrontation, students can learn more about themselves by looking at themselves directly and clearly.

II. Improvement of Self-Image Through Positive Attitudes.

Using positive reinforcement, this exercise seeks to improve student self-image. By directing perception into creative and productive channels, students focus on happy experiences. Gradually, students become able to see that they can modify their attitudes significantly.

III. Brainstorming Your Way to Success.

The purpose of this exercise is to enable the students, by working in their discussion groups, to take initiative in changing one aspect of

their behavior which is negative and self-defeating. This exercise helps students develop goals and brainstorm the means for attaining them.

IV. Mastery of Obstacles Through Practice.

The purpose of this exercise is to develop self-confidence. The emphasis in this session is on the successful actions that the student has used to overcome personal obstacles. During this session, students are asked to write a paragraph documenting their experiences, identifying their sources of success, and stating their plans for change. In this sequence, students come to realize that they have developed a sense of insight and confidence because they are able to modify their own attitudes.

8. A filmstrip program, "VALUES FOR TEENAGERS: THE CHOICE IS YOURS." This unit consists of two parts, "Confusions" (18 minutes) and "Decisions" (14 minutes). This sound filmstrip unit is designed to stimulate students to think about and discuss important issues of personal development. Part I and Part II are shown on separate days. Each is structured to stimulate discussion for an entire class period. Throughout the discussion, the

teacher removes himself from the traditional role of authority figure by placing a group-elected teenager in the role of discussion leader.

Description of the Research Instrument

Difficulty of Measuring Self-Concept

Very real problems exist in the use of any personality or attitude test. In this area of research, the question of test reliability and validity is difficult to satisfy, particularly in the use of self-concept tests. No perfect instruments exist. In fact, very few of the researchers in this area report validity scores for their instruments. These limitations have led Combs, Sorser and Courson⁸¹ to argue that too many studies purporting to analyze self-concept are not studies of self-concept at all; they are, on the contrary, studies on self-report.

Reliance on self-report measures, however, does not discredit the value of self-concept research. Wylie, for example, strongly argues for continued research on self-concept despite the fact that, as she states:

Although progress has been made in the last decade, no investigator has satisfactorily conceptualized or coped with all the difficult measurement problems in the self-concept field. Quite a few

⁸¹Arthur W. Combs, D. W. Sorser, and C. C. Courson, "The Measurement of Self-concept and Self-Report," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XXIII (1963), p. 23.

indicated that they make no claims for having tried to support the reliability or construct validity of their instrument, and they are content to 'let the reader beware,' as it were. . . .⁸²

LaBenne and Greene take a similar position. They say:

It is true that the techniques have not yet been perfected to a point where we can have perfect measurement. On the other hand, this does not mean that nothing should be done until that point is reached. The goal of having each teacher cognizant that the importance of the self-concept may be difficult to measure must be recognized in order to avoid errors in interpretation. At this point in time the instruments used to measure self-concept are the best we have available. Continued use by both practitioners and researchers will probably reveal even more weakness, which will hopefully be remedied at some future time. For the present, however, the teacher who desires to obtain some index of self-concept must be satisfied with imperfect measurements and the limitations of the instrument.⁸³

The Research Instrument

As a result of these limitations, the researcher chose to design his own instrument rather than use an existing test that might not elicit pertinent data. This instrument, a five point Likert-type attitude scale, originally contained 30 statements, 15 positive and 15

⁸² Ruth Wylie, *The Self-Concept: A Review of Methodological Considerations and Measuring Instruments*, Revised Edition, Volume I (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1974), p. 123.

⁸³ Wallace D. LaBenne and Bert I. Greene, *Educational Implications of Self-Concept Theory* (Pacific Palisades, California: Good Year Publishing Co., 1969), pp. 117-118.

negative (see Appendix D). The Likert scaling technique assigns a scale value to each of the five responses. Thus, the instrument yields a total score for each respondent. Starting with a positive content statement, all statements favoring this position are scored:

SCALE VALUE

C.T.	Completely true	5
M.T.	Mostly true	4
UD	Undecided	3
M.F.	Mostly false	2
C.F.	Completely false	1

For statements with a negative content, the items are scored in the opposite order:

SCALE VALUE

C.T.	Completely true	1
M.T.	Mostly true	2
UD	Undecided	3
M.F.	Mostly false	4
C.F.	Completely false	5

The scores for any individual fall between 30 and 150. Any student, consequently, who scored above the median for the group tested was defined as a person having

a positive (adequate) self-concept; students scoring below the median were defined as students having negative (inadequate) self-concepts.

The attitude scale contains such statements as:

1. I have a sense of personal dignity.
2. I am an inadequate person.

The students are asked to rate themselves according to how true these statements are for themselves as they usually are by use of the 5 part scale described above.

To insure internal reliability for this instrument, the researcher conducted a pilot study in March 1975 with over 100 students at a local high school. The 30 test items were chosen on the basis of their clarity and appropriateness for high school students. Using the facilities of the University Computer Center, the researcher established internal consistency by examining how each item correlated with the total test score. Two items were found to have negative correlations with the total test scores and were eliminated from the instrument. A copy of the revised instrument is presented in Appendix E. Other items, however, were found to have correlations ranging from .18 to .58.

To establish test reliability, the researcher utilized the split-half method. A random numbers table was used to divide the instrument into two equivalent

halves. The odd-even item procedure could not be used since most of the odd numbered items were positive and the majority of even numbered items were negative. The data indicated the following:

MEAN	FIRST RANDOM HALF:	52.7980
	SECOND RANDOM HALF:	52.6869

RELIABILITY COEFFICIENT

FIRST HALF WITH SECOND HALF:	.67
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Using the Spearman-Brown formula to step up the reliability calculated by the split-half method, the researcher found an overall reliability for the 28 items of .80.

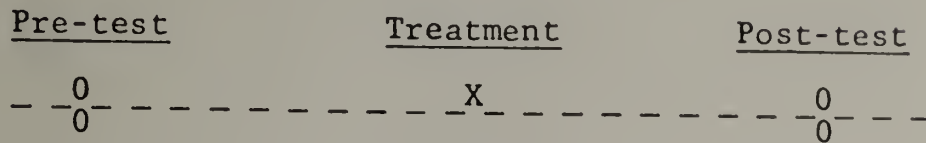
Research Design

The research design for this study is quasi-experimental. This design consists of the non-equivalent control group method because the experimental and control groups were naturally intact classrooms with no randomization possible. Labeled as quasi-experimental by Donald I. Campbell and Julian C. Stanley in their book, *Experimental and Quasi-experimental designs for research*, this design uses naturally assembled classroom groups of unassured equivalence. The authors write that:

One of the most widespread experimental designs in educational research involves an experimental group and a control group both given a pre-test and post-test, but in which the control group and the experimental group do not have

pre-experimental sampling equivalence. Rather, the groups constitute naturally assembled collectives such as classrooms, as similar as availability permits but yet not so similar that one can dispense with the pre-test.⁸⁴

This design takes this form:



Campbell and Stanley further point out that this design allows the researcher to exercise almost total control over sources of internal validity and adequate control over threats to external validity.⁸⁵ In the diagram above, X represents the experimental treatment. 0 represents a sub-group receiving a pre-test and a post-test. The dashed line represents comparison groups not equated by random assignment.

Treatment of Data

For both groups, a mean score on the self-concept test will be obtained for the pre-test and the post-test. The significance of the difference of the gain scores between experimental and control groups will be computed by means of a t-test and by analysis of variance. According to

⁸⁴Donald I. Campbell and Julian C. Stanley, *Experimental and Quasi-experimental Designs for Research* (Chicago: The Rand McNally Co., 1963), p. 47.

⁸⁵*Ibid.*, p. 40.

John W. Best, analysis of variance is particularly useful "when it has not been possible to compare randomly-selected samples, a common situation in classroom experiments using available samples."⁸⁶ For this study, the level of rejection for the hypotheses was established at the .05 level.

The major research hypothesis tested is as follows:

1. There is no significant difference between the self-concept mean scores of students exposed to a student-centered English curriculum unit in comparison to students not exposed to this curriculum.

Symbolically: $H_0 : M_1 = M_2$

Legend: M_1 = students exposed to a student-centered English curriculum unit.

M_2 = students not exposed to a student-centered English curriculum unit.

In addition to the above major hypothesis, the following four related hypotheses were tested:

1. There are no significant differences in the self-concept mean scores of boys and girls.

Symbolically: $H_0 : M_1 = M_2$

Legend: M_1 = Boys

M_2 = Girls

2. There are no significant differences in the self-concept mean scores of students whose I.Q. is above the median in comparison to students whose I.Q. is below the median.

Symbolically: $H_0 : M_1 = M_2$

Legend: M_1 = students whose I.Q. is above the median.

M_2 = students whose I.Q. is below the median.

⁸⁶John W. Best, *Research in Education* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1970), p. 177.

3. There are no significant differences in the self-concept mean scores of students whose grade point average is above the median in comparison to students whose grade point average is below the median.

Symboblically: $H_o : M_1 = M_2$

Legend: M_1 = students whose grade point average is above the median.

M_2 = students whose grade point average is below the median.

4. There are no significant differences in the self-concept mean scores of students whose socio-economic status is high, middle and low.

Symboblically: $H_o : M_1 = M_2 = M_3$

Legend: M_1 = students whose socio-economic status is high.

M_2 = students whose socio-economic status is middle.

M_3 = students whose socio-economic status is low.

Summary

This chapter has presented the methods and procedures used in conducting this investigation. The population comprised 250 sophomores at an inner-city school in Massachusetts. The sample consisted of 104 students enrolled in the sophomore class at this school. A detailed description was given of the treatment for the experimental group. This treatment consisted of an English curriculum unit organized around eight activities.

In addition, the principal terms were defined and an operational definition of self-concept was presented.

Also, the research instrument and research design were discussed.

In the last section, the major research hypothesis was stated along with the related hypotheses. Symbolic representations of these hypotheses were illustrated. The major statistical techniques employed in analyzing the data were the t-test and analysis of variance.

C H A P T E R I V

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The major purpose of this study was to determine whether the self-concepts of high school students could be improved through exposure to a student-centered English curriculum unit. This chapter presents the results of the data for the major hypothesis. In addition, data are presented for the related hypotheses concerning pre-experimental differences between the experimental and control groups. Finally, data are presented on the differences between the experimental and control groups that are attributable to socio-economic status, sex, I.Q., and grade point average.

The data presented in this chapter was collected by using a sample of 104 students enrolled in sophomore English classes. The accessible population from which the sample was drawn totaled 250 students. There were 104 students in the sample, 54 in the experimental group and 50 in the control group. The research instrument, a self-concept test, was a Likert-type attitude scale containing 28 statements, 15 positive and 13 negative.

Statistical procedures employed were t-test and analysis of variance. All hypotheses were treated at the point .05 level of significance.

Self-Concept of Groups Prior
to the Study

Before testing the major hypothesis of the study, a preliminary assessment was conducted to determine what differences, if any, existed between the self-concepts of the experimental and control groups prior to exposure to the treatment. Both pre-test and post-test measures of self-concept were obtained for the experimental and control groups. Post-test measures of self-concept were utilized to test the hypotheses set forth in Chapter I. In order to determine whether the experimental and control groups were equivalent at the outset of the study, the following hypothesis was initially tested, utilizing the pre-test data:

Ho: There is no significant difference between the self-concept mean scores of the experimental and control groups before presentation of the student-centered English curriculum to the experimental group.

The statistics presented in Table 2 show that the pre-experimental difference on self-concept between the experimental and control groups favored the control group. The t -test conducted on the difference in mean scores yielded a t value of 1.79 which was not significant at the .05 level. Consequently, the hypothesis of no difference was therefore accepted.

Since no significant difference existed in self-concept prior to the treatment, remaining analyses testing for post-experimental differences in self-concept attributable to other variables were justified.

Effect of the Treatment on Self-Concept

The major hypothesis of the study concerned any difference that existed between the self-concepts of the experimental and control groups after exposure to the treatment.

Ho: There is no significant difference between the self-concept mean scores of students exposed to the student-centered English curriculum unit in comparison to students not exposed to this curriculum.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON SELF-CONCEPT
MEASURE FOR EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL
GROUP PRIOR TO TREATMENT

Group	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>t</u>
Experimental	54	104.82	8.94	
Control	50	108.04	9.17	1.79

In addition to the test of this hypothesis, the magnitude of gain scores from the pre-test to the post-test, especially for the experimental group, is of interest. An examination of Table 3 indicates that the control group mean was slightly higher than that of the experimental group. A t -test conducted on the mean scores to determine the difference between the two groups was not significant. The value of t was .96 with 102 degrees of freedom. Significance at the .05 level was 1.98. The hypothesis was therefore accepted. The gain scores for the two groups were also similar in magnitude. However, Table 3 does reveal that the gain for the experimental group was somewhat higher than that of the control group. Nevertheless, the t -test conducted on the difference in gain scores for the two groups yielded a t value of .78 which was not significant at the .05 level.

Analyses of Tests of

Remaining Hypotheses

Using analysis of variance, the researcher tested hypotheses regarding the variables of sex, I.Q., grade point average, and socio-economic status in conjunction with the major hypothesis of no difference between the experimental and control groups. Each of the related hypothesis is therefore reported in

TABLE 3
 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON SELF-CONCEPT
 MEASURE FOR EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL
 GROUP FOLLOWING THE TREATMENT

<u>Group</u>	<u>Post-Test Scores</u>				<u>Gain Scores</u>		
	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>t</u>
Experimental	54	107.02	10.54		2.20	1.41	
Control	50	109.08	11.24	.96	1.04	2.12	.78

conjunction with the finding of no difference reported above. The analyses also yield an interaction variable, crossing the treatment variables with each of the other variables.

The Effects of Sex and Treatment
on Self-Concept Scores

The effects of sex and treatment of self-concept scores were determined by analysis of the hypothesis stated below. Table 4 presents mean squares and F values associated with the analysis of variance for the following hypothesis:

Ho: There are no significant differences between the self-concept mean scores of boys and girls exposed to the student-centered English curriculum in comparison to the self-concept mean scores of boys and girls not exposed to this curriculum.

Table 4 reveals that the interaction between sex and treatment produce no effect on self-concept scores. None of the differences tested were significant. The null hypothesis regarding differences in mean scores attributable to the variable of sex was therefore accepted. It would appear from this analysis

TABLE 4
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DUE TO SEX
AND TREATMENT

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Treatment	1	4.792	.460
Sex	1	6.306	.059
Interaction	1	91.421	.860
Error	100	106.269	

that no relationship exists between sex and self-concept mean scores. This finding of no difference, however, might have resulted from the failure of the independent variable to stress adequately sex roles.

The Effects of I.Q. and Treatment
on Self-Concept Scores

In the second analysis of variance, the effects of I.Q. and treatment on self-concept scores were studied. Table 5 presents mean squares and F values associated with its analysis of variance for the following hypothesis:

Ho: There are no significant differences in the self-concept mean scores of students whose I.Q. is above the median for the groups selected in comparison to students whose I.Q. is below the median.

From an examination of Table 5, it can be seen that the interaction between I.Q. and treatment produce no effect on self-concept scores. None of the differences tested were significant. The null hypothesis regarding differences in mean scores attributable to I.Q. was therefore accepted. Apparently, student I.Q. had no effect on self-concept mean scores.

TABLE 5
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DUE TO
I.Q. AND TREATMENT

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Treatment	1	4.792	.046
I.Q.	1	9.364	.090
Interaction	1	278.992	2.673
Error	100	104.362	

The Effects of Grade Point
Average and Treatment on
Self-Concept Scores

The effects of grade point average and treatment on self-concept scores were studied. Table 6 presents mean squares and F values associated with the following hypothesis:

There are no significant differences in the self-concept mean scores of students whose grade point average is above the median for the group selected in comparison to students whose grade point average is below the median.

The findings presented in Table 6 show that neither the main effects nor the interaction was significant. The null hypothesis regarding differences in mean scores attributable to grade point average was therefore accepted. Perhaps this finding of no differences was the result of a lack of emphasis on grades as a reinforcement within the experimental group.

TABLE 6
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DUE TO
G.P.A. AND TREATMENT

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Treatment	1	4.792	.045
G.P.A.	1	62.961	.591
Interaction	1	.863	.008
Error	100	106.680	

The Effects of Socio-Economic
Status and Treatment on
Self-Concept Scores

The effects of socio-economic status and treatment on self-concept scores were studied. Three categories for socio-economic status were derived from ratings using the Warner, Meeker, Eells Revised Scale for Occupations.⁸⁷ The ANOVA results for the consequent 3 x 2 design may be found in Table 7. These results tested the following hypothesis:

Ho: There are no significant differences
in the self-concept mean scores of
students whose socio-economic status
is high, middle, and low.

Data presented in Table 7 show that the interaction between socio-economic status and treatment produce no effect on self-concept scores. None of the differences tested were significant. The null hypothesis regarding differences in mean scores attributable to socio-economic status was therefore accepted.

⁸⁷William Warner, Marcia Meeker, and Kenneth Eells, *Social Class in America* (New York: Harper and Row, 1960), pp. 140-141.

TABLE 7
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DUE TO
S.E.S. AND TREATMENT

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Treatment	1	5.797	.053
SES	2	2.142	.019
Interaction	2	39.360	.364
Error	98	108.580	

Summary

Six hypotheses were examined in this study. The first hypothesis involved a preliminary assessment conducted to determine what differences existed between the self-concepts of the experimental and control groups prior to exposure to the treatment per se. The data indicated that the pre-experimental difference on self-concept between the experimental and control groups favored the control group, although the difference was not significant. Therefore, the hypothesis of no difference was accepted.

The major hypothesis examined any difference that existed between the self-concepts of the experimental and control groups after exposure to the treatment. The data indicated that the control group mean was slightly higher than that of the experimental group. The t -test conducted on the difference between the two groups was not significant, yielding a t value of .96 with 102 degrees of freedom. In addition to the test of this hypothesis, the magnitude of gain scores from the pre-test to the post-test, especially for the experimental group, was of particular interest. The gain scores for two groups were similar in magnitude although the gain for the experimental group exceeded that of the control group. The t -test conducted on the

difference in gain scores from the pre-test to the post-test for the two groups was not significant ($t=.78$). Therefore the hypothesis of no difference was accepted.

Four related hypotheses were examined by analysis of variance. These hypotheses tested the interaction of the variables of sex, I.Q., grade point average and socio-economic status with the experimental treatment. None of the differences tested were significant.

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CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this dissertation was to determine whether the self-concepts of high school students could be improved as a function of exposure to a student-centered English curriculum. This curriculum, composed and designed by the researcher from several unrelated materials, seeks to improve students' self-concept by focusing on the following eight activities: (1) Film: "It's Your Move"; (2) Class Texts: *Uptight* and *A Piece of the Action*; (3) Classroom Interaction—Discussion Groups; (4) Classroom Writing Assignments (Journals); (5) Role Playing Activities; (6) Value Clarification Exercises; (7) Self-Confrontation Probes; (8) Filmstrip Program: "Values for Teenagers: The Choice is Yours."

The analysis of self-concept has produced a significant and vast body of literature. In the review of the literature presented in Chapter II, several studies were cited which demonstrate a positive correlation between self-concept and school achievement. However, a close examination of the literature revealed a paucity of studies dealing with curriculum approaches to improve self-concept. At present, there is a relatively small

body of experimental data available to researchers. This research, nonetheless, does support the contention that the English curriculum can have a positive effect on self-concept.

in order to determine whether the student-centered English curriculum unit would have a positive effect on student self-concept, the following hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis I

There is no significant difference between the self-concept mean scores of students exposed to the student-centered English curriculum unit in comparison to the self-concept mean scores of students not exposed to this curriculum.

Hypothesis II

There are no significant differences between the self-concept mean scores of boys and girls exposed to the student-centered English curriculum in comparison to the self-concept mean scores of boys and girls not exposed to this curriculum.

Hypothesis III

There are no significant differences in the self-concept mean scores of students whose I.Q. is

above the median for the groups selected in comparison to students whose I.Q. is below the median.

Hypothesis IV

There are no significant differences in the self-concept mean scores of students whose grade point average is above the median for the group selected in comparison to students whose grade point average is below the median.

Hypothesis V

There are no significant differences in the self-concept mean scores of students whose socio-economic status is high, middle and low for the groups selected.

The data for this investigation was collected from students enrolled in sophomore English classes. The accessible population from which the sample was drawn totaled 250 students. There were 104 students in the sample, 50 in the control group, and 54 in the experimental group.

The treatment for the experimental group was a six week student-centered English curriculum unit. The research design for this study was quasi-experimental. This design makes use of the non-equivalent control

group method because the experimental and control groups were naturally intact classrooms with no randomization possible.

The research instrument used to assess these hypotheses was a five point Likert-type attitude scale designed by the author, initially containing 30 statements, 15 positive and 15 negative. The 30 test items were selected on the basis of their clarity and appropriateness for high school students. The Likert-scaling technique assigns a scale value to each of the five responses. Thus, the instrument yields a total score for each respondent. The scores for any individual would fall between 30 and 150. Any student consequently, who scored above the median for the group tested was defined as a person having a positive (adequate) self-concept; students scoring below the median were defined as students having negative (inadequate) self-concepts. A pilot study conducted in March 1975 on the 30 test items resulted in elimination of two items which had negative correlations with the total test score. The remaining 28 items were found to have correlations ranging from .18 to .58.

Test reliability for the instrument was established by the split-half method. A random numbers

table was used to divide the instrument into two equivalent halves. Using the Spearman-Brown formula to correct reliability calculated by the split-half method, the researcher found a test reliability of .80. For treatment of the data, significant differences in the group means were tested by means of t-tests and analysis of variance.

Discussion of Findings

With respect to the first hypothesis, it was found that for the item "self-concept mean scores," no significant difference existed between the scores of students exposed to the student-centered English curriculum in comparison to the scores of students not exposed to this curriculum. However, the difference that was found (gain scores) favored the experimental group. The null hypothesis regarding differences in mean scores associated with the treatment effect was therefore accepted.

Despite the fact that the treatment did not result in a statistically significant gain in self-concept for the experimental group, it did appear to have a dramatic effect on three important aspects of student behavior: (1) attitude toward English class; (2) classroom daily attendance; (3) student grades.

Although these variables were not evaluated by statistical methods, the researcher observed the following: In their classroom journals, most of the members of the experimental group indicated a positive response toward the six week self-concept unit. In fact, 51 out of the 54 students reported that they preferred the self-concept curriculum to the work done in the traditional English curriculum. In addition, attendance figures for the experimental group during the treatment period were considerably improved over attendance during the traditional curriculum units. The average daily attendance during the study was 49 compared to an average of 40 during the previous six-week session. Finally students' grades reflected the two factors cited above. The experimental students, as a group, improved their grades from a mean of 73 to a mean of 81, during the interval of the self-concept study.

These three factors force the researcher to raise the question of whether the results of the major hypothesis would have been different had the experiment been conducted for a longer period of time. Perhaps the six weeks' period used for this experiment was not adequate to effect a statistically significant change in self-concept, a construct resistant to short term manipulation. The length of time for the

treatment effect should perhaps, be increased from six weeks to one full semester.

With respect to Hypothesis II, the findings revealed the interaction between sex and treatment produced no effect on self-concept scores. The null hypothesis regarding the differences in mean scores attributable to the variable of sex was therefore accepted. This result was somewhat surprising since preceding studies, although by no means consistent, appear to support the view that women's self-concepts are generally more positive than are men's self-concepts.⁸⁸ This finding of no difference, however, most likely resulted because the researcher did not construct the independent variable to be specifically relevant to sex roles. It appears that further research is needed to resolve the contradictory results which surround the question of sex differences and self-concept.

Hypothesis III was tested to determine if the interaction between I.Q. and treatment would produce an effect on self-concept scores. No significant differences were found. The null hypothesis regarding differences in mean scores related to I.Q. was therefore accepted. Although I.Q. is unquestionably a significant variable in student performance in the broad sense, previous research has not conclusively established that

⁸⁸Wylie, *Self-Concept*, pp. 143-147.

the relationship between I.Q. and self-concept is a linear one. This finding of no difference, then, further demonstrates the need for continued research on this question.

No significant differences on self-concept scores were found when the interaction between grade point average and treatment was analyzed. None of the differences tested was significant. The null hypothesis regarding differences in mean scores attributable to grade average was therefore accepted.

The above finding was reviewed as somewhat in opposition to previous research. Many past studies have shown a consistent pattern where academically successful students report a higher level of self-concept than students who have experienced poor academic achievement. One reason this might not have occurred in the present study could have been due to the lack of emphasis on grades as a reinforcement within the treatment group. As a consequence, students experienced a shift of motivation from responding to the evaluation of others to discovering, exploring and evaluating themselves. Considering these factors, the finding of no difference was not unusual.

With respect to Hypothesis V, it was found that the interaction between socio-economic status and treatment produced no effect on self-concept scores. None of the differences tested were significant. The null hypothesis regarding difference in mean scores associated with socio-economic status was therefore accepted.

Since the number of students involved in the experiment was limited (104 students), this finding is open for discussion. Perhaps the results would have been different had there been more students involved. The experimenter would have been pleased to have more students participate, but this was not possible given the demands of a natural school setting.

Implications of the Study

This investigation has important implications for teaching and learning. At present, curriculum programs that adequately focus on affective development are, for the most part, neglected in public schools. The research of Stanley Coopersmith has demonstrated how self-concept is too frequently overlooked.⁸⁹ In fact, the classroom setting is marked by constant

⁸⁹ Stanley Coopersmith, *The Antecedents of Self-Esteem* (San Francisco: W. H. Freeman and Company, 1967), pp. 1-3.

evaluation in which students, customarily, have only one way of excelling, i.e., academic achievement. There is constant prospect of success and failure, measured by formal tests and informal teacher appraisals. Within this environment, students who fear failure become less adventurous and less persistent. For these students, feelings of helplessness can easily give way to withdrawal and inferiority. To succeed in such a setting, however, a student needs a feeling of worth and confidence.

If, as the researcher of this dissertation maintains, these factors are accurate and correct, then procedures for improving self-concept in the school should receive maximum attention. It would appear, moreover, that methods to enhance self-concept are likely to have as much if not more favorable effects on learning than would continued focus on the information and content of the traditional curriculum. This is particularly true for students with low or marginal self-concepts who are often the greatest source of difficulty for school personnel. Faced with such a culture of the school, teachers need to ask themselves, "By what means can we improve a student's self-concept so that he can perform successfully?"

Although the present study failed to produce dramatic results, an important finding was that the self-concept gain score for the experimental group exceeded that of the control group. This finding demands attention because it suggests that curricula can have positive effects on student self-concept. Given this data, there is ample reason to explore further ways by which schools can foster positive self-concepts.

Examination of Table 8 reveals the effectiveness of the treatment in bringing about a gain score in self-concept.

To conclude, on the basis of this data, that curricula can easily be directed to improve self-concept would be foolhardy. Given the reality, however, that many students partially or completely drop out because they expect failure, the possibility that curriculum techniques can direct these expectations into more positive states is worthy of serious consideration. What should emerge from the finding cited above are suggestions to teachers and curriculum specialists on how the school might contribute significantly towards maintaining positive self-concepts.

In this regard, two factors, in particular, deserve careful consideration. First, it is probable that, in order for self-concept change to be effective

TABLE 8
 COMPARISON OF DIFFERENCE OF THE GAIN
 SCORES ON SELF-CONCEPT BETWEEN THE
 EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP

Group	Pre-Test Scores		Post-Test Scores	Gain Scores
	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>
Experimental	54	104.82	107.02	2.20
Control	50	108.04	109.08	1.04

on an individual level, it must be a fully voluntary endeavor. The present experiment, which was designed to measure mean self-concept gain of complete classes, may have been handicapped by gain scores of students who were not totally committed to taking part in the project. In order to reduce the number of children who fall into this category, future designs could incorporate group discussions which would focus on and clarify the value of self-concept development. Such an approach would, presumably, generate student interest in this activity. These discussions could be organized in two ways. They could take place prior to the actual study, creating an atmosphere of interest and curiosity. A second option would be to build these discussions directly into the study as an on-going and integral part of the experiment.

Secondly, the treatment effect could have been strengthened by a more extensive writing component. Recent instances of informal journal writing projects (Fader and McNeil,⁹⁰ and Sussman⁹¹) have shown that this technique can be used to advantage when approached

⁹⁰Daniel Fader and Elton McNeil, *Hooked on Books: Program and Proof* (New York: Berkley Medallion Books, 1968).

⁹¹Gilbert Sussman, "The Effects of Writing About Self on the Self-Esteem of Fifth and Sixth Grade Children," *Doctoral Dissertation* (New York: Fordham University, 1973).

as a non-evaluative, non-teacher oriented program which allows the student to have a personal forum, in writing, for feelings and ideas. Researchers who are studying self-concept should be aware of the powerful implications journal writing has to modify student self-concept.

This study has assessed the impact of a student-centered English curriculum on the self-concept of secondary students. It is hoped that the findings will provide classroom teachers, curriculum developers, and school administrators with valuable insights into teaching and learning. Rosenthal and Jacobson⁹² have demonstrated that teacher expectancy can be crucial to student achievement. The results of the present study suggest to the classroom teacher that successful self-concept experiences can be integrated effectively with academic content. Accordingly, a teacher interested in improving student self-concept must have a firm expectation of success. Teachers must also be resourceful enough to design materials and activities that focus on affective development. Administrators can also play a supportive role here. As educational

⁹²Robert Rosenthal and Lenore Jacobson, *Pygmalion in the Classroom: Teacher Expectation and Pupils' Intellectual Development* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1968).

leaders, they need to recommend to teachers what strategies will enhance self-concept.

Recommendations for Further Studies

1. This study should be replicated on a larger sample.
2. A longitudinal study should be conducted providing follow-up data on the long-range effects of curriculum design to improve self-concept.
3. This study should be repeated comparing the self-concept of suburban students with urban students.
4. This study should be replicated on a sample of freshman students.
5. A program should be developed that would enable teachers to use self-concept approaches in the classroom. A study could then be conducted on the effects of this training on self-concept development.
6. This study should be repeated in a large urban area where the self-concepts of black

and white inner-city students can be compared.

Reflections

The rigors of conducting this study have enabled me to gain a deeper understanding of problems facing urban education. I have attempted to outline the kind of curriculum that might effectively counteract the present trend to exclude affect or sacrifice it to the intellect. Within this curriculum I have endeavored to suggest what could be gained if teachers committed themselves to a more direct examination of the role of affect in learning. Such a classroom approach, in my view, would be conducive to self-motivated, self-actualized learning. Unfortunately, however, this is an emphasis which has not gained popular acceptance among current educators.

It is apparent to me that the idea of student achievement needs re-examination and re-definition. What, in fact, should student achievement signify? Rather than labeling performance in terms of success and failure, we need to conceptualize it in terms of effort and personal improvement; instead of focusing on group comparisons, we need to develop curriculum materials that allow individual growth; instead of focusing on fixed capacities and statistical norms

such as I.Q. and standardized tests, we must explore individual personality, for as Carl Jung has noted:

Ultimately everything depends on the quality of the individual, but the fatally short-sighted habit of our age is to think only in terms of large numbers and mass organizations.⁹³

Some aspects of the present study did appear to counteract the limiting tendencies cited above. Although not evaluated by statistics, these findings were recorded by the researcher. Most of the members of the experimental group indicated a positive response toward the six week self-concept unit. In fact, 51 out of the 54 students reported in their journals that they preferred the self-concept curriculum to the work done in the traditional English curriculum.

Some specific journal responses were (1) "I really liked the self-concept." (2) "I sometimes cut class when we studied parts of speech and grammar drills, but I did not miss any classes on the self-concept." (3) "I like to come to class when we do self-concept exercises. I think a lot of the kids wouldn't mind coming to school if they had really good activities like these." (4) "I'm glad we didn't go through the same old routine every day. The self-concept lessons weren't

⁹³Carl Gustav Jung, *The Undiscovered Self* (New York: The New American Library, 1957), p. 67.

boring like our other classes. (5) "The stories we read in the self-concept classes were great. I especially liked Mark Twain's "A Dark Brown Dog," and "The Day of the Bullet." The other activities like the discussions and the film strip were fun to do. School should have more of this."

Attendance figures for the experimental group during the self-concept study were considerably improved over attendance during the traditional curriculum units. The average daily attendance during the study was 49 compared to an average of 40 during the previous six week session.

Students' grades reflected this increase in school attendance. In fact, the experimental students, as a group, improved their grades from a mean of 73 to a mean of 81 during the interval of the self-concept study. These factors led the researcher to conclude that the self-concept unit was a valuable contribution to the lives of students.

These factors, of course, are not conclusive. They may, however, stimulate discussion and research on how the school can contribute significantly toward developing attitudes that contribute to learning. I have tried to offer an alternative to a curriculum based on external authority and control. To shift the

focus to a student-centered curriculum requires that we believe students' ideas and self-concepts are worthy of study, although by no means the sole component of scholastic life.

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APPENDIX A
PARENTAL PERMISSION FORM

April 29, 1975

Dear Parent:

With the cooperation of the Center for Urban Education, School of Education, University of Massachusetts, I am conducting some testing on self-concept that should improve student achievement at South High School. My project has been approved by Mr. Kenneally, principal at South, and by the School Administration at 20 Irving Street. If you grant your permission, your child can participate in this project.

To conduct my study, I need to consult student files to gather data regarding students' age, grade level, and related school information. This information will be kept anonymous and no student names will be used in my study. To gain access to student records, I need parental permission. If you are in favor of this project, kindly sign this release allowing me access to your child's school records in the guidance office at South High.

Thank you,

*Patrick J. O'Connor*Patrick J. O'Connor
English Teacher
South High School

(Student's Name)

(Parent's Signature)

APPENDIX B
LIST OF SELF-CONCEPT BASED STORIES

1. They Watched Her Die.
A. M. Rosenthal

This account of an actual event temporarily shocked New Yorkers out of their complacency when it was published in the *New York Times*. In addition to providing an excellent example of contemporary urban problems, it provides a good opportunity for a discussion of man's responsibility for his fellow man.

2. A Dark Brown Dog.
Stephen Crane

This story deals with the brutality that often lurks behind the surface of ordinary life. Students should be able to identify closely with the boy and his need for the animal's love. In addition, the analysis of the characters and situations that follows the story should give students some insight into themselves and the behavior of people around them.

3. Alien Turf.
Peri Thomas

This excerpt from Peri Thomas' autobiography focuses on the reality of inner-city life. Aside from being sad, funny, and compassionate, the story forces students to examine the importance of self-concept and achievement.

4. The Day of the Bullet.
Stanley Ellin

This story by a famous mystery writer explores one of the most intriguing mysteries in life: why do people become what they become?

5. A Kind of Murder.
Hugh Pentecost

The title here is deceptive. In this work, a well-known mystery writer relates the story of the far more common kind of murder--the spiritual murder. The school setting and the kind of human destruction involved--that of a teacher by a group of thoughtless students--make this story a good means for exploring self-concept.

6. The Adopted Son.
Guy de Maupassant

This 19th century story contains an ironic and astute view of human nature which should provoke interesting controversy in the classroom. One son is bartered to enrich his family and himself; another son--of another family--is not sold because of familial love. Some old cliches are exploited in the process.

7. Learning Where It's At.
Malcolm X

This short episode between Malcolm and a bigoted teacher tells something about Malcolm X and some of his contemporaries. This incident requires the teacher to be sensitive about some of the undercurrents in many schools.

8. After You, My Dear Alphonse.
Shirley Jackson

This classic story depends for its effect on the reader's ability to pick up Miss Jackson's ironic treatment of the mother. It is an excellent illustration of the relationship of self-concept to "a significant other."

9. Victory Parade.
Henry Slesar

The war is over. The men are returning home. This short story is a shocker but it raises issues about which young people should be aware.

10. The Lady or the Tiger.
Frank Stockton

This classic should frustrate and challenge students. It should also provide an amusing vehicle for the exploration of some aspects of self-concept.

11. Almos' A Man.
Richard Wright

This is a poignant story by an excellent writer. It centers on many of the issues that are important to self-concept development.

12. The New Kid.
Murray Heyert

In this story, students are required to assume the role of the teacher. This story is arranged so that certain question-formats have been outlined for students. The main focus of these questions relate to the way Marty, the main character, feels about himself.

APPENDIX C
VALUE CLARIFICATION EXERCISES

Values Clarification

STRATEGY NUMBER 1

Twenty Things You Love to Do

PURPOSE

An important question to ask in the search for values is, "Am I really getting what I want out of life?" A person who simply settles for whatever comes his way, rather than pursuing his own goals, is probably not living a life based upon his own freely chosen values. He usually ends up by feeling that his life is not very meaningful or satisfying. However, before we can go about building the good life, we must know what it is we value and want. This activity helps students examine their most prized and cherished activities.

PROCEDURE

The teacher passes out paper and asks the students to write the numbers from 1 to 20 down the middle of the sheet. He then says, "And now will you please make a list of 20 things in life that you love to do."

To encourage the students to start filling out their lists, he might add, "They can be big things in life or little things." He may offer an example or two of his own. Or he might suggest, "You might think in terms of the seasons of the year for things you love to do."

The teacher also draws up his own list of twenty items, and as he reaches the end of his list, he might tell his students that it is perfectly all right if they have more than 20 items, or fewer than 20 items on their lists.

When the lists are done, the teacher tells the students to use the left-hand side of their papers to code their lists in the following manner:

1. A dollar sign (\$) is to be placed beside any item which costs more than \$3 each time it is done. (The amount could vary, depending on the group.)
2. The letter A is to be placed beside those items the student really prefers to do alone; the letter P next to those activities he prefers to do with other people; and the letters A-P next to activities which he enjoys doing equally alone or with other people.
3. The letters PL are to be placed beside those items which require planning.
4. The coding N5 is to be placed next to those items which would not have been listed five years ago.
5. The numbers 1 through 5 are to be placed beside the five most important items. The best loved activity should be numbered 1, the second best 2, and so on.

This strategy can be repeated several times throughout a year. It is a good idea to save the lists and compare them over a period of time. The teacher might see ways of making additional use of the lists. For example, he might ask his students to describe on paper or orally to a partner how they like to do the item they marked with the number 1. The student would tell with whom, at what time, under what circumstances, he likes to engage in the chosen activity.

Values Clarification

STRATEGY NUMBER 33

The Pie of Life

PURPOSE

This strategy is a variation of Percentage Questions. In its simplest form, it asks us to inventory our lives--to see how we actually do spend our time, our money, etc. This information is needed if we hope to move from what we are getting to what we want to get out of life. The Pie of Life can also be used to raise some thought-provoking questions about how we live our lives.

PROCEDURE

The teacher draws a large circle on the board and says, "This circle represents a segment of your life. We will do several such pies. First, we will look at how you use a typical day. Divide your circle into four quarters using dotted lines. Each slice represents six hours. Now, everyone please estimate how many hours or parts of an hour you spend on each of the following areas, on a typical school day.

Naturally your answers will differ from one another.

How many hours do you spend:

1. On SLEEP?
2. On SCHOOL?
3. At WORK, at a job that earns you money?
4. With FRIENDS, socializing, playing sports, etc.?
5. On HOMEWORK?
6. ALONE, playing, reading, watching TV?
7. On CHORES around the house?
8. With FAMILY, including meal times?
9. On MISCELLANEOUS other pastimes?

"Your estimates will not be exact, but they should add up to 24, the number of hours in everyone's day.

Draw slices in your pie to represent proportionately the part of the day you spend on each category. Now think about these questions and write about them in your personal journals:

1. Are you satisfied with the relative sizes of your slices?
2. Ideally, how big would you want each slice to be?
Draw your ideal pie.
3. Realistically, is there anything you can do to begin to change the size of some of your slices?
4. Is there a "self-contract" you would be willing to make and agree to undertake?"

Values Clarification

STRATEGY NUMBER 50

Alligator River

PURPOSE

In this strategy, students reveal some of their values by the way they react to the characters in the story. Later on, in examining their reactions to the characters, students become more aware of their own attitudes. This strategy also illustrates how difficult it is for any one teacher to say, "I have the right values for other people's children."

PROCEDURE

The teacher tells either the X-rated or G-rated story of Alligator River (see below), depending on the age of the students. Following the story, the students are asked to privately rank the five characters from the most offensive character to the least objectionable. The character whom they find most reprehensible is first on their list; then the second most reprehensible, and so on, with the fifth being the least objectionable.

After students have made their own rankings, groups of four are formed in which they share their thinking and discuss all the pros and cons with one another.

Following the discussion, the teacher might ask voting questions to find out how the class ranked each of the characters. (For example, "How many felt Abigail was the best character? How many felt she was the worst character?" Incidentally, this would also be a good way to form discussion groups, with those who ranked a given character first or last in the same group.)

The teacher can also ask some thought-provoking questions about the character they ranked as most offensive. For example, "Is that the kind of person you least want to be like? What kind of person would be the opposite of this character? Write a description in your Personal Journal. List three things you could do or are now doing to be like the opposite of the person you rated as worst." Then, the teacher might ask the students to form into groups of three to share what they have written. Or a few students could volunteer to read what they wrote to the whole class.

The Alligator River Story

Rated "X"

Once upon a time there was a woman named Abigail who was in love with a man named Gregory. Gregory lived on the shore of a river. Abigail lived on the opposite shore of the river. The river which separated the two lovers was teeming with man-eating alligators. Abigail

wanted to cross the river to be with Gregory. Unfortunately, the bridge had been washed out. So she went to ask Sinbad, a river boat captain, to take her across. He said he would be glad to if she would consent to go to bed with him preceding the voyage. She promptly refused and went to a friend named Ivan to explain her plight. Ivan did not want to be involved at all in the situation. Abigail felt her only alternative was to accept Sinbad's terms. Sinbad fulfilled his promise to Abigail and delivered her into the arms of Gregory.

When she told Gregory about her armorous escape in order to cross the river, Gregory cast her aside with disdain. Heartsick and dejected, Abigail turned to Slug with her tale of woe. Slug, feeling compassion for Abigail, sought out Gregory and beat him brutally. Abigail was overjoyed at the sight of Gregory getting his due. As the sun sets on the horizon, we hear Abigail laughing at Gregory.

Rated "G"

Once there was a girl named Abigail who was in love with a boy named Gregory. Gregory had an unfortunate mishap and broke his glasses. Abigail, being a true friend, volunteered to take them to be repaired. But the repair shop was across the river, and during a flash flood the bridge was washed away. Poor Gregory could see nothing without his glasses, so Abigail was desperate to

get across the river to the repair shop. While she was standing forlornly on the bank of the river, clutching the broken glasses in her hands, a boy named Sinbad glided by in a rowboat.

She asked Sinbad if he would take her across. He agreed to on condition that while she was having the glasses repaired, she would go to a nearby store and steal a transistor radio that he had been wanting. Abigail refused to do this and went to see a friend named Ivan who had a boat.

When Abigail told Ivan her problem, he said he was too busy to help her out and didn't want to be involved. Abigail, feeling that she had no choice, returned to Sinbad and told him she would agree to his plan.

When Abigail returned the repaired glasses to Gregory, she told him what she had had to do. Gregory was appalled at what she had done and told her he never wanted to see her again.

Abigail, upset, turned to Slug with her tale of woe. Slug was so sorry for Abigail that he promised her he would get even with Gregory. They went to the school playground where Greg was playing ball and Abigail watched happily while Slug beat Gregory up and broke his glasses again.

Values Clarification

STRATEGY NUMBER 54

Who Are You?

PURPOSE

This exercise calls attention to the many hats we wear in life and shows how we often allow ourselves to be defined merely by the roles we have been assigned. It also opens up alternatives to consider for the criteria by which we judge ourselves.

PROCEDURE

The teacher asks for three volunteers. They are asked to leave the room. The teacher calls in the first student and simply asks him, "Who are you?" When the student answers the teacher asks again, "Who are you?" (Or, "And in addition, who are you?") This process continues until the question has been asked ten times. Then, the teacher calls in the second volunteer and repeats the process.

After the third volunteer has finished, the teacher asks each student in the class to write down his own ten answers to the "Who are you?" question. (He might say, "If you had only ten words to convey who you are as a person, what ten words would you use? When the students have all finished, the teacher calls for five

or six volunteers to read their list of words aloud.

The teacher should not be embarrassed by the seeming gamery in the use of the three volunteers. Often, fascinating variations appear in how the three different people interpret and answer the question. This, in turn, elicits a wider range of alternatives from each student when he is asked to list his own ten answers.

APPENDIX D
SELF-CONFRONTATION REVIEWS

The Development of Self-Confidence

Forward:

The exercises for the development of self-confidence are a four-session sequence. The initial session involves a Self-Confrontation Through Self-Rating. The second session is entitled Improvement of Self-Image Through Positive Attitudes. The third session is entitled Brainstroming Your Way to Success. Session four is entitled Mastery of Obstacles Through Practice. It will be necessary to review all four exercises before proceeding with the exercise on Self-Confrontation Through Self-Rating.

Self-Confrontation Through Self-Rating

Time Required: One session

Materials Required: One Self-Rating Scale for each student

Procedure:

The Instructor will pass out the Self-Rating Scale to each student. He will read the directions to the Self-Rating Scale aloud to the students as they read silently. Students will then rate themselves on each of the ten items. This will require approximately five minutes. Upon completion of this self-rating by each of the students the Instructor will then give the following directions: "Now go back over the scale where you rated how you feel now. This time mark yourself the way you would like to be. Use a different mark so that you will clearly understand the way that you would like to be." The students will be again allowed about five minutes to complete the rating of how they would like to be.

Upon completion of the re-rating themselves in terms of "how they would like to be," the Instructor will give the following directions: "Now I want you to score your self-ratings. First, add up all of the scores of how you judge yourself now. Then add up all of the scores of how you would like to be." This will require about a minute or a minute and a half and may provoke some questions on just the simple addition of arithmetic scores. Upon completion of this the Instructor will announce to the class, "If your scores on how you feel now are

30 or less you tend to lack confidence, and if they are 20 or less you have feelings of marked uncertainty. Uncertain people are likely to see themselves as being very unhappy and unworthy. Scores of 60 and 70 indicate an unusual amount of confidence. Confidence is frequently associated with some sort of special event which has happened. Most people score between 30 and 60." If it seems appropriate with the class, the class can compute its average on the Self-Rating Scale to verify the Instructor's comments. Otherwise, the Instructor will go directly to the computation of a Dissatisfaction Score. The computation of this Dissatisfaction Score is accomplished through giving the following directions: "Most people rate how they would like to be higher than the way they feel about themselves now. While this is frequently a sign of ambition, it is also a measure of dissatisfaction with yourself. Now I want you to subtract from the total score of 'how you would like to be,' your total score of 'how you rate yourself now.' This number is your Dissatisfaction Score and indicates how far you must travel to get where you want to be." About a minute should be allowed for this. After an appropriate pause the Instructor will say, "Now think about this. If your Dissatisfaction Score is over 20 you are probably fairly unrealistic. You want too much progress. You tend to be a victim of your own expectations. You expect too much of yourself. If your scores are 20 or less your attitudes towards changing yourself are fairly positive. Your ambitions are within the realm of achievement with a reasonable amount of effort." The Instructor will then open class discussion by inviting the students to participate in the things which give them a sense of happiness, being loved, feeling good, self-assured, interested, active, trustful, easy-going, quick thinking, and independent. About fifteen minutes before the end of the session the Instructor should close off group discussion with comments summarizing the class discussion.

The students will be asked to write on the back of their self-rating sheets the reasons why they rated themselves on each of the ten items. They should be asked to identify why they feel as they do on this given day. This request for documentation of their self-ratings is designed to intensify the self-confrontation factor after the student has gained some support from the fact that the other students feel very similar to the way he feels. The students will be allowed approximately ten minutes to complete this documentation.

In the last five minutes of the class the students will be given directions for their homework for the following week. It is anticipated that the class will have been somewhat vague and confused about why they have rated themselves as they did. They are probably even more uncertain as to why they would like to feel better than they actually rate themselves. This should provide some food for thought and will be the basis of the next assignment. For next week's session the Instructor will request the students to prepare a list of daily experiences as they occur which lead to some positive feelings on the list. They should write down the positive adjectives on a piece of paper (Happy, Successful, Accepted, Good, Self-assured, Active, Interested, Mature, Independent, Intelligent, Satisfied). The students will be requested to list as many of their experiences which lead to the feelings described by these adjectives. They should list only those experiences in their daily diary. This reminding should be done in a way to arouse curiosity and excitement over what is going to be done in the second exercise. The students will not know what is going to be done with the data and should start guessing. If the students complain that they do not have each of these kinds of experiences from day to day, the Instructor can assure them that that is all right, they should still look for even small experiences and write them down when they do occur.

Point of Exercise:

The purpose of this exercise is to produce curiosity by having the students become curious about themselves. They should begin to realize that all people are curious about themselves. The fact that a person does soul searching is not abnormal but is part of a healthy adjustment and is an effective means of becoming a fully functioning individual. No one is completely satisfied with himself and no one fully understands himself. Some of the confusion is part of living. However, it is possible to learn more about yourself by looking at yourself as directly and as clearly as possible.

Improvement in Self-Image Through
Positive Attitudes

Time Required: One session

Materials Required: One Self-Rating scale for each student

Procedure:

Students will be asked to rate themselves on the Self-Rating Scale in terms of "how they feel on this day" and how they would like to feel." This will be a repetition of the directions of the previous session involving Self-Confrontation Through Self-Ratings. The students will rescore their ratings of "how they feel now" and they will score "how they would like to feel." They should compute a Dissatisfaction Score for themselves. The directions to be used are those which appeared in the exercise on self-confrontation.

Upon completion of the scoring, the Instructor should open a discussion on the changes which have taken place in the self-ratings. The students should notice that their self-ratings have gone up and are more positive. They should feel better about themselves. At the same time their ideals should have dropped somewhat. In effect, they should be feeling closer to their ideals. The class will be asked to discuss what they have learned about themselves as a result of making a record of satisfying experiences in a daily diary. It should be fairly obvious to everyone that they can increase their satisfaction in living by repeating the kinds of things that give them upbeat feelings. Some consideration should be given to things they like to think about or the content areas of life. They should also give some sort of acknowledgement in terms of the feelings which derive from certain events. The kinds of actions that take place which make them feel proud and satisfied should be acknowledged. What kinds of good deeds stand out with them? What gives people a sense of achievement? What brings them closer to other people? How does intimacy take place? Do they feel more independent or isolated from others? They should also consider that the things they feel, think, do, and how they relate to others are directed towards achievement of their academic goals. They should consider whether or not to direct themselves in diffuse or non-productive ways. Someone will probably bring up what we do about negative thoughts. Certainly not all of our

feelings, thoughts, and actions can be positive. What should we do when something bad happens? This question should be initiated by the Instructor, if necessary, to close off the discussion of successful experiences.

The students will be requested to identify an experience which makes them feel sad, unsuccessful, rejected by others, bad, uncertain, passive, uninterested, immature, dependent, dull-witted, or unsatisfied.

Students will be requested to brainstorm successful solutions to pending frustrations during the coming week. They are to brainstorm solutions for overcoming each of these frustrations so that sad experiences become happy ones, unsuccessful efforts become successful, etc. They will be requested to take one pending experience per day which is potentially dissatisfying to them and turn it into something that is productive, successful, and satisfying. Therefore, at the end of the week they should have seven brainstorming experiences which they have changed from frustrations into satisfactions. They will be given permission to brainstorm any kind of solution they wish but they have to write them down. They should brainstorm at least four different fantasy alternatives or solutions to frustrations. The fantasy solution does not have to be realistic. The basic thing is that the situation has to turn out right. They can be Superman if they wish to; they can wave a magic wand or whatever. By brainstorming as many alternatives to a situation as possible, the students should gain new insights into themselves. Again the class should be reminded daily to brainstorm solutions. There may be many questions involving brainstorming. Probably ten minutes should be allowed to deal with questions. If the class is one which is fairly secure and does not ask many questions then a shorter time may be allowed.

Point of Exercise:

The purpose of this exercise is to improve self-image through positive attitudes was to force perception into creative and productive channels. If people are directed to happy things they will be able to find them. If they cannot find creative solutions, this is a sign of a negative attitude and may require more concentrated effort on the part of the particular

individuals. Students should be able to see that they can modify their attitudes significantly even when they feel discouraged and down. As they begin to modify their attitudes, many other courses of action are open to them.

Brainstorming Your Way to Success

Time Required: One Session

Materials Required: Data secured through the previous weeks of brainstorming solutions to overcoming frustrations.

Procedure:

In this session the students will be asked to discuss their brainstorm of overcoming frustration. The purpose of this particular discussion is to gain group support in using day-dreaming activities for constructive purposes. It is expected that there may be some initial reluctance to tell about some of their wild fantasies. It may be necessary for the Instructor to give some illustrations from his own experience. Or he can cite an example of someone else. Students should be called upon to list and tell about their brainstorms. The student should learn that other people have strange and unusual ideas, too. They should warm up rapidly and this should be a fun session. It is likely that there will be a lot of action and interaction among the students. This spontaneity should be encouraged. The interaction should continue until the majority of the students have actively participated in the discussion.

After rapport has been established within the class regarding their mental rehearsals for handling frustration, the Instructor should direct the class to find some lawful aspects to brainstorming. The class will be asked to draw upon their own experiences to formulate when brainstorming helps the most. Some of the observations which will be made are likely to include the following:

1. Brainstorming solutions to frustrations tends to help the most on situations which are coming up rather than things which have already happened.
2. Brainstorming does provide a mental rehearsal so that a feared situation is likely to seem less threatening.
3. Brainstorming provides an almost comic resolution of many problems and actually elevates mood and increases confidence in approaching a feared situation.

4. The more alternatives people develop in solving frustrations, the easier it is to develop a realistic, successful approach to frustrations.
5. Students have been using this kind of day-dream activity for many years.
6. Day-dreams of students tend to be repetitive.
7. Day-dreams of students tend to emphasize the successful outcome rather than the steps necessary to achieve the outcome.
8. Day-dreams can be a good rehearsal technique for actually modifying behavior.

Towards the close of the session, the Instructor will attempt to bring the class around to the notion that they can actually change some of their behavior with which they are dissatisfied. He will suggest to them that it would be an interesting experiment to try to modify certain patterns of behavior which the student feels is unacceptable within him. As a result of the group discussion and class support, each person will be encouraged to take on a project of one thing that he wishes to modify in themselves during the coming weeks. In the final ten minutes of the session the students will be asked to write a paragraph about brainstorming a program for overcoming any academic frustrations they have during the week. The more realistic youngsters will have brainstormed specific steps which they can take to overcome their frustrations. They should be able to identify not only the things that they could do but things that they actually did do recently to overcome some frustration. In this paragraph they should be able to discuss the hard work that goes into brainstorming satisfactory experiences. This method of creative imagination enables many students to break through the barriers of academic non-productivity. By the end of the session each student should have decided in his own mind not only something that he wishes to change but a plan for changing that behavior. Some examples of things that students wish to change may include watching less TV, establishing a regular study time, and more effective use of study techniques.

Point of the Exercise:

The purpose of this particular session is to enable students to get group support in order to encourage them to take initiative in changing certain parts of their behavior which are academically non-productive. They should be able to develop goals, brainstorm means for attaining the goal and feel the confidence necessary to modify the behavior to attain the goal.

Mastery of Obstacles Through Practice

Time Required: One Session

Materials Required: Self-Rating Scale for each student

Procedure:

The Instructor will open the session by having the students re-rate themselves on the Self-Rating Scale in terms of how they feel on this particular day and how they would like to be. The directions to be used are those used in the exercise in self-confrontation. On completion of the self-ratings a discussion will be developed in terms of their attitudes in the beginning versus the attitudes they have currently. Their self-ratings should have gone up, so they tend to feel fairly optimistic and confident. They should feel that they can achieve the things that they would like to and they can become pretty much the way they wish to become.

This self-rating should require fifteen to twenty minutes. At this point the Instructor will direct a discussion towards the projects that they had assigned for themselves in the previous week. How successful had they been in accomplishing their objectives? What obstacles did they run into? How did they overcome them? How much did their success or failure in achieving their objectives influence their self-ratings on this given day? Most of the students should report favorable experiences in achieving something even though they may have struggled to do so. The emphasis of the class should be on the successful actions that the student took rather than on the obstacles. The students are apt to emphasize the obstacles that they were facing rather than the constructive actions that they took.

In the last fifteen minutes of the session, the students will be asked to write a paragraph documenting their experiences, identifying their sources of satisfaction, developing goals, and plans for change. They should also have learned something about themselves in terms of how they go about modifying their behavior. It is important that they be given the opportunity to see that they have developed a sense of confidence because they are able to modify their own destiny to a significant degree.

Point of the Exercise:

The purpose of the four session sequence is to develop self-confidence. The students should be acquainted with the purpose of this experiment that they have gone through. They should be able to develop applications for this kind of experience in subsequent situations, such as their college experience. They should now have some very practical means by which they can modify situations which are unsatisfactory to them. They should also have some practical ways to keep themselves oriented and effective in their academic work.

SELF-RATING EXERCISE

The following exercise will enable you to see at a glance how you measure yourself now. The task is to mark the number between each word pair that you feel describes you now. For example, if you see yourself as very Happy you would mark the seven in the first pair. If you see yourself as very Sad, you would mark the one. If you see yourself as Happy but not extremely so, you would mark the six. Rate yourself on each word pair.

- | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----|--------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--------------|
| 1. | Sad | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Happy |
| 2. | Unsuccessful | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Successful |
| 3. | Rejected by others | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Accepted |
| 4. | Bad | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Good |
| 5. | Uncertain | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Self-Assured |
| 6. | Passive | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Active |
| 7. | Uninterested | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Interested |
| 8. | Immature | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Mature |
| 9. | Dependent | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Independent |
| 10. | Dull-witted | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Intelligent |
| 11. | Unsatisfied | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Satisfied |

APPENDIX E
SELF-CONCEPT INSTRUMENT

SELF-CONCEPT TEST

Below are a number of statements. You are asked to rate your opinion on how true these statements are for yourself as you usually are. Use the system show below. You may rate a statement COMPLETELY TRUE, MOSTLY TRUE, UNDECIDED, MOSTLY FALSE, OR COMPLETELY FALSE. Next to each statement you will find letters which stand for the categories. (See key below.) For each statement please circle one category to indicate how true the item is for you, as you usually are. Do every item. Be as honest with yourself as you can. Thank you.

Category Rating Key:

COMPLETELY TRUE (CT)	MOSTLY TRUE (MT)	UNDECIDED (UD)	MOSTLY FALSE (MF)	COMPLETELY FALSE (CF)
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EXAMPLES:

In summer the weather is hot	CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
The color of this paper is green.	CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
The police command as much public respect today as they ever did.	CT	MT	UD	MF	CF

TELL HOW YOU USUALLY ARE

KEY:	COMPLETELY TRUE (CT)	MOSTLY TRUE (MT)	UNDECIDED (UD)	MOSTLY FALSE (MF)	COMPLETELY FALSE (CF)
A.	I understand the instruction for these statements.				
B.	I am ready to answer as honestly as I can.				
1.	I am generally cheerful.				
2.	Deep down I am lacking in courage.				
3.	I am not easily discouraged.				
4.	I can understand other people.				
5.	I have a feeling of hopelessness.				
6.	I am an honest person.				
7.	I have little faith in other people.				
8.	I am an inadequate person.				
9.	I am a steady and reliable worker.				
10.	I take orders without resentment.				
11.	I am considerate of others.				
12.	I feel incapable of talking in front of my class.				
13.	I am a strong personality.				
14.	As a youngster I had good relationships with my parents.				
15.	I tend to let others down.				

TELL HOW YOU USUALLY ARE

KEY:	COMPLETELY TRUE (CT)	MOSTLY TRUE (MT)	UNDECIDED (UD)	MOSTLY FALSE (MF)	COMPLETELY FALSE (MF)			
16.	I stand up for my own rights.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
17.	I expect attention from people in social groups.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
18.	(A) I am as masculine as any boy my age.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
19.	(B) I am as feminine as any girl my age.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
20.	I have a strong sense of right and wrong.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
21.	I find it hard to be on my own.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
22.	I enjoy meeting new people.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
23.	I often feel guilty.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
24.	I have a sense of personal dignity.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
25.	I am confused about my long range goals.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
26.	My ideas are easily changed by other people.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
27.	My feelings are easily hurt.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
28.	I am a mature person.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
29.	Little things can get on my nerves.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
30.	I lack confidence.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF

APPENDIX F
REVISED INSTRUMENT

TELL HOW YOU USUALLY ARE

KEY:	COMPLETELY TRUE (CT)	MOSTLY TRUE (MT)	UNDECIDED (UD)	MOSTLY FALSE (MF)	COMPLETELY FALSE (CF)
A.				CT	CF
B.				CT	CF
1.				CT	CF
2.				CT	CF
3.				CT	CF
4.				CT	CF
5.				CT	CF
6.				CT	CF
7.				CT	CF
8.				CT	CF
9.				CT	CF
10.				CT	CF
11.				CT	CF
12.				CT	CF
13.				CT	CF
14.				CT	CF
15.				CT	CF

TELL HOW YOU USUALLY ARE

KEY:	COMPLETELY TRUE (CT)	MOSTLY TRUE (MT)	UNDECIDED (UD)	MOSTLY FALSE (MF)	COMPLETELY FALSE (CF)			
16.	I stand up for my own rights.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
17.	(A) I am as masculine as any boy my age.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
18.	(B) I am as feminine as any girl my age.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
19.	I find it hard to be on my own.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
20.	I enjoy meeting new people.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
21.	I often feel guilty.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
22.	I have a sense of personal dignity.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
23.	I am confused about my long range goals.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
24.	My ideas are easily changed by other people.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
25.	My feelings are easily hurt.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
26.	I am a mature person.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
27.	Little things can get on my nerves.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF
28.	I lack confidence.			CT	MT	UD	MF	CF

