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**SELF-ESTEEM: A DESCRIPTIVE STUDY OF STUDENTS OF
SAN DIEGO UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICT
AT GRADES 4, 6, 8, 10, AND 12 RELATED TO
COMPONENTS OF SELF-ESTEEM**

by
Kathryn Dorothy Skube

**A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of**

Doctor of Education

University of San Diego

1994

Dissertation Committee

**Susan M. Zgliczynski, Ph.D., Director
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Phil Hwang, Ph.D.**

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to assess the self-esteem of students in a large, multicultural, urban, public school system on overall self-esteem and components of self-esteem across various ages. This was a descriptive study in which the researcher attempted to discern changes in levels of self-esteem as the students moved through the school system (grades 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12). Utilizing the Coopersmith Inventory, the researcher compared students' overall level of self-esteem, as well as the individual components of self-esteem: general self, social self/peers, home/parents, and school/academic. Selected teachers also completed a behavioral-observational rating scale on their students.

A representative sample of 653 students was surveyed. Students' self-esteem, as measured by the Coopersmith, was compared by the independent variables of age, gender, ethnicity, academic achievement, current exposure to school-based self-esteem interventions, and interactions of the above. Student self-reports were also compared to teacher ratings on the behavioral-observational rating scale. One-way and two-way ANOVAs were used to test hypotheses and interaction between independent variables. An $\alpha=.05$ was used in all tests of significance, and Fisher post hoc analyses were completed following significant findings.

Overall, the research produced no significant findings regarding changes in self-esteem of students from grades four through twelve. There were no significant findings regarding the relationship of gender, academic achievement, ethnicity, and age. District implementation of self-esteem interventions had been inconsistent and, at many schools, nonexistent.

The fact that no significant differences were seen by gender may be a reflection of the increased options and equality between the sexes. The fact that students did not diminish in reported self-esteem may indicate that they are successfully navigating the path to responsible and accountable adulthood. However, both of these findings may indicate that unsuccessful students have dropped out of school and were unavailable for the study.

Differences found at individual grade levels may indicate the need for increased awareness of cultural norms and values, as well as student values regarding academic achievement. Differences between teacher reports and student reports may signal differences in expectations and manifestations of self-esteem.

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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this work to my husband, Jack Skube, who didn't know quite what he was getting into when he married a doctoral student, but who encouraged me and cajoled me to complete what at times seemed like an impossible undertaking. Thanks for the laughing, the crying, the fighting, and the making up afterward.

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I would like to express sincere appreciation to my family, friends, associates, colleagues, professors, and employers at San Diego Unified School District for the support I needed to complete this dissertation.

Thanks to my parents, Bert and Phyllis Parsons, who instilled in me the drive to be the very best I could be.

Thanks to my sons D.J. and Michael, who never lost faith in their mother, although I know that finishing my doctorate meant many hours, weeks, and months when studies consumed my time. Thank you for your patience with and confidence in me.

Thanks to the administrators, teachers, and counselors at San Diego Unified School District. Your trust and support made this dissertation possible.

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CHAPTER I THE PURPOSE

Statement of the Issue

In 1986 the State of California established the Task Force to Promote Self-Esteem and Personal and Social Responsibility. In 1990, after three years of study, the Task Force determined that

As we approach the twenty-first century, we human beings now--for the first time ever--have it within our power to truly improve our human condition. We can proceed to develop a *social vaccine*. We can outgrow our past failures--our lives of crime and violence, alcohol and drug abuse, premature pregnancy, child abuse, chronic dependence on welfare, and educational failure (Toward A State Of Esteem, p. ix).

Through their literature review the Task Force found that self-concept, even more than previous achievement scores, was the most effective predictor of academic achievement. Self-esteem was also considered to be a critical factor in the prevention of violent crimes, substance abuse, child abuse, and teenage pregnancy. The Task Force expressed concern that, in the United States today, almost a million students drop out of school each year. Although the family was found to be the primary factor in establishing each person's sense of self-esteem, the second most important factor was found to be the school.

Children today experience more stressors than any generation who

have gone before them; statistics on divorce and single parent families, the rivalry between stepparents and stepchildren in blended families, children living in poverty or excessive privilege, physical or emotional abuse of children, and just the stresses inherent in living in two-income families are staggering. Children are increasingly left alone to cope, without the extended family networks, church and neighborhood support which were a mainstay of previous generations. Children are showing symptoms of depression and anxiety at earlier ages than ever before; they are dropping out of school and out of society at younger ages (Toufexis, 1990).

Education is seen by many as the vehicle which may steer youngsters away from lives of poverty, abuse, crime, or violence. There is currently no comprehensive state plan for developing self-esteem or personal and social responsibility in California or other states. There are many school programs which have experienced success, some of which were highlighted in the Task Force report, Toward a State of Esteem. However, the report issued the strong charge to develop a comprehensive K-12 program to develop self-esteem and personal and social responsibility in all students at all ages.

Most school districts' efforts in the area of self-esteem have been sporadic; much needs to be done to develop the progressive, integrated K-12 Self-Esteem Curriculum and program of implementation which the Task Force report recommended. Such a comprehensive program may require that social and esteem skills be taught incrementally and developmentally, where skills taught at each succeeding level build upon and support the previous level. If this is indeed necessary, an important preliminary step in developing such a curriculum is to assess the current level of healthy self-esteem characteristics, as well as areas of low self-

esteem, of students across ages. This information may be used to identify areas in which self-esteem may need to be strengthened at specific ages. The information may also be used to identify and prevent problems related to poor self-esteem before they reach crisis stage.

There is also a need to compare students who have participated in current school-based self-esteem efforts with those who have not, to determine effective aspects of current programs which could be retained and expanded in a comprehensive curriculum. Particular groups of students in the large, multicultural school district in which this study was done have displayed significantly higher than average risk of underachievement and school dropout. If self-esteem affects the academic achievement of these target groups, we may be able to identify ways to address their specific needs and how they may differ from groups of more successful students.

Therefore, this study is designed to determine if and how students in a large, multicultural, urban school district change, related to overall self-esteem as well as specific components of self-esteem, as they grow older and move through the school system. The information may be used to make curricular and planning decisions to improve the self-esteem and academic achievement of all students.

Background of the Problem

Large, urban school districts with multicultural populations are increasingly faced with near-epidemic rates of student involvement in gangs and violent crimes, alcohol and substance abuse, child abuse, teenage pregnancy, and school dropout. Nancy Gibbs, in a 1990 Time Magazine article, asked us to

just consider for a moment a single day's worth of destiny for American children. Every eight seconds of the school day, a child drops out. Every 26 seconds, a child runs away from home. Every 47 seconds, a child is abused or neglected. Every 67 seconds, a teenager has a baby. Every seven minutes, a child is arrested for a drug offense. Every 36 minutes, a child is killed or injured by a gun. Every day 135,000 children bring their guns to school. (p. 42)

Cesar Perales, at a 1987 New York State Summit on Black and Hispanic Children, decried the vulnerability of children in poverty:

Statistics on the degree of poverty and deprivation among poor children of all races is alarming. Even more alarming is that for black and Hispanic children, the incidence of poverty, homelessness, infant mortality, school drop-out and failure rates, teenage pregnancy, foster care and violent death is three and four times higher than for white children in New York. Blacks and Hispanics are disproportionately represented on all such indicators for poverty and despair. (p. 46)

Currently, nearly one in four U.S. children under the age of six lives in poverty ("Suffer the Little Children," 1990). If present trends continue, by the year 2000, over three million, or one-third, of California's children will be living in poverty (LaFee, 1991).

LaFee cited the following 1991 San Diego County statistics: Each day 10 women gave birth without any prenatal care; 11 babies were born with alcohol, cocaine, marijuana or crystal methamphetamine in their systems; eight teen-agers became pregnant; 173 children were reported as abused or neglected; 17 children were housed in the Hillcrest Receiving Home because of neglect or abuse; nine petitions were filed for child abuse

or neglect in Juvenile Court; 7,447 children were dependents of the Juvenile Court; 312 children were covered in applications for federal Aid to Families With Dependent Children; and 7.5 children entered the county's mental health system (p. D-1).

If, as the California Task Force asserted, improved self-esteem is a crucial tool to address and attempt to ameliorate these problems, and if the school is a major factor in developing students' self-esteem, this aspect of student development deserves as much attention as academic content.

Although problems such as involvement with gangs and violent crime, alcohol and substance abuse, child abuse, teenage pregnancy, and school dropout reach crisis stage for many youth during the teenage years, the problems may be deeply rooted in poor self-esteem which has been developing for a number of years. Prevention efforts are preferable and more cost effective than increased reliance on teen-family counseling programs, rehabilitation programs for gang involvement and substance abuse, General Educational Development (GED) and welfare programs for the unemployable. Therefore, we may be wise to assess what is happening to students' self-esteem and personal and social responsibility during their growing-up years so that we can develop effective, proactive, prevention-oriented programs to deal with the social issues we face.

School teachers and counselors have delivered a wide variety of self-esteem intervention programs, either in group or individual settings, in this district. Although most elementary teachers would argue that development of self-esteem is one of their priorities as part of the general education process, most formal elementary self-esteem programs have been brought into the classroom by district counselors; some programs have been delivered in response to a crisis reported by the teacher and others have

been part of the counselors' ongoing efforts to develop social awareness and to prevent social problems through development of student self-esteem. A high school elective class emphasizing self-esteem, personal responsibility, goal setting, and decision making has also been developed and implemented at a limited number of campuses. Sporadic presentations have been implemented by groups brought into schools by various PTA organizations.

Delineation of the Research Problem

Historical Context of the Study of Self-Esteem

Self-esteem has been examined, measured, alternately hailed and disparaged over the past hundred years. In 1950, Erik Erikson stated that the "sense of identity provides the ability to experience one's self as something that has continuity and sameness, and to act accordingly" (p. 22). During the 60s, the concept of self-esteem became interwoven in people's minds with the "me" movement, and the touchy-feely programs of the 70s were designed to make people "feel good." Most of these programs, seen for what they were--short term, rah-rah type efforts which created a feeling of exhilaration in participants but no long-term behavior changes--were abandoned during the accountability and excellence movements of the 80s. As we move into the 1990s and plan for the 21st century, headlines declaring the rampant neglect and alienation of our youth have prompted groups of educators, counselors, and legislators such as those who formed the California Task Force, to renew public interest in the concept of self-esteem. What is it that makes people feel responsible and accountable to themselves, to their families, and to the larger society? What are the

components which make people feel satisfied and reasonably happy with their efforts to succeed in life? And as a correlate, in what ways are we failing the youth of today, who seem in increasing numbers to be finding solace in drugs, alcohol, illicit sex, and other illegal activities?

Definition and Components of Self-Esteem

Lack of a consistent definition of self-esteem has undermined effective study. As one reviews the literature, it seems that for many years each new researcher was prone to pen his or her own definition, and there was often significant discrepancy between definitions. However, Hansford and Hattie's 1982 meta-analysis found no significant difference in the results of studies of self-esteem whether the term "self-concept" or the term "self-esteem" was used. Therefore, for this study, the researcher will consider the terms to be synonymous and will use the term preferred by the original researcher when quoting other sources.

In 1990, the California Task Force to Promote Self-Esteem and Personal and Social Responsibility adopted the following definition for self-esteem: "appreciating my own worth and importance and having the character to be accountable for myself and to act responsibly toward others" (Toward a State of Esteem, 1990, p.1). This definition, which has received national support, reflects the current trend in studying self-esteem to be less egocentric and more values oriented than in the past. Although the trend is not universal, more and more experts in self-esteem are including responsibility for self and others, productive decision-making skills, effective communication skills, study skills, academic rigor, development of values and of community in their programs to enhance self-esteem. "Feeling good" about oneself is not sufficient; true self-esteem

must be justified by expending significant effort and making a real and valuable contribution to society (Reasoner, 1992).

Definitional inconsistencies have also hampered the progress of self-esteem research by producing basic differences in the conceptualization and measurement of self-esteem. Most self-esteem researchers prior to 1985 considered self-esteem to be a unidimensional, global concept (Stake, 1985). However, current researchers tend to see self-esteem as multifaceted, finding greater predictive validity when using self-esteem measures specific to a domain of interest rather than general measures of self-esteem.

Groups who may have special needs related to self-esteem

A number of researchers have focused on gender issues regarding self-esteem, taking off on the work of Gilligan and Kohlberg. Brutsaert's 1991 study found that the self-esteem of early adolescent girls depended upon parental support, whereas that of boys depended upon a sense of mastery. Paralleling Gilligan's findings, Brutsaert found that the onset of puberty had a more negative effect on girls' self-esteem than on boys'; however, academically successful girls were able to overcome this striving for acceptance by late adolescence, when mastery became as important for them as for the boys.

In the 1991 AAUW report Shortchanging Girls, Shortchanging America, Anne Bryant, AAUW president, noted "subtle, but unmistakable differences in adult expectations for boys and girls that [the researchers] believe influence female self-esteem and success in math and science" ("Gender bias," 1991, p. 4). The AAUW researchers concluded that few females actually achieve the curriculum position of academically successful

girls found in the Brutsaert study.

Ethnic and racial issues have also been identified as having a possible relationship to self-esteem. African Americans and Hispanics, in particular, have been the focus of studies exploring their minority status in the United States and the resulting effects on self-esteem. Perhaps African Americans and Hispanics have received the most press because they have been disproportionately represented on all indicators for poverty and despair (Perales, 1988, p. 46). 1990 Census data indicated that, despite their rapid growth in the U.S. population, Hispanics are grossly underrepresented at every rung of the educational ladder (Hispanic dropout, 1991, p. A-9). Students in the school district used for this study spoke roughly sixty different languages, and approximately 41% of the student body was either African American or Hispanic.

Relationship of Self-Esteem to Academic Achievement

Skaalvik and Hagtvet noted in 1990 that although many researchers had found moderate correlations between academic achievement, self-concept of ability, and global self-esteem, "the empirical research [did] not allow any firm conclusion about the causal ordering of self-concept and academic achievement" (p. 293). Byrne (1984, 1986) drew the same conclusion as Skaalvik and Hagtvet in two extensive reviews of the literature. For years, the dominant view in the literature assumed causality in the direction of academic achievement to self-concept of ability to global self-esteem (Skaalvik and Hagtvet). However, an increasing number of researchers have argued that achievement and self-concept influence each other in a reciprocal manner. Skaalvik and Hagtvet's 1990 findings, "interpreted in a developmental perspective, supported the

occurrence of reciprocal relationships between self-concept of ability and achievement in the elapse of time, with an increasing effect of self-concept on achievement" (p. 305). Viewed in this perspective, their findings supported the findings of Shavelson and Bolus (1982) and Marsh (1987) and contradicted the earlier dominant view, finding that "self-concept has causal predominance over achievement for high school students" (p. 306).

Rodriguez, in his 1990 overview of current policies and promising practices for at-risk youth, found that successful school districts utilized approaches which provided quality academic instruction within an esteeming environment. Most current researchers take the view that self-esteem and academic achievement have a reciprocal relationship with one another, whereby high quality in both is necessary for an optimum educational experience.

Measurement of Self-Esteem

Lois Hodic (1991), in the Directory of Instruments to Measure Self-Esteem, noted that "self-esteem has been shown to be multi-faceted, including social, emotional, physical, and academic components (Shavelson et al., 1976)," each of which may be measured separately. Self-concept is also considered to be developmental, almost exclusively related to home and family until the second grade and stabilizing in about the sixth grade. Byrne (1984) found that starting in about fourth grade, both general and academic self-esteem are stable constructs across ages and time, but are less stable over time than academic achievement.

Chiu (1988), in his analysis of various measurement tools used to assess self-esteem in school-aged children, noted that self-report checklists are the most frequently used instruments. Self-report checklists ask

students to indicate their level of agreement with a series of questions related to their feelings about themselves. They are limited by the fact that some students may be unwilling or unable to reveal certain aspects of their self-concept, although "this limitation may be overcome by use of direct behavior observations, teacher ratings, and so forth" (p. 298). Use of a self-report checklist concurrently with a behavioral observational rating scale provides a reliability cross-check.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to assess the self-esteem of students in a large, multicultural, urban, public school system on general self-esteem and components of self-esteem across various ages. This was a descriptive study in which the researcher attempted to discern changes in the levels of self-esteem as the students moved through the school system (grades 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12). Utilizing the Coopersmith Inventory, a well-respected and well-documented self-report instrument, the researcher compared students' overall level of self-esteem, as well as the individual components of self-esteem: general self, social self/peers, home/parents, and school/academic. The researcher utilized a behavioral-observational rating scale, completed by selected teachers for the students in their classes, as a reliability cross-check to the Coopersmith self-report instrument. The study also compared students' self-esteem by gender, ethnicity, academic achievement, and current exposure to school-based self-esteem intervention across age.

Gathering information related to changes in self-esteem of multicultural urban youth may be a valuable step toward the development of a comprehensive, progressive, integrated K-12 Self-Esteem Curriculum and program of implementation as called for by the California Task Force.

An important preliminary step in developing such a curriculum is to assess the current level of healthy self-esteem characteristics, as well as areas of low self-esteem, of students across ages. If the Task Force assertions related to the impact of self-esteem are correct, identifying self-esteem needs of students may be a valuable step in addressing and attempting to prevent the social problems which at present seem endemic to urban society.

If specific components of self-esteem may need strengthening at certain ages, the information gathered in this study may be used to identify and prevent problems related to poor self-esteem before they reach crisis stage. Further, it is hoped that this information will be transferable to other urban school districts with multicultural populations, so that they may utilize the results with respect to their students. If target groups are found to be at particular risk of low self-esteem at certain ages, this information may be utilized so that efforts to effect more positive self-esteem may be implemented at appropriate ages.

Statement of Hypotheses

Based on a review of the literature and the needs of the school district officials for whom this study was done, the following research questions, null hypotheses, and alternate hypotheses were generated ($\alpha = .05$ was used in all tests of statistical significance):

Research Question 1) Which of the four components of self-esteem (general self, social self-peers, home-parents, and school-academic) measured by the Coopersmith Inventory appear to change with the age of students?

Null hypothesis: There will be no difference in mean subscale scores

of the Coopersmith, when comparing students of different ages.

Alternate hypothesis: There will be a significant difference in mean subscale scores of the Coopersmith, when comparing students of different ages.

Research Question 2) Of the components of self-esteem measured by the Coopersmith Inventory, are there gender, ethnic, and/or academic achievement differences in change across age?

Null hypothesis: There will be no difference in mean subscale scores of the Coopersmith, when compared by age and gender, age and ethnicity, age and academic achievement, and interaction effect.

Alternate hypothesis: There will be a significant difference in mean subscale scores of the Coopersmith, when compared by age and gender, age and ethnicity, age and academic achievement, and interaction effect.

Research Question 3) Are there age, gender, academic achievement and/or ethnic differences in the pattern of the four components which may indicate relatively high and low areas among the components of self-esteem?

Null hypothesis: Students in each of the categories (age, gender, ethnicity, and academic achievement) will have no differences in mean scores on each subscale of the Coopersmith.

Alternate hypothesis: Students in each of the categories (age, gender, ethnicity, and academic achievement) will have significantly different mean scores on each subscale of the Coopersmith.

Research Question 4) Are there differences among the mean scores in general self-esteem or components of self-esteem between students who have participated in self-esteem interventions at their schools and students who have not participated in such interventions?

Null hypothesis: Students who have participated in self-esteem interventions at their schools and students who have not participated in such interventions will have no difference in mean scores of the Coopersmith.

Alternate hypothesis: Students who have participated in self-esteem interventions at their schools and students who have not participated in such interventions will have a significant difference in mean scores of the Coopersmith.

Research Question 5) Do students perceive their self-esteem differently than teachers perceive students' self-esteem?

Null hypothesis: There will be no difference between students' self-report self-esteem scores on the Coopersmith (utilizing total score and school/academic score) and teachers' Behavioral Academic Self-Esteem (BASE) scores. The BASE is a behavioral-observation report, completed by a teacher or another adult who knows the student well, in which the observer is asked to respond to a series of questions or statements by indicating the degree to which the descriptors represent the subject being rated.

Alternate hypothesis: There will be a significant difference between students' self-report self-esteem scores on the Coopersmith (utilizing total score and school/academic score) and teachers' BASE scores.

The five primary research questions listed above were developed to test the main effects between the levels of the independent variables, as well as the interaction between age and other independent variables such as gender, ethnicity, and academic achievement. The following interactions were examined through secondary hypotheses, described in Chapter III, to determine if any interaction effects existed between specific categories of students: academic achievement and gender, academic achievement and

ethnicity, and gender and ethnicity. Local norms, explained in Chapter III, were also developed per Coopersmith's recommendations.

Importance of the Study

As our nation becomes increasingly multicultural and urban, many experts agree that the problems of violence, crime, teenage pregnancy, and school dropout will not decrease unless educational leaders address issues of self-esteem as well as those of academic achievement. We have seen back-to-basics movements increase test scores of the few to the exclusion of many. Unless we view our students in a holistic way, including self-esteem as well as academic achievement as an important educational goal, our leadership efforts may miss an essential aspect of student development and therefore fail to achieve desired results.

This study may inform the leaders in a large, multicultural, urban school district of categories of students who may be at risk of low self-esteem and academic failure, so that appropriate self-esteem and academic intervention may take place in a proactive manner. To date, the political climate has been to reject spending money on preventive measures; the ultimate result has been to spend several times the cost required of prevention to support reactive measures such as more prisons, more Aid to Dependent Children allocations, more drug rehabilitation programs, etc.

The study also has the potential to contribute information regarding how urban public school students score on the Coopersmith Inventory based on sex, ethnicity, age, and exposure to school-based self-esteem intervention efforts. This will provide additional data on the Coopersmith Inventory itself which may be useful to other urban, multicultural school districts.

Definition of Terms

Self-Esteem or self-concept: The California Task Force definition of self-esteem, "appreciating my own worth and importance and having the character to be accountable for myself and to act responsibly toward others" (Toward a State of Esteem, 1990, p.1), was the operational definition used for this study. This definition reflects the current trend to view self-esteem as incorporating the characteristics of self-assessment, self-accountability, and responsibility to others.

Components of self-esteem: Self-esteem is considered to be multifaceted, with different areas of a person's experience contributing to his or her general or overall self-esteem. Students' self-esteem was measured utilizing the Coopersmith Inventory, and subscale scores on the four components of self-esteem (general self, social self-peers, home-parents, and school-academic) were accepted as indicators of students' level of self-esteem in those component areas. According to Coopersmith, "the subscales [which measure components] allow for variances in perceptions of self-esteem in different areas of experience" (1981, p. 2). Overall self-esteem was considered to be the total of the four subscales measuring the four components, as delineated by Coopersmith.

Self-Esteem Interventions: Current self-esteem interventions were defined as ongoing school-based interventions which have occurred, either in group or individual settings, during the past school year. The researcher defined ongoing intervention efforts as those which consisted of at least ten sessions, at various intervals, throughout the past school year. Because teachers and district counselors typically provide such interventions at the elementary level, and because elementary teachers are

typically aware of the school-based activities of the children in their classroom, teachers and district counselors were asked to provide this information at the elementary level. Because interventions typically are delivered within specific classes or by district counselors, and because middle and high school teachers typically are not aware of the extent of school-based activities of their students, counselors and/or student course records provided this information at the middle and high school level.

Ethnic Distinctions: At the time of the study, this large, multicultural urban school district enrolled 44.9% White , 19.6% Hispanic, and 15.4% African American students. These ethnic groups were of central interest to the district in the study of self-esteem, primarily because of the high documented dropout rate among Hispanic and African American students, compared to their White counterparts. Other ethnic groups identified by the district were Indochinese (8.5%), Filipino (7.9%), other Asian groups (2.9%), Pacific Islanders (0.5%), Native Americans (0.5%), and Others (.8%). Results were reported only on groups with significant representation to make useful comparisons.

Academic Achievement: Academic achievement was determined by utilizing the students' total grade point average from the most recent grading period. Current rather than cumulative grade point average was used because of the tendency revealed in the literature for students' grade point averages to fluctuate with changes in self-esteem. Cumulative grade point averages may have masked this effect. Students were categorized as having high grade point averages (3.0 - 4.33), average grade point averages (at least 2.0 but less than 3.0), and low grade point averages (below 2.0).

Assumptions of the Study

An important background assumption of the study was the belief that self-esteem can be measured. Just as measures of IQ or academic achievement have been criticized, so have measures of self-esteem. The Coopersmith Inventory was chosen for this study because of its widespread acceptance and the wealth of supporting reliability and validity data, as will be explained in greater detail in the Literature Review and Methodology sections of this dissertation.

Another assumption of the study was that students would respond to the Coopersmith Inventory and that teachers would respond to the Behavioral Academic Self-Esteem report honestly and without bias. Although every effort was made to assure students that their answers would be held confidential and that only aggregate data would be used for purposes of the dissertation, there is risk of distortion inherent in any self-report, which will be further detailed in the Literature Review section of the dissertation.

A third assumption of the study was that intervention efforts, where delivered, had been implemented in somewhat similar ways and with similar objectives. Disparate intervention efforts to develop self-esteem may, in and of themselves, have led to equally disparate results.

Limitations of the Study

Limitations to the study include some school district control over the types of data which could be collected, due to family privacy concerns. The school district also retained control over the school sites which could be used for the study. Therefore, a representative rather than random sample was used for the study. Also, as the data collection was done in

May, there was the possibility that the measures were affected by the time of the year, related absenteeism and dropouts, attitudes of students, etc.

Because grade point averages were not calculated by the district on fourth and sixth grade students, and because deriving such averages would entail input from only one teacher, as opposed to five or six teachers at higher grades, comparisons were not made utilizing the variable of academic achievement at grades four and six. The researcher used grade point averages to compare academic achievement of students at grades eight, ten and twelve, where five to six teachers evaluated each student.

Also, the researcher acknowledges that there are certain limitations inherent in any written self-report type of survey. The instrument is limited in and of itself by forcing students to make a choice from given responses. Also, cultural background may cause some students to find it difficult to respond to questions regarding feelings. English fluency may limit a student's ability to respond. These limitations must be taken into account when considering the results of the study.

Outline of the Dissertation

Chapter I provided an overview of the research problem and related background to the issues which were investigated in the study. Five research questions, with related null and alternate hypotheses, were presented. Also, the assumptions with which the study was conducted and the limitations encountered in the research project have been delineated.

Chapter II will include a review of the related literature and research findings that are pertinent to the understanding of the theoretical and historical development of the current study. In this chapter, the researcher will highlight key concepts related to the study of self-esteem and present

the chronological development of models and theories. Recent research related to the area of self-esteem, especially that which may be of value to educators, will be reviewed. Literature related to self-esteem and academic achievement, self-esteem and the importance of human relationships, and students who may have special needs related to self-esteem will be discussed. The measurement of self-esteem and some promising practices that have appeared in the literature will also be reviewed.

Chapter III will consist of an outline the methodological framework of the study in terms of research design, subject population, research instruments, data collection and analyses, methodological assumptions and limitations of the study. In Chapter IV, the researcher will present the data analysis and the findings of the research. This chapter will include a discussion of the results, as well as a presentation of representative tables, charts, and graphs to help illustrate the findings of the research.

Chapter V will include a summary of the research project. Conclusions which may be drawn from the research will be discussed, and the dissertation will conclude with recommendations for further research and study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Public opinion is a weak tyrant compared with our own private opinion. What a man thinks of himself, that it is which determines ... his fate.

Thoreau, Walden, 1854

The proposition that self-esteem influences much of a person's behavior has long been accepted as an integral part of American individualistic social philosophy. Diverse strands of psychological, sociological, and educational theory have incorporated a belief in the power of self-esteem and have utilized the influence of subjective inner experiences as sources of individual behavior. Professional psychologists as early as William James emphasized the power of a person's beliefs about him- or herself to influence actions. C. H. Cooley and George Herbert Mead, the forefathers of American social psychology, described the self as a social entity which is formed by appraisal reflected from other persons. Following Mead and Cooley, symbolic interactionists held that a positive self-concept will lead to productive, socially-desirable behaviors, and that, conversely, a distorted self-concept will lead to deviant, socially inadequate behaviors (Scheirer, 1979).

The trend toward humanization of our educational system and an

upsurge in child-centered approaches to teaching and learning have caused educators to focus on a child's self-perceptions, which are often seen as a key factor in the ability to achieve in school. Recently educators have targeted groups of students who are seen as at-risk of underachievement, if not school failure and dropout. In particular, African American students, Hispanic students, and female students have been identified as at-risk by many experts in education. In an attempt to develop effective ways to meet all students' needs and ensure success, self-esteem and its relationship to academic achievement have been topics of research efforts.

In the following review of the literature, the researcher will attempt to synthesize past research studies and theories related to self-esteem, particularly those which may be of value to those in education, those which explore the relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement and school success. The first section will briefly summarize some of the more important early self-esteem theories and research. The second section will direct attention to the more commonly accepted definitions and components of self-esteem, focusing on those which were used in this study. The third section will explore some of the more recent theories and questions related to self-esteem, from approximately 1985 to the present time, focusing on self-esteem as it relates to academic achievement. The fourth section will highlight some recent self-esteem research related to groups who have been identified as at-risk for academic underachievement or failure, and self-esteem as it relates to other aspects of a child's life which may be of interest to educators. The fifth section will deal with the measurement of self-esteem. This chapter will conclude with a Summary of the Literature Review to integrate the various concepts discussed and reviewed in the preceding sections of the literature review into a philosophical

rationalization for the research project.

Self-Esteem: Brief Historical Background

Early Theories of Self

The work of Descartes and other philosophers of the 17th century, including Spinoza and Leibnitz, marked a turning point in man's thinking about his non-physical being when they proposed that doubt was the principal tool of disciplined inquiry. Terms such as mind, soul, psyche and self were explored in the search for answers to the mystery of the nonphysical aspect of man, although imprecise vocabulary and lack of scientific experimentation led, for the most part, to a general state of confusion in regard to the concept of self-esteem until the pioneering work of Freud in the 20th century (Purkey, 1970).

In 1890, when American psychology was beginning to take its place among other academic disciplines, William James wrote a two-volume book entitled Principles of Psychology, in which his chapter on "The Consciousness of Self" was the longest chapter. Although there was a great deal of interest in the self at that time, shortly thereafter a major schism in the field of psychology occurred between the behaviorists and the Freudian psychologists.

Freud's work in the early 1900s was considered a milestone in the quest for understanding of internal processes; the concept of self was given attention as part of ego development and functioning. Freud's daughter Anna furthered his work; she elevated attention to the concept of ego and built a respected place for it in therapy.

Afred Adler, a contemporary of Freud, considered self-esteem

within a holistic picture of man in which all behavior was seen as a function of the individual's goals, his style of life. With a primary premise that all behavior occurred in a social context, Adler focused upon the effects of a child's perceptions of his family constellation and his struggle to find a place of significance within it. However, the child was not seen as a passive recipient of family influences; he was seen as actively and creatively busy modifying his environment, "training his siblings and 'raising' his parents" (Mosak & Dreikurs, p. 46). As children developed into adulthood, they struggled to mediate their self-concept, the ideal self for which they had created expectations, their pictures or perceptions of the world, and their personal ethical convictions. According to Adler, the ideal person

may be defined as one who has developed his social interest, who is willing to commit himself to life and the life tasks without evasion, excuse (sic) or "sideshows" (Wolfe, 1932). He can then employ his energies in being a fellowman with confidence and optimism in meeting life's challenges. He has his place. He feels a sense of belonging. He is contributive. He has his self-esteem. He has the "courage to be imperfect," and possesses the serene knowledge that he can be acceptable to others, though imperfect. Above all, he rejects the faulty values which his culture projects and enforces and attempts to substitute for them values more consonant with the "ironclad logic of social living." (Mosak & Dreikurs, pp. 50-51)

However, until the work of Erik Erikson, the self was not considered a primary psychological unit or given central importance in the theoretical formulations of the Freudians or neo-Freudians (Purkey, 1970). A few American psychologists, such as Mead (1934), Lewin (1935), Goldstein

(1939), Locky (1945), Bertocci (1945), Murphy (1947), and Raimy (1948) (Wylie, 1961) continued to research the impact of the self and its relationship to personality and behavior. Goldstein's work was a forerunner to Maslow's work on self-actualization, and Raimie began to introduce measures of self-concept into counseling and argued that psychotherapy is a process of changing the self-concept. However, as Wylie pointed out, the self received very little attention from the 1920s through the 1940s in the United States because behavior-oriented psychologists dominated American psychology at that time.

Psychological theories have always had a strong influence on education. It has been characteristic of educators to follow current psychological thinking to inform their practice. So it is not surprising that when psychology abandoned the self in favor of behavioristic theories during those years, so did education (Purkey, 1970).

In the late 1940s and early 1950s, a small but vocal group of psychologists found the tenets of behaviorism too narrow and too passive to account for human behavior. Carl Rogers developed his concept of "nondirective" psychotherapy, which centered upon the importance of the self in human adjustment. In Rogers' theory, the self is *the* central aspect in the formulation of personality; it is a social product which is developed out of interpersonal relationships and which strives for consistency. The self needs positive regard from both others and oneself, and humans will tend to self-actualize as permitted by their environment, according to Rogers.

Combs and Snygg (1949) proposed that the basic drive of the individual is the maintenance and enhancement of the self. All behavior, without exception, is dependent upon the individual's personal frame of

reference, according to Combs and Snygg, whose theory gave major importance to the ways in which people see themselves and their world as determinants of behavior (Purkey, 1970).

In 1950, Erikson stated that the "sense of identity provides the ability to experience one's self as something that has continuity and sameness, and to act accordingly" (p. 22). He emphasized the role of early affective experiences, such as the treatment from principle caregivers, in determining an individual's sense of emotional well-being or self-worth and explained that children translate such early social experiences into a basic sense of pride or shame. Rosenberg (1986) stated that this sense of worthiness may not only serve as the foundation of self-esteem, but it may also influence the way adults later see themselves and their worlds.

The success of the U.S.S.R. to launch Sputnik in 1957 initiated a rapid and dramatic re-emphasis on cognitive outcomes in education. Some researchers during the 1960s such as Brookover, Heider, Patterson, Combs, Diggory, and Coopersmith continued to refine understanding of the dynamics of self in determining behavior, but their efforts were largely unnoticed until the 1970s brought a resurgence of humanistic educational philosophies.

Focus on Humanistic Education

The 1970s trend toward humanism in education brought a re-emphasis on the noncognitive outcomes of education, accompanied by a sharp increase in the number of studies of self-concept. Programs such as Head Start and Upward Bound demonstrated increased concern with enhancing children's self-concept, and improvement in student self-concept came to be valued as an educational outcome in its own right. In 1971,

Zirkel stated: "It has become increasingly clear in the light of the schools' attempt to serve the disadvantaged that the schools have a fundamental responsibility to enhance the self-concepts of their students (Clark, 1963; Marston, 1968; Tannenbaum, 1967)" (p. 211).

Most researchers of the 1970s also linked self-concept to academic achievement, and Shavelson's examination (1976) of the research to that date showed some empirical evidence to support the theoretical linkage. He concluded that "self concept, then, whether used as an *outcome* itself or as a *moderator variable* that helps explain achievement outcomes, is a critical variable in education and in educational evaluation and research" (p. 408). Citing numerous studies, Shavelson noted that most self-concept studies to that date had examined correlations between a measure of self-concept and measures of other constructs, differences in mean self-concept scores among different populations of students, and changes in self-concept attributable to some treatment. He credited the studies as providing "important insights into the factors that motivate students in and out of school and into alternative courses of action that may enhance students' self-concepts" (p. 408).

Shavelson, Hubner, and Stanton (1976) suggested that one's self-perception is formed through one's experience with and interpretation of one's environment, and is influenced especially by reinforcements, evaluations by significant others, and one's attributions for one's own behavior. In other words, one's perceptions of self were thought to influence actions, and those actions in turn influence the reinforcement received, which then influences future actions. Shavelson, Hubner, and Stanton concluded that "the exact nature and direction of the influence of perceptions and behavior are important parts of the definition, but as yet

are unclear and consequently are an important focus of current self-concept studies” (p. 411).

One of the most consistent links explored in studies of self was that between measures of self-concept and measures of achievement or performance. In her influential summary of the literature, Wylie (1979) cautioned educators, whom she said were among many persons who unhesitatingly have assumed that achievement and ability indices are strongly related to self-assessments of achievement and ability and to overall self-regard.

Schierer and Kraut (1979) reviewed published studies and eighteen doctoral dissertations which dealt with the impact of intervention programs on the self-concept and academic achievement of school children. Because they found no causal connection between self-esteem and academic achievement, they cautioned educators against assuming that improvement in levels of self-esteem will result in improvements in academic achievement.

Hansford and Hattie's Meta-analysis

In 1982, Hansford and Hattie, indicating that the literature on self had reached “gigantic proportions,” performed a meta-analysis of research studies examining the relationship between various self-measures and measures of performance and achievement. They reviewed a total of 128 studies which included over 200,000 participants. Citing methodological difficulties in most of the studies, the Hansford and Hattie stated:

It is our impression that many researchers know that self-concept studies are difficult to conceptualize and operationalize; despite this, the apparent intrinsic and heuristic interest of the area encourages

additional research. In the measurement of self the major focus is on the person's perception of him- or herself. (p. 123)

Hansford and Hattie identified fifteen apparently different self-terms which were used in the studies. The terms self-concept and self-esteem were used interchangeably by various researchers; Hansford and Hattie noted no significant difference in the value of association between the terms (p. 135). Although a wide variety of tests for self-concept or self-esteem was used in the 128 studies analyzed, with many researchers preferring to develop their own tests or radically modifying existing tests (p. 135), a low, positive correlation was found between how persons perceive themselves and their ability as assessed by various performance or achievement measures (p. 138).

Although Hansford and Hattie determined that "given the volume and diversity of the literature, it is possible to find some support for virtually any viewpoint regarding the relationship between the self and performance" (p. 126), their meta-analysis revealed no significant interactions between self-concept and sex, socio-economic status, or grade level (p. 126). They concluded that:

There exists a considerable amount of literature that suggests various disadvantaged and ethnic minority groups obtain comparatively lower performance/achievement scores than various other groupings in society. These lower levels of attainment would seem to reflect such factors as cultural backgrounds, linguistic difficulties, inequalities of opportunity, and general socioeconomic considerations rather than significant differences between social groups on the basis of self-concept (DeBlassie & Healy, 1970; Gibby & Gabler, 1967; Renbarger, 1969; Wylie, 1979; Zirkel & Moses,

1971). (p. 126)

Byrne's Review of Construct Validation Research

Concerned with the methodological concerns expressed in most literature reviews on self-esteem, Byrne (1984) argued that

An important prerequisite to the valid use of self-concept in educational research is a thorough understanding of the construct itself. Conceptualization of self-concept within a theoretical framework is the central issue. ... Analysis of the relationships among the differentiable facets of a construct enables the researcher to examine its internal structure, with the possibility of determining the dimensionality of the construct. With specific reference to self-concept this might involve an investigation of an hypothesized relationship between its academic and physical dimensions, that is, academic self-concept and physical self-concept. ... External examination of a construct, on the other hand, focuses on relationships between the construct under study and other constructs, presumed to be mutually exclusive. In the case of self-concept research, one might wish to examine the relationship between academic self-concept and academic achievement (p. 428).

Byrne found general acceptance of the following definition: "self-concept is our perception of ourselves; in specific terms, it is our attitudes, feelings and knowledge about our abilities, skills, appearance and social acceptability (Jersils, 1965; Labenne & Greene, 1969; West & Fish, 1973)" (p. 429) but no clear, concise, or universally operational definition of self-esteem or self-concept.

She reviewed the historical evolution of self-concept from its origins

as a unidimensional construct, whereby characteristics descriptive of self-concept are utilized to explain one's behavior in various settings. A second theoretical perspective of self-concept which she identified has been termed the Hierarchical Model. Originally proposed by Shavelson and his colleagues, the Hierarchical Model is characterized by multiple facets which make up a person's self-concept and which may be ranked in a hierarchical formation. Situation-specific self-concept issues are at the base of the hierarchy, the apex of which is general self-concept. The third theoretical view, the Taxonomic Model, considers self-concept to be structured like a series of several highly specific, relatively autonomous, factors. The fourth theoretical position is termed the Compensatory Model. This model differs from the Taxonomic and Hierarchical Models in that the Compensatory Model assumes that the specific facets of self-concept are inversely related rather than proportionally or independently so, as proposed by the Hierarchical and Taxonomic Models respectively. In the Compensatory Model, a facet in which a person feels low self-esteem may be compensated by the person who attributes higher status to another specific facet of self-esteem, presumably one in which the person feels high self-esteem.

In reviewing studies which attempted to find a causal link between self-concept and academic achievement, Byrne stated that the overall conclusion was apparent:

Students hold certain attitudes about themselves and their abilities, which ultimately have a strong impact on their academic performance in school. In contrast, however, it cannot be denied that scholastic performance has a heavy influence on attitudes that students develop about themselves and their abilities. (p. 442)

However, Byrne then reviewed studies which either supported the view that there was no causal relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement or that increases in academic achievement cause increases in self-esteem. She concluded that although correlational and experimental studies had revealed a positive correlation between self-esteem and academic achievement across a variety of populations, “the conclusion must be drawn that, to date, causal predominance between SC and AA has not been fully confirmed” (p. 451).

Based on her review, Byrne offered two recommendations to direct future self-concept research. First, she saw a need for more within-network research using methodological procedures capable of determining relationships between general or overall self-concept and its specific facets. This type of research, she stated, would help to establish a universally accepted theoretical model of self-concept, which in turn would lead to the development of more valid instruments of measurement. Second, because educators continued to show increasing concern for the self-concept of less academically-oriented students and to restructure curricula to focus on improvement of those students’ self-esteem, Byrne cited a need for more research to determine causality of the relationship between self-concept and academic achievement. Otherwise, the practice of implementing self-esteem curricula as part of an attempt to increase academic achievement would not be justified by the research. Byrne suggested that causal studies focus on diverse student populations and/or reference groups and include other important variables, such as socio-economic status, IQ, ethnicity, peer influence, and parental influence.

The Concept of Self-Esteem: Definition and Components

Introduction

Although Byrne called in 1984 for the establishment of a universally accepted theoretical model of self-concept including a uniform definition and well-grounded facets to comprise self-esteem, lack of a consistent definition has continued to undermine effective study. As this researcher reviewed the literature, it sometimes seemed that each writer had developed his or her own definition of self-esteem. Sometimes the alterations were subtle, but there was often significant discrepancy among the definitions commonly utilized by those published and considered experts in the field.

The conceptualization and measurement of self-esteem have also continued to be problematic. Stake noted that until about 1985 most researchers had considered self-esteem to be unidimensional. However, he noted that some researchers such as Grecas (1982), Marsh & Shavelson (1983), and Rosenberg (1979) were beginning to see self-esteem as multifaceted. Currently, experts concur that self-esteem is multifaceted, although they often differ in their judgment of the constructs utilized to comprise self-esteem and the place of values in the development of self-esteem.

Following is a summary of some of the prominent models and theories which have contributed to current understanding of self-esteem. Byrne's categorizations were used when possible to provide an organizational framework. Appendix C provides a quick reference of the characteristics of the major models of self-esteem discussed in this literature review.

Compensatory Models: Coopersmith, Rosenberg, and Others

Stanley Coopersmith (1967, 1981), who conducted extensive research in the conceptualization and measurement of self-esteem, defined the term self-esteem as referring to the evaluation a person makes and customarily maintains with regard to him- or herself. To Coopersmith, the concept of self-esteem expressed an attitude of approval or disapproval and indicated the extent to which a person believed him- or herself capable, significant, successful, and worthy. In short, Coopersmith considered a person's self-esteem to be a judgment of worthiness which was expressed by the attitudes he or she held toward the self. Self-esteem was seen as a subjective experience which an individual conveyed to others by verbal reports and other overt expressive behaviors. The following three features of Coopersmith's definition were noteworthy and in need of elaboration, according to Coopersmith:

First, Coopersmith felt that a person's self-esteem would remain fairly constant after being developed at some time before middle childhood. He believed that significant life events may cause a temporary disruption in a person's self-concept, but that self-esteem reverts to its customary level when normal conditions resume.

Second, although Coopersmith saw self-esteem relatively constant and stable, he described self-esteem as varying across different areas of experience and according to age, sex, and other role-defining conditions. He gave examples of a person who may be highly skilled in one area of his life, have little skill in another area, and who would weigh these areas according to their subjective importance to arrive at an overall level of self-esteem:

It is conceivable that a person would regard him- or herself as very worthy as a student, moderately worthy as a tennis player, and totally unworthy as a musician. A person's overall appraisal of ability would presumably weight these areas according to their subjective importance, enabling him or her to arrive at a general level of self-esteem. (1981, p.5)

Hence, Coopersmith's model may be considered a Compensatory Model, whereby multidimensional facets of the construct are weighted according to the person's value system, per Byrne's categorization.

Third, by "self-evaluation", Coopersmith referred to a judgmental process by which a person would examine his or her performance, capacities, and attributes according to personal standards and values and arrive at a decision regarding his or her worthiness. The person may carry attitudes toward the self, like any other orientations or positions, consciously or unconsciously. However, even if a person were unaware of such attitudes, Coopersmith felt that they would nonetheless be expressed by the person's voice, posture, gestures, and performance.

Coopersmith focused on personal areas of experience as components or facets which combine and interact to affect a person's overall self-esteem. The specific components of Coopersmith's self-esteem model are the (a) social self-esteem, which refers to a person's perception of him- or herself with regard to relationships with peers and friends; (b) academic, which relates to a person's level of satisfaction with experiences at school; (c) family, which refers to a person's perception of himself/herself within the family structure, and (d) general, which refers to a person's feelings about self with regard to areas of personal experience and interest.

Although Coopersmith's efforts were directed toward education, he

felt that educators needed to be concerned with more than just the child's academic life. In 1981, Coopersmith emphasized the effect of self-esteem on academic performance:

Self-esteem is not something separate from school performance in reading, math, and social and physical skills. It is an important, integral part of performance. Many studies conducted in the past several decades (for example, Bledsoe, 1964; Brookover, Thomas, and Patterson, 1964; and Bodwin, 1962) indicate that children with high self-esteem perform better in their school work than children with lower levels of self-esteem. It appears that children who feel better about their abilities to perform and who expect to do well actually perform better in school. There are indications that the kindergarten child's feelings about him- or herself are a better indication of reading readiness than are his or her scores on an intelligence test (Wattenberg and Clifford, 1964). (p. 1)

Reasoner and Gilberts (1985, 1991), modified Coopersmith's components of self-esteem to include only those components which they determined to be under direct control of the classroom teacher. Their model comprised self-esteem of the following components: security, identity, belonging, purpose, and personal competence. Reasoner and Gilberts theorized that these components of self-esteem could be diagnosed by the classroom teacher, who could then prescribe classroom activities to enhance students' self-esteem.

As a school superintendent, Reasoner worked with parents and teachers to develop children's self-esteem because, as he contended, "children who possess high self-esteem are eager to learn; they get along well with others; they enjoy new challenges; and they are highly motivated.

Children with high self-esteem become achievers who enjoy success”
(1982, p. 2).

Reasoner and Gilberts, like Coopersmith, saw self-esteem as a causal influence in academic achievement. They saw self-esteem development as a valuable end of education, as well as a way to increase academic achievement.

Rosenberg’s 1979 work with deviants also utilized a Compensatory Model of Self-Esteem. Rosenberg argued that lowered self-esteem was not necessarily a result of deviant social labeling. Rather, he identified four factors which he suggested were associated with lowered self-esteem in deviant individuals. These factors are termed: (a) personal relevance, whereby members of a socially devalued group believe that their deviant role/identity is personally relevant to themselves; (b) awareness, whereby members of socially devalued groups are aware that the larger society has negative views of their group; (c) agreement, whereby deviant individuals agree with societal views and hold negative evaluations of their group; and (d) significance, whereby labeled deviants place greater value on the opinions of others than themselves (Chassin, pp. 382-383). Rosenberg felt that these four factors highlight the active role played by the individual in forming socially negotiated self-evaluations. To explain the differential weighting of the individual factors and their importance to a person’s self-concept, Rosenberg used the term centrality: “A person’s global self-esteem is based not solely on an assessment of his constituent qualities but on an assessment of the qualities that *count*” (p. 19).

In 1985 Juhasz specified a process by which she felt individuals develop their self-esteem. Self-esteem, she said, rests on two separate factors: First, people rate themselves with respect to various objective

standards. Second, they attach a value or importance to those self-ratings. Consequently, a person may have high self-esteem, even if he or she feels deficient in a certain area, simply because he or she does not consider that particular deficiency as very important. Juhasz saw students' values as transitory and somewhat age dependent; therefore she recommended that educators identify the components of self-esteem for different age groups. Knowing the factors that are most important to specific age groups, she contended, would will help concerned adults better to understand what really motivates students and to facilitate development of self-esteem enhancement programs which focus on those factors.

Pelham and Swann (1989) added the concept of "framing" to the Compensatory Models. They identified three factors that they considered to uniquely contribute to a person's global self-esteem: (a) a person's tendencies to experience positive and negative affective states, (b) a person's specific self views (i.e., his or her conceptions of personal strengths and weaknesses), and (c) the way a person *frames* those self views. People tend to frame their self views, according to Pelham and Swann, based on the relative certainty and importance of positive versus negative self views and the discrepancy between actual and ideal self views.

Therefore, Pelham and Swann suggested that a person might bolster self-esteem without distorting facts, but by simply "reframing".

Thus, although the proverbial 98-lb weakling might be unable to convince others that he is the next Mr. Olympia, he is completely free to decide that an Olympian physique is of little importance to him. In this way, he may concede his wimpiness without experiencing any damage to his self-esteem. (p. 678)

Values and Self-Esteem: Branden

Defining self-esteem as a person's self appraisal and self judgment, Nathaniel Branden was emphatic: "There is no value-judgment more important to man--no factor more decisive in his psychological development and motivation--than the estimate he passes on himself" (1969, p. 103). Branden categorized the desire for self-esteem as a basic need of humans with two interrelated aspects, a sense of personal efficacy and a sense of personal worth. The integrated sum of self-confidence and self-respect, healthy self-esteem was conceptualized by Branden as the conviction that one is competent to live and worthy of living.

To Branden, the sense of efficacy is developed by utilizing one's cognitive energy to solve problems. In the process, one may attain success or specific achievements in life, but those successes are not the stuff of which self-esteem is made, they are the result of developing a sense of efficacy. Branden felt that self-esteem precedes achievement: "It must be emphasized that productive achievement is a consequence and an expression of healthy self-esteem, *not* its cause" (p. 123). Self-esteem, according to Branden, is not something once gained and kept; constant effort to improve one's cognitive abilities, no matter what they are, is needed to maintain high self-esteem.

Branden's second aspect of self-esteem, the sense of personal worth, is values-driven:

Man cannot exempt himself from the realm of values and value-judgments. Whether the values by which he judges himself are conscious or subconscious, rational or irrational, consistent or contradictory, life-serving or life-negating--every human being judges himself by some standard; and to the extent that he fails to

satisfy that standard, his sense of personal worth, his self-respect, suffers accordingly. (p. 107)

Branden's theory held that the healthy development of self-esteem requires an integrated set of values so that the mind and emotions achieve harmony. However, he felt that it was an unfortunate fact that a majority of people suffer from low self-esteem--caused when people betray their values by indulging in meaningless or senseless whims without the responsibility of awareness or thought (p. 112).

Hence, healthy self-esteem, per Branden, requires constant striving for cognitive efficacy toward meaningful values. As a result of healthy self-esteem, a person may experience success and achievement.

Social Identity and Social Comparison Theories

Several researchers (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 1979, 1986; Turner, 1982, Crocker, 1990) looked to social identity theory to explain the development of self-esteem. According to social identity theory, the self-concept has two distinct aspects. The first is personal identity, which includes beliefs about one's skills, abilities, or attributes such as intelligence or attractiveness. The second is social identity or collective identity, which is defined as "that aspect of the individual's self-concept which derives from their [sic] knowledge of their membership in a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership" (Tajfel, 1981, p. 255). Whereas personal identity focuses on characteristics of the individual, social or collective identity focuses on characteristics attributed to the group or groups of which one is a member, which may or may not also characterize the individual.

Consistent with other theoretical perspectives on self-esteem, social

identity theory asserts that individuals are internally motivated to achieve or maintain a high level of self-esteem. However, whereas most theories focus on personal self-esteem, social identity theory is most concerned with a person's motivation to develop and maintain a positive social identity and collective self-esteem. Correspondingly, the theory proposed that when persons are subject to threats to their social identity, they react by identifying or creating favorable comparisons between their own group(s) and other out-group(s) in an effort to maintain a positive social identity. Individuals in the in-group may discriminate against or disparage outgroup members relative to the ingroup members to create these favorable comparisons, resulting in a positive social identity, or high collective self-esteem (Crocker, 1990).

Weiten (1989) utilized social comparison theory's position that we as human beings compare ourselves with others in a reference group, whom we use as a standard, to understand and evaluate our behavior. Based on these comparisons, Weiten asserted that we develop our self-esteem, defined as our overall assessment of personal adequacy or worth (p. 465). According to Weiten's explanation of social identity theory, our self-esteem is influenced by the particular reference group with which we choose to compare ourselves and our perceived standings within that reference group.

California Task Force Definition and Key Principles

On September 23, 1986, Governor George Deukmejian of California signed Assembly Bill 3659. This bill created a state Task Force to study self-esteem and its potential as a weapon to fight social problems such as family difficulties, child abuse, and teenage pregnancy; educational

underachievement, failure, and dropout; drug and alcohol abuse; and poverty and chronic welfare dependency. The Task Force engaged the University of California to conduct a literature review, asserting that precise understanding of the meaning of self-esteem was crucial to the work of the Task Force. Hindered by the lack of a generally accepted definition, and in an attempt to avoid the confusion and misunderstanding seen in the common public perception of self-esteem as a “condition of highly individualistic narcissism” (Toward a State of Esteem, 1990, p. 1), the Task Force adopted this official definition: self-esteem is “appreciating my own worth and importance and having the character to be accountable for myself and to act responsibly toward others” (p.1).

The legislative mandate called for the Task Force to compile research “regarding how healthy self-esteem is nurtured, harmed or reduced, and rehabilitated” (Toward a State of Esteem, p.1). To fulfill this mandate, the task force created a Key Principles document which outlined the critical facets contributing to self-esteem, per the task force definition.

Appreciating our worth and importance, the first key principle, involved the acceptance of oneself, the ability to set realistic expectations, to forgive oneself and others, to take risks, to trust, and to express feelings. This concept also included appreciation for one’s own creativity, body, and spirituality (pp. 23-28).

Appreciating the worth and importance of others, the second key principle, involved the affirmation of each person’s unique worth, to give personal attention, to demonstrate respect, acceptance, and support of others. This principle also involved “setting realistic expectations, providing a sensible structure, forgiving others, taking risks, appreciating the benefits of a multicultural society, accepting emotional expressions, and

negotiating rather than being abusive” (p. 1)

The third key principle, affirming accountability for ourselves, required that one take responsibility for personal decisions and actions, conduct oneself with integrity, understand and affirm one’s values, attend to one’s physical health, and take responsibility for one’s actions as a parent (pp. 33-35).

The final key principle, affirming our responsibility toward others, meant to respect the dignity of being human, to encourage independence, to create a sense of belonging, to develop basic skills, to provide physical support and safety, to foster a democratic environment, to recognize the balance between freedom and responsibility, to balance cooperation and competition, and to serve humanity (pp. 35-38).

Susan Hales, a commissioner on the Alameda County Task Force to Promote Self-Esteem and Personal and Social Responsibility, explained the emphasis on values in the definition and key principles developed by the California Task Force, stating that:

Not only are our identities formed largely out of our moral choices and actions, but that we feel best about ourselves, and the best feelings we can have about ourselves occur, when we act in a moral way. There is a direct connection between self-esteem and personal and social responsibility. (p. 3)

Referring to Branden’s self-efficacy and morality domains of self-esteem, Hales also quoted Bellah et al., whose book Habits of the Heart involved a study of fundamental values of contemporary American society. Biblical and civic republican traditions, which reflected moral concern and commitment, were as influential for aspirations of early Americans as the value of individual achievement. However, this value structure has

recently been replaced with “hyperindividualism,” reflected in the wholehearted pursuit of career success, financial gain, and personal gratification, to the expense of honoring traditional values. As part of her analysis of self-esteem, Hales concluded that “a major source of [the] increased malaise is the fact that, although we as American citizens, have adopted a set of moral values and beliefs which compel us to live in a certain way, we are not living in accord with them” (p. 10).

However, Hales warned that along with the creation of the California Self-Esteem Task Force came a plethora of quick-fix programs purporting to raise self-esteem. “Most of these programs have been developed by people who know little about the nature and dynamics of self-esteem” (p. 15). To the contrary, Hales stressed that “self-esteem cannot be changed easily, nor can it be changed by artificially orchestrating recognition and approval” (p. 16).

Summary of the Concept of Self-Esteem: Definition and Components

It appears that the California Task Force on Self-Esteem attempted to develop a definition and components of self-esteem which incorporate prevailing theories that, on the surface, seem quite divergent. The National Council on Self-Esteem in 1991 adopted the definition developed by California’s Task Force. As dozens of other states have followed California’s lead and formed state Task Forces and State Councils on Self-Esteem, this definition, as well as the California Task Force Report, has frequently been used as a baseline. Although some critics have charged that the Task Force, by incorporating values into their definition and key principles, was yielding to conservative pressure, this researcher senses that society recognizes a deeper need, as the authors of Habits of the Heart

underscored, to stop and take stock of the set of values that is currently guiding our lives, to re-establish the tradition of carrying on a public discourse about what constitutes the “good life” and the “good self.” It may be that “feeling good” about oneself will be seen as unjustified without the concurrent conditions of personal efficacy and moral integrity. Although the trend is far from universal, more and more researchers and practitioners in the area of self-esteem are including responsibility for self and others, productive decision-making skills, effective communication skills, study skills, academic rigor, development of values and of community as essential to the development of healthy self-esteem.

Recent Self-Esteem Research that may have Value for Educators

Introduction

With the interest in self-esteem research and educational programming brought on by the California Task Force, hundreds of studies of self-esteem have been implemented throughout the United States over the past several years. In a 1991 survey conducted by the National Association of Elementary School Principals and World Book Educational Products, ninety-eight percent of the 10,000 school principals surveyed responded that “building self-esteem is the most important factor in ensuring academic success” (Making the grade, p. D-1). What is the empirical base upon which such consensus rests? Some pertinent research which may have implications regarding the relationships of self-esteem to school achievement versus underachievement and school success versus school dropout will be presented.

Self-Esteem and Academic Achievement

Numerous studies, including those done by Brookover and Passalacqua (1981); Brookover, Patterson, and Thomas (1962); J.G. Jones and Grieneeks (1970); Marsh (1984); Maruyama, Rubin, and Kingsbury (1981); Skaalvik (1982); Skaalvik (1986); and Skaalvik and Lauvdal (1984); have shown positive correlations of 0.4 to 0.6 between academic achievement and self-concept of ability. Persistent, though more moderate, correlations of 0.2 to 0.3 have also been found between academic achievement and global self-esteem in studies done by Bridgeman and Shipman (1978); Coopersmith (1967); Lewis and Adank (1975); Pottebaum, Keith, and Ehly (1986); Rubin (1978); Rubin, Dole and Sandidge (1977); and Skaalvik (1982, 1983, 1986). Correlations of about 0.6 have been found between self-concept of ability and global self-esteem by Bachman and O'Malley (1986), Shavelson and Bolus (1982), and Skaalvik (1982, 1986) (Skaalvik & Hagtvet, 1990, p. 292). Byrne drew the same conclusion as Skaalvik and Hagtvet in two extensive reviews (1984, 1986). Hansford and Hattie, in their 1982 meta-analysis of 128 studies, confirmed these relationships although they also found large variations. Hansford and Hattie explained that the issue of causal ordering of self-esteem and academic achievement was not the focus of their meta-analysis; they recommended further clarification and study (p. 140).

Although the dominant view in the literature was that "even if academic achievement, self-concept of ability, and global self-esteem influence each other, the predominant direction of causality was assumed to be from achievement to self-concept of ability to global self-esteem" (Skaalvik & Hagtvet, 1990, p. 294), Skaalvik and Hagtvet observed that the empirical research collected up to 1990 still did not allow any firm

conclusions about the causal ordering of self-concept and academic achievement (p. 293). Shavelson and Bolus' 1982 study suggested causal predominance of self-concept of ability over academic achievement. However, Newman (1984) found in a longitudinal study that self-concept had no causal influence on academic achievement. In 1987, Marsh arrived at the opposite conclusion, utilizing Newman's data but re-analyzing it using different assumptions. Methodological problems of both studies were noted by Skaalvik and Hagtvet (p. 293). Bachman and O'Malley (1986) analyzed longitudinal data, which was re-analyzed by Skaalvik (1986); although Skaalvik cautioned that self-concept at earlier grade levels may have been a covariant, he concluded that "the data showed that the impact of academic achievement on global self-esteem occurred via self-concept of ability" (p. 293). Pottenbaum, Keith, and Ehly, in a 1986 attempt to find a causal relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement, found none. They concluded that, "If anything, achievement causes the higher self-esteem that is correlated with academic success" (p. 144).

Attempting to determine causality among global self-esteem, self-concept of ability, and academic achievement, Skaalvik and Hagtvet joined an increasing number of researchers who argued that achievement and self-concept influence each other in a reciprocal manner. Marsh, in 1984, proposed a dynamic equilibrium model which suggested that academic achievement, self-concept, and self-attributions are interwoven in a network of reciprocal relations such that change in any one would produce changes in the others as a response, in order to reestablish the equilibrium. According to Marsh's model, academic achievement and self-concept may influence each other in such a reciprocal manner. Skaalvik and Hagtvet's 1990 findings, also, "interpreted in a developmental perspective, supported

the occurrence of reciprocal relationships between self-concept of ability and achievement in the elapse of time, with an increasing effect of self-concept on achievement" (p. 305).

Holly's 1987 research review, however, led him to conclude that self-esteem is a consequence of having experienced meaningful successes. He explained that self-confidence, alone, provides no motive to achieve because the motive for any behavior is perceived value. Even self-confident students may make little effort if they perceive an academic activity as meaningless. Further, their self-esteem is not likely to rise as a result of success unless they personally recognize the value of the achievement. On the other hand, students who see value in what they are asked to learn or to do will find the learning or the activity self-motivating and will not require raised self-esteem as an additional incentive. Hence, Holly concluded that "the most reliable route to a healthy sense of self-esteem is for students to forget about self-esteem as a goal in itself and to simply concentrate on being the best that they can be in the pursuit of those things most worth doing" (p. 37).

Maton's 1990 study examined the effects of meaningful instrumental activity on the self-esteem of two diverse groups of older adolescents: college students and at-risk urban teenagers, half of whom had dropped out of school. Defining meaningful activity as "any task or skill related activity which has positive significance or value to the individual involved" (p. 298), Maton found that meaningful activity had a positive relationship with a person's life satisfaction, independent of social support, with both groups of adolescents (pp. 312-313). However, meaningful instrumental activity was more important for the self-esteem of male college students and African American males in school than it was for female college

students or African American male dropouts. Maton offered possible explanations for the differences, including that women may derive their self-esteem from affiliation and socioemotional activity more so than instrumental activity. He also explained that male and female results might have been more similar if the study had been done with adolescents who had higher levels of career and professional aspiration (p. 315).

Eccles, Wigfield, Flanagan, Miller, Reuman, and Yee (1989) concerned their research with the stability of self-esteem during the early adolescent period. Given the general stereotype of early adolescence as a period of storm and stress, the researchers found “remarkable stability and consistency” (p. 306) in children’s self-concepts of ability for mathematics, English, social, and physical skills activities, ratings of the importance of these activities, and general self-esteem. Although mean levels of student self-esteem were lowest immediately after the transition from elementary to junior high school, they quickly recovered during seventh grade. Comparing the correlations for boys and girls, however, yielded significant differences. The researchers concluded that “this is consistent with our previous findings (Eccles, 1984; Eccles, Adler, & Meece, 1984) and suggests that boys’ math self-concepts are not only higher than those for girls, they are also more closely tied to indicators of their school performance” (p. 306).

In another study that compared males and females, Brutsaert (1990) utilized adolescent development theories in his study of students at single-sex high schools to hypothesize that:

During early adolescence, girls' self-esteem will become more dependent upon the extent of the emotional support they get from significant others. Boys, however, whose gender role is marked by a

strong need to achieve, can be expected to derive their self-esteem from a sense of mastery over their environment or a sense of power to control events. (p.434)

When his results reinforced his hypothesis, he concluded that “during early adolescence, girls and boys react in different ways to the same stimuli within a similar school environment” (p. 437).

However, Brutsaert also noted that during middle adolescence, the sense of mastery became an important determinant of self-esteem for the girls in his study as well as the boys, while the effect of the emotional support factor seemed to level off. To explain this finding, he reasoned:

Girls, having adjusted to the more demanding school context, and, presumably, having internalized higher achievement expectations (depending of course upon the emancipating climate of the school), are likely to increase their desire to achieve, which implies at the same time a lessening of the conflict in role demands. Actually, this reasoning is confirmed by the finding that girls' curriculum position affects their self-esteem to a significant degree [italics added]. It is as a result, then, of this process, that self-esteem can be said to become tied to achievement. (p. 438)

Brutsaert did not clarify what was meant by girls' curriculum position, but the assumption that boys and girls are exposed to the “same stimuli within a similar school environment” is one that has come under fire, not only when comparing males to females, but also when comparing white males to males of other ethnicities.

For example, the American Association of University Women (AAUW) in 1991 surveyed thousands of students in their study entitled *Shortchanging girls, shortchanging America*. The Call to Action paper

quoted Celinda Lake questioning differences in educational achievement and self-esteem between males and females:

Adolescence is hard for all children, but girls drop much more in self-esteem than boys do. Why is this happening? We don't know why girls stop liking the way they are or thinking they're good at a lot of things. What we do know is that there is a correlation between self-esteem and liking math and science. Girls, in huge numbers, are being lost to the science professions. (Shortchanging girls, shortchanging America: A call to action, p. 10)

The researchers concluded that boys and girls are not exposed to the same stimuli in their classrooms; instead, the researchers identified a subtle form of discrimination that was at work in most classrooms, with teachers giving more and better attention to boys, higher quality and quantity of feedback to boys. They explained that:

Gender bias in the classroom takes many forms, some direct and some indirect, with teachers calling on boys more often than girls, encouraging more assertive behavior in boys than in girls, evaluating boys' papers for creativity and girls' for neatness, and giving boys the time and help to solve problems on their own, but "helping" girls get along by simply telling them the right answers, (p. 4)

and concluded that this differential treatment elevated the self-esteem of boys while it depressed the self-esteem of girls (p.10).

Carol Gilligan's studies of adolescents paralleled the findings of the AAUW. She told the AAUW Educational Equity Roundtable participants: "We also found this drop in self-esteem right at the age that girls move from elementary school to middle school. Girls came up against an impasse" (1990, p. 12). Gilligan and her colleagues found that girls are

assertive and open until about the age of 11, at which time they realize that women are treated as lower in status than men. Gilligan's researchers found that in early adolescence, as girls in classrooms began to ask questions they thought were important about human experience, a lot of people didn't want to hear what they were saying, and their questioning was considered disruptive of the male-centered curriculum. As a result, Gilligan concluded, many girls learned to silence their own voices and suffered a loss of assertiveness and self-esteem.

Children considered minority and poor have also been identified as hampered by the way our educational system functions. In a 1988 report from the Aspen Institute Conference on Hispanic Americans and the Business Community, the effects of school labeling were explored. According to the report, children with low verbal or English language skills are often labeled "slow" by schools, no matter how bright they are. By fourth grade, when the curriculum becomes very content (and hence, reading) driven, these students can be left behind because they have not mastered the same language and reading skills, and may not have been exposed to the same experiences, as their middle-class peers. The result is that "in fourth grade many children first experience the frustration and loss of self-esteem that makes school a penitentiary. Instead of being associated with the pleasure of learning, the school environment becomes associated with failure" (Closing the Gap for U.S. Hispanic Youth, p. 26).

The section of this dissertation entitled Students who may have Special Needs related to Self-Esteem will explore further the issues of gender, ethnicity, and race as they pertain to studies of self-esteem and academic achievement and educational success.

Relationships and Self-Esteem

Parent relationships

Many studies have shown a positive relationship between parental support and the self-esteem of children. Thomas, Gecas, Weigert, and Rooney (1974) defined parental support as “behavior manifest by a parent toward a child that makes the child feel comfortable in the presence of the parent and confirms in the child’s mind that he is basically accepted and approved as a person by the parent” (Felson & Zielinski, 1989, p. 727). In 1967 Coopersmith found that children with high self-esteem tended to have more loving and closer relationships with their mothers than did children with low self-esteem. Similar findings were reported by such researchers as Gecas, 1971, 1972; Openshaw, Thomas, and Rollins, 1984; Rosenberg, 1965; and Sears, 1970 (Felson & Zielinski, 1989, p. 727). More recently, Hoelter and Harper (1987) and Gecas and Schwalbe (1986) found that adolescents who reported a high level of family support had a higher level of global self-esteem. Demo, Small, and Savin-Williams (1987) found that frequency of intimate discussion, but not affection from parents, positively affected adolescent self-esteem.

Zigler, Lamb, and Child in 1982 argued that, rather than parental support having a causal effect on the self-esteem of children, socialization involves a bidirectional process in which children influence their environment by their own behavior and by their selective response to their experiences. According to this thinking, children are active agents in shaping the course of their own development rather than passive recipients of environmental influences, including parental support.

Felson and Zielinski (1989) suggested that parental support and self-

esteem have a reciprocal relationship, whereby children with low self-esteem may report, or actually have, problems with their parents. A child's self-esteem may affect the way the parent treats the child, which then may affect how the child behaves. In a longitudinal study, Felson and Zielinski selected the following parental behaviors as evidence of support: frequency of praise, frequency of criticism, frequency of physical affection, frequency of punishment, children's feelings about whether their parents communicate with and listen to them, and children's perceptions whether another sibling was favored over them. In general, they found that, although both parents were equally influential, girls' but not boys' self-esteem was affected by the parental support behaviors identified. In particular, girls were likely to have high self-esteem in instances where they reported good communication with parents, physical affection, infrequent criticism, and lack of sibling favoritism. The only behavior which raised the self-esteem of both boys and girls was parental praise. Frequency of punishment had negligible effect on the self-esteem of both boys and girls. The effects of self-esteem on parental support were found to be similar in magnitude to the effects of parental support on self-esteem, supporting the idea of a bidirectional influence between parent and child.

In a 1990 doctoral study, Valerie Winn examined the personality types of children and their parents, hypothesizing that major personality-type differences would lead to family conflict and lowered self-esteem in the child. She found evidence that introverted, intuitive adolescents are most at-risk for low self-esteem. Extroverted, sensing adolescents tended to have the highest self-esteem. She also found that, "contrary to the popular belief that the level of self-esteem declines as children go through school, there was evidence that self-esteem tends to decrease at pubescence

and gradually becomes more positive as the child moves through adolescence” (Research study on self-esteem and personality types of adolescents and their parents, p. 5), confirming previous research studies by Erikson, O’Malley, and Wylie.

Richard Louv, a San Diego columnist, spent four years touring the country and interviewing children and their parents. His qualitative analysis was published in a book, Childhood’s Future (1990), and numerous articles. Although the focus of this paper is self-esteem of children within an educational environment, Louv’s powerful statements have spoken to the need for schools and parents to work together to decrease the sense of isolation and disconnectedness which were recurrent themes uncovered in his research. He cited a recent Stanford study which revealed that if a child’s parent made at least one visit to the school or a school function during the year, the child’s grades were likely to improve. Why? Because “the visit convinces the child that parents really do care about school, communication is improved between the teacher and the parent, and the parent is helped to understand how the school works” (1991d, p. D-8). He concluded:

In my interviews with nearly 3,000 children, parents and teachers around the country over the past four years, I have heard them speak almost with one voice: *The most important issue is not the academic life of the student, but the emotional life of the child* . (1991b, p. A-2)

He also made strong recommendations for schools:

In any true education revolution, public schools must be identified--clearly, forcefully--as the most important community hubs for families: complete with large counseling centers, day-care facilities

and in-house and outreach parenting programs. These new schools should *augment* the family, rather than replace it. (1991b, p. A-1)

Peer relationships

Several researchers have looked at peer relationships and their effects on self-esteem. For example, Harter (1983) postulated that an adolescent's sense of self-worth is influenced by his or her self-perceptions of scholastic competence, physical appearance, and social acceptance. Social acceptance was defined as acceptance by peers or success in peer relationships. Some researchers have focused on adolescents' social status in the large group of peers with whom they spend most of their time, emphasizing popularity versus rejection. Other researchers, however, have focused on the importance of an adolescent's closest peer relationships, those with best friends. Several theorists have suggested that close friendships provide a level of support to adolescents that does not come from large-group popularity. A few researchers have argued, further, that popular children do not always have supportive friendships. Therefore, there may not be a strong correlation between social status (i.e. popularity) and support from friends.

In 1990, Thomas Berndt delivered a paper to an AERA Symposium in Boston which highlighted the findings of two studies in this area. His findings suggested that "peer relationships may be less significant in the elementary-school years than in early adolescence, and more significant in early adolescence than near the end of senior high school" (p. 3).

The first study found social status and close friendships as distinct components of adolescents' perceptions of self-worth. Some adolescents who were popular believed they had highly supportive friendships; others

did not. Conversely, some adolescents who believed they were rejected by many of their peers also believed that they lacked supportive friendships, but others considered their friendships highly supportive. Thus, Berndt concluded that both facets must be examined to gain a full understanding of peer relationships on an adolescent's sense of self-worth.

In the second study which sampled fifth, eighth, and eleventh graders, Berndt found that the strongest predictor of general self-worth for students at all grade levels was perceived physical appearance. The second strongest predictor of an adolescent's self-worth varied by grade. For eighth graders, and for eighth graders only, perceived social acceptance was a significant predictor of general self-worth. Additional data collected in the study indicated that "students' academic achievement, achievement motivation, and classroom behavior were only weakly related to their perceived social acceptance, social status, and friendships" (p. 10).

Berndt concluded:

If we take the enhancement of students' self-esteem or sense of well-being as one aim of our schools, we will need to pay as much attention to their social lives as to their academic skills. We especially need to do so during the early adolescent years, the years of junior high or middle school. (p.10)

In a study of aggressive, disruptive fourth, fifth, and sixth grade boys, Lochman and Lampron (1985) reported interesting findings. Although all of the boys were considered to be at risk by their teachers, about a third of the boys were relatively socially accepted by their peers. The highly aggressive, socially accepted boys reported higher feelings of general and school-related self-esteem than all of the other groups of boys. "Because of their high level of self-esteem, the highly aggressive, more

socially accepted boys are likely to be relatively satisfied with their behavior, and, thus, may be less motivated to become engaged in treatment to alter their aggressive behavior” (p. 196), the researchers concluded.

R. Hayman Kite, a former professor of education at Florida Atlantic University, studied the self-esteem of students who drop out of school. He concluded that, “If teachers would sweat it out and teach [students] how to develop relationships, the dropout problem would go away” (Weisman, 1991b, p.29).

Feedback from Others

In Juhasz’ (1989) quantitative research with kindergarten students through college freshmen, she explained that “self-confidence is a by-product of competence and becomes a stable element in the self-esteem constellation, one which carries over into specific situations” (p. 582). Her exploratory research indicated that children and young adults selectively register feedback, which affects their self-esteem in relationship to the significance of the message and the person delivering the message.

Also in 1989, Kernis, Brockner, and Frankel explored the tendency of persons with low self-esteem to overgeneralize negative feedback. They found that persons with low self-esteem are not likely to overgeneralize all types of feedback, but rather they tend to overgeneralize feedback which fits with their existing self-views, which may or may not be logical or rational. They concluded that:

the present and past research suggest that low SEs [persons with low self-esteem] are more likely than high SEs [persons with high self-esteem] to generalize following failure; future research needs to evaluate the conditions under which this tendency on the part of low

SEs represents an irrational, illogical, or otherwise incorrect thought process. (p. 713)

In 1990, Baumgardner conducted a series of four experiments which “demonstrated that certainty about self-attributes is associated with positive affect about the self” (p. 1062). She found that individuals low, as opposed to high, in self-esteem expressed less certainty in whether and how much they possessed a variety of trait attributes; however, low-esteem subjects expressed more certainty in public than in private. Extending Trope’s (1983) theory that people seek out certainty about themselves in order to achieve a sense of personal control, Baumgardner’s results demonstrated that people also achieve positive self-concept by attaining this sense of certainty. She concluded, in agreement with Trope’s research, that “all else being equal, individuals prefer to have maximally diagnostic information about their abilities, even when that information might be negative” (p. 1069). Utilizing these theories, one may conclude that feedback--negative or positive--should improve a person’s sense of certainty about him- or herself, therefore increasing the sense of personal control and self-concept.

Andersen and Williams (1985) suggested that, in addition to the importance of feedback from others on one’s self-esteem, recalling positive/affective reactions had an impact significantly greater than did recalling positive behavioral or unspecified reactions. However, the researchers noted that “our data were collected after people recalled and considered very positive and laudable past reactions. Thus it is not clear that negative self-esteem change induced by negatively toned recollections would transpire in an identical fashion (e.g., Eagly & Acksen, 1971; Warr, Barter, & Brownridge, 1983)” (p. 1095).

Social Comparison and Social Identity Theory

Eshel and Klein (1981) studied elementary school children, grades one through four, in Jerusalem. They compared academic self-concept scores to academic achievement scores of lower- and middle-class children, paying particular attention to “how disadvantaged children conceived of their academic ability as they moved through the primary grades and how accurately they estimated their achievement” (p. 288). Results indicated that although academic self-concept scores gradually declined over the years in school for all children, their accuracy in reflecting both teacher grades and academic achievement scores increased for middle-class students and lower-class students in integrated classes. However, lower-class students in homogeneous classes tended to overevaluate their capabilities, according to the researchers, who concluded:

Accuracy in self-evaluation is quite probably linked to opportunities for the acquisition of information about one’s ability on a salient task through interaction with others, observation of the reactions of these others to one another around the task, and the response of authority figures to the behavior of all. The greater the heterogeneity of interactions and comparisons to which the child is exposed the greater the possibility of locating oneself accurately within the immediate group, even though this may not always entail a clear understanding of the particular criteria for successful task performance. (p. 292)

Abadzi (1984) studied the effects of ability grouping on self-esteem and achievement of fourth graders. She found that the highest and lowest students seemed to be unaffected by the ability grouping, “but students near the cutoff did show significant changes and differentiation in achievement

test and self-esteem scores following ability grouping” (p. 291). Abadzi expressed particular concern because students near the cutoff, who were the most likely to be misclassified into ability groups, were also those most affected by the grouping.

With respect to divergent groups, Crocker and Luhtanen (1990) utilized social identity theory to explain that, when posed with a threat to a person’s collective self-esteem, which is achieved by identification with a reference group, one may resort to the same sort of defense mechanisms as when faced with a threat to individual self-esteem. Few minority children were assigned to the high ability group in Abadzi’s study (p. 292); also, traditional placement measures tend to underrate minority students’ ability. Abadzi explained that threats to collective self-esteem may have contributed to the skewed effects on achievement and self-esteem found in students near the cutoff in the study.

In contrast, in 1986 Bachman and O’Malley found that having schoolmates with relatively higher abilities did slightly lower one’s self-esteem and concepts of ability; however, the effects were quite weak and did not influence educational attainments beyond the high school years. Bachman and O’Malley’s study indicated that students did not estimate their abilities primarily by comparing themselves with fellow students. In fact, actual ability itself seemed to be the primary determinant of self-concepts of ability; actual ability was seen as more important than grades, social comparisons, or socioeconomic status. Bachman and O’Malley concluded that it is the actual abilities of students, not their self-concepts of ability, that make the difference in academic success.

Students who may have Special Needs related to Self-Esteem

Introduction

“If it were disclosed tomorrow that this country intended to snatch every third child from the classroom and ensure his failure in life, I believe most of us would be horrified,” Bill Moyers wrote in his supporting materials to a 1991 public television special entitled “All Our Children.”

They come to school from homes where they are neglected, or bearing the marks of a middle-of-the-night beating. They come pregnant, recovering from drugs, or alcohol abuse. And they don't leave their problems at the classroom door.

Their teachers, on the front lines in the battle to keep them in school, know that the casualty rate in this war is 800,000 American children who drop out each year. (Clifford, 1991a, p. C-1)

The special featured teachers, schools, and communities who were doing more than would normally be expected to help these children find success and a future, and the researchers concluded that “the programs that work incorporate as much self-esteem building as science into the curriculum” (p. C-1).

In another public television special, “Before it's too late,” a dozen dropouts were interviewed. Jane Clifford of the San Diego Tribune commented that:

after years of being bombarded with the statistics, of hearing hand-wringing bureaucrats worry aloud about the situation, this poignant half-hour program cuts right to the heart of the situation.

Kids leave school because no one encourages them not to.

(1991b, p. E-1)

When Tom Payzant, then superintendent of the San Diego Unified School District, was interviewed in 1991, he confirmed that twenty-seven percent of the district's students drop out of school every year, with the percentages much higher for African American and Hispanic students (Clifford, 1991b, p. E-2). In 1986, then President Ronald Reagan pointed to one main reason why the United States had succumbed to the "rising tide of mediocrity" noted in the A Nation at Risk report: the attention that had been focused by schools on female, minority, and handicapped students. He asserted that if the federal government had not been so preoccupied with the special needs of these groups of students, schools would not be failing. What Reagan failed to note is that, if these groups of students are eliminated, only about fifteen percent of the school population remains (Shakeshaft, 1986).

At-risk Students

Donna Wadsworth-Brown painted the following picture of at-risk students in 1989:

First, I think we need to understand who at-risk students are. They are not dumb; however, they frequently think they are. They have potential; however, they don't know it. They need what we educators have to offer, but they won't believe it. In a way, they may want to fail because there is a type of comfort in that. After all, it's what they know best. Failure is a restful place to be. Nobody bothers them much because they can't be expected to give or participate. A classroom of at-risk students brings the teacher face-to-face with substance abuse, chronic absences, repeated failures,

suspensions, antisocial behavior, personal insecurity, and low self-esteem. The crucial point to remember, I feel, is that in spite of all these obstacles, at-risk students have all the potential that other students have: the sky's the limit! (p. 8)

Bill Hamby echoed Wadsworth-Brown, explaining that we as humans are constantly seeking confirmation of ourselves as individuals. The need for self-esteem is an important force in understanding why so many young people drop out of school: "Simply speaking," Hamby stated, "they perceive school as a threatening place and want to escape the aversiveness they feel there" (1989, p. 23).

Schaefer's 1990 study listed a number of characteristics by which students who are likely to become dropouts may be identified at the elementary, middle and high school levels:

At the elementary level, students considered at risk were generally non-conforming, had difficulty adapting to change, frequently displayed negative moods, and exhibited high intensity reactions. ... Students likely to drop out at the middle and high school level were found to be rebellious, hostile, impulsive, unable to delay gratification, irresponsible, indifferent to the feelings and needs of others, assertive, less willing to subordinate self, more desirous of attention and authority, and more apt to have dependent relationships. (At risk students can be identified at an early age, p. 5)

Schaefer's first recommendation to meet the needs of these at-risk students was that "schools should create good school climates that generate optimism and self-esteem among both staff and students" (p. 5).

Educators have taken both sides of the causality issue in their attempts to promote academic achievement and self-esteem in their

students. As was previously mentioned, the 80s saw the rise of academic standards, graduation requirements, and teacher accountability as ways to foster student achievement. However, recently highlighted programs have emphasized alternative ways to enhance the self-esteem first, and the academic achievement second, in dealing with at-risk students. Rodriguez' 1990 overview of current policies and promising practices for at-risk youth found most school districts taking the combination approach: they provided quality academic instruction within an esteeming environment.

Utilizing Glasser's work, Control Theory in the Classroom, Apollo High School in Northern California is an alternative school whose "goal is to increase students' self-esteem, in the belief that self-esteem *produces* achievement" (Greene & Uroff, 1989, p. 80) in their 400 at-risk students. The program revolves around what staff call the four A's: Attention, Acceptance, Appreciation and Affection. Proponents are adamant that

We will not help at-risk students by merely 'stepping up' the programs that have failed them in the past--by creating tougher academic standards, a longer school day and year, and more homework. Instead, we must focus our efforts on the students themselves. Unless schools meet students' basic needs, they will fail to motivate them to strive for success. At Apollo High School, we are trying to ensure that students find school--and learning--experiences that satisfy their needs. (p. 81)

In 1989, Helge reported the results of a pilot study during which a self-esteem curriculum was implemented with a group of adolescents from a wide variety of socioeconomic backgrounds and ability levels who were determined to be at risk of school failure because of depression, child abuse, sexual activity, and/or drug use. "Student pre-tests clearly indicated

that their main concerns were that they wanted more friends and they wanted greater understanding of themselves from their parents. Regarding who was in control of their lives, the response was typically ‘everyone but me’” (p. 11). The school district implemented a program designed to enhance student self-esteem. The program included lessons on self-acceptance and taking pride in one’s abilities, effective communication skills, decision-making skills, and leadership skills. Results of the pre/post test comparisons included not only an increase in self-esteem, but also improvement in academic achievement and attendance. Helge cited the short length of the program as its biggest disadvantage, explaining that “low self-esteem is usually generated at home and continues throughout childhood” (p. 9). She asserted that to fully assimilate the skills which lead to enhanced self-esteem, “it is most effective as a relatively long-term process and integrated with other school activities” (p. 9).

At the opposite end of the academic achievement continuum, Eccles’ (1989) study attempted to see if the self-esteem and peer acceptance of gifted children was indeed higher than that of average children, as several earlier studies had suggested. Instead, when viewing these constructs as multifaceted, Eccles found that

It is evident from this study that peer acceptance and self-esteem are diversified rather than unitary, and that they vary according to the criteria by which an individual is evaluated. In particular, the fact that gifted children were more often chosen as study partners than others, but were about as likely as others to be chosen as friends or as sports teammates, suggests that the gifted child's widely publicized popularity is largely due to academic prestige. (p. 407)

Further research was recommended and might include other areas of

competence than academic giftedness. To progress beyond the simple observation that a group of children are well liked and have high self-esteem, to an understanding of why they are well liked and what causes them to have high self-esteem, would be valuable, according to Eccles.

The following pages will highlight some of the specific groups of students who have been identified as at possible risk for low self-esteem, school underachievement and failure, and dropout.

Children in poverty

Phi Delta Kappa sponsored a Kappan Special Report in 1990 entitled "Children of Poverty," which decried that

A generation after President Lyndon Johnson declared an official War on Poverty, nearly one-fifth [twelve million] of America's youngest citizens still grow up poor; often sick, hungry, and illiterate; and deprived of safe and adequate housing, of needed social services, and of special educational assistance. Millions of these youngsters are virtually untouched by the vast wealth of the nation in which they begin their fragile and often painful lives. (Reed & Sautter, p. K3)

In 1991, the California Rural Legal Assistance Foundation estimated that if present trends continue, over three million children will be living in poverty in California alone. That represents over one-third of California's total projected number of children (LaFee, p. D-1).

Ron Harris (1991) of the Los Angeles Times conducted interviews with congressmen, child advocates, and policy analysts of all political leanings about the worsening conditions for America's children. His research suggested that although we give lip service to children's issues, in

the United States we do not follow through, primarily because (a) children themselves have no power to set the agenda and (b) for a variety of reasons, adults have not embraced children's issues as their own.

The Kappan report commented that poverty leads to more problems than just the lack of the basic academic skills needed to succeed in school. Quoting Verna Gray, a veteran schoolteacher in the Chicago schools, the researchers observed, "Many of these youngsters don't have any self-esteem or even the belief that they can achieve" (Reed & Sautter, p. K7). Projects such as Head Start, which focused on self-esteem building as well as on academic skills, save seven dollars in future social services which are then not needed, for every dollar invested. Still, in 1990 Head Start, the Kappan reported, only served one of five eligible students (Reed & Sautter, p. K8).

Gender and Self-Esteem

Byrne and Shavelson reported that, as of 1987, research focusing on gender differences in self-concept was sparse. In addition, the findings were inconsistent and indeterminate, partly due to theoretical issues. Byrne and Shavelson criticized most of the previous studies, which "(a) lacked a clear, theoretical basis, (b) assumed the invariance of SC [self-concept] across gender, (c) used psychometrically limited measuring instruments, and (d) used simplistic or inappropriate methodological structures" (1987, p. 366).

Although substantive research examining gender effects on general and academic self-concept in adolescents had been inconsistent, there had been some research related to subject-specific self-concept and gender. Lending support to the notion that self-concept is a multidimensional

construct, Marsh, Parker, and Barnes (1985) found that girls had higher English self-concepts while boys had higher mathematics self-concepts, independent of grade level, in a sample of Australian adolescents in grades seven through twelve. These results were replicated by Byrne and Shavelson (1986) with a sample of Canadian adolescents in grades eleven and twelve.

With respect to self-concept in mathematics, Meece, Parsons, Kaczala, Goff, and Futterman (1982) reported that, although few gender differences were found among elementary school children, large and consistent differences were found among adolescents, with boys exhibiting higher mathematics self-concepts than girls. Findings indicated a decrease in mathematics self-concept for both sexes in high school; however, the decrease began earlier and was more extensive for females than males, even when there was no corresponding difference in academic achievement in mathematics. Other studies have shown little to no difference in mathematics achievement between boys and girls based on standardized tests (Marsh, Smith, & Barnes, 1985; Sherman, 1980). However, when the findings were based on mathematics grades rather than standardized achievement scores, significant differences have been found in favor of the girls (Byrne & Shavelson, 1986).

In testing the assumption of equivalent structure across gender, Byrne and Shavelson (1987) indicated that for both sexes, self-concept was a multidimensional construct in which general self-concept could be interpreted as distinct from, but correlated with, academic self-concept. However, Byrne and Shavelson issued the following caution:

Our results demonstrate that the assumption of an invariant SC [self-concept] structure for males and females cannot be taken for granted;

relations among SC facets do differ across gender. The findings also show that SC instruments measure particular facets of SC in different ways, and with different reliabilities for males and females. (p. 382)

Byrne and Shavelson indicated that, from a practical perspective, some of their gender difference findings were relatively minor (e.g., differential reliabilities), and that for all practical purposes, mean comparisons across gender should not be detrimentally affected by those differences. “However, our finding of a differential hierarchical SC structure has both methodological and theoretical implications. Methodologically, it suggests that testing for mean differences across gender is problematic; testing for differences in structure would appear to be a more logical strategy” (p. 382).

Common knowledge prevails that teenage pregnancy is caused by low self-esteem and leads to school dropout (Baca, Burchard, Broyles & Berglund, 1989). Liburd and Bowie (1990) explored the relationship of self-esteem and several other domains to intentional teenage pregnancy by conducting in-depth interviews with community leaders, key informants, and teens. They found that while most teen parents reported positive self-esteem, professionals and adults in the community considered the teens who were pregnant or parents to have low self-esteem. However, “the respondents concurred that there were teens who intentionally got pregnant and that the primary reason was to perpetuate a relationship, something pregnancy rarely accomplished” (p. 37). Liburd and Bowie concluded that in order for teen pregnancy rates to be reduced, the teens themselves must see teen pregnancy as a problem. In their study, the older adults expressed shame and moral indignation at unwed motherhood and teen pregnancy. Teens, on the other hand, expressed concern over whether teenage parents

would be mature enough to be effective parents, but saw no real problems other than financial strain.

Christine Baca (1989) studied women who had dropped out of San Diego Unified School District. In contrast to the stereotype of female dropouts as pregnant teenagers or teen mothers, she found that “many females drop out as a result of low academic achievement and low self-esteem” (Baca, Burchard, Broyles & Berglund, p. 3). Low self-esteem was associated with dropouts more often than with graduates, and with female dropouts more than with male dropouts. However, for all the female groups, the strongest predictor of dropping out was falling behind in school work. Unmarried female dropouts tended to participate less in school, church, or community organizations; said they only did enough schoolwork to get by; had low grades in all of their academic subjects; and expressed less positive feelings about their health, missing more school due to illness than female persisters. Baca commented that the students were complimentary, even sympathetic, towards their counselors and teachers, saying things like ““they were just too busy”” (p. 37); Baca noted that “these statements might indicate that the students were operating from a deficit model of self-esteem and did not feel worthy of the counselor’s time” (p. 37).

As was mentioned in the section on Self-Esteem and Academic Achievement, Brutsaert found that the self-esteem of early adolescent girls depended upon parental support, but that of boys depended upon a sense of mastery. Paralleling Gilligan's findings, Brutsaert found that the onset of puberty had a more negative effect on girls' self-esteem than boys', causing "a striving for acceptance among girls and for achievement among boys" (1990, p. 432). Academically successful girls, he found, were able to

overcome this striving for acceptance, and for them the sense of mastery became as important as it was for boys in late adolescence.

The 1991 American Association of University Women (AAUW) report entitled Shortchanging Girls, Shortchanging America supported these findings, especially in the areas of mathematics and science. Anne Bryant, president of AAUW, noted "subtle, but unmistakable differences in adult expectations for boys and girls that they [the researchers] believe influence female self-esteem and success in math and science" (Gender bias cited in math gap, 1991, p. 4), so that few females actually were able to achieve the sense of mastery developed by academically successful girls in the Brutsaert study.

The AAUW report documented an "apparent link between the declining self-image of girls throughout adolescence and their lack of interest in math and science and lower career aspirations than boys," (Gender bias cited in math, p. 1). In addition, the researchers found "a circular relationship between liking mathematics and science, self-esteem levels, and career aspirations. Girls and boys who like math and science have higher self-esteem, greater career aspirations and are more likely to hold onto their dreams" (Shortchanging girls, shortchanging America, a nationwide poll to assess self-esteem, educational experiences, interest in math and science, and career aspirations of girls and boys ages 9-15, 1991, p. 7). A spokesperson from Greenburg-Lake, the Washington, D. C., polling firm that conducted the survey, concluded: "The poll illustrates more dramatically than ever two things; one, the effect self-esteem has on how well girls think they can do in math and science; and two, how parents and educators play a greater role in self-esteem than peers" (Gender bias cited in math gap, p. 1).

In a follow-up report to the AAUW study, How schools shortchange girls (1991), the researchers issued a strong challenge to educators:

The educational system is not meeting girls' needs. Girls and boys enter school roughly equal in measured ability. Twelve years later, girls have fallen behind their male classmates in key areas such as higher-level mathematics and measures of self-esteem. Yet gender equity is still not a part of the national debate on educational reform.

Girls continue to be left out of the debate--despite the fact that for more than two decades researchers have identified gender bias as a major problem at all levels of schooling. (p.1)

In a study designed to determine the correlation between adolescent self-esteem and sex role perceptions, Robison-Awana, Kehle, and Jenson (1986) asked three groups of seventh grade boys and girls to respond to a self-esteem inventory. On one day, each student responded to the inventory as him- or herself. On another day (sometimes before, sometimes after), the student was asked to respond to the same survey as a member of the opposite sex. Results revealed that when students responded as themselves, reported levels of self-esteem were significantly correlated with academic achievement for both sexes, although there was a significant but moderate difference in self-esteem level in favor of the boys. When students responded as a member of the opposite sex, girls attributed significantly higher self-esteem levels to boys while boys attributed significantly lower self-esteem levels to girls. However, there was one exception: high achieving, academically competent girls rated themselves as having significantly higher self-esteem than boys.

In attempting to explain this difference, the authors offered that "one plausible explanation is that academically successful and competent girls

possessed either more masculine or more androgynous characteristics as opposed to feminine characteristics” (p. 182). Another plausible explanation given for the difference in academically talented girls’ ratings involved attribution theory. Per Abramson et al., a low-achieving student may attribute failure to personal or internal causes but success to external causes. Accordingly, Robison-Awana, Kehle, and Jensen rationalized, “it is possible that the low-achieving girls [but not the boys] in the present study were victims of learned helplessness” (p. 182).

“With respect to these explanations,” Robison-Awana, Kehle, and Jensen continued, “it may be that girls who were androgynous and academically competent also attributed their success to their ability and had relatively higher levels of self-esteem. This explanation was consistent with Crombie’s 1983 results for female college students: “Women who were androgynous and high in achievement level tended to attribute their academic success more to ability” (p. 1171).

Concerned with the failure of gifted and talented women to realize their full potential, Hollinger (1988) studied the antecedents and correlates of life satisfaction in 108 gifted and talented young women. Measures of socio-affective traits, instrumentality and expressiveness, and social self-esteem were obtained at three points in time, sophomore and junior years in high school and in young adulthood. Throughout the longitudinal study, self perceptions of instrumentality and expressiveness consistently correlated with and were predictive of social self-esteem. Hollinger concluded that:

perceiving oneself as instrumental or agentic appears to be crucial to the young woman’s experiencing a sense of confidence in social interaction, and possession of attributes perceived to be expected of

her, expressiveness or nurturance, appears to enhance such feelings (p. 257).

Because career and career preparation were the primary concern for the women at the ages studied, Hollinger noted that “ life satisfaction at this stage may be of much narrower scope than it will be later when retrospective evaluation of personal and family ‘accomplishments’ may play a more substantial role in the perception of life satisfaction” (p. 258). However, in comparing her study to the 1977 Sears and Barbee study of gifted and talented women in their sixties, Hollinger reflected that “a sense of confidence appears to play a role in the experiencing of life satisfaction for both groups of GT [gifted and talented] women. In the present study, social self-confidence or esteem emerged as a consistently strong correlate of life satisfaction” (p. 258).

Ethnicity, Race, and Self-Esteem

Students in the school district selected for this study speak approximately sixty different languages. About forty-one percent of the student body is either African American or Hispanic (The ethnic welcome mat at school, 1991). In spite of district efforts to achieve integration and equity over the past several years, Peter Bell (1990) pointed out the following statistics: (a) Hispanic and African American students took significantly less college-preparatory classes than Asian, Filipino, or White students, and that gap had not narrowed; (b) African American and Hispanic students had significantly lower grade point averages and standardized reading results, higher suspension rates, higher proportions of identified special education students, and more than double the retention rates of other groups; and (c) Hispanic dropout rates were 50 to 65

percent higher than the district average, while African American dropout rates were slightly higher than the district average. Bell explained that the disparities were similar to those in other urban districts across the country and could be related to socioeconomic factors which paralleled the differences. He also noted that "differences among schools are frequently as great as, or even greater than, those noted among various racial/ethnic groups" (p. 9). Reducing achievement gaps among racial/ethnic groups had been a top district priority for several years; Bell concluded that "while a variety of national and local assessments have displayed results similar to those shown in this report, the magnitude of some of the disparities among racial/ethnic groups remains disturbing and calls for action" (p. 10).

Pine and Hilliard (1990), in their recommendations to combat the hidden curriculum of racism in schools, concurred with Pate's 1988 studies which showed a significant correlation between low self-esteem and prejudice. As students' self-esteem increased, Pate found an accompanying decrease in prejudice. However, Pine and Hilliard cautioned that, in their opinion, overreliance on specific programs deliberately intended to raise self-esteem is not warranted; Holly's (1987b) review of research which indicated that self-esteem does not cause--but is an effect of--academic success was referenced. If increases in self-esteem must be preceded by gains in competence, Pine and Hilliard recommended that high expectations and effective teaching practices that foster academic achievement will generate positive self-concepts and enhanced self-esteem. However, they asserted that students' interpersonal needs must also be met, quoting Comer:

If we believe that the goals of the schools are to make all children intellectually competent and to foster decency in their interpersonal

relations, then our concerns about increasing students' self-esteem need to be viewed in the context of the overall development of character. Schools must institute programs to protect children from the ravages of social and family disorganization. In today's complex world, all students need more support from the schools than they needed in the past. This is especially true of minority students, who "have experienced the most cultural discontinuity and destruction of their organizing and stabilizing institutions and practices, as well as forced exclusion from education and other developmental opportunities" (Comer, 1988, p. 37). (p. 599)

Pine and Hilliard explained that through appropriate coursework and a program of cocurricular and extracurricular activities, schools can foster in all students "the development of psychological and social traits of character; self-esteem (integrity, consistency); self-discipline; vocational aspiration (work as a calling, not a job); idealism; moral judgment; and interpersonal expectations (including altruism, enlightened self-interest and social justice)" (p. 599).

Extending the research on Teacher Expectations and Student Achievement (Rosenthal and Jacobson, 1968; Rist, 1970; Crowl, 1971; Rubovits and Maehr, 1973; O'Donnell, Dusek, and Wheeler, 1974; Williams, 1976; Williams and Muehl, 1978; Good, 1981; and Brophy and Good, 1984), Thomas Brown (1990) also emphasized teaching skills, concluding that:

the real issue is not getting teachers to hold higher expectations for all students, but rather ensuring that teachers command the skills, strategies, and techniques that produce high levels of achievement.

Expectations divorced from the teaching skills necessary to

produce high levels of achievement in those who are benefiting least from schooling are relatively inconsequential. (p.305)

Brown quoted Ernest Boyer, who, in addressing the Council of Chief State School Officers, identified the major challenge of educators as finding ways to help students see the connections between what we teach and how they live (p.306). Rather than attributing minority underachievement to such factors as lack of motivation to achieve or parental encouragement, single-parent households, teen pregnancy, poor self-esteem, truancy, or other educationally debilitating ways of life, Brown asserted that educators must select course content and deliver instructional services to students, minority or majority, in ways that the students value and can learn effectively.

Crocker and Major, in 1989, studied the effects of social stigma on self-esteem. The authors cited numerous references to affirm that many categories of people are stigmatized in our society. Using African Americans, women, unattractive persons in general, facially deformed persons in particular, the physically disabled, obese, mentally retarded, homosexual, blind, and the mentally ill as examples, the researchers noted, "It is well documented that members of these groups are relatively disadvantaged in American society, both in terms of economic opportunities and outcomes and in terms of interpersonal outcomes" (p. 608). Crocker and Major's review showed that, although several psychological theories would predict members of stigmatized groups to have low global self-esteem, empirical research typically did not support such prediction. They explained the discrepancy by considering ways in which membership in a stigmatized group may actually protect self-concept: Members in a stigmatized group may (a) attribute negative

feedback to prejudice against their group, (b) compare their outcomes with those of the ingroup, rather than with the relatively advantaged outgroup, and (c) selectively devalue those dimensions on which their group fares poorly and value those dimensions on which their group excels (p. 608).

Crocker and Major concluded that:

self-esteem is but one of many variables that are likely to be affected by prejudice and discrimination. Our somewhat optimistic position that stigmatized individuals are not merely passive victims but are frequently able actively to protect and buffer their self-esteem from prejudice and discrimination, should in no way be interpreted as an argument that prejudice and discrimination are not in other ways psychologically damaging. (p. 624)

The relationship of self-esteem to academic achievement of two ethnic/racial groups of students, African Americans and Hispanics, was of particular interest in this study due to district and national concern regarding academic underachievement and school dropout rates. Some of the issues highlighted in the literature regarding self-esteem and academic achievement of African American and Hispanic students follow. Because some researchers have presented evidence that females of these racial/ethnic groups bear the “double-whammy”, so to speak, of being both a minority gender and a minority racial/ethnic group; the literature in this regard will be discussed briefly.

African American students and self-esteem

Crosby, Bromley, and Saxe (1980) reviewed numerous indicators that African Americans have more negative interpersonal outcomes when interacting with the white majority group than do whites. Similarly, the

1985 Children's Defense Fund study found African American children to be three times more likely than their white counterparts to be identified as educable mentally retarded and only one-third as likely to be identified and placed with the gifted and talented.

Herbert Kohl talked openly with young African American children about their low reading scores; he found that children often chose to fail standardized tests on purpose, partly because they placed a value on being able to think up clever explanations for wrong answers. Children whom Kohl knew to be readers also demonstrated to him how they "pretended" to be failures at reading: stumbling, pausing, and stammering over the simplest of words. Kohl concluded: "Never underestimate [African American] children. Poor performance can be linked to lack of trust and fear of being "uncool.'" (Feldman, 1991, p. 7). Kohl explained his "secret" to working with disadvantaged children: make academic material relevant to the students' everyday lives.

James Banks, an African American educator and writer, contended that it is not enough for African American students to master basic skills and language: they must also be taught to critique textbook authors and historians. It is important for African American students, according to Banks, to understand the social and economic conditions which lead to power imbalances among ethnic groups. Further, Banks asserted that African American students need the critical thinking and problem solving skills that will enable them to question society instead of themselves (Feldman, 1991).

Faheen Ashanti (1990) studied the impact of an Afrocentric curriculum on college students and found that at the end of their year of study, students had improved their grade point averages in all classes by

more than one full point and displayed fewer emotional problems. He concurred with Kohl that “when students begin to see themselves in the curriculum, all of a sudden there is an identification with it and students take an interest in learning” (Viadero, 1990, p. 6). Many middle and high schools throughout the country have been experimenting with Afrocentric education, some restricting their enrollment to African American males.

In direct philosophical contrast to Ashanti, Delpit’s “The Silenced Dialogue” suggested that African American children are done a disservice when educators accept nonstandard dialects in writing or speaking. Delpit insisted that African American children are significantly aided when they learn to function utilizing the rules, which may seem indirect and even vague to the African American child, of the White culture in power. Delpit contended that “White teachers must explain the White rules and manner of speech; only in this way will the [African American] child be able to function in the dominant culture” (Feldman, 1991, p. 8).

Kuykendall (1993) asserted that, especially as the California student population becomes increasingly diverse, teachers must re-examine their own attitudes and expectations, which are a critical factor to student success:

The biggest challenge we face as educators is the challenge of stepping outside of our own cultural orientation so that we can develop a greater appreciation for and understanding of those who are different. We must be able to embrace the use of differing teaching techniques and strategies that reflect our appreciation of cultural diversity. (p. 9)

Locke (1990) considered the classroom an ideal place “not only to deal directly with cultural diversity, but also to foster the self-esteem of

children by focusing on that diversity” (p. 18) in his research related to fostering self-esteem of African American children, in particular.

The AAUW report (1991) found that African American females were high in general self-esteem and low in academic self-esteem. Janie Victoria Ward of Simmons College, a leading authority on African American girls, concurred:

There is high self-esteem among black girls because black culture emphasizes independence and assertiveness. But academic self-esteem is low. There’s a decline in academic pride. Black girls are not relying on schools to give them a positive image of themselves.

(Shortchanging girls, shortchanging America: A call to action, p. 13)

If African American girls receive their sense of self-esteem and efficacy from achievements in other areas of their lives than school, Simmons continued, “it can engender disinterest in school and lead to poor academic performance” (p. 13).

Hispanic students and self-esteem

In the 1991 Annual Report on the Status of Minorities in Education, the American Council on Education expressed concern that Hispanics, despite their rapid growth in the U. S. population, “are grossly underrepresented at every rung of the educational ladder” (Hispanic dropout rate sign of new underclass?, 1991, p. A-9). The report stated that high school completion rates for 18-24-year-old Hispanics had dropped from 62.9% in 1985 to 55.9% in 1989. Of Hispanic 16 and 17 year-olds, only 78.7% were enrolled in school, compared with 91.6% of all 16 and 17 year-olds.

Rafael Valdivieso, vice president for research for the Hispanic Policy

Development Project in Washington, D. C., confirmed that language and poverty contribute to Hispanics' educational deficits. Explaining that Hispanics who come to the United States from working middle-class backgrounds are successful, but that those who are poor and have language problems drop out, Valdivieso explained his position that "there is a general feeling of obligation--for historical reasons or otherwise--to improve the plight of [African Americans], leaving the Hispanic community neglected as if they do not deserve help" (Study shows fewer Hispanics finish school, 1991, p. A-29).

Commenting that in 1988 40% of Hispanic children were living in poverty, Nicolau, Oppenheimer, Santiestevan, Santiestevan, and Valdivieso stated that "on average, each year a child lives in poverty increases the likelihood by two percentage points that he or she will fall behind a grade level" (p. 21). Nicolau, et.al. also explained that most Hispanic parents are not involved in their children's education, not because they don't care, but because their culture teaches parents that they have no place in school and that teachers have no place in their homes. Most poor Hispanic parents feel that school is the province of teachers and administrators. (p. 25).

Although limited English proficiency causes many Hispanic children to suffer lowered self-esteem by the fourth grade, Nicolau, et.al. countered that

for school-age children, intervention between 7 and 13 is the most productive and cost effective. At this age children are malleable and reachable--essentially a captive audience in school--and they are not yet damaged beyond repair. It is nothing short of a national tragedy to let these children slip through the cracks until rescue operations must be employed or until it is too late to do anything but incarcerate

or support them on welfare. (p. 27)

Nicolau, Oppenheimer, Santiestevan, Santiestevan, and Valdivieso advocated that all students, particularly those with troubled home lives, need one trusted adult outside the home in whom they can confide, as well as structure and guidance at school. He recommended that “dropout prevention programs designed to upgrade basic skills and instill self-esteem can be instituted in the elementary school years; *for those in junior and senior high school, different strategies are required*; traditional remediation will usually fail” (Closing the gap for U.S. Hispanic youth, 1988, p. 32).

Raoul Contreras, a Mexican American columnist, chastised studies and statistics such as these, saying

When the 1990 census data is released, the Ph.D.s will find, to their surprise, that native-born Americans of Mexican descent attend and finish school in percentages comparable to anyone.

They will express surprise that Mexican American dropout rates in some areas, such as San Bernardino, Calif., are half that of white students--yes, half. They will, of course, label this an aberration. Hispanics, they will tell us, are too poor in treasure and English to do well in school. (1991, p. B7)

Contreras credited the Mexican American actor Edward James Olmos for doing more for Mexican Americans, in Contreras' view, than anyone in the United States. Olmos portrayed teacher Jaime Escalante in the film Stand and Deliver, which publicized Escalante's efforts to teach calculus to barrio students in Los Angeles. Escalante was successful; all of his students passed the college board Advanced Placement Test. When accused of cheating, the students all took the test over--and passed--again. Contreras surmised:

By dramatizing Escalante's achievements for public television and for the local movie house, Edward James Olmos did more for Mexican American self-esteem than all the Ph.D. studies had ever done. Olmos received an Academy Award nomination for best actor, and Escalante received the attention he deserved as America's finest teacher.

As for Mexican Americans, in the Escalante story, they can see for themselves, without middlemen, that they can succeed at calculus, at college, at anything they choose, as long as they're willing to study and work hard. (p. B7)

Sylvia Anne Washburn, 1990 Outstanding Teacher of the Year, described her feelings of inadequacy, having grown up in a poor Hispanic family that relied on welfare to make ends meet. Washburn explained how she felt stigmatized and what made her decide to become a role model for other children like herself: "If just one teacher had expressed even a bit of interest in me, school would have been much more enjoyable. I would have come out of the experience feeling much better about myself" (1991, p. C8).

Jaen (1990) focused her research on the unique discrimination faced by bilingual Hispanics:

For the majority of people, the more they are accepted into the mainstream economy, the weaker their ties to ethnic culture and language. Lack of socioeconomic success can lead to rejection of one's self-identity, one's group, and one's language. For this reason, many parents prefer to stop speaking Spanish at home so that their children can be more successful at school; but this leads to a lack of a sense of identity and self-esteem--a Catch 22 situation. (p. 21)

Teaching respect of linguistic and cultural differences, as well as changing the conditions that have led to the segregation of Hispanics in housing, employment, and education are required for oppressed groups such as Hispanics to develop understanding of the nature and roots of their deprivation so that they may act positively to overcome it, according to Jaen (p. 22).

Cummins (1989) echoed this philosophical stance. Stating that “the educational underachievement of [Hispanic children] is, in part, a function of the fact that schools have traditionally reinforced the ambivalence and insecurity that many minority students tend to feel with regard to their own cultural identity (Cummins, 1986; Ogby & Matute-Bianchi, 1986)” (p.111), Cummins cited Swedo’s 1987 summary of effective teaching strategies with bilingual youngsters. Bilingual students were successful when teaching strategies

drew heavily upon, and encouraged expression of, students’ experiences, language background and interests. They also fostered feelings of success and pride in accomplishment, gave children a sense of control over their own learning, and included peer collaboration or peer approval. (p. 116)

Fuentes and LeCapitaine’s four-year study evaluated the effectiveness of a Hispanic after-school program designed to promote ethno-cultural identity on the school adjustment and self-concepts of Hispanic children. Paralleling similar findings for African American students, the researchers concluded that (a) primary prevention programs promoting ethno-cultural identity demonstrate success in areas of improved classroom behavior and global self-concepts; and (b) the issue of low teacher expectations of Hispanic children with problematic behavior needs to be addressed (1990,

p. 302).

Donna Davis conducted a study related to empowerment and Hispanic females for the San Diego Unified School District in 1989. At that time, she found that although self-esteem in Hispanic females was positively correlated to academic achievement, the more the students believed that racism would make school achievement difficult, the more the students tended to be low achieving. Davis summarized:

Certain underlying themes recur in the small amount of literature available on the educational achievement of the Hispanic female. The major themes running throughout the literature seem to be those of racial segregation, linguistic isolation, conditions faced at home and school, need for greater parent involvement from the home interacting with more and better qualified personnel in the school, and a need for specific and proactive programs of support and encouragement for the young Hispanic female. Three other themes or needs documented the literature affecting the Hispanic female are “dead-end” tracking, failure to address the needs of LEP students, and a general lack of support for bilingual education. (p. 20)

In agreement with Nicolau, Oppenheimer, Santiestevan, Santiestevan, and Valdivieso’s conclusion that tutoring programs and remediation don’t work, Davis suggested further research to determine more effective ways to organize curriculum and deliver instruction, ways to better understand motivation and learning patterns of underachieving Hispanic females, and improved instrumentation to study the relationship between self-esteem and learning.

This is true not just for the young Hispanic female, but for large numbers of other students as well. Different programs, strategies,

or learning therapies are needed to assure success for those who evidence potential but whose grades indicate a lack of success. (p. 22)

The AAUW's 1991 report Shortchanging girls, shortchanging America, explained that

Hispanic girls, much less confident and positive than [African American] girls, go through a self-perception crisis in some ways even more dramatic than that experienced by White girls. They end up with slightly higher self-esteem levels than White girls, but plummet in terms of confidence in family relationships, school, talents, and importance" (p. 13).

In contrast to African American females, whom the report described as "maintaining high levels of self-esteem by disassociating themselves from school" (p. 13), Hispanic females have been acculturated to value relationship. Therefore, Elvira Valenzuela Crocker of the Mexican Women's National Association was emphatic: "There is a shortage of minority teachers to serve as role models for Hispanic girls. We must get the message across to these girls that education is important" (p. 14).

Locally, Hispanic women have begun to utilize their cultural value of relationship to organize support for each other. The focus of the third annual "Adelante Mujer Hispana" ("Forward Hispanic Woman") conference, funded largely by Pacific Bell and held at Mira Costa College in 1992, was empowerment. Maya Fernandez, a noted author and educator who was raised in Spanish Harlem in New York, drew nods of assent as she told the 100-plus audience: "The 'machismo' orientation within the Latino culture, with its parochial bent, at times leads to the oppression and victimization of women" (Alfonso, 1992, B-3). Seeking an education, making one's own choices, and establishing careers were recurrent themes

in Spanish- and English-language workshops at the conference.

Sara Valladolid, a college-scholarship winner, future doctor, and attendee of the conference, expressed disdain at the stereotypes she has faced in attaining her education. She wrote in an essay:

“One of the struggles that most, if not all, Hispanic females [sic] students in our society have to face every day is the issue of the Latina stereotype. We are not all passive, docile, marriage-oriented and uninterested in academic success.” (Alvarez, 1992, p. B-6)

In an attempt to dispel stereotypes and to also utilize the traditional value of relationship, local school districts have matched young Hispanic females with role models in a variety of jobs. Maria Nieto Senour, a San Diego State professor who collaborated on Davis’ 1989 study, said of educators and employers: “They think we’re all going to drop out of school and have babies” (Alvarez, 1992, p. B-6). In explaining the relationship and role-model approach, Senour said, “I think young [Hispanic females] need somebody who believe [sic] in them. I think that makes the biggest difference” (Alvarez, 1992, p. B-6).

Summary of Students who may have Special Needs related to Self-Esteem

Various groups of students have been identified as being at increased risk of school underachievement, failure, and dropout. In particular, children who are performing at-risk academically, children in poverty, females, and children of African American or Hispanic heritage, whose rates of school underachievement, failure, and dropout are significantly higher than average, have been identified. Although some strong opinions regarding the relationship of self-esteem to academic achievement for these groups of students have been presented, the substantive research to date is

limited.

Questions have been raised by several researchers regarding the importance of cultural values, learning styles, interpretation and use of language, and differential structure of self-esteem among specific groups under study.

Measurement of Self-Esteem

Just as self-esteem has been the topic of much conceptual, definitional and construct-delineation debate, so has the measurement of self-esteem. According to a 1992 Newsweek Gallup Poll, although only one in ten Americans believes that he or she personally suffers from low self-esteem, more than 50% diagnose the condition in someone else in their families (Adler, 1992, p. 46). In Adler's 1992 criticism of what he called the self-esteem movement, he estimated that more than 10,000 scientific studies of self-esteem had been conducted, measuring self-esteem with more than 200 different tests (p. 48). Given the difficulties inherent in measuring a concept such as self-esteem, issues such as validity and reliability of the instrument selected were crucial to this study.

Issues to Consider when Measuring Self-Esteem

Several issues must be considered when attempting to measure self-esteem. As has been previously discussed in this literature review, some of the issues relate to the construct itself. For example, self-esteem is currently considered to be multifaceted (Shavelson et al., 1976). The various facets or components of self-esteem may be measured separately; they combine to form a person's overall or global self-esteem. Self-concept is considered to be developmental, related almost exclusively to the

family and home, until children reach second grade. Until the age of eight, children's attitudes toward themselves are more a function of the immediate situation than generalized to their whole selves (Martinek & Zaichkowsky, 1975). At about the fourth grade, children's self-esteem begins to stabilize. Byrne (1984) found that both general and academic self-esteem are stable across ages and time, but less so than academic achievement.

Correlations between measures of self-esteem and measures of academic achievement or performance were found to be consistently positive, but small, in Hansford and Hattie's 1982 meta-analysis. Byrne's 1984 review found the strongest relationships between measures of academic self-concept and academic achievement, in particular self-concept related to a specific academic area such as mathematics or English. Several other researchers (Gecas, 1982; Marsh & Shavelson, 1983; Rosenberg, 1979) found that prediction from self-esteem measures was most accurate when the self-esteem measures were specific to the domain of interest. The second strongest relationship found in Byrne's (1982) review was between academic self-concept and general self-concept. The weakest relationship found by Byrne was between general self-concept and academic achievement, although he found that changes in student self-concept of ability were associated with changes in academic achievement. Motivation to learn has also been related to self-concept (Naccarato, 1988). However, causal studies relating self-esteem to academic achievement have yielded inconclusive results (Skaalvik and Hagtvet, 1990).

Self-Report Instruments

There are also issues related to how well self-esteem can be assessed. The most commonly used type of instrument to measure self-esteem is a self-report instrument, on which subjects are asked to indicate their level of agreement with a series of questions related to their feelings about themselves. The rationale for using a self-report instrument lies in the assumption that a person's feelings about him- or herself are only known by the individual (Martinek & Zaichkowsky, 1975). However, self-report instruments have limitations. For example, in a public situation, some students may find it difficult to respond to items of a personal nature. When students respond to Likert-type scales, they may be prone to produce socially acceptable responses (Naccarato, 1988) or respond to all the items in the same way, a phenomenon known as response set. Young children often find it difficult to make distinctions among the items on Likert-type scales (Martinek & Zaichkowsky, 1975) and may lose focus due to short attention spans. If a student experiences a stressful event immediately prior to testing, scores may be affected. Students may misinterpret the meaning of an item on the test, thus giving a false response. Since the tests require verbal and/or reading ability, students with limited English ability or reading or language disabilities are at a disadvantage. Currently tests are available only in English; if translations are attempted, cultural integrity as well as language integrity must be maintained (Pedersen, 1990).

Reliability and Validity

Test reliability, concerning not only the internal consistency of

a measure, but stability of results over time, tends to be lower for self-esteem measures than for student achievement or ability tests. Test validity depends on how the test is to be used. There is wide variety in how broadly or narrowly different authors intend their test results to be interpreted. Many authors caution against individual student interpretation. In many cases, individual items can be interpreted based on face validity, but have no predictive validity. Some tests include questions about issues which the school cannot affect or control, but the information still may be useful. A careful analysis of the technical manual should precede use before any test is given to make sure it meets validity and reliability constraints.

Interpretation and generalization of results

Interpretation and generalization of results are also important issues in the measure of self-esteem. Hansford and Hattie's 1982 meta-analysis revealed almost no difference between results when tests used the term "self-concept" or "self-esteem". However, over twenty other terms were identified, some of which caused considerable differences in results. Hansford and Hattie (1982) also found no difference in correlations between self-ratings and performance by gender, middle to high socioeconomic status, or type of test used. However, differences were seen by grade level, low socioeconomic status, ethnicity, and ability. Pederson (1990) cautioned against assuming common interpretations by culture.

Based on the interest generated in self-esteem by the California Task Force, Lois Hodic was contracted to conduct an analysis of instruments utilized to measure self-esteem, and the related

literature, in 1991. After an extensive review of published self-esteem measures, Hodig included forty instruments which met validity and reliability standards to be included in the Self Esteem Instruments Directory. Hodig indicated that

the instruments in the directory can be used to assess the degree of student academic self-concept prior to embarking upon programs whose focus is to foster student self-esteem or to assess student outcomes of school programs designed to enhance student academic self-esteem and motivation. (p. 2)

Chiu (1988), in his analysis of various measurement tools used to assess self-esteem in school-aged children, noted that self-report checklists were the most frequently used instruments. Because self-report checklists ask subjects to indicate their level of agreement with a series of questions related to their feelings about themselves, they are limited by the fact that some participants may be unwilling or unable to reveal certain aspects of their self-concept, resulting in false self-reports. Chiu noted that "this limitation may be overcome by use of direct behavior observations, teacher ratings, and so forth" (p. 298). Chiu concurred with Crandall (1973) that "although, theoretically, self-esteem is directly tapped only by asking people how much they like themselves, using additional criteria such as teacher ratings may provide a more accurate picture of their self-esteem" (p. 298).

Behavioral-Observational Rating Scales

As an additional measure to support the results obtained from self-report measures of self-esteem, most researchers have recommended the use of a behavioral-observational rating system. Behavioral-observational

ratings are performed by someone who knows a subject well, usually a parent or teacher. The observer is asked to respond to a series of questions or statements, indicating the degree to which the indicators represent the subject being rated.

The research done by Epstein (1979, 1983) and Small, Zeldin, and Savin-Williams (1983) provided evidence that when measures are combined across occasions in natural settings, both self-report measures and behavioral-observation measures show consistency over time. Although Keller's 1980 review highlighted pitfalls of behavioral-observational systems, explaining that many are poorly documented and difficult to use, Bolstad and Johnson (1977) and Jones et al., (1975) and Green, Forehand, Beck, and Vosk (1980) presented evidence that behavior observations differentiate children rated by teachers as adjusted and maladjusted and relate to achievement. McKim and Cowen (1987), in reviewing the available research on behavioral reports, concluded that "although naturalistic observation of child behavior is less than fully standardized, the approach is sufficiently important and face valid to be a desirable component of child assessment" (p. 374).

Self-Esteem Measurement Instruments Used in This Study

Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI)

The technical manual to accompany the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory was last revised in 1981. The manual presented and explained the background and development of the SEI; presented technical data on the reliability, validity, and normative data to support the Coopersmith; and summarized representative classroom, clinical, and research studies that

had utilized the Coopersmith over the last two decades. Coopersmith first developed the SEI in conjunction with an extensive 1967 study of self-esteem in children. "The major basis for the study was the widely held belief that self-esteem is significantly associated with personal satisfaction and effective functioning" (Coopersmith, 1981, p. 2). In an attempt to test the belief empirically, "the need for a reliable, valid measure of self-esteem was thus established and led to the development of the SEI" (p. 2).

Although the norm groups used in developing the Coopersmith were quite large, numbering in the thousands and including over 10,000 total participants, Coopersmith indicated that the norms are most useful for comparison purposes. Coopersmith recommended that local norms be established.

In Hansford and Hattie's 1982 meta-analysis of 228 studies, the Coopersmith was one of only three measurement instruments for self-esteem (along with the Piers-Harris and the Brookover) used in more than fifteen studies. The correlation of the relationship between self-esteem and achievement was .22 for the Coopersmith, near the overall average of .21 (p. 134), showing a low, positive correlation between self-esteem and academic achievement.

As was mentioned previously, Hansford and Hattie found no significant differences in the correlation between self-ratings and performance measures

between males and females, the terms of self-concept and self-esteem, middle and high socioeconomic status, or verbal, mathematics, and composite (e.g., IQ) measures. There were differences between grades, low and high socioeconomic status, ethnic groups (Anglos and [African Americans] and [Hispanics], low

and higher ability groups, self-concept of ability and more general self-terms, grade-point average and verbal or mathematics performance, and the source of achievement tests, name of self or performance test, generalizability of the sample, and where the articles were published. (1982, p. 139)

Chiu, in 1988, reviewed the five most widely used self-esteem self-report instruments, the Coopersmith SEI, the Culture-Free Self-Esteem Inventories for Children and Adults, the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. Chiu indicated that the Coopersmith's reliability data was impressive and based on numerous studies; also, evidence of validity was adequate. However, Chiu indicated that the manual provided insufficient reliability data for the short form (which was not used in this study). In a study of 7,600 school children, Kokenes (1974, 1978) confirmed the construct validity of the subscales. However, Marsh and Smith (1982) found no support for any of the Coopersmith subscales. Fullerton (1972) reported a validity coefficient of .44 between the Coopersmith and behavioral-observational ratings of self-esteem. Byrne reported average correlations of .31 between the Coopersmith and measures of academic achievement. Crandall (1973) found a correlation of .60 between the Coopersmith Adult Form, used with students sixteen and over, and the Rosenberg scale for college students (Chiu, 1988, p. 298).

Chiu commented that

The [Coopersmith] SEIs seem to be well researched, well documented, and widely used. They are brief and easily scored. They are reliable and stable, and there is an adequate amount of information about their validity. The scores may be used by

counselors, researchers, or teachers to provide an initial baseline measure of self-esteem before they initiate a program to enhance children's self-esteem (Adair, 1984). It is generally recommended, however, for use in research rather than in clinical settings (Peterson & Austin, 1985; Sewell, 1985). (p. 298)

Hodig's 1991 analysis of the Coopersmith paralleled Chiu's. In addition to Chiu's comments, Hodig noted that the Lie Scale, consisting of eight items, has the potential to detect students answering with response set or socially-desirable answers. Hodig recommended the Coopersmith based on the extensive technical information available in the manual, internal consistency correlations from .87 to .92, and factor loadings ranging from .24 to .61. She indicated that the administration manual listed the instrument as appropriate for individual assessment and screening, instructional planning, program evaluation, and research studies (p. 10). However, Hodig cautioned that none of the instruments she reviewed was appropriate for interpretation on an individual student level. In general, the measures were found to be more appropriate to identify strengths and weaknesses in students' attitudes toward themselves and to improve student achievement through improvement of their self-esteem (p. 6).

BASE (Behavioral Academic Self-Esteem)

The Behavioral Academic Self-Esteem (BASE) is a behavioral-observational checklist which was designed to be used in conjunction with a self-report instrument to measure self-esteem. A teacher, parent, or another observer who knows the subject completes the BASE by indicating on a Likert scale how often the subject displays behaviors listed in the items. Coopersmith and Gilberts (1982) stated in the technical manual that

the items were selected based on Coopersmith's theory and research which "demonstrated that children with high self-esteem are active, exploratory, and persistent" (p. I-1). Because these students had generally experienced a great deal of care and affection in their early lives, as well as clear and consistent rules and discipline at home, they "displayed traits of self-confidence and social attractiveness, usually succeeded in their efforts yet coped well with failure, and demonstrated verbal behavior appropriate to the social setting" (p. I-1), according to Coopersmith and Gilberts.

The authors explained that the "BASE was developed to infer self-esteem from observations of behavior; to validly and reliably measure self-esteem at early ages; to establish measures situationally specific to the classroom; and to establish construct and predictive validity related to common measures of school success" (p. I-1).

Summary of the Literature Review

As the California Task Force on Self-Esteem has indicated, one can find a correlation in the literature between low self-esteem and almost every conceivable social ill in the United States. Low self-esteem has been considered to be a factor which contributes to family dysfunction; academic underachievement, failure, and dropout; drug and alcohol abuse; crime and violence; poverty and welfare; and even discriminatory practices in the workplace (Toward a state of esteem, pp. 2-4). When confronted with a Newsweek article criticizing the self-esteem movement, which was subtitled, "the latest national elixir--self-esteem--is supposed to cure everything from bad grades to bad management" (Adler, 1992, p. 46), Bob Reasoner, then president of the National Council on Self-Esteem, responded emphatically:

I know of no one today who believes that we can build self-esteem solely by external means, though the proliferation of awards, stickers, happy faces, empty slogans, flattery and gold stars. Unless efforts are made to build personal values and base self-esteem on real effort and accomplishment, parents and teachers are apt to do more harm than good, for self-esteem has to be based on much more than this. (Reasoner, 1992, p. 2)

It appears that the California Task Force drew from decades of research and debate on the nature, impact, and facets of self-esteem to develop a definition and conceptual structure of self-esteem which encompasses the multifaceted nature of the Compensatory Models of Self-Esteem, the self-evaluative nature of self-esteem explained by Social Comparison and Social Identity Theories, and the emphasis on values and efficacy seen as essential to healthy self-esteem by Branden and others.

The primary purpose of education is to produce young adults who possess the academic skills and personal qualities which will make them valuable, contributing members of society. Self-esteem has been found in most current research studies to have a moderate positive correlation with academic achievement. However, correlations have been higher when aspects of self-esteem specific to the area of interest, rather than overall self-esteem, have been utilized. Various relationships, especially with parents, peers, and significant others, have been found to affect self-esteem in school-aged children. Social comparison and social identity theories have been utilized to explain how people compare themselves to a reference group to derive the self-evaluative aspects of self-esteem.

In efforts to meet the needs of all school children, school districts have attempted to identify students who may be considered to be at higher

than normal risk of school underachievement, failure, and dropout. A number of characteristics, including behavior and academic problems, have been identified as indicative of potential at-risk students. Children living in poverty, females, African American students, and Hispanic students have been identified in various research studies as having higher than average risk of school underachievement, failure, and dropout. Some researchers have hypothesized that schools are not meeting the academic or self-esteem needs of at-risk students and that alternative strategies and curricula should be implemented to improve the success rate of such students. If low self-esteem is a contributing factor to the underachievement and failure of targeted groups of students, and if efforts to increase the self-esteem of targeted students would promote personal and academic success, the district would be wise to implement strategies and curricula designed to enhance self-esteem. If, on the other hand, healthy self-esteem is a by-product of successful activity, academic or otherwise, the school district would better spend its resources implementing strategies and curricula designed to improve the meaningfulness of, as well as success in, students' academic pursuits.

In a large, multicultural school district, it is expensive and time consuming to develop, train staff to deliver, and implement any curricular changes. Before decisions are made, data must be gathered which is as reliable and valid as possible. Self-esteem has been measured in many ways by various researchers, and some of the instruments developed have been shown to have higher reliability and validity than others. Self-report instruments are most commonly used to measure self-esteem, based on the theory that a person knows his or her own perceptions of him- or herself better than anyone else could. Because a self-report instrument may not be

accurate when a student cannot or will not fill it out honestly and objectively, the use of a behavioral-observational rating scale has been recommended as an additional corroborating measure.

Of all instruments that appear in the literature, the Coopersmith SEI was selected for this study because it has been one of the most widely used and is highly respected by researchers in the field. Features of the technical data included very large norm groups and adequate reliability and validity. The BASE behavioral-observational rating scale, also developed by Coopersmith and Gilberts, was used as an additional cross-check to individual student results obtained on the Coopersmith SEI.

It is not clear from the literature reviewed whether self-esteem causes academic achievement, academic achievement causes self-esteem, if they influence each other in a reciprocal manner, or if there are other covariants which have not been identified. The present study is intended to inform district officials in response to the five research questions listed in Chapter I, prior to making decisions regarding the implementation of self-esteem curriculum and strategies. Changes in student self-esteem as they grow older and progress through the school system; the effects of gender, academic achievement, race or ethnicity; and previous school-based interventions; and the validity of Coopersmith vs. BASE results are of particular interest.

CHAPTER III RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

In this chapter, the research design and research methodology employed in the study are explained. Definitions of the dependent and independent variables are presented. Null and alternate hypotheses are stated. A description of the subject population and selection method is included. The survey methodology and instrument selection are discussed. The statistical treatment of the data is outlined. This chapter also includes background assumptions of the study and limitations identified in the research project.

The Research Design

This is a descriptive study in which the researcher has attempted to discern changes in the level of self-esteem of students in a large, multicultural, urban, public school district as the students move through the school system (grades 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12). This was done by surveying a representative sample of students in the aforementioned grades in the school district, using the Coopersmith Inventory, a self-report survey method. The study also compared students' self-esteem by gender, ethnicity, academic achievement, and current exposure to school-based self-esteem intervention across age. Students' self-report results were compared to teacher ratings on the Behavioral Academic Self-Esteem

Rating Scale, as a cross-check for validity of student self-reports.

Qualitative data had been collected in previous years on very small samples of students, especially in selected populations. This research filled a void by collecting and analyzing quantitative data on much larger student samples across the district. A contribution of the current study may be the comparison of results between the qualitative studies previously undertaken and this quantitative study.

Subject Population

The research population for the study consisted of public school students in a large, multicultural, southwestern city. Students at grades 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12 participated in the study. Students younger than 4th grade were not included because of the problems with reliability of self-report surveys when used on students younger than 3rd grade. Students were surveyed at two year intervals to determine if students exhibited changes in self-esteem, as measured by the Coopersmith Inventory, over time.

Schools were selected by the school district's Health Services Department to attain a representative sample of the district's subject population. Additionally, schools were selected to obtain a cross-section representing the socio-economic status of students in the district as a whole, although individual student socio-economic information was considered confidential and was not available to the researcher. Two high schools, two junior high schools, and three elementary schools were selected as survey sites. Within schools, surveys were administered to intact classes.

Demographic data collected on each student was taken from individual school and district records. Data collected on each individual student included sex, age and grade, ethnicity code, grade point average,

and registration date at the particular school. Student participation in school-based self-esteem intervention efforts was obtained at the elementary level from the classroom teacher or the district counselor, and at the secondary level by reviewing student course records.

Research Design - Independent and Dependent Variables

Dependent Variables

Self-esteem has been shown to be multifaceted, and most researchers have included social, emotional, physical, and academic components of self-esteem (Shavelson et al, 1976). The labels used by researchers have varied, but in general, these four component areas of self-esteem have been addressed. Each of the component areas may be measured separately or combined to yield an overall assessment of a person's self-esteem.

Therefore, five dependent variables were used for this study. The first four variables measured a student's evaluative attitudes toward himself or herself in social, academic, family, and personal areas of experience, as Coopersmith described the components of self-esteem. Coopersmith labeled these components as General Self, Social Self-Peers, Home-Parents, and School-Academic (Coopersmith SEI, pp. 1, 8). These four variables were then summed to yield a Total Self-Esteem measurement, the fifth dependent variable. The instrument allowed for the variables to be compared in total, or separately to assess "variances in perceptions of self-esteem in different areas of experience" (Coopersmith SEI, p. 2). Definitions of the five dependent variables were taken from Stanley Coopersmith's book The Antecedents of Self-Esteem and are as follows:

1. General Self-Esteem: how satisfied a child is with himself/herself and

his/her estimation of his/her capabilities.

2. **Social Self-Peer Related Self-Esteem:** how a child perceives himself/herself in relationship to his/her friends and peers.

3. **Home/Parents Related Self-Esteem:** how a child perceives himself/herself in relationship with his/her parents.

4. **School/Academics Related Self-Esteem:** how satisfied a child feels with his/her effort and quality of work at school.

5. **Total Self-Esteem:** a personal judgment of overall worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes an individual holds toward himself or herself.

Total Self-Esteem is calculated by summing the scores on the previous four variables.

Independent Variables

Independent variables were selected because district officials expressed interest in the changes in student self-esteem over time, especially among target population groups who have been identified as at risk for failure in school. In particular, African-American males and Hispanic females had been identified by the district as being at higher than average risk of dropping out of school. Also, students with high transiency had been identified as at risk of low school performance. Concern was expressed that girls, in general, may have lower self-esteem than and may be out-performed academically by boys, irrespective of ethnicity or socio-economic status.

Therefore, the following independent variables were selected for this study: sex, grade level in school, old/new student to a particular school, ethnicity, and academic achievement as defined by grade point average. The independent variables were defined as follows:

1. **Sex:** Male or female.
2. **Grade level in school:** Students were surveyed in the fourth, sixth, eighth, tenth, and twelfth grades in school. Grade levels of individual students were verified by district records. Students below grade four were not included in this study because self-report measures are generally deemed to be inaccurate for youngsters below this grade level. Below the age of ten, children's self-reports tend to be based upon their feelings in the immediate situation, rendering them invalid and unreliable (Coopersmith, 1981; Hodig, 1991). Also, two-year grade-level intervals were used so that we could see if there were differences in students' perceived self-esteem levels over time.
3. **Old/new student:** There is moderate evidence that children's self-esteem is disrupted upon the transition to junior high school, but that soon after the transition, it reflects increasing stability (Eccles, et al., 1989). If this is true, it may also be true that any change in school setting would cause a similar effect.

To allow adequate transition time for students who may have been affected by such a disruption, students who had been enrolled at a particular school for three months or less were categorized as "new" students. Students who had been enrolled at a particular school for more than three months were categorized as "old" students. Enrollment date was obtained from school registration records.

4. **Ethnicity:** In this large, urban, multicultural school district, students were identified by the following ethnic codes: Hispanic, White, African-American, Asian, American Indian or Alaska Native, Pacific Islander, Portuguese, Filipino, and Indochinese. When parents enrolled students into a particular school, parents identified their children according

to one of these ethnic codes.

5. **Academic Achievement:** Grade point average was used as the indicator of academic achievement. However, grade point average was only calculated and available in this district for students in grades eight through twelve. Therefore, grade point average was used as an independent variable in this study for students in grades eight, ten and twelve. Grade point average was calculated on a four-point scale, and was categorized as follows: A grade point average of 3.0 to 4.0 was categorized as high, 2.0 but less than 3.0 was categorized as average, 1.0 but less than 2.0 was categorized as low, and below 1.0 was categorized as very low. Students' grade point average from the previous quarter, rather than cumulative grade point average, was used for this study. Using one quarter's grade point average prevented regression toward the mean which might have occurred when comparing seniors' cumulative grade point averages, which would have included up to nineteen quarters for grades eight to twelve, to eighth graders' cumulative grade point averages, which would have included only three quarters at the time of the study.

Research Questions

The following research questions and hypotheses were introduced in Chapter 1. A confidence level of $\alpha = .05$ was used in all tests of statistical significance:

Research Question a) Which of the components of self-esteem (general self, social self-peers, home-parents, school-academic, and total) measured by the Coopersmith Inventory appear to change with the grade level of students?

Research Question b) Of the components of self-esteem measured

by the inventory, are there gender, ethnic, and/or academic achievement differences in change across age?

Research Question c) Are there age, gender, academic achievement and/or ethnic differences in the pattern of the four components which may indicate relatively high and low areas among the components of self-esteem?

Research Question d) Are there differences among the components of self-esteem between students who have participated in self-esteem interventions at their schools and students who have not participated in self-esteem interventions?

Research Question e) Do students perceive their self-esteem differently than teachers perceive students' self-esteem?

Research Instruments

Self-Report Measure

The Coopersmith Inventory was determined to be the most appropriate tool to use for students' self-report of self-esteem for the study. This decision was based on the reliability and validity data available on the Coopersmith, the large number of students in the norm group, the widespread use of the Coopersmith in hundreds of other studies, and its previous use with various racial and ethnic groups. Other instruments were rejected for use in this study in favor of the Coopersmith because they lacked validity and/or reliability in comparison to the Coopersmith, they did not have sufficient breadth to cover the ages of students who were studied, or they lacked sufficient data base to meet the district Research Committee's strict norming criteria.

Two forms of the Coopersmith Inventory were used for this study. The School Form, consisting of 58 items and designed for students aged 8 - 15, was used with students in grades 4, 6 and 8. The Adult Form, consisting of 25 items and designed for those over age 15, was used with students in grades 10 and 12. On each of the forms, students were asked to respond to a series of statements by selecting the descriptor "like me" or "unlike me." Both the School Form and the Adult Form include the same four subscales: general self-esteem, social self/peer related self-esteem, school/academics-related self esteem, and home/parents-related self-esteem. The four subscales were then totaled to yield an overall or total self-esteem score. Technical data regarding the Coopersmith Inventory is included in the Technical Manual, and is available upon request.

Behavioral-Observational Measure

Because it has been recommended by most experts in the area of self-esteem measurement that a behavioral-observational rating be administered to confirm or disconfirm the self-reports (Coopersmith, 1981; Chiu, 1988; Baker & Gallant, 1984/85), the researcher recruited volunteer teachers to supply a behavioral-observational rating on each of the students in one class at each grade level. Teachers were paid stipend of \$10 for their effort to complete the behavioral observational ratings on the students in one class.

The BASE was selected to use for this study because, of the behavioral observational scales available, it had the greatest amount of normative data. Also, the BASE was designed for use by teachers and to focus specifically on self-esteem in the school setting. The BASE was designed by Coopersmith and Gilberts in 1982 and consists of 16 statements about a student to which a teacher responds on a five point Likert scale.

Specifically designed for use by teachers, the BASE requires that teachers have had at least five to six weeks' experience with the child on a daily basis to yield valid results. The longer the classroom exposure with the child, the more valid the ratings should be, according to Coopersmith and Gilberts. There are thorough descriptions to explain each item and how to score it included in the Administration manual. The technical manual indicates that each student's BASE form takes approximately three minutes for the teacher to complete. The authors have recommended use of the BASE in conjunction with the Coopersmith:

To measure self-esteem most thoroughly, the Coopersmith Inventory has been recommended to be used with the BASE. Coopersmith argued effectively that the best estimate of self-esteem may be ascertained by using both self-report and observational methods. Because the Coopersmith and the BASE were developed from a common theoretical reference, their combined use might be more effective in providing reliable, consistent, and thorough information about a child's self-esteem, according to Coopersmith and Gilberts (1982).

For the purposes of this study, the researcher did not attempt to ascertain individual levels of self-esteem for particular students. Rather, the BASE observational rating scale was used as a reliability check against student self-reports on the Coopersmith. Therefore, individual student BASE results as reported by the teacher were compared to student self-reports on the Coopersmith Inventory.

Human Subjects Protection

A proposal for this research was submitted to and approved by the University of San Diego Committee on Protection of Human Subjects. As

part of the human subjects protection, both students and their parents were given the opportunity for informed consent to participate in the study. Because the research was sanctioned by the Director of Health Services for the school district, additional district approval to conduct the research was not necessary.

Data Collection

The Coopersmith Inventory was administered to a representative sample of students in a large, multicultural, urban, public school district during May/June, 1991. Four classes of students (intended to total approximately 120 students per grade) in each of the fourth, sixth, eighth, tenth, and twelfth grades were selected by the director of the Health Services Department of the school district to participate in the inventory. Classes were selected in two high schools, two junior high schools, and three elementary schools. School sites were selected, based upon district demographic data, to provide a representative sample of the total school district population.

The Director of Health Services contacted principals by telephone to obtain permission to conduct the study at their sites. Once principal permission was obtained, the researcher contacted individual teachers by telephone or in person to explain the study and obtain permission to do the study in their classrooms. Principals and teachers had the right to refuse to participate, as did parents or students.

The researcher mailed letters to homes of students in participating classes to obtain informed parent consent before administration of inventories. Parent consent letters (see Appendix A) were written in both English and Spanish. In addition, the researcher obtained informed

consent (see Appendix B) from any students who were eighteen years of age or older, prior to their participation in the study. It was explained to all persons contacted regarding the study that only aggregate and not individual data would be used for the study, and that there would be no penalty for principal, teacher, or student non-participation. Also, participants were informed that they had the right to withdraw from the study at any time.

The Coopersmith Inventory--School Form, designed for students aged 8-15 and consisting of 58 items, was administered to students in grades 4, 6, and 8. This form took approximately 30-40 minutes to explain and to administer to each class. In fourth grade classes, the researcher read each of the items aloud, having the students follow along and answer the individual items privately. In sixth grade classes, the researcher showed the form to the teacher and asked the teacher whether the class would feel more successful and comfortable reading the inventory to themselves or having the researcher read aloud while they followed along. In two of the classes, the teacher requested that the researcher read the form and have the students follow along; in the other classes, the teacher requested that students be allowed to work independently. The researcher honored the teachers' requests, as either method is acceptable per the Coopersmith Administration Manual. In all classes, the researcher allowed students to raise their hand if they did not understand any words in an item, and the researcher privately clarified items on an individual basis as requested, also in accordance with the Coopersmith Administration Manual. For six students, teachers explained that students would feel more comfortable having the inventory translated into Spanish. For each of these students, a paraprofessional translator was provided by the school.

The Coopersmith Inventory--Adult Form, designed for ages 16 and above and consisting of 25 items, was administered to students in grades 10 and 12. This form took approximately 20-30 minutes to explain and administer in each class. Students worked independently, and as in the elementary and junior high classrooms, the researcher privately clarified any items as requested by students. No high school students or teachers requested translators for any of the students.

One volunteer teacher at each of the grade levels identified above completed a Behavioral Academic Self-Esteem Rating Scale for each of the students in one class. The BASE was completed by the teachers after school and returned to the researcher the day following administration of the inventories to the class.

The researcher hand-scored all Coopersmith Inventories and Behavioral Academic Self-Esteem Rating Scales. Subjects were assured that only the researcher would see their inventories and that the researcher would not share individual results with anyone. For purposes of anonymity as well as program development, only aggregate information was used for this study.

Data Analysis

The data was analyzed using Statview II, a microcomputer software package. Tests of significance included a series of ANOVAS between the levels of the various independent variables; namely grade level, age, ethnicity, gender, current exposure to school-based self-esteem intervention, and grade point average with respect to the four components of self-esteem identified in the Coopersmith Inventory. Only ethnic categories with sufficient numbers were included in comparisons.

Coopersmith self-report findings were compared to the teachers' Behavioral Academic Self-Esteem Rating Scale on individual students as an added reliability measure. Following the finding of a significant difference on the ANOVA, post hoc comparisons were examined using the Fisher procedure to determine specific significant differences between levels or factors of the independent variable. If appropriate, trend analysis may be done at a later time to determine changes in self-esteem as students of various categories proceed through the educational system.

Methodological Assumptions of the Study

An important background assumption of the study is the belief that self-esteem can be measured. Just as measures of IQ or academic achievement have been criticized, so have measures of self-esteem. The Coopersmith was chosen for this study because of its widespread acceptance and the wealth of supporting reliability and validity data. Another critical background assumption is that students will respond to the Coopersmith honestly and that teachers will respond to the BASE objectively.

Limitations of the Methodology

Limitations to the study included some school district control over the type of data which could be collected, due to family privacy concerns. For example, the researcher was not allowed to collect data related to the socio-economic status of students, which may have had a bearing upon the results. Also, the data collection was done in May, creating the possibility that the measures may have been affected by the time of the year, related absenteeism, etc. Especially in the 12th grade classes, absenteeism was excessive and caused lower numbers of students to actually participate in

the study, although there were roughly equal numbers of students enrolled in the classes surveyed at each grade level.

Because grade point averages were not kept on fourth and sixth grade students, and because deriving such averages would have entailed input from only one teacher, as opposed to five or six teachers at higher grades, comparisons could not be made utilizing the variable of academic achievement at grades four and six. The researcher decided to use grade point averages to compare academic achievement of students at grades eight, ten and twelve, where five to six teachers evaluated each student.

Also, the researcher acknowledges that there are certain limitations inherent in any written self-report type of survey. The instrument is limited in and of itself by forcing students to make a choice from given responses. Also, cultural background may cause some students to find it difficult to respond to questions regarding feelings. Cultural background may cause some students to find it difficult to respond to any questions in a negative manner. English fluency also may limit a student's ability to respond. These limitations must be taken into account when considering the results of the study.

Summary

In this study, the researcher attempted to describe changes in level of self-esteem of students in a large, multicultural, urban school district as the students move through the school system and become older. The study also compared students' self-esteem by gender, ethnicity, academic achievement, and current exposure to school-based self-esteem interventions across age. Students' self-esteem was measured utilizing the Coopersmith Inventory, and self-report results were compared to teacher ratings on the Behavioral

Academic Self-Esteem Rating Scale as a cross-check for validity of student self-reports, as was discussed in the Literature Review section of the dissertation. This information may be used by this and other districts who wish to target groups who are at particular risk of low self-esteem at various ages, so that efforts to effect more positive self-esteem may be implemented at various ages, before problems become crises.

CHAPTER IV PRESENTATION, DISCUSSION, AND INTERPRETATION OF THE FINDINGS

Introduction

Data analyses and discussions of the findings of the research are presented in three sections in Chapter IV. The first section of the chapter explains the demographics of the sample and subject population. Categorical variables used in the analyses and description are detailed, as well as methods used to disaggregate the data for analysis. The second section presents the data, then provides discussion and interpretation of the statistical analyses of the data for each of the major hypotheses delineated in Chapter III. The third section comprises a summary of qualitative data that was collected as the researcher interacted with students and teachers. The chapter concludes with a summary of the findings of the study.

Statistical analyses included one- and two-way ANOVAs to test each of the primary hypotheses discussed in Chapter III, as well as Fisher post hoc analyses in cases where significant differences were found. As noted in Chapter III, an $\alpha = .05$ was used in all tests of statistical significance.

Demographics of the Subject Population

Sample Procedures

At the time of the study, this large urban school district served

approximately 120,000 students in grades kindergarten through twelve. As was mentioned in Chapter III, schools used for the study were selected by officials of the district's Health Services Department in an attempt to achieve a representative sample of the district's subject population. Surveys were administered to five intact classes at each of the grade levels 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12. Two high schools, two junior high schools, and three elementary schools were selected as survey sites.

Heterogeneous elementary classes were selected to participate in the study. Heterogeneous classes include students of varying ability levels, whereby students are not "tracked" into categorical classes such as gifted, special education, math ability levels, etc. In this district, some schools upheld a policy of heterogeneous grouping of students, some schools allowed some tracking of students, and other schools placed students into heavily tracked classes based upon ability levels in various subjects. Heterogeneous classes were desired for the study to achieve a more representative sample than would have been achieved by surveying tracked classes.

Required social studies classes, in which students were grouped heterogeneously, were selected as survey sites at the junior high and high school level. Again, classes were selected in this way to prevent bias which might occur due to homogeneous class groupings by categories such as gifted and talented versus regular or basic classes.

Some students enrolled in the selected classes were not represented in the study for the following reasons: Parents and students were allowed to choose not to participate in the survey at any time. In addition, students may have been absent from class on the date surveys were completed. Thirdly, there were so few students categorized as New Students that this information

was rendered statistically unusable. Students categorized as New Students were deleted from the study, and the variable Old/New Student was dropped from the study. For each of the grade levels surveyed, Table 1 shows the total enrollment, number of students surveyed, number of students absent, number of new students deleted from the data analysis, and number of student or parent refusals for each grade level.

Note that absences were unusually high in the tenth grade classes. This was due to a special assembly of which the teachers received no advance notice and in which many students were involved. Student absences at other grade levels were due to normal circumstances.

Table 1

Participants and Non-Participants by Grade Level

Grade	Enrolled	Surveyed	Absent	New	Refused
4	153	145	2	3	3
6	165	151	10	0	4
8	155	139	10	6	0
10	161	129	24	3	5
12	109	89	16	1	3
Total	743	653	62	13	15

Comparison of Sample to Population by Ethnicity

Student ethnic categories were obtained from district registration records. In this district, parents were directed to identify their children according to one of nine ethnic categories when they enrolled their children

in school. According to student registration records, there were only four American Indians or Alaska Natives, four Pacific Islanders, and three Portuguese students included in the sample. Therefore, for purposes of the study, these categories were collapsed into a category called Other. Because the numbers of students in each grade level for each group were so small, data for students classified as Other were not analyzed.

There were ten students identified as Asian and 92 students identified as Indochinese included in the sample. The district delineation between Asian and Indochinese was not clear; when the researcher asked district officials for clarification of the distinction between these two categories, the researcher was told that parents chose the appropriate category and that the district attempted to make no clear delineation. Therefore, for purposes of this study, Asian and Indochinese categories were collapsed into one category entitled Asian/Indochinese.

There were only nineteen Filipino students included in the sample, and there were 146 students identified as Hispanic. Marín and Marín (1991) explained that

the term “Hispanic” is a label of convenience utilized to refer to those individuals who reside in the United States and who were born or trace the background of their families to one of the Spanish-speaking Latin American nations or to Spain. (p. 1)

They further asserted that it is “cultural values--not demographic characteristics [that] help Hispanics self-identify as members of one same ethnic group” (p. 1).

Marín and Marín’s brief historical background included ‘the massive incorporation of Hispanic groups into the continental United States in 1989, when the United States took possession of Cuba, Puerto Rico, Hawaii,

Guam, and the Philippines as part of the Spanish-American war” (p. 7), concluding that although the majority of Hispanics in the United States today are of Mexican descent, these and other groups may consider themselves to be of Hispanic origin. Therefore, the categories of Hispanic and Filipino were collapsed for this research study into one category entitled Hispanic.

Table 2 shows the number of students in the sample who were identified by each of the district’s ethnic codes by grade level. Table 3 shows the number of students in the sample by grade level, using the collapsed ethnic categories.

Table 2

Frequency Distribution of Sample by Ethnic Codes

Ethnic Code	Four	Six	Eight	Ten	Twelve	Total
Hispanic	32	42	30	25	17	146
White	63	59	64	57	43	286
African American	18	18	18	20	14	88
Asian	2	5	3	0	0	10
American Indian or Alaskan Native	1	0	0	4	0	5
Pacific Islander	2	0	1	1	0	4
Portuguese	0	0	0	2	1	3
Filipino	3	4	6	4	2	19
Indochinese	24	23	17	16	12	92
Totals	145	151	139	129	89	653

Table 3

Frequency Distribution of Sample by Collapsed Ethnic Codes

Ethnicity	Four	Six	Eight	Ten	Twelve	Total
African American	18	18	18	20	14	88
Asian/Indochinese	26	28	20	16	12	102
Hispanic	35	46	36	29	19	165
White	63	59	64	57	43	286
Other	3	0	1	7	1	12
Total	145	151	139	129	89	653

For this study, data were analyzed for subjects categorized by ethnicity as African American, Asian/Indochinese, Hispanic, and White because the Other category contained too few students to be statistically usable.

A major concern of survey research is that the sample may not be representative of the subject population. Because random sampling techniques were not employed, the researcher compared the ethnic and gender mix of the sample to the total district population. Table 4 displays the percentages of students in the subject population and in the sample by ethnicity.

A calculation of the test statistic for proportions indicated that there was no statistically significant difference at $\alpha = .05$ between the proportions of African American, Hispanic, and White students in the sample and the population. The sample's percentage of Asian/Indochinese students was significantly higher than that of the population.

Table 4

Population Compared to Sample by Ethnicity

<u>Ethnicity</u>	<u>Population</u>	<u>Sample</u>
African American	15%	14%
Asian/Indochinese	11%	16%
Hispanic	27%	26%
White	45%	44%
Other	2%	0%

Comparison of Sample to Population by Gender

Although heterogeneous classes were selected to participate in the study, it is also possible that the gender mix of the sample differed significantly from that of the population. Therefore, Table 5 shows the frequency distribution for the gender variable for each grade level.

Table 5

Frequency Distribution of Sample by Gender

<u>Grade</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Male %</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Female %</u>
4	70	48%	75	52%
6	74	49%	77	51%
8	70	50%	69	50%
10	67	52%	62	48%
12	45	51%	44	49%
Total	326	50%	327	50%

As was done related to ethnicity, a calculation of the test statistic for proportions indicated that there was no statistically significant difference at $\alpha = .05$ between the sample and the population proportions when compared by gender. Although these tests do not provide conclusive evidence that the sample was truly representative of the subject population, they do suggest that the sample group was representative of a cross-section of the entire student population of the school district, with the exception of the ethnic category Asian/Indochinese, who appeared to be over represented in the sample.

Descriptive Statistical Summaries, Discussion, and Interpretation of the Statistics

The following section reviews, discusses, and interprets the statistical analyses of the results for the research questions identified in Chapter III.

Coopersmith Inventory: Comparison of Forms

As was mentioned earlier, the Coopersmith Inventory has two forms. The School Form is designed for use with students between the ages of eight and 15 and was used in this study for students in fourth through eighth grades. The Adult Form, used in grades ten and twelve, is designed for use with students and adults over the age of 15. The School and Adult Forms of the Coopersmith contain different total numbers of questions, as well as different numbers of questions relating to each component of self-esteem. Therefore, components are not equally weighted relative to total score, depending upon which form was used.

Table 6

Percentage of Items Related to Self-Esteem Components

Component	School Form	Adult Form
General	52%	48%
Social Self/Peers	16%	16%
Home/Parents	16%	24%
School/Academics	16%	12%

To compensate for unequal weighting of components that would be the result of using raw response scores, the researcher converted raw scores of respondents to a percentage of the total questions related to that component asked on that particular form. Table 6 shows the percentage of items on each form of the Coopersmith that pertain to each component of self-esteem.

As is seen in Table 6, School/Academics-related Self-Esteem is weighted more heavily on the School Form than on the Adult Form, and Home/Parents related Self-Esteem is weighted more heavily on the Adult Form than on the School Form. General Self-Esteem items comprise about half of each form, giving that component heavy weight toward the total or Overall Self-Esteem score.

Analysis of Data, Discussion and Interpretation

Following is a summary of the analysis of the data, followed by discussion and interpretation of the findings of the study, organized by research question. Appendix D displays a Summary Table of Findings, and Appendix F includes ANOVA results in which significant differences were

found.

Research Question 1: Which of the four components of self-esteem (general self, social self-peers, home-parents, and school-academic) measured by the Coopersmith Inventory appear to change with the age of students?

Null hypothesis: There will be no difference in mean subscale scores of the Coopersmith, when comparing students of different ages.

Alternate hypothesis: There will be a significant difference in mean subscale scores of the Coopersmith, when comparing students of different ages.

Analysis of Data

One-way ANOVAs yielded no significant differences in student responses by age, related to the components General Self-Esteem or Social Self/Peer Related Self-Esteem or in Overall Self-Esteem as indicated by the total score. However, as students became older and moved through the educational system, significant differences were found at $\alpha = .05$ for the components Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem and School/Academics-related Self-Esteem. Appendix E displays the results of one-way ANOVAs for each of the subscale scores and overall self-esteem scores, arranged according to grade level of the students. Appendix F contains ANOVA source tables and post hoc analyses for significant findings.

Specifically, mean Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem was highest at the fourth grade level, followed by a significant drop which lasted from sixth through tenth grade ($F = 2.503$). Mean Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem rose significantly at twelfth grade, but not to a level as high as that of fourth grade.

Mean School/Academics-related Self-Esteem decreased slightly from fourth to sixth grade, then dipped significantly at eighth grade ($F = 5.955$), and gradually rose at tenth grade. Mean scores at twelfth grade rose to a level as high as that at fourth grade.

Discussion and Interpretation

Supporting Coopersmith's (1967) assertion, students in the sample maintained relatively consistent self-esteem levels throughout their years as students. The significant drop in Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem seen in sixth through tenth graders may be directly related to the need for adolescents to become more outer directed at this age, testing parental limits and developing an increased reliance on peers for social contacts and frames of reference (Biehler & Snowman, 1990). The return at twelfth grade to pre-adolescent levels in Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem may signal that as students mature and become ready to embark on their own career or college plans, their relationships with parents improve.

The significantly decreased level of School/Academics-related Self-Esteem noted at eighth grade may be a function of the tendency of junior high school years to be a period of storm and stress, where students are trying out roles and testing limits. It also may be a function of the student adjustments necessary to find success after leaving the elementary environment, where typically one teacher has primary responsibility for nurturing and educating a class of children, to the junior high or high school environment, where students may see five or six teachers for one hour per day and may not develop close relationships with any of them. However, the quick return by tenth grade to previous mean levels of School/Academics-related Self-Esteem may show that students learn over time to

function and find a sense of self-worth in a more autonomous environment.

Research Question 2: Of the components of self-esteem measured by the Coopersmith Inventory, are there gender, ethnic, and/or academic achievement differences in change across age?

Null hypothesis: There will be no difference in mean subscale scores of the Coopersmith, when compared by age and gender, age and ethnicity, age and academic achievement, and interaction effect.

Alternate hypothesis: There will be a significant difference in mean subscale scores of the Coopersmith, when compared by age and gender, age and ethnicity, age and academic achievement, and interaction effect.

Analysis of Data

Two-way ANOVAs were calculated for each of the components of self-esteem, as well as Overall Self-Esteem, for the variables of gender across age, ethnicity across age, and academic achievement across age. In addition, one-way ANOVAs were calculated to ascertain differences based upon gender, ethnicity, and academic achievement at each individual grade level. Because of the limitations of district grade point calculations outlined in Chapter III, academic achievement across age was only calculated for subjects in grades eight, ten, and twelve. ANOVA source tables, post hoc analyses, and incidence tables for significant findings may be found in Appendix F.

Results of two-way ANOVAs yielded no significant differences at $\alpha = .05$ for the variables of gender across age for any of the components of self-esteem or for Overall Self-Esteem. However, there were significant differences between males and females at certain age levels. Appendix E

shows the results of two-way ANOVAs based on gender across age, ethnicity across age, and academic achievement across age.

At eighth grade, mean scores on the component of General Self-Esteem were significantly higher for boys than girls ($F = 4.622$). At the twelfth grade, mean scores on the component of Social Self/Peer-related Self-Esteem were significantly higher for girls than boys ($F = 4.275$). At the tenth grade, mean scores on the component of Home/Parents related Self-Esteem were significantly higher for boys than girls ($F = 4.817$). No significant mean differences between boys and girls were found at any individual grade level for the component School/Academics-related Self-Esteem or for Overall Self-Esteem.

Results of two-way ANOVAs yielded no significant differences at the $\alpha = .05$ level for the interaction between age and ethnicity. However, the following differences in mean scores for students of various ethnicities were significant:

1. Overall Self-Esteem: In tenth grade, white students obtained significantly higher mean scores in Overall Self-Esteem than Asian/Indochinese and Hispanic students, while African American students obtained significantly higher mean scores than Asian/Indochinese students ($F = 3.915$). In sixth grade, white students obtained significantly higher mean scores in Overall Self-Esteem than Hispanic students ($F = 2.392$). There were no other significant findings at any grade level regarding difference in mean Overall Self-Esteem scores based upon ethnicity.
2. General Self-Esteem: When students of all ages were compared by ethnicity on General Self-Esteem scores, white students obtained significantly higher mean scores than African American or Asian/Indochinese students ($F = 4.88$). However, no significant differences

were found among ethnicities at any particular grade level when grade levels were analyzed separately using one-way ANOVAs.

3. **Social Self/Peer-related Self-Esteem:** At fourth grade, African American students obtained significantly higher mean scores for Social Self/Peer-related Self-Esteem than all other ethnic categories ($F = 3.216$). At sixth grade, African American and White students obtained significantly higher mean scores than Asian/Indochinese students ($F = 2.518$). At tenth grade, African American and White students obtained significantly higher mean scores than Asian/Indochinese students and Hispanic students ($F = 3.003$). There were no significant differences in Social Self/Peer-related Self-Esteem at eighth or twelfth grades. When all students' mean scores were compared by ethnicity, African American and white students obtained significantly higher mean scores than Asian/Indochinese students and Hispanic students on Social Self/Peer-related Self-Esteem ($F = 5.582$).

4. **Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem:** At sixth grade, white students obtained significantly higher mean scores on Home/Parents related Self-Esteem than Hispanic students ($F = 3.119$). At eighth grade, white students obtained significantly higher mean scores on Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem than Asian/Indochinese students ($F = 1.125$). At tenth grade, African American and white students obtained significantly higher mean scores on Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem than Asian/Indochinese students ($F = 2.211$). There were no significant differences found at fourth or twelfth grades. When all students' scores were compared, white students obtained significantly higher mean scores on Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem than Asian/Indochinese students and Hispanic students, and African American students obtained significantly higher mean scores than Asian/Indochinese students ($F = 5.582$).

5. School/Academics-related Self-Esteem: At sixth grade, white students obtained significantly higher mean scores for School/Academics-related Self-Esteem than Hispanic students ($F = 1.763$). At tenth grade, white students obtained significantly higher mean scores for School/Academics-related Self-Esteem than Asian/Indochinese students ($F = 1.717$). No other significant differences were found at any particular grade level. However, when all students' scores were compared, white students obtained significantly higher mean scores for School/Academics-related Self-Esteem than Hispanic students ($F = 1.939$).

6. Twelfth Grade: No significant differences were found on Overall Self-Esteem or any component of self-esteem when twelfth grade students were compared by ethnicity. However, at twelfth grade, sample sizes were very small.

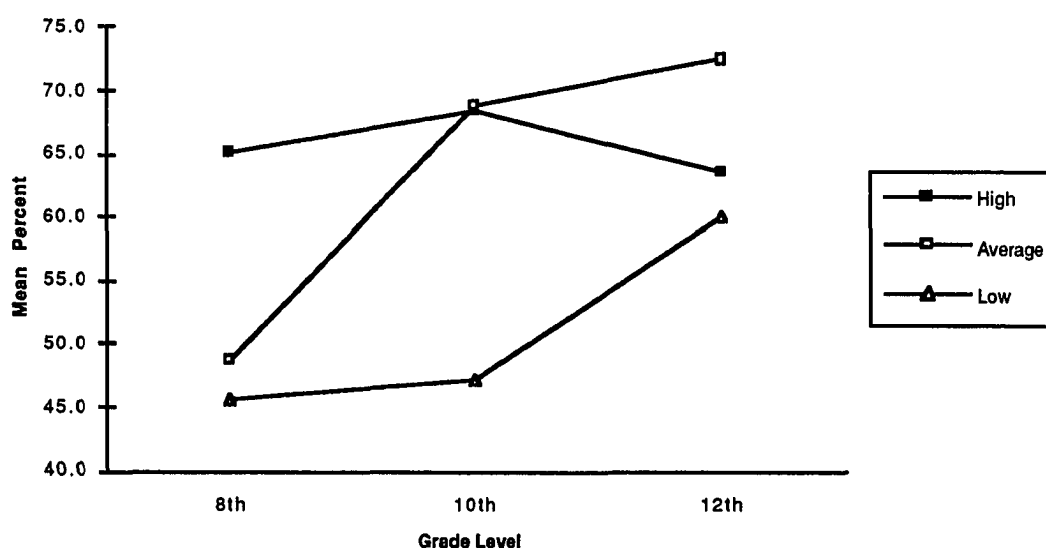
As was explained in Chapter III, academic achievement levels were determined based on subjects' grade point averages. Students were defined as having low academic achievement if their grade point averages were below 2.0, average academic achievement if their grade point averages were at least 2.0 but less than 3.0, and high academic achievement if their grade point averages were at least 3.0. Grade point averages were only calculated and available in this district for students in grades eight through twelve. Therefore, two-way ANOVAs were calculated for the independent variables age and academic achievement at only grades eight, ten, and twelve.

Results of two-way ANOVAs yielded no significant differences at the $\alpha = .05$ level for the interaction between age and academic achievement in mean Overall Self-Esteem scores or on any of the components of self-esteem with the exception of School/Academics-related Self-Esteem. Figure 1 shows the interaction effect between academic achievement and age for

eighth, tenth, and twelfth graders. ANOVA source tables, post hoc analyses, and incidence tables for significant findings are reproduced in Appendix F.

Figure 1

Interaction Effect between Academic Achievement and Age upon School/Academics-related Self-Esteem



As can be seen in Figure 1, students with high academic achievement obtained a consistently high mean School/Academics-related Self-Esteem score across eighth, tenth, and twelfth grades. Students with average academic achievement obtained a low mean score in eighth grade, but their mean score increased as they became older until it was significantly higher than that of high achieving students at twelfth grade. Students with low academic achievement obtained a low mean score at eighth grade; the mean increased slightly at each grade level until there was no significant difference in mean scores of low, average, and high achievers at twelfth grade. In fact, the mean score of low achievers at twelfth grade was higher

(but not significantly) than that of average students at eighth grade.

There were no significant differences in mean scores of students of different academic achievement levels, based on grade-point averages, on the components Social Self/Peer-related Self-Esteem and Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem at any individual grade level. However, the following differences in mean scores for students of various academic achievement levels were significant. ANOVA source tables, post hoc analyses, and incidence tables for significant findings may be found in Appendix F.

1. Overall Self-Esteem: At eighth and twelfth grades, there were no significant differences in mean Overall Self-Esteem scores among students based on low, average, or high academic grade-point levels. At tenth grade ($F = 3.406$), and when students of all grades 8, 10, and 12 ($F = 5.198$) were compared by academic achievement levels, students with high or average academic achievement obtained significantly higher mean scores on Overall Self-Esteem than students with low academic achievement.

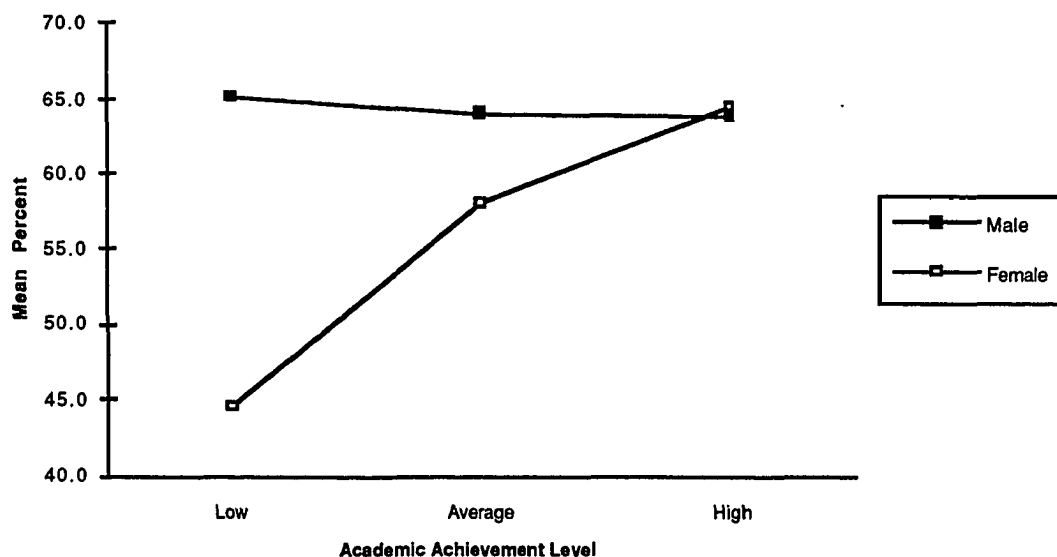
2. General Self-Esteem: At eighth and twelfth grades, there were no significant differences in mean General Self-Esteem scores among students based on low, average, or high academic achievement levels. At tenth grade students with high academic achievement obtained significantly higher mean scores on General Self-Esteem than students with low academic achievement ($F = 2.153$). When scores of all students in grades 8, 10, and 12 were compared by academic achievement levels, students with high or average academic achievement obtained significantly higher mean scores on General Self-Esteem than students with low academic achievement ($F = 2.656$).

3. School/Academics-related Self-Esteem: At eighth grade, students with high academic achievement obtained significantly higher mean scores on

School/Academics-related Self-Esteem than students with low or average academic achievement ($F = 9.453$). At tenth grade, students with high or average academic achievement obtained significantly higher mean scores on School/Academics-related Self-Esteem than students with low academic achievement ($F = 7.336$). However, at twelfth grade there were no significant differences in mean School/Academics-related Self-Esteem scores regardless of academic achievement level. When scores of all subjects in grades 8, 10, and 12 were compared, those with high or average academic achievement obtained significantly higher mean scores on School/Academics-related Self-Esteem than students with low academic achievement ($F = 10.098$).

Figure 2

Interaction Effect between Academic Achievement and Gender upon Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem



The researcher also performed two-way ANOVAs to determine any interaction effects which might be significant among academic achievement, ethnicity, and gender. No significant interactions were found between gender and ethnicity, grades four through twelve, upon mean scores for Overall Self-Esteem or any of the components. No significant interactions were found between academic achievement and ethnicity, grades eight through twelve, upon mean scores for Overall Self-Esteem or any of the components. When comparing academic achievement by gender, no significant interactions were found at any individual grade level, for Overall Self-Esteem, or any of the components except Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem. When mean scores of all students were compared, the interaction effect displayed in Figure 2 was found between academic achievement and gender upon Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem.

As can be seen from Figure 2, there was a direct relationship for girls between academic achievement and mean scores for Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem for grades eight through twelve. However, boys' mean scores for Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem showed no relationship to academic achievement. In fact, boys with low or average academic achievement obtained mean scores for Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem consistent with scores obtained by girls with high academic achievement levels. ANOVA source tables, post hoc analyses, and incidence tables may be found in Appendix F.

Discussion and Interpretation

No significant interaction effects were found between age and gender or age and ethnicity for any of the components of self-esteem or overall self-esteem. However, an interaction between academic achievement and age

was found related to School/Academics-related Self-Esteem. While students with low academic achievement gradually increased in scores for School/Academics-related Self-Esteem between eighth and twelfth grades and students with average academic achievement increased dramatically, students with high academic achievement gradually decreased. This would seem to lend support to the Social Comparison Model of Self-Esteem, whereby students tend to evaluate their abilities with reference to the group with whom they compare themselves. As students grow older, they tend to experience increasingly homogeneous tracked classes. Therefore, students with high academic abilities may begin to question their status with respect to an increasingly competitive reference group. On the other hand, if students with average or low academic achievement experience less competition due to tracked classes, they may perceive themselves as more successful due to the reference group with whom they compare themselves.

In this study the finding of no significant differences by gender across age was in conflict with much of the feminist thinking regarding female self-esteem. Characteristically, females are depicted as decreasing in self-esteem as they move through puberty and adolescence, while males increase (How schools shortchange girls ,1991). That was not found to be the case with subjects in this study. Perhaps with increased attention to gender differences, similarities, and opportunities, the loss of self-esteem often reported to be experienced by young women has the potential to become a thing of the past.

In the area of Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem, an interaction effect was found between academic achievement and gender. Females showed a direct relationship between academic achievement and Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem scores. On the other hand, scores of males were consistently

high regardless of academic achievement. This finding may support Brutsaert's 1990 findings that boys tend to separate various areas of life experiences, whereas girls' academic self-esteem is closely tied to parental support. In addition, the finding for girls may reflect increased attention given to girls and their career/academic choices by families, the media, and the educational community.

The finding of no significant differences by ethnicity by age may support Crocker and Major's 1989 work with minority groups, whom they explained have developed ways to buffer themselves from prejudice and discrimination. On the other hand, the findings may reflect the district's intense staff development efforts in Race and Human Relations, including courses on Gender/Ethnic Expectations and Student Achievement. If minority students might be expected to decrease in self-esteem compared to white students as they move through the educational system based on previous research (Crosby, Bromley, and Saxe, 1980), teachers' increased cultural awareness and expectations of minority students may ameliorate this tendency.

However, findings that white students in this study scored significantly higher than other groups on some components of self-esteem at some age levels may indicate potential sources of concern. Of course, any instrument on which a student is required to respond using a specific language has the tendency to be biased. In addition, self-esteem research, by its very nature, has a tendency to reflect Western individualistic thought. Therefore, it would be a simple solution to attribute significant findings based upon ethnicity to the cultural bias of the instrument and its language. However, before dismissing significant findings, the researcher deems it necessary to reflect on the findings more closely.

Overall self-esteem scores showed almost no significant differences when compared by ethnicity. However, at tenth grade, white students scored significantly higher than Asian/Indochinese or Hispanic students, while African American students scored significantly higher than Asian/Indochinese students. Interestingly, although no significant differences were found among ethnicities at any particular grade level when grade levels were analyzed separately, white students obtained significantly higher mean scores than African American or Asian/Indochinese students when students of all ages were compared by ethnicity on General Self-Esteem scores.

On Social/Peer-related Self-Esteem, African American and white students scored significantly higher than Asian/Indochinese or Hispanic students at fourth, sixth, and tenth grades. When considering the numbers of students in each ethnic category both in the sample and the population, this may lead to support of Social Comparison Models of Self-Esteem. If a student is a member of a group which holds the dominant position in his or her school, this may lead to an elevation of status which would be reflected in Social/Peer-related Self-Esteem scores. On the other hand, the cultural orientation of Asian/Indochinese and Hispanic students to stress the importance of the family over friends may lead to a reduced emphasis by these groups on indicators of Social/Peer-related Self-Esteem.

Although there were some differences by grade level, African American and white students overall scored higher on the Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem component than Asian/Indochinese or Hispanic students. This may seem to conflict with the emphasis that Asian/Indochinese and Hispanic cultures place on family values. However, it may also reflect increased dissonance in the home as students from traditional, often first-

generation immigrant, families of Hispanic or Asian/Indochinese descent are exposed to Western peers, ideas, and experiences. The school district in which the research was conducted is one with a high percentage of families new to the United States, especially of Asian/Indochinese and Hispanic origin. Family conflict may be much less in African American and white families who have lived in this country for several generations, where parents can remember going through much the same crises as their children, than in immigrant families of any ethnic origin for whom the ways of the United States may be foreign, confusing, and conflictual to traditional values.

Overall, white students scored significantly higher on School/Academics-related Self-Esteem than Hispanic students. Again, this may be due to language differences, but even if it is, teachers may need to become more attuned to the learning styles and needs of Hispanic students, who comprise such a large percentage of students in this district.

Although it may be somewhat reassuring that no differences were found at twelfth grade, this finding must be tempered by the small sample size at that grade. A major concern of educators is that upwards of 30% of inner-city students have already dropped out of education by the time they reach twelfth grade. In addition to small sample size for twelfth graders in this study, high dropout rates in the district may cause any comparisons between twelfth graders and younger students to be invalid.

Research Question 3: Are there age, gender, academic achievement and/or ethnic differences in the pattern of the four components which may indicate relatively high and low areas among the components of self-esteem?

Null hypothesis: Students in each of the categories (age, gender,

ethnicity, and academic achievement) will have consistent mean scores on each subscale of the Coopersmith.

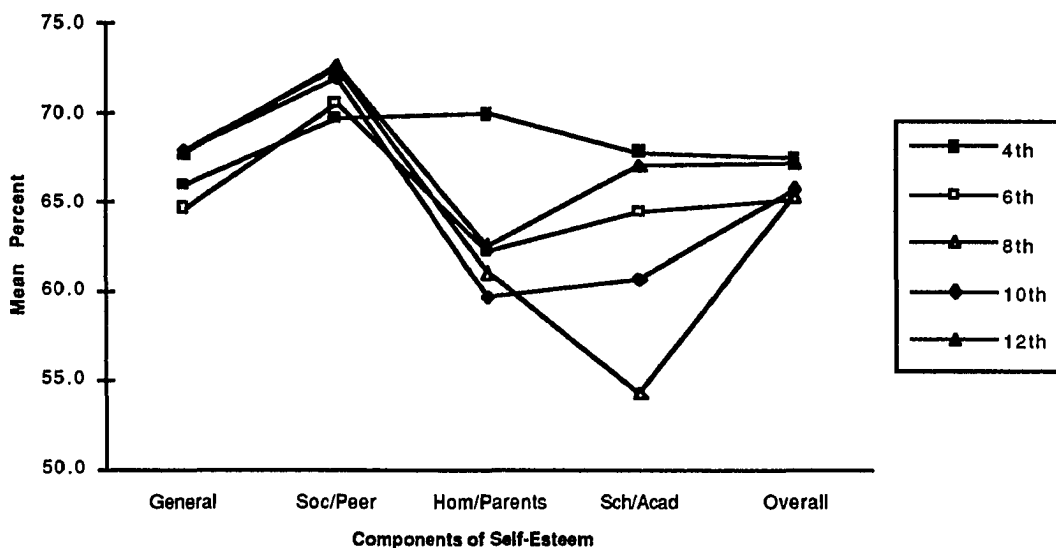
Alternate hypothesis: Students in each of the categories (age, gender, ethnicity, and academic achievement) will have significantly different mean scores on each subscale of the Coopersmith.

Analysis of Data

When two-way ANOVAs were performed to compare mean scores by gender across the components of self-esteem, ethnicity across the components of self-esteem, and academic achievement across the components of self-esteem, no significant interactions were found.

Figure 3

Interaction Effect between Age and Components of Self-Esteem



A significant interaction was found between age of students and the

components of self-esteem. This interaction is seen in the graph on Figure 3. ANOVA source tables and incidence tables are found in Appendix F.

As can be seen from Figure 3, students at sixth through twelfth grades obtained significantly higher mean scores on Social/Peer-related Self-Esteem than on any other component of self-esteem, whereas mean scores of fourth graders were more consistent across components of self-esteem. For sixth and twelfth graders, all components except Social/Peer-related Self-Esteem are relatively consistent. Students at eighth and tenth grades obtained significantly higher mean scores on General Self-Esteem and Social/Peer-related Self-Esteem than they obtained on Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem and School/Academics-related Self-Esteem.

Discussion and Interpretation

Based on gender, ethnicity, or academic achievement levels, students obtained no significant differences to indicate a pattern among the four components of self-esteem which might have indicated relatively high or low areas among the components of self-esteem. However, there was an interaction effect on the pattern of mean component scores based upon age of subjects.

Mean General Self-Esteem, Social/Peers-related Self-Esteem, and Overall Self-Esteem scores were similar for students of all ages. However, scores for Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem and School/Academics-related Self-Esteem differed significantly by grade level. The interaction may indicate that students perceive themselves in more conflict with their parents, the school, and their teachers than in relationship to their friends and their personal goals as they move through early adolescence. The interaction may mean that the conflicts are resolved or discounted by the

student by the time he or she is in twelfth grade.

Research Question 4: Are there differences among the mean scores in general self-esteem or components of self-esteem between students who have participated in self-esteem interventions at their schools and students who have not participated in such interventions?

Null hypothesis: Students who have participated in self-esteem interventions at their schools and students who have not participated in such interventions will have no difference in mean scores of the Coopersmith.

Alternate hypothesis: Students who have participated in self-esteem interventions at their schools and students who have not participated in such interventions will have a significant difference in mean scores of the Coopersmith.

The researcher interviewed teachers and district counselors to determine if students had been involved in self-esteem interventions at the elementary level. Although each teacher acknowledged efforts to create a positive and respectful classroom, none of the teachers had implemented specific self-esteem curricula or methods. District counselors explained that they sporadically delivered puppet shows and other specific lessons related to self-esteem when their schedule permitted it, but none had done so with the classes selected for participation in the study.

The researcher also interviewed teachers and district counselors to determine if junior high and high school students had been involved in self-esteem interventions. The researcher was advised by the teachers involved that they had implemented no self-esteem interventions or curricula. Further, they explained that self-esteem was addressed at this age level through enrollment in an elective class which was offered at some but not all

junior high and high school campuses. District counselors verified that, although they did individual counseling with students on a referral basis, they were not involved in ongoing self-esteem intervention programs.

The elective class which dealt with self-esteem was offered at the selected high schools but not at the selected junior high schools. Therefore, the researcher asked high school students to indicate on their answer form if they had taken the class within the past year; no students responded that they had taken the class. Therefore, it was not possible to analyze quantitative data related to this question. As will be discussed in Section 3 of this chapter, several different departments and district interest groups claimed to be providing self-esteem intervention. However, in the particular classes involved in this study, little actual intervention was being done.

Research Question 5: Do students perceive their self-esteem differently than teachers perceive students' self-esteem?

Null hypothesis: There will be no difference between students' self-report self-esteem scores on the Coopersmith (utilizing total score and school/academic score) and teachers' Behavioral Academic Self-Esteem (BASE) scores. The BASE is a behavioral-observation report, completed by a teacher or another adult who knows the student well, in which the observer is asked to respond to a series of questions or statements by indicating the degree to which the descriptors represent the subject being rated.

Alternate hypothesis: There will be a significant difference between students' self-report self-esteem scores on the Coopersmith (utilizing total score and school/academic score) and teachers' BASE scores.

Analysis of Data

The Behavioral Academic Self-Esteem (BASE) report was completed

by five teachers, one at each grade level, on a total of 135 students. Of those students for whom teachers completed BASE reports, 123 students also completed the Coopersmith Inventory. BASE scores were compared to Coopersmith self-report scores for those students.

Per the BASE scoring manual, raw BASE scores were converted into categories indicating that students demonstrated qualities indicative of low, moderate, and high self-esteem. One-way ANOVAs were performed to compare teacher ratings on the BASE to student self-report Overall Self-Esteem scores and School/Academics-related Self-Esteem scores on the Coopersmith. The results are shown in Appendix E.

At tenth and twelfth grades no significant differences were found between students scored by their teacher as low, moderate, or high in self-esteem on the BASE in either School/Academics-related Self-Esteem or Overall Self-Esteem scores. In fact, the tenth grade teacher rated no student as high in self-esteem. In addition, at fourth and sixth grade, no significant differences were found between students scored low, moderate, or high on the BASE in Overall Self-Esteem scores.

Comparing BASE scores to Overall Self-Esteem scores, the only significant differences were found at the eighth grade level, where students rated by their teacher as having high self-esteem obtained significantly higher mean Overall Self-Esteem scores than students rated by their teacher as low or moderate in self-esteem. When all subjects rated on the BASE were considered, students rated by their teacher as having high self-esteem also obtained significantly higher mean Overall Self-Esteem scores than students rated by their teacher as low or moderate in self-esteem.

One-way ANOVAs yielded significant differences between mean scores on School/Academics-related Self-Esteem for students rated by their

teachers as low, moderate, or high in self-esteem on the BASE. However, there was wide variation in significance among teachers and grade levels. Fourth grade students rated as high by their teacher obtained significantly higher mean scores than those rated as moderate, but not low. At sixth grade, students rated as low in self-esteem obtained significantly lower scores than those rated as moderate or high. At eighth grade, students rated as high in self-esteem obtained significantly higher scores than those rated as low or moderate. As was mentioned previously, no significant differences in School/Academics-related Self-Esteem were found among students rated by the teacher as low, moderate, or high in self-esteem at tenth or twelfth grades.

The researcher also computed correlations, shown in Table 7, between BASE teacher reports and student self-report scores for Overall Self-Esteem and School/Academics-related Self-Esteem. A low positive correlation was found between BASE scores and Overall Self-Esteem in most cases. However, BASE scores given by the fourth, tenth, and twelfth grade teachers showed little if any correlation to student Overall Self-Esteem scores.

When BASE teacher reports were correlated with School/Academics-related Self-Esteem, a moderate positive correlation was found in most cases. However, the correlation was low for males, moderate for females. Also, BASE ratings of the tenth and twelfth grade teachers showed little to no correlation to School/Academics-related Self-Esteem. Teacher's BASE scores for African American students showed little to no correlation with either student self-reports of Overall Self Esteem or School/Academics-related Self-Esteem, whereas they showed low to moderate correlations to self-reports made by students of other ethnic groups.

Table 7

Correlations of BASE to School/Academics-related Self-Esteem and Overall Self-Esteem

Students	<u>n</u>	<u>r</u> Total	<u>r</u> ² Total	<u>r</u> Sch	<u>r</u> ² Sch
All	123	.378	.143	.532	.283
Males	65	.459	.211	.449	.202
Females	58	.324	.105	.620	.384
4th Grade	26	.299	.089	.536	.287
6th Grade	29	.391	.153	.620	.385
8th Grade	29	.662	.438	.709	.503
10th Grade	22	.165	.027	.115	.013
12th Grade	17	-.024	.001	.057	.003
Af Amer	17	-.030	.001	.106	.011
As/Indo	16	.495	.245	.516	.266
Hispanic	42	.437	.191	.562	.316
White	48	.340	.116	.563	.317

Discussion and Interpretation

Although teachers had completed BASE rating scales on students who had been in their classes for almost a full school year, there was considerable discrepancy between teacher ratings on the BASE and student self-report scores on the Coopersmith. This finding did not agree with the technical materials for either the BASE or the Coopersmith, which indicated that a significant level of agreement between teacher reports and student self-reports could be expected.

One might expect that BASE reports completed by elementary

teachers, who deal with the same class all day, would be more congruent with student self-reports than those done by junior high or high school teachers, who only interact with a child for one period per day. However, that was not always the case. BASE scores given by the eighth grade teacher were more consistent with student self-report scores on both Overall Self-Esteem and School/Academics-related Self-Esteem than those of any other teachers.

Administrative manuals indicated that a moderate to high positive correlation would be found between BASE teacher reports and student self-reports on the Coopersmith. In this study, a low positive correlation was found for most categories of students. It is important to note that little to no correlation was found between BASE reports and student self-report scores at the tenth and twelfth grade levels, as well as for African American students. Perhaps teachers at the higher grade levels have little opportunity to get to know their students, as the tenth grade teacher commented to the researcher. It is also possible that cultural differences impeded understanding of African American students, as all teacher respondents were White. On the other hand, it is possible that students were not honest in their self-appraisals or in filling out the Coopersmith instrument, which could have led to discrepancies between student self-reports and teacher reports.

However, the moderate correlation to Overall Self-Esteem and high correlation to School/Academics-related Self-Esteem found between the eighth grade teacher's BASE reports and student self-reports demonstrated that a close match between teacher reports and students self-reports of self-esteem was possible. This high degree of correlation may have been indicative of a teacher who has developed a close personal relationship with students. If teachers and students know each other well and are honest and

sincere in completing the instruments, one might expect highly correlated teacher ratings on the BASE and personal self-reports. On the other hand, if the low correlation levels between most of the teacher ratings and student self-reports are due to lack of understanding of students by teachers, it may be due to the large class sizes in this district which can prevent the development of close connections between teachers and their students.

Section 3: Qualitative Data

Summary of Qualitative Data

Although the primary focus of this research was to collect quantitative data related to student self-esteem, the researcher interviewed a number of district officials, counselors, teachers, and students during the course of the research. Although these interviews were far from exhaustive, they may provide some indication of differences of opinion held among stakeholders in the school district regarding self-esteem and related programs.

When the California Task Force to Promote Self-Esteem and Personal and Social Responsibility published its findings in 1989, some district officials embraced the ideas promoted by the Task Force and made preliminary plans to develop a comprehensive K-12 program to promote self-esteem and personal and social responsibility in students. The leaders in this movement at the district level included the Assistant Superintendent for Guidance and his staff. In 1991, federal grant monies obtained for drug and smoking prevention programs were earmarked to develop junior high and high school elective classes to develop self-esteem at ten pilot schools.

At the time of this study, the district was facing severe budgetary cutbacks as well as a charge to reduce the discrepancy in standardized test

scores between white and nonwhite students. Restructuring had eliminated many district level positions, and the Assistant Superintendent for Guidance was reclassified as a director who reported to the Assistant Superintendent for Pupil Personnel. Pupil Personnel included the Guidance, Counseling, and Special Education departments. Dropout prevention was a priority of the division, and two groups of students with high dropout rates, African American males and Hispanic females, were targeted for intervention. Many types of interventions were being suggested by varying factions of the district. District officials discussed the possibility to obtain federal and state grants to fund dropout prevention and intervention programs.

In addition, a turf battle had developed among several district groups whose roles and responsibilities showed no clear-cut delineation. Several district counselors explained their dismay that, in their perception, teacher specialists from the Guidance Department were imposing on their curriculum specialty by delivering affective and self-esteem curriculum and instruction. The Race and Human Relations Department, previously a highly-staffed department which had been reduced until it was now all but defunct, also was developing and presenting self-esteem curricula with faculty and students. Representatives from the Guidance Department and the Race and Human Relations Department expressed disdain that district counselors, in their opinion, were not delivering affective or self-esteem instruction to students. District counselors expressed frustration over efforts to team with teachers, 50% of whom participate, 25% of whom were halfhearted, and 25% of whom were resistant and negative to counselors' efforts, according to the counselors. Counselors questioned whether teachers had the skill, training, or desire to deliver affective and self-esteem instruction.

Elementary teachers, on the other hand, expressed frustration that district counselors' caseloads prevented them from working with students in whole classes or in small groups in a proactive manner. Teachers agreed with counselors that most of counselors' time was spent working reactively with students and families after trouble had erupted. Counselors and elementary teachers spoke of days past when counselors worked with classes and small groups of students on an ongoing basis to develop affective skills and self-esteem. Secondary teachers described the counselors' role as more administrative, with scheduling responsibilities as well as work with truant, disruptive, or troubled students.

Each elementary teacher interviewed by the researcher cited interest in promoting self-esteem in the classroom, and several spoke of general affective skills such as trust and mutual respect which they worked to develop in their students. No teacher was using or was in possession of specific self-esteem curricula or programs. Each elementary teacher also asked to be made aware as more information became available to promote self-esteem, personal and social responsibility in students.

Junior high and high school teachers interviewed by the researcher showed little interest in the study or in the topic of self-esteem. However, those who completed the BASE on their students displayed more interest in the study, perhaps because of their greater involvement. A tenth grade teacher expressed frustration over rating students on the BASE, although the study was done in May with a group of students enrolled in her year-long class. She said, "They're all sort of in the middle. With 180 kids, we usually think of them as bodies, not as individuals. This was really hard for me to do."

Students, on the other hand, were generally receptive and interested in

answering questions about themselves on the Coopersmith Inventory. However, one tenth grade boy and two twelfth grade girls began to work on the inventory, then returned it to me and asked not to be included in the study. In an eighth grade class, students applauded when the researcher briefly explained the purpose of the study after students had completed their inventories. In several high school classes, following the explanation of the study, a discussion ensued whereby students made it clear that they often felt that their needs and wants were not considered at the high school level. A student in one tenth grade class ended the class by saying to the researcher, "Thanks for coming. We feel like we're being heard."

Discussion and Interpretation

As might be expected, students seemed to enjoy the opportunity to focus on their perceptions and attitudes about parts of their lives important to them. Also, older students seemed to feel that they had less opportunity to do this during the course of their regular school experience than younger students did. Older students expressed their perceptions that teachers were not particularly interested in their needs; this may be a function of the large numbers of students seen each day by junior high and high school teachers as well as demands upon teachers to make sure that students cover certain amounts and types of curriculum, some seen as worthless and irrelevant by students. This may lend support to the philosophy of The Middle School--and Beyond (1992), which advocated that students be educated in smaller classes by interdisciplinary teams to allow students to interact with fewer teachers for more time each day, as well as advisory programs in which students develop and enhance their self-esteem and decision-making skills.

The turf battle over which department should be responsible for

affective and self-esteem education, as well as the lack of trust or communication among departments, is a common problem in large school districts. At best, it resulted in duplication and mismatch of efforts. At worst, it led to misrepresentation of programs and intervention efforts, miscommunication and misunderstandings, and a waste of precious educational dollars spent. It is possible that a significant difference would have been found in this study between students who had undergone significant self-esteem intervention programs and students who had not; the researcher questioned whether, if teachers, counselors, and guidance officials had worked together rather than vying for exclusive rights to self-esteem instruction, an effective delivery system might have been developed and implemented.

Summary of the Findings of the Study

In this study, subjects maintained relatively constant levels of self-esteem as measured by the Coopersmith Inventory as they moved through the school years of fourth through twelfth grades. Exceptions to this were Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem, which decreased significantly in sixth through tenth graders, and School/Academics-related Self-Esteem, which dipped at eighth grade. General Self-Esteem, Social/Peer-related Self-Esteem, and Overall Self-Esteem were consistent throughout the grade levels four through twelve. No students who participated in the study had been involved in any ongoing self-esteem interventions through the school.

There was a significant interaction found by academic achievement across age; high achieving students gradually decreased in self-esteem while average and low-achieving students increased. In addition, a direct relationship was found between Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem and

academic achievement for females; in contrast, males scored consistently high on Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem regardless of academic achievement. However, there were no significant interactions found by gender or ethnicity across age.

No pattern was found among the four components of self-esteem which would have indicated relatively high or low areas among the components based on gender, ethnicity, or academic achievement. However, students' scores at eighth and tenth grade were significantly lower for Home-Parents-related Self-Esteem and School/Academics-related Self-Esteem than other components. Overall, no significant differences in self-esteem were found among ethnic groups, although White and/or African-American students outscored other ethnic groups on some components of self-esteem at some grade levels.

BASE teacher ratings were more consistent with student self-reports of School/Academics-related Self-Esteem (moderate positive correlation) than Overall Self-Esteem (low positive correlation). However, some teachers' reports showed a much higher correlation to student self-reports than others, and teacher reports for African American students showed no correlation to either School/Academics-related Self-Esteem or Overall Self-Esteem.

Although discussions between the researcher and teachers, counselors, and district officials showed that each of these groups was interested in the topic of self-esteem and the delivery of intervention programs with students, little was being done due to time constraints and internal district problems, including large class sizes, budgetary and personnel reductions, and turf battles among departments.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary of the Research

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to assess the self-esteem of students in a large, multicultural, urban, public school system on overall self-esteem and components of self-esteem across various ages. This was a descriptive study in which the researcher attempted to discern changes in the levels of self-esteem as the students moved through the school system (grades 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12). Utilizing the Coopersmith Inventory, a well-respected and well-documented self-report instrument, the researcher compared students' overall level of self-esteem, as well as the individual components of self-esteem: general self, social self/peers, home/parents, and school/academic. The researcher utilized a behavioral-observational rating scale, completed by selected teachers for the students in their classes, as a reliability cross-check to the Coopersmith self-report instrument. The study also compared students' self-esteem by gender, ethnicity, academic achievement, and current exposure to school-based self-esteem intervention across age.

The primary purpose of education is to produce young adults who possess the academic skills and personal qualities which will make them valuable, contributing members of society. Self-esteem has been found in most current research studies to have a moderate positive correlation with

academic achievement. However, correlations have been higher when aspects of self-esteem specific to the area of interest, rather than overall self-esteem, have been utilized. Various relationships, especially with parents, peers, and significant others, have been found to affect self-esteem in school-aged children. Social comparison and social identity theories have been utilized to explain how people compare themselves to a reference group to derive the self-evaluative aspects of self-esteem.

In efforts to meet the needs of all school children, school districts have attempted to identify students who may be considered to be at higher than normal risk of school underachievement, failure, and dropout. A number of characteristics, including behavior and academic problems, have been identified as indicative of potential at-risk students. Children living in poverty, females, African American students, and Hispanic students have been identified in various research studies as having higher than average risk of school underachievement, failure, and dropout. Some researchers have hypothesized that schools are not meeting the academic or self-esteem needs of at-risk students and that alternative strategies and curricula should be implemented to improve the success rate of such students. If low self-esteem is a contributing factor to the underachievement and failure of targeted groups of students, and if efforts to increase the self-esteem of targeted students would promote personal and academic success, the district would be wise to implement strategies and curricula designed to enhance self-esteem. If, on the other hand, healthy self-esteem is a by-product of successful activity, academic or otherwise, the school district would better spend its resources implementing strategies and curricula designed to improve the meaningfulness of, as well as success in, students' academic pursuits.

Gathering information related to changes in self-esteem of multicultural urban youth was seen by district officials as a valuable step toward the decision regarding future possible development of a comprehensive, progressive, integrated K-12 Self-Esteem Curriculum and program of implementation as called for by the California Task Force. An important preliminary step in developing such a curriculum was to assess the current level of healthy self-esteem characteristics, as well as areas of low self-esteem, of students across ages. If the Task Force assertions related to the impact of self-esteem were correct, identifying self-esteem needs of students would be a valuable step in addressing and attempting to prevent the social problems which were being seen as endemic to urban society.

If specific components of self-esteem were seen to need strengthening at certain ages, the information gathered in this study might be used to identify and prevent problems related to poor self-esteem before they reach crisis stage. Further, it is hoped that this information would be transferable to other urban school districts with multicultural populations, so that they might utilize the results with respect to their students. If target groups were found to be at particular risk of low self-esteem at certain ages, this information might be utilized so that efforts to effect more positive self-esteem might be implemented at appropriate ages. Therefore, five hypotheses were developed to investigate changes in students' levels of self-esteem as they moved through the school system.

Summary of Literature Review

Through a review of the relevant literature, self-esteem was examined as it related to school-aged students, and the educational environment in particular. Proponents of compensatory models, such as Coopersmith (1967,

1981), Reasoner and Gilberts (1982), and Rosenberg (1979), saw self-esteem as a subjective self-evaluation, affected by verbal and other overt behavior toward the individual by others. They saw self-esteem as multi-faceted and listed various components to comprise self-esteem. In addition, Rosenberg (1979), Juhasz (1985), and Pelham and Swann (1989) concluded that individuals choose the components of self-esteem which matter to them, attaching greater importance to components that “count” or “matter” or at which they experience greater success.

Branden (1969) explained the desire for self-esteem as a basic human need. He defined two components, a sense of personal efficacy and a sense of personal worth, which were interrelated and values driven. To Branden, the person with healthy self-esteem is constantly striving for cognitive efficacy toward meaningful values. As a result of healthy self-esteem, a person may experience success and achievement.

Social identity and social comparison theories both use the concept of reference groups to explain the development of self-esteem. According to social identity theory, humans identify with a particular group, are internally motivated to maintain high collective self-esteem, and tend to compare their group favorably to others to protect the group’s collective identity and to maintain high self-esteem (Tajfel, 1981; Tajfel & Turner, 1979, 1986; Crocker & Luhtanen, 1990; Crocker & Major, 1989). Social comparison theory focuses on an individual’s standing within the reference group; thus, self-esteem is affected by the individual’s choice of a reference group and his or her perceived standing within that group (Weiten, 1989).

The California Task Force on Self-Esteem adopted the following definition of self-esteem: “appreciating my own worth and importance and having the character to be accountable for myself and to act responsibly

toward others” (Toward a State of Esteem, 1990, p. 1). This appeared to be an attempt to incorporate both individualistic and social theories regarding the nature of self-esteem into one comprehensive, integrated explanation. The California Task Force work reflects a societal trend in the 1990s to stop and take stock of the set of values that is currently guiding our lives, to re-establish the tradition of carrying on a public discourse about what constitutes the “good life” and the “good self” (Bellah, et. al., 1985). Increasingly, “feeling good” about oneself is being seen as unjustified without the concurrent conditions of personal efficacy and moral integrity. Although the trend is far from universal, more and more researchers and practitioners in the area of self-esteem are including responsibility for self and others, productive decision-making skills, effective communication skills, study skills, academic rigor, development of values and of community as essential to the development of healthy self-esteem.

In recent years, numerous studies have been done to ascertain the causal relationship, if any, between self-esteem and academic achievement. Hansford and Hattie (1982), Byrne, (1984, 1986), and Skaalvik and Hagtvet (1990) performed extensive reviews of the literature, finding persistent, moderate, positive correlations between academic achievement and self-esteem. However, they and other researchers found conflicting results regarding causality. Hence, Skaalvik and Hagtvet concluded that the empirical research to 1990 did not allow any firm conclusions about the causal ordering of self-concept and academic achievement.

Relationships with parents, peers, and significant others have been explored for their impact upon self-esteem. A number of researchers (Hoelter & Harper, 1987; Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986; Openshaw, Thomas & Rollins, 1984; Gecas, 1971, 1972; Sears, 1970; Coopersmith, 1967) found

positive relationships between family support and self-esteem. Zigler, Lamb, and Child (1982) and Felson and Zielinski (1989) suggested a reciprocal relationship between parents and children in shaping children's self-esteem, in which children are active agents in shaping the course of their own development rather than passive recipients of environmental influences, including parental support.

Several researchers explained that children and young adults selectively register feedback, which affects their self-esteem in relationship to the significance of the message and the person delivering the message (Juhasz, 1989). In addition, Kernis, Brockner, and Frankel (1989) noted that persons with low self-esteem tend to overgeneralize feedback which fits in with their existing negative self-view, which may or may not be logical or rational. However, in 1990 Baumgardner explored the role of certainty in development of accurate self-perceptions, suggesting that both positive and negative feedback allow individuals to possess more accurate self-views. He concluded that feedback--negative or positive--should improve a person's sense of self-certainty, therefore increasing the sense of personal control and self-concept.

Studies of peer relationships and self-esteem have found close friendships to provide a level of support, and higher self-esteem, that does not come from large-group popularity (Harter, 1983; Berndt, 1990). Lochman and Lampron (1985) used social comparison theory to explain their findings with aggressive, socially accepted boys. Because the boys were happy with their social status within their reference group, they were not amenable to changing behavior which was considered to be disruptive and unacceptable by teachers. Kite concluded that the dropout problem would be prevented by teaching students to develop relationships with

people of all age groups (Weisman, 1991).

Several groups of students have been targeted as those who may have special needs related to self-esteem. In particular, children who are performing at-risk academically, children in poverty, females, and children of African American or Hispanic heritage, whose rates of school underachievement, failure, and dropout are significantly higher than average, have been identified. Shortly prior to this study, the school district identified Hispanic females and African American males, whose dropout and school failure rate was much higher than average, as groups who may have a need for specific self-esteem intervention. Although some strong opinions regarding the relationship of self-esteem to academic achievement for these groups of students have been noted in the literature review, the substantive research to date is limited.

In a large, multicultural school district, it is expensive and time consuming to develop, train staff to deliver, and implement any curricular changes. Before decisions are made, data must be gathered which is as reliable and valid as possible. Self-esteem has been measured in many ways by various researchers, and some of the instruments developed have been shown to have higher reliability and validity than others. Self-report instruments are most commonly used to measure self-esteem, based on the theory that a person knows his or her own perceptions of him- or herself better than anyone else could. Because a self-report instrument may not be accurate when a student cannot or will not fill it out honestly and objectively, the use of a behavioral-observational rating scale has been recommended as an additional corroborating measure.

Of all instruments that appear in the literature, the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) was selected for this study because it has been one

of the most widely used and is highly respected by researchers in the field. Features of the technical data included very large norm groups and adequate reliability and validity. The Behavioral-Academic Self-Esteem (BASE) behavioral-observational rating scale, also developed by Coopersmith and Gilberts, was used as an additional cross-check to individual student results obtained on the Coopersmith SEI.

It was not clear from the literature reviewed whether self-esteem causes academic achievement, academic achievement causes self-esteem, if they influence each other in a reciprocal manner, or if there are other covariants which have not been identified. The present study was intended to inform district officials in response to the five research questions listed in Chapter I, prior to making decisions regarding the implementation of self-esteem curriculum and strategies. Changes in student self-esteem as they grow older and progress through the school system; the effects of gender, academic achievement, race or ethnicity; and previous school-based interventions; and the validity of Coopersmith vs. BASE results are of particular interest.

Summary of Methodology

In this descriptive study, the researcher attempted to discern changes in the level of self-esteem of students in a large, multicultural, urban, public school district as the students move through the school system (grades 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12). A representative sample of 653 students in the aforementioned grades in the school district were surveyed, using the Coopersmith Inventory, a self-report method. Students' self-esteem, as measured by the Coopersmith, was compared by the independent variables of age, gender, ethnicity, academic achievement, current exposure to school-

based self-esteem interventions, and interactions of the above. Selected students' self-report results were also compared to teacher ratings on the Behavioral Academic Self-Esteem Rating Scale.

Five dependent variables were used for this study. The first four variables measured a student's evaluative toward himself or herself in social, academic, family, and personal areas of experience, as Coopersmith described the components of self-esteem. Coopersmith labeled these components as General Self, Social Self-Peers, Home-Parents, and School-Academic (Coopersmith SEI, pp. 1, 8). These four variables were then summed to yield a Total Self-Esteem measurement, the fifth dependent variable. The instrument allowed for variables to be compared in total, or separately to assess "variances in perceptions of self-esteem in different areas of experience" (Coopersmith SEI, p. 2).

One-way and two-way ANOVAs were used to test hypotheses and interaction between independent variables. An $\alpha = .05$ was used in all tests of significance. Following a significant finding, a Fisher post hoc analysis was completed to determine which levels of the independent variable were significantly different from others.

Summary of the Findings

Overall, this research produced no significant findings regarding changes in self-esteem of students from grades four through twelve. No significant findings were produced regarding the relationship of gender, academic achievement, or ethnicity and age, either. However, some significant findings were found at particular grade levels. Also, some significant interaction effects were found. Most of the teachers' BASE ratings, with the exception of those of the eighth grade teacher whose BASE

ratings showed moderate correlation, showed no correlation with student self-reports of self-esteem as measured by the Coopersmith. Significant findings will be summarized in this section of Chapter V. ANOVA source tables, incidence tables, and post hoc analyses for significant findings are found in Appendix F. In addition, a Summary Table of Findings is located in Appendix D.

Question 1 asked which of the four components of self-esteem measured by the Coopersmith Inventory appeared to change with the age of the students. In this study, General Self-Esteem, Social Self/Peers-related Self-Esteem, and Overall Self-Esteem were relatively consistent across grades four through twelve, showing no significant differences. Significant differences were found in Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem, which was highest at grade 4, then dropped significantly at grades 6, 8, and 10, followed by a rise almost to the fourth grade level by grade 12. School/Academics-related Self-Esteem was consistent until grade 8, at which there was a significant drop. Scores rose by twelfth grade to levels as high as they had been in fourth grade.

Question 2 explored changes in self-esteem across age when compared by gender, ethnic, and/or academic achievement differences. No significant differences were found when students' self-esteem scores on any of the components or overall self-esteem were compared by gender, ethnicity, or academic achievement across age. However, some differences were found at individual grade levels, which will be summarized here.

At eighth grade, boys scored significantly higher on General Self-Esteem than girls, but at twelfth grade, girls scored significantly higher on Social Self/Peers-related Self-Esteem. At all other grade levels and on all other components and Overall Self-Esteem, there were no significant

differences between boys and girls.

When students were compared by ethnicity, there were no significant differences across age. However, there were some significant differences at individual grade levels. For example, at fourth grade, African American students scored significantly higher on Social Self/Peers-related Self-Esteem than all other ethnicities studied. At sixth grade, African American and white students outscored Asian/Indochinese students. At sixth grade, white students outscored Asian/Indochinese and Hispanic students on Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem and School/Academic-related Self-Esteem. White students outscored Hispanics and African Americans outscored Asian/Indochinese students on Overall Self-Esteem at sixth grade.

Only one significant difference was found in eighth graders: white students significantly outscored Asian/Indochinese students in Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem. At tenth grade, African American and white students rated themselves higher on Social/Peers-related Self-Esteem than Asian/Indochinese or Hispanic students, African American and white students outscored Asian/Indochinese students on Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem, and white students scored themselves higher than Asian/Indochinese students on School/Academics-related Self-Esteem.

No significant differences were found by ethnicity on any components or Overall Self-Esteem at twelfth grade. However, when scores of all subjects were compared by ethnicity, white students outscored African American and Asian/Indochinese students on General Self-Esteem, white students scored significantly higher than Asian/Indochinese or Hispanic students on Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem, and white students outscored Hispanic students on School/Academics-related Self-Esteem. White and African American students scored significantly higher on Social/Peers-

related Self-Esteem than Asian/Indochinese or Hispanic students.

Although the results are spotty and far from conclusive, the results of self-report measures on this study indicated that at most individual grade levels, white and African American students tended to rate themselves higher on most components of self-esteem than Asian/Indochinese or Hispanic students.

When students' self-report scores were compared by academic achievement across age, no significant differences were found on any components or Overall Self-Esteem. However, at individual grade levels, students with high or average grade point averages tended to outscore students with low grade point averages on School/Academics-related Self-Esteem, General Self-Esteem, and Overall Self-Esteem.

There were two significant interaction effects found related to academic achievement. While high achieving students maintained consistently high scores on School/Academics-related Self-Esteem and low achieving students scored significantly lower in eighth grade with moderate increase from grades 8 to 10 to 12, average achieving students scored much like the low achieving students in eighth grade, equal to the high achieving students at tenth, and significantly higher than the high achieving students at twelfth grade. Also, while boys' Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem was consistently high and showed no relationship to academic achievement, girls' scores showed a direct relationship to academic achievement. Only the high achieving girls scored as high as any of the boys on Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem. Figure 1 on page 133 displays this interaction effect.

Question 3 attempted to determine if there were differences in the pattern of the four components which may have indicated relatively high or low areas of self-esteem. In the areas of General Self-Esteem, Social/Peers-

related Self-Esteem, and Overall Self-Esteem, no significant differences were found. However, fourth graders scored themselves significantly higher on Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem than sixth, eighth, and tenth graders. Also, fourth and twelfth graders significantly outscored eighth and tenth graders on School/Academics-related Self-Esteem. Looking at the comparisons overall, one may note a decline in self-ratings for Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem after fourth grade. School/Academics-related Self-Esteem dropped during early adolescence, but then resumed to approximately the same level as fourth grade by twelfth grade.

Question 4 attempted to find out if scores were significantly different on components or Overall Self-Esteem if students had participated in ongoing, district self-esteem intervention. However, as none of the students surveyed had participated in any ongoing intervention projects, no data were available to answer this question. The researcher chose to leave the research question in the study because there were several district departments whose personnel had indicated that self-esteem interventions were part of their responsibility. It is possible that effective interventions would have made significant differences in students' self-reports regarding self-esteem and in how students manage their lives and face problems. However, fragmentation and duplication by departments, as well as budgetary cutbacks which created higher student-staff ratios, had resulted in sporadic or nonexistent intervention efforts.

Question 5 compared student self-reports on components and Overall Self-Esteem with teacher reports. Teacher reports more closely matched School/Academics-related Self-Esteem than Overall Self-Esteem, but there was wide variation among teachers. Only the eighth grade teacher ratings showed moderate correlation to student self-reports on both

School/Academics-related Self-Esteem and Overall Self-Esteem. At grades 4, 6, 10, and 12 little to no correlation was found between teacher ratings and student self-reports, although ANOVAs detected some significant differences at fourth and sixth grades.

Conclusions and Discussion of Findings

This study has examined self-esteem of a representative sample of students in a large, multicultural, urban public school system from fourth to twelfth grades. Although this research identified few significant differences, there are some differences from which conclusions may be drawn. The lack of significance in some of the findings may allow conclusions to be drawn, as well. Therefore, the following conclusions have been delineated based upon this research:

1. Students do not necessarily drop in self-esteem as they become older and move through the school system, as has often been reported in the literature . In this research students reported a drop in School/Academics-related Self-Esteem and Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem at early adolescence, which is the time when students typically confront adult authority as they struggle with their own growth into young adults capable of making their own decisions. However, the rise to pre-adolescent levels of reported self-esteem would indicate that students have achieved the balance necessary to fit into school and family while maintaining their own sense of autonomy by twelfth grade. However, it is also possible that students who have not reconciled these forces have dropped out of school by twelfth grade and were not available for this study.

On the other hand, it is possible that the items related to School/Academics-related Self-Esteem and Home/Parents-related Self-

Esteem are more accurate indicators of the stresses a student feels within those relationships than of his or her self-esteem within those areas. A student may feel “I can do this stuff, but I’m sick of my teachers hassling me,” which is a much different self-perception than “I don’t think I can do it.” The resolution and acceptance of adult authority, and the decision to live one’s life in a way which promotes academic, career, and relationship success, may be due more to simple maturity than to an increase in self-esteem.

2. High academic achievement does not necessarily lead to higher self-esteem than average academic achievement. This could be due to Social Comparison Theory’s assertion that students esteem themselves based on their comparisons to their reference group. However, this would not account for the significant differences found between low achievers and high or average achievers. The findings may have been due to divergent values and goals between the school and students.

At present, schools tend to reward and reinforce the 4-year college bound. If, for example, students are not interested in college, they may have other interests, career aspirations, and successes from which they derive self-esteem. They may be choosing to be moderately successful at school, while their true efforts are being put forth elsewhere, perhaps in an after-school job or apprenticeship. Educators may need to re-evaluate the importance of what they are teaching in light of the world which students are entering as adolescents and young adults.

This may help to explain the interaction effect found between academic achievement and gender upon Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem. If boys have more options, such as sports, after-school jobs, etc., than girls to achieve personal success and parental approval, Home/Parents-related Self-

Esteem may be related to student participation and success in activities which the family finds mutually valuable and enjoyable. If girls do not have such options to the extent that boys do, they may rely on school achievement as the vehicle to realize parental approval as indicated by Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem.

3. Teacher reports and student self-reports regarding self-esteem and its components may be greatly divergent. In this study, all of the teachers who completed observational ratings happened to be white; three were women, and two were men. Their observations were more highly correlated with white students' self-reports than with students of other cultures, although, in general, the correlations were very weak for students of any ethnicity or culture.

It may be that teachers and adolescents carry with them differing sets of expectations regarding behaviors indicative of healthy self-esteem. It may be that these differing sets of expectations are exacerbated by the additional barrier of cultural differences. Certainly, in this era of respect for individual uniqueness, we hear much about the generation gap and the culture gap. Perhaps this conclusion may invite discourse about ways we as teachers and students can address and respect differences, so that each party to the teaching/learning act feels valued and dignified.

A close look at the instrument itself may explain the lack of correlation between the BASE teacher reports and student self-reports of self-esteem. The BASE tends to consider behaviors such as interest in school activities, getting along with peers, and cooperation to be indicators of healthy self-esteem. However, if a child is truly an independent thinker, he or she may exhibit behaviors which would be scored negatively on the BASE but could be highly productive and satisfying in life. In fact, non-

conformist thinking and behavior may indeed be indicators of high self-esteem. Schools have long had the tendency to reward compliance and conformity; perhaps this is why the correlation between success in school and success in life has been sadly lacking.

A third possible reason for the lack of consistency between teacher ratings and student self-reports may lie in the unusually large class sizes in California schools. One would expect elementary teachers to know their students quite well by May each year, which is when this study was conducted. However, elementary teachers showed no more consistency with self-reports than did junior high or high school teachers. Perhaps, when a teacher is responsible for too many students, it precludes the kind of connection and one-to-one interaction, as well as casual observation time, which is necessary to truly know and understand one's students.

4. Boys do not necessarily have higher self-esteem than girls. Much recent research has focused on the decrease in self-esteem in adolescent girls and the increase in self-esteem in adolescent boys. These expected changes were not found in this research. Perhaps young girls are approaching adolescence with a greater awareness of their choices and feelings of control over their future than has been expected in the past. In addition, it is possible that teachers have become increasingly aware of gender and ethnic expectations on the part of the teacher and their effects on student achievement (Grayson & Martin, 1988), and are implementing teaching methods which promote greater gender equity and value. On the other hand, it is also possible that young girls who have low self-esteem have dropped out of school and were not available for this study. Nationwide statistics which indicate that more students, especially females and ethnic minorities, are dropping out of school at younger ages are alarming, and the dropout

factor may have skewed the results of this research.

At any rate, this research did not support the common notion, supported by the research of the AAUW, Gilligan, and others, that the self-esteem of girls falls during adolescence and the teen years as the self-esteem of boys climbs.

5. Cultural differences in responding to self-report measures, especially on issues as sensitive as self-esteem, must be taken into account when analyzing for such differences. Although in this research, African American and white students tended to report higher levels of self-esteem than Hispanic and Asian/Indochinese students, this may be due to cultural norms which dictate the acceptability of certain responses regarding the self. For example, the notion of "Black Pride" and current societal focus on the accomplishments of African Americans, plus the American individualistic tradition in which most white students have participated, may make positive self-esteem responses seem more appropriate, and possibly even expected, for African American and white students. On the other hand, cultures which value family and relationships above individualism may consider such responses to be self-aggrandizing and braggardly, quite a different connotation. Different measures may better assess responsibility and devotion to family which, rather than self, are viewed by many cultures as the essence of esteem.

These cultural differences also caused the researcher to reflect seriously on the nature and importance of self-esteem. Is the goal of education to produce students who possess high amounts of self-pride, whether or not such pride is earned in a just manner? Or is our mission to produce young adults who enter our communities with the skills and mettle to act as responsible and accountable young adults? Could the added

emphasis in the California Task Force definition of self-esteem on responsibility and social accountability be a forced issue, to make it seem that self-esteem is something which it is not?

Is it possible that some of our serious social issues actually reflect a narcissistic sense of self-esteem, in which young adults gain status and recognition by engaging in illegal and immoral activities such as gang affiliation, promiscuous sex, alcohol and drug abuse, and drug sales? Is it possible that it is not improved teaching in self-esteem which will cause our youth to choose productive and satisfying paths, but improved teaching in responsibility to and for one's family and community?

6. It is easy for school districts to jump on a seemingly popular bandwagon, especially one which has received as much media play as the California Task Force for Self-Esteem. It is also human nature to jump on what is claimed to be a quick-fix when desperate for answers to the problems of chronically underachieving groups of students. However, unless the data support that the intervention suggested will indeed solve the problem for which it is prescribed, school districts are in danger of wasting valuable resources on interventions which just plain won't work. The times are over when schools and districts could experiment with unproven theories without jeopardizing the educational quality of all. Today's educational dollars are spread more thinly than ever in the past across a broad spectrum of students whose needs are ever increasing. Hence, we must invest careful thought, data collection, and analysis prior to implementation of any curricular changes.

Conversely, if interventions to improve self-esteem (or any type of interventions) are considered important to be implemented in a school system, staff should be clearly identified and provided with support and

adequate time to develop and deliver the programs. Programs should be implemented in a pilot fashion, evaluated, and modified as needed or dropped if ineffective at achieving their aims. In this district, due to unclear delineation of duties and lack of staff, personnel from several departments purported to be delivering self-esteem interventions, but actual programs were sporadic or nonexistent.

Implications for School District Leaders

Although this district was descriptive in nature, its primary purpose was to provide data for district decision making regarding development and implementation of a comprehensive K-12 self-esteem curriculum. Clearly, self-esteem has been studied extensively by numerous researchers for dozens of years, and the recent California Task Force report caused school districts all over the country to re-evaluate their efforts regarding the development of self-esteem in students. However, this researcher concludes that this type of action should be taken with caution.

Although the Coopersmith remains the most widely used and respected instrument to assess self-esteem, the findings in this research could have been due to many covariants, as mentioned in the Conclusions and Discussion of Findings section of this chapter. The causal nature between self-esteem and achievement is one which is subject to much discussion and disagreement. If, indeed, one or more of the covariants, rather than self-esteem, is really the key to increasing student achievement, then we need to be studying the impact of the covariant(s) and how best to maximize their instruction in the classroom.

For example, it has been noted that an important facet of the California Task Force definition of self-esteem, the attribute distinguishing

this definition of self-esteem from those previous to it, is the inclusion of personal and social responsibility. In fact, as the researcher reviewed the cover of the document, she noted that it was entitled Toward a State of Esteem: The Final Report of the California Task Force to Promote Self-esteem and Personal and Social Responsibility. On the cover, self-esteem was treated as a separate entity from personal and social responsibility.

Later in the document, personal and social responsibility became melded into the definition of self-esteem: “appreciating my own worth and importance and [emphasis added] having the character to be accountable for myself and to act responsibly toward others” (p. 18). However, this researcher believes that it is entirely possible that teaching responsibility-- toward oneself, one’s family, and society in general--is the essential piece to achieve Branden’s sense of efficacy and personal worth. It is entirely possible that one achieves a sense of personal worth by striving toward values which are other-centered rather than self-centered. It is possible that self-esteem is at best a by-product of hard work, integrity, and leading a moral life, rather than a goal to strive for in and of itself.

In addition, it is possible and quite effective to teach students to live responsibly and to make decisions which take into account the larger picture of family, friends, authority figures, and society. It is possible to teach students to problem solve and evaluate decisions based on commitment and universal values. It is possible to teach students decision-making, communication, study skills, and all those other components which usually comprise self-esteem curricula, without ever mentioning the concept of self-esteem.

Further, if self-esteem focuses on appreciating one’s own worth and importance, this researcher feels that it fails to take into account the soul-

searching which is part of the growth process when human beings make mistakes. When someone acts in an unkind or an immoral way, or when someone fails due to lack of effort, it is healthy to feel pain and anger at oneself. In fact, these feelings are necessary for a person to learn from his or her mistakes.

In sum, all schools and teachers teach an affective as well as an academic curriculum, whether they are aware of it or not. If the academic portion of the curriculum ensures that each student reaches sufficient skill levels to achieve success in career and life relationships, then we will have given students the tools with which to carve productive lives. If the affective portion of the curriculum develops in our students responsibility to oneself, one's family, and society; an ethic of hard work; and acceptance of a set of universal values which define a moral and upright life, we will have given students the goal structure to make their lives meaningful. Perhaps true self-esteem comes only from that constant striving toward a life made rich by concern for and commitment to others rather than oneself. Perhaps focusing on self-esteem as a means rather than an end trivializes the values and effort necessary to live a meaningful life.

Recommendations

Several recommendations for future study were developed as part of this research. As the researcher explored ideas for future study, it became apparent that self-esteem, as often defined, is too limited a concept to address the issues which affect students' journey toward responsible adulthood. Therefore, these recommendations are delineated with the consideration to view self-esteem, personal and social responsibility from the broad perspective taken by the California Task Force, which

encompasses “appreciating my own worth and importance and having the character to be accountable for myself and to act responsibly toward others” (Toward a State of Esteem, p. 1).

1. Studies which compare students in comprehensive schools to students who have dropped out of school, who are considering dropping out of school, or who are attending alternative schools may provide some significant differences and evidence to advise district officials regarding appropriate preventive strategies and programs.

2. Research methodology using ANCOVAs with academic achievement as a covariant with self-esteem, as well as other possible covariants as they are identified, may yield useful information to confirm or disconfirm the cause-and-effect relationship between academic achievement and self-esteem.

3. Another area worthy of future research relates to the educational community’s emphasis on preparing students for college. If great numbers of students are choosing different career paths than college affords, are we losing many students unnecessarily? Are we setting many students up for perceived failure by not living up to the school’s expectations of college achievement? Would we not be wise to value young adults who are personally competent and socially responsible, who may choose a more vocational path? Would we serve valid educational purposes by developing avenues through which students could engage in vocational exploration and perhaps interest and aptitude testing? Would that in turn encourage students to value education as viable vehicle toward their espoused goals?

4. Cultural and gender differences regarding the perception of self-esteem, as well as its antecedents and outward manifestations, should be further explored. Through development of understanding and sensitivity

which this exploration might provoke, teachers and others who work with children may learn better ways to provide an environment in which each child will flourish and develop optimally both in academic and affective realms.

5. Related to recommendation number 4, the impact of various school structures upon self-esteem, personal and social responsibility, and academic achievement would be worthy of further research. For example, do students thrive and develop character and personal and social responsibility better in a middle school structure than a junior high structure? What is the role of class size related to development of healthy children? What effect does tracking versus heterogeneous grouping have upon students' sense of efficacy? What support systems would ease the transition from elementary to junior high to high school? Conversely, do students develop more fully in integrated K-12 schools? What characteristics of specific structures are significant to develop students with healthy self-esteem, personal and social responsibility?

6. Since this district is so heavily impacted by recent immigrants to the United States, further research should address not only the support systems offered to students to learn English, but also issues which affect family assimilation and/or cultural identification. Outreach programs to provide family as well as student support should be explored. Extended outreach through school/community service agency cooperation is worthy of exploration.

7. Action research is recommended, whereby pilot programs would be set up, funded, and staffed by qualified personnel who are given adequate preparation time. Pilot programs should be monitored closely, evaluated for effectiveness, and replicated where warranted.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
PARENTS' INFORMED CONSENT



SAN DIEGO CITY SCHOOLS
EDUCATIONAL SERVICES DIVISION
HEALTH SERVICES DEPARTMENT
2716 Marcy Avenue San Diego CA 92113-7385
(619) 233 8951

205

May 15, 1991

Dear Parents:

As you may know, in 1986 the State of California established the Task Force to Promote Self-esteem and Personal and Social Responsibility. After three years of study, the Task Force concluded that improvement in self-esteem in children leads to improved decision making and greater success. In fact, self-concept has been found to be the most effective predictor of academic achievement, even more so than previous test scores. Self esteem is also considered a critical factor in the prevention of violent crimes, substance abuse, child abuse, and teenage pregnancy.

The Health Services Department of the San Diego Unified School District is working toward a more comprehensive approach for promoting self-esteem. As part of the preliminary planning process, your child's class has been randomly selected to take part in the Coopersmith Inventory for children.

The Coopersmith Inventory has 58 items and takes about 20 minutes to complete. There are no right or wrong answers, only answers which will help the district to better understand all our students. The inventory will be administered during class. The purpose of the inventory is not to measure your child on his or her self esteem, but to look at many children at a particular grade level to help us plan self-esteem curriculum and activities that meet the students' needs. Participation is voluntary, and a student may withdraw at any time. All results will be held strictly confidential; no one will review any individual child's results. Only total results by grade level will be shared to help the district in its planning. Group results will also be shared anonymously with Kathryn D. Skube, research assistant working with the Department of Health Services and a student at the University of San Diego, for use in a doctoral dissertation.

Unless you inform me of any objections to your student's participation in the Coopersmith Inventory, we will be happy to include your student. It is asked that you do not discuss that the study deals with the topic of self-esteem, because it might cause the student to change the way he or she would normally answer the questions. If you have any further questions or if you desire to see a copy of the instrument, please feel free to contact the office of Ed Fletcher, Health Services, 525-7370. Thank you for your continued support of the improvement of your child's education.

Yours truly,

Ed Fletcher
Director, Health Services



SAN DIEGO CITY SCHOOLS
EDUCATIONAL SERVICES DIVISION
HEALTH SERVICES DEPARTMENT
2718 Marcy Avenue, San Diego CA 92113-2395
(619) 233 8951

206

14 de Mayo de 1991

Estimados padres:

Como ustedes ya han de saber, el Estado de California estableció en 1986, la Comisión de Trabajo para Promover la Autoestimación y la Responsabilidad Personal y Social. Después de tres años de estudio, la comisión mencionada, concluyó que cuando mejora la autoestimación en los niños, mejora su habilidad para hacer decisiones y ésto conduce a alcanzar mayor éxito. En realidad, el autoconcepto se considera como un mejor pronosticador de logro académico, aun mejor que anteriores resultados de pruebas. La autoestimación también se considera un factor crítico en la prevención de crímenes violentos, abuso de substancias, abuso de niños, y embarazo entre jovencitas adolescentes.

El Departamento de Salud del Distrito Unificado de Escuelas de San Diego, está trabajando para desarrollar un plan de más amplitud con el fin de promover la autoestimación. Como parte del plan preliminar, la clase de su hijo/a ha sido selecta al azar para tomar parte en el *Coopersmith Inventory* para niños (un instrumento para medir la autoestimación).

El *Coopersmith Inventory* contiene 58 puntos y toma aproximadamente 20 minutos para completar. No hay respuestas correctas o incorrectas, sólo respuestas que ayudarán al distrito a entender mejor a todos nuestros estudiantes. La evaluación será llevada a cabo durante el horario de la clase de su hijo/a. El propósito de la evaluación no es el medir el nivel de autoestimación de sus hijos sino que nos dará la oportunidad de estudiar a muchos alumnos de un grado escolar en particular, para así ayudarnos a planear actividades y programas de estudios con énfasis en la autoestimación, con el fin de satisfacer las necesidades de cada estudiante. La participación es voluntaria y el alumno puede dejar de participar cuando lo desee. Los resultados serán tratados en forma confidencial; nadie leerá los resultados individuales de un alumno. Sólo los resultados totales de un determinado grado escolar serán usados y diseminados con el fin de ayudar al distrito con el planeamiento de programas de estudio. Los resultados de grupo también serán compartidos anónimamente con Kathryn D. Skube, asistente de investigaciones quien trabaja con el Departamento de Salud y es estudiante de la Universidad de San Diego. Los resultados serán usados por ella en su tesis doctoral.

A menos que me digan lo contrario, tendremos mucho gusto en incluir a su hijo/a en el *Coopersmith Inventory*. Se les pide a los padres que no discutan con sus hijos que el estudio trata con el tema de la autoestimación porque ésto podría cambiar la manera que ellos contestan las preguntas. Si usted tiene alguna pregunta o si desea ver una copia del instrumento que se va a usar, llame a la oficina de Ed Fletcher, Departamento de Salud, al teléfono 525-7370. Gracias por el continuo apoyo que nos ofrecen en el mejoramiento de la educación de sus hijos.

Sinceramente,

Ed Fletcher
Director, Health Services

APPENDIX B
STUDENTS' INFORMED CONSENT



SAN DIEGO CITY SCHOOLS
 EDUCATIONAL SERVICES DIVISION
 HEALTH SERVICES DEPARTMENT
 2716 Marcy Avenue San Diego CA 92113 2395
 (619) 233-8951

April 1, 1991

Dear Student:

As you may know, in 1986 the State of California established the Task Force to Promote Self-esteem and Personal and Social Responsibility. After three years of study, the Task Force concluded that improvement in self-esteem in children leads to improved decision making and greater success. In fact, self-concept has been found to be the most effective predictor of academic achievement, even more so than previous test scores. Self esteem is also considered a critical factor in the prevention of violent crimes, substance abuse, child abuse, and teenage pregnancy.

The Health Services Department of the San Diego Unified School District is working toward a more comprehensive approach for promoting self-esteem. As part of the preliminary planning process, your class has been randomly selected to take part in the Coopersmith Inventory.

The Coopersmith Inventory has 25 items and takes about 15 minutes to complete. There are no right or wrong answers, only answers which will help the district to better understand all our students. The inventory will be administered during class. The purpose of the inventory is not to measure you on your self esteem, but to look at many students at a particular grade level to help us plan self-esteem curricula and activities that meet many students' needs. Participation is voluntary, and you may withdraw at any time. All results will be held strictly confidential; no one will review any individual's results. Only total results by grade level will be shared to help the district in its planning. Group results will also be shared anonymously with Kathryn D. Skube, research assistant working with the Department of Health Services and a student at the University of San Diego, for use in a doctoral dissertation.

Please sign below to consent to participate in this study. If you have any further questions, please feel free to contact the office of Ed Fletcher, Health Services, 293-8572. Thank you for supporting us in improving education in our district.

Yours truly,

Ed Fletcher
 Director, Health Services

I, the undersigned, understand the above explanations and, on that basis, I consent to participate voluntarily in the Coopersmith Inventory.

Date _____ Student Signature _____

APPENDIX C
MODELS OF SELF-ESTEEM

MODELS OF SELF-ESTEEM: COMPENSATORY MODELS

MAJOR THEORISTS	DEFINITIONS	KEY FEATURES	COMPONENTS	RSHIP TO ACAD ACH
Coopersmith (1967, 1981)	An attitude of approval or disapproval of self which indicates the extent to which a person believes him- or herself capable, significant, successful, and worthy.	*fairly stable by middle childhood *varies by experience & role-defining conditions *self-evaluation affects behavior, consciously or unconsciously.	General Home/Parents Social/Peers School/Academic	Self-esteem is a causal influence in academic achievement.
Reasoner & Gilberts (1982)	The sense of self-respect, confidence, identity, and purpose found in an individual. (Also supports Coopersmith definition.)	*can be developed by parents & teachers *development is a sequential, step-by- step process *process may take years	Security Identity Belonging Purpose Personal	Self-esteem is a causal influence in academic achievement.
Rosenberg (1979)	Conception of own worthiness, determined not only by self-perceptions but also by interpretations of feedback from significant others.	*personal assessment *others' assessment *differential weighting of perceived strengths, weaknesses	Personal relevance Awareness Agreement Significance	Self-esteem affects academic achievement if achievement <i>counts</i> or <i>matters</i> to the individual.
Juhasz (1985)	Same as Rosenberg.	*people rate selves on objective standards *people attach a value or importance to those standards *transitory and age-dependent	Standards vary by individual and age group	May have no relationship. Depends upon success vs. importance or value to individual.
Pelham & Swann (1989)	Same as Rosenberg.	*framing - the ability to adjust self-views to accentuate positive and deaccentuate negative self qualities	Positive & negative affective states Self-view of strengths & weaknesses How person frames those self-views	May have no relationship. Person may frame self-view to value strengths & ignore weaknesses.

MODELS OF SELF-ESTEEM

MAJOR THEORISTS	DEFINITIONS	KEY FEATURES	COMPONENTS	RELATIONSHIP TO ACAD ACH
Branden (1969) VALUES THEORY	A person's self-appraisal and self-judgment.	*desire for self-esteem is a basic human need *Components interrelated *Values driven, requires constant striving for meaningful values	Sense of personal efficacy Sense of personal worth	Self-esteem precedes achievement; efficacy developed by using cognitive energy to solve problems.
Tajfel, Turner, Crocker (1979, 1982, 1986, 1990) SOCIAL IDENTITY THEORY	Self-assessment of worth, both personally and as a member of a social group.	*humans are internally motivated to maintain high self-esteem *humans discriminate against or disparage other groups to protect their group's collective identity	Personal identity Social or collective identity	May have no relationship. Theory focuses on social or collective identity & group status.
Weiten (1989) SOCIAL COMPARISON THEORY	Overall assessment of personal adequacy or worth.	*Self-esteem affected by choice of referent group and perceived standing in referent group	Referent group Personal standings within referent group.	May have no relationship. Theory focuses on individual's standing within reference group.
California Task Force (1990) INTEGRATED THEORY	Appreciating my own worth and importance and having the character to be accountable for myself and to act responsibly toward others.	*attempts to integrate values, moral integrity, and individualistic theories of self-esteem *Emphasizes responsibility toward others as well as self	Appreciating own worth & importance Appreciating worth & importance of others Affirming accountability for ourselves Affirming responsibility toward others	Self-esteem seen as essential to fight academic underachievement, dropout & failure.

APPENDIX D
SUMMARY TABLE OF FINDINGS

SUMMARY TABLE OF FINDINGS

QUESTION 1: CHANGES IN SELF-ESTEEM BY AGE. NO SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS EXCEPT:

Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem: highest at 4th grade, dropped significantly at grades 6, 8, and 10, rose again at grade 12.

School/Academics-related Self-Esteem: significant drop at grade 8, then rose to 12th grade level as high as 4th grade.

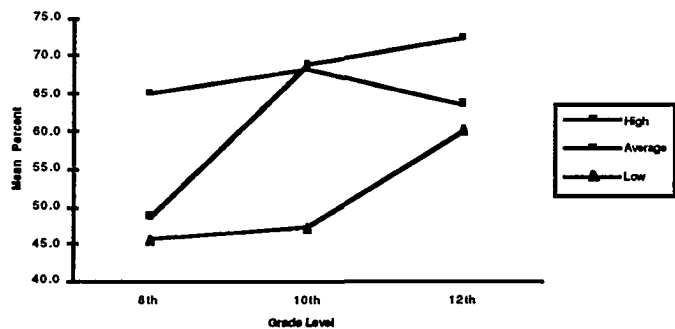
QUESTION 2: GENDER, ETHNIC, OR ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT DIFFERENCES ACROSS AGE: NO SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS.

SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS BY INDIVIDUAL AGE LEVELS FOLLOW:

GENDER			ETHNICITY			ACAD ACH GRADES 8, 10, 12		
GRADE	COMPONENT	FAVORED	GRADE	COMPONENT	FAVORED	GRADE	COMPONENT	FAVORED
8	General Self	Boys	6	Overall	Wht over Hisp	10	Overall	Hi, Avg over Low
12	Social/Peers	Girls	"	"	AfAm over As/I	All	"	Hi, Avg over Low
			All	General	Wht over AfAm, As/I	10	General	Hi over Low
			(No significant differences by individual grade levels)			All	"	Hi, Avg over Low
			4	Soc/Peers	AfAm over As/I, Hisp, Wht,	8	Sch/Acad	Hi over Avg, Low
			6	"	AfAm, Wht over As/I	10	"	Hi, Avg over Low
			10	"	AfAm, Wht over As/I, Hisp	All	"	Hi, Avg over Low
			All	"	AfAm, Wht over As/I, Hisp			
			6	Home/Parents	Wht over Hisp			
			8	"	Wht over As/I			
			10	"	AfAm, Wht over As/I			
			All	"	Wht over As/I, Hisp			
			6	Sch/Acad	Wht over Hisp			
			10	"	Wht over As/I			
			All	"	Wht over Hisp			

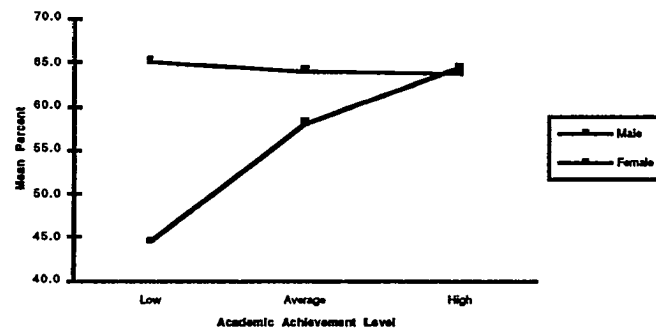
QUESTION 2: GENDER, ETHNIC, ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT INTERACTIONS NOTED

INTERACTION OF ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT AND AGE UPON SCHOOL/ACADEMICS-RELATED SELF ESTEEM



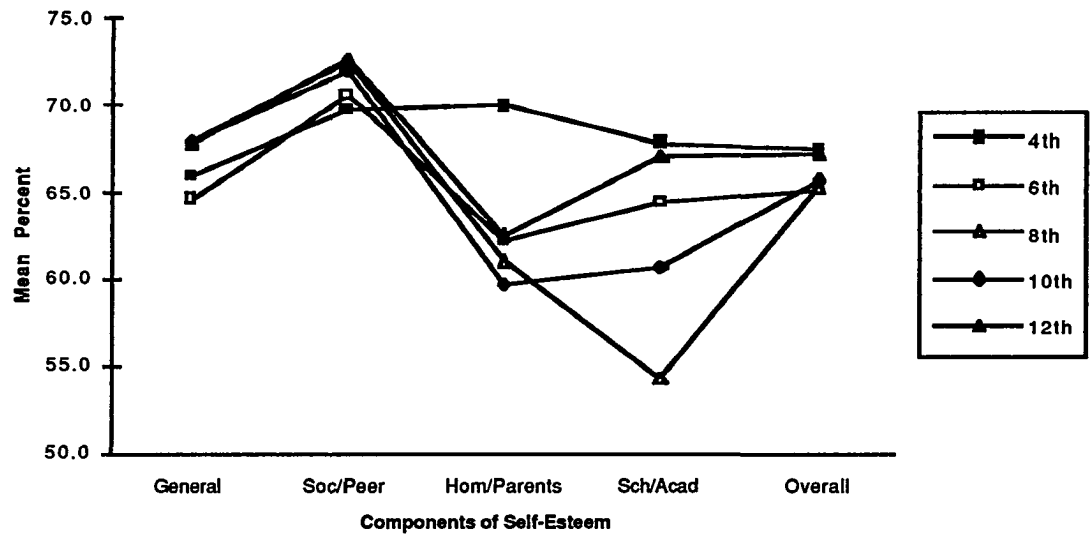
LOW ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT: Gradual increase
AVERAGE ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT: Significant increase
HIGH ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT: Consistently high

INTERACTION OF ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT AND GENDER UPON HOME/PARENTS-RELATED SELF-ESTEEM



BOYS: No relationship
GIRLS: Direct relationship

QUESTION 3: COMPARISON OF COMPONENTS BY AGE



COMPONENT	FAVORED
Home/Parents	Grade 4 over 6, 8, 10
School/Academic	Grades 4, 12 over 8, 10

General, Social/Peers, Overall Self-Esteem -- Similar for students of all ages.

QUESTION 4: NO CONSISTENT INTERVENTIONS HAD BEEN IMPLEMENTED WITHIN THE PAST YEAR IN THE CLASSES SURVEYED.

QUESTION 5: BASE TEACHER RATINGS CORRELATED TO STUDENT SELF-REPORTS

GRADE	CORRELATION
8	Moderate positive correlation
4, 6, 10, 12	Little to no correlation

APPENDIX E
RESULTS OF ONE- AND TWO-WAY ANOVAS

Results of One-way ANOVAs by Age

Grade		<u>n</u>	General Self	Social/ Peer	Home/ Parents	School/ Academic	Overall Score
4	<u>M</u>	145	65.9%	69.7%	69.9%	67.8%	67.4%
	<u>SD</u>		18.8%	22.8%	26.8%	22.1%	17.1%
6	<u>M</u>	151	64.6%	70.5%	62.2%*	64.4%	65.1%
	<u>SD</u>		18.8%	21.9%	28.8%	24.5%	17.5%
8	<u>M</u>	139	67.9%	72.5%	61.0%*	54.2%*	65.3%
	<u>SD</u>		17.8%	22.1%	30.5%	24.6%	16.6%
10	<u>M</u>	129	67.9%	71.9%	59.7%*	60.6%	65.7%
	<u>SD</u>		21.0%	30.1%	31.3%	32.0%	19.7%
12	<u>M</u>	89	67.8%	72.6%	62.5%	67.0%	67.2%
	<u>SD</u>		23.1%	29.2%	32.8%	29.5%	21.5%

* = significant at $\alpha = .05$.

Results of Two-Way ANOVAs based on Gender across Age

Grade		n	General	Soc/Peer	Hom/Par	Sch/Aca	Overall
<u>Male</u>							
4	<u>M</u>	70	64.9%	68.7%	68.9%	66.8%	66.4%
	<u>SD</u>		18.9%	21.0%	26.2%	22.2%	17.1%
6	<u>M</u>	74	67.0%	70.4%	62.7%	62.8%	66.2%
	<u>SD</u>		16.5%	21.5%	26.6%	25.1%	15.5%
8	<u>M</u>	70	71.9%*	72.1%	65.2%	53.5%	67.9%
	<u>SD</u>		16.1%	20.8%	29.2%	23.4%	15.6%
10	<u>M</u>	67	70.4%	73.1%	65.4%*	61.9%	68.6%
	<u>SD</u>		19.0%	29.0%	27.6%	33.6%	17.2%
12	<u>M</u>	45	65.4%	66.4%*	61.1%	63.0%	64.2%
	<u>SD</u>		21.8%	29.9%	31.4%	29.5%	19.9%
All	<u>M</u>	326	68.1%	70.4%	64.9%	61.5%	66.8%
	<u>SD</u>		18.4%	24.2%	27.9%	27.0%	16.8%
<u>Female</u>							
4	<u>M</u>	75	66.8%	70.7%	70.7%	68.8%	68.4%
	<u>SD</u>		18.7%	24.5%	27.4%	22.2%	17.2%
6	<u>M</u>	77	62.4%	70.6%	61.7%	65.9%	64.2%
	<u>SD</u>		20.6%	22.5%	30.9%	24.0%	19.2%
8	<u>M</u>	69	63.9%*	72.9%	56.8%	54.9%	62.8%
	<u>SD</u>		18.5%	23.5%	31.5%	25.8%	17.2%
10	<u>M</u>	62	65.3%	70.6%	53.5%*	59.1%	62.5%
	<u>SD</u>		22.8%	31.5%	34.0%	30.4%	21.7%
12	<u>M</u>	44	70.3%	79.0%*	64.0%	71.2%	70.3%
	<u>SD</u>		24.3%	27.5%	34.5%	29.3%	22.7%
All	<u>M</u>	327	65.3%	72.2%	61.5%	63.7%	65.3%
	<u>SD</u>		20.8%	25.8%	31.8%	26.6%	19.5%

* = significant at $\alpha = .05$.

Results of Two-Way ANOVAs based on Ethnicity across Age

Grade		n	General	Soc/Peer	Hom/Par	Sch/Aca	Overall
<u>AfAmer</u>							
4	<u>M</u>	18	65.2%	85.4%*	77.1%	68.8%	70.9%
	<u>SD</u>		17.1%	17.8%	22.8%	24.7%	16.4%
6	<u>M</u>	18	62.5%	76.7%*	67.7%	63.5%	65.8%
	<u>SD</u>		19.5%	19.4%	24.3%	19.9%	15.9%
8	<u>M</u>	18	63.4%	71.9%	61.1%	55.6%	63.1%
	<u>SD</u>		20.8%	24.5%	34.3%	24.7%	19.2%
10	<u>M</u>	20	67.9%	81.2%*	66.7%*	61.7%	69.0%*
	<u>SD</u>		22.5%	26.7%	28.6%	29.2%	20.3%
12	<u>M</u>	14	61.3%	64.3%	57.1%	66.7%	61.4%
	<u>SD</u>		22.6%	36.3%	33.8%	34.6%	24.2%
All	<u>M</u>	88	64.3%*	76.6%	66.4%	63.0%	66.3%
	<u>SD</u>		20.2%	25.6%	29.0%	26.5%	19.1%
<u>As/Indo</u>							
4	<u>M</u>	26	62.9%	63.5%	63.9%	72.1%	64.6%
	<u>SD</u>		19.1%	20.9%	27.9%	18.8%	15.2%
6	<u>M</u>	28	61.8%	63.4%*	57.6%	67.4%	62.3%
	<u>SD</u>		17.7%	20.7%	32.9%	25.1%	16.8%
8	<u>M</u>	20	63.7%	70.0%	48.1%*	56.9%	61.1%
	<u>SD</u>		18.1%	22.4%	33.3%	25.6%	18.4%
10	<u>M</u>	16	56.8%*	54.7%*	41.7%*	43.8%*	51.2%*
	<u>SD</u>		21.3%	39.0%	25.1%	26.4%	16.9%
12	<u>M</u>	12	58.3%	69.8%	61.1%	66.7%	61.8%
	<u>SD</u>		24.4%	26.9%	31.2%	31.8%	20.9%
All	<u>M</u>	102	61.3%*	64.1%*	55.3%*	62.7%	60.9%*
	<u>SD</u>		19.3%	25.4%	30.9%	26.2%	17.5%

* = significant at $\alpha = .05$.

Results of Two-Way ANOVAs based on Ethnicity across Age (Continued)

Grade		n	General	Soc/Peer	Hom/Par	Sch/Aca	Overall
<u>Hispanic</u>							
4	<u>M</u>	35	63.1%	67.1%*	70.0%	65.0%	65.2%
	<u>SD</u>		17.6%	18.0%	25.9%	21.2%	15.1%
6	<u>M</u>	46	62.4%	67.3%	53.7%*	57.9%*	61.0%*
	<u>SD</u>		19.1%	20.9%	29.1%	25.9%	17.7%
8	<u>M</u>	36	70.9%	69.1%	63.0%	48.3%	65.8%
	<u>SD</u>		16.3%	21.2%	29.0%	22.0%	14.9%
10	<u>M</u>	29	63.9%	63.8%*	55.7%	57.5%	61.2%*
	<u>SD</u>		20.0%	31.8%	36.3%	32.0%	20.1%
12	<u>M</u>	19	72.4%	69.7%	54.4%	64.9%	66.7%
	<u>SD</u>		18.0%	27.1%	37.2%	20.7%	18.9%
All	<u>M</u>	165	65.8%	67.3%*	59.6%*	58.0%*	63.6%*
	<u>SD</u>		18.4%	23.2%	31.1%	25.3%	17.2%
<u>White</u>							
4	<u>M</u>	63	68.7%	68.6%*	69.9%	68.1%	68.7%
	<u>SD</u>		20.0%	25.7%	28.3%	23.6%	19.3%
6	<u>M</u>	59	68.4%	74.5%*	69.3%*	68.3%*	69.5%*
	<u>SD</u>		18.8%	23.2%	26.2%	23.9%	17.4%
8	<u>M</u>	64	68.5%	74.9%	64.1%*	55.8%	66.8%
	<u>SD</u>		17.6%	22.0%	29.3%	25.5%	16.2%
10	<u>M</u>	57	71.5%*	77.6%*	64.9%*	65.2%*	70.1%*
	<u>SD</u>		20.1%	24.9%	29.8%	33.1%	17.9%
12	<u>M</u>	43	70.2%	76.7%	67.4%	67.4%	70.2%
	<u>SD</u>		24.6%	28.6%	30.9%	31.3%	21.7%
All	<u>M</u>	286	69.4%*	74.2%*	67.1%*	64.7%*	69.0%*
	<u>SD</u>		19.9%	24.7%	28.7%	27.7%	18.3%

* = significant at $\alpha = .05$.

Results of Two-Way ANOVAs: Academic Achievement across Age

Grade		<u>n</u>	General	Soc/Peer	Hom/Par	Sch/Aca	Overall
<u>Low</u>							
8	<u>M</u>	30	65.4%	67.7%	58.7%	45.6%*	61.5%
	<u>SD</u>		15.5%	22.6%	31.3%	21.2%	14.4%
10	<u>M</u>	48	63.4%*	70.3%	52.8%	47.2%*	60.0%*
	<u>SD</u>		21.4%	31.6%	36.9%	33.6%	21.9%
12	<u>M</u>	15	61.7%	59.2%	61.1%	60.0%	60.9%
	<u>SD</u>		23.5%	39.1%	34.3%	31.4%	24.5%
All	<u>M</u>	93	63.7%*	67.7%	56.0%	48.8%*	60.6%*
	<u>SD</u>		19.9%	30.3%	34.6%	29.9%	20.0%
<u>Avg</u>							
8	<u>M</u>	57	69.4%	73.6%	58.7%	48.7%*	65.1%
	<u>SD</u>		18.3%	21.9%	29.5%	23.6%	16.0%
10	<u>M</u>	41	68.8%	75.0%	62.6%	68.7%*	68.3%*
	<u>SD</u>		20.1%	26.2%	27.6%	27.9%	17.8%
12	<u>M</u>	41	68.9%	74.4%	63.4%	72.4%	68.9%
	<u>SD</u>		23.5%	27.1%	30.8%	29.7%	20.2%
All	<u>M</u>	139	69.1%*	74.2%	61.2%	61.6%*	67.1%*
	<u>SD</u>		20.3%	24.7%	29.2%	28.7%	17.8%
<u>High</u>							
8	<u>M</u>	52	67.7%	74.0%	64.9%	65.1%*	67.8%
	<u>SD</u>		18.6%	22.1%	31.4%	23.8%	18.1%
10	<u>M</u>	40	72.5%*	70.6%	65.0%	68.3%*	69.9%*
	<u>SD</u>		20.8%	32.5%	26.4%	29.2%	17.4%
12	<u>M</u>	33	69.2%	76.5%	62.1%	63.6%	68.0%
	<u>SD</u>		22.7%	25.7%	35.4%	28.1%	21.7%
All	<u>M</u>	125	69.6%*	73.6%	64.2%	65.8%*	68.5%*
	<u>SD</u>		20.4%	26.6%	30.8%	26.6%	18.8%

* = significant at $\alpha = .05$.

Results of ANOVAs comparing BASE to Overall Self-Esteem

Grade		<u>n</u>	Low	Moderate	High	<u>p value</u>
4	<u>M</u>	26	51.2%	64.6%	67.0%	.3657
	<u>SD</u>		11.9%	16.5%	22.2%	
6	<u>M</u>	29	56.3%	65.3%	76.0%	.3036
	<u>SD</u>		8.4%	20.0%	0.0%	
8	<u>M</u>	29	60.8%	69.3%	86.8%	.0004
	<u>SD</u>		11.7%	18.1%	8.1%	
10	<u>M</u>	22	60.0%	59.1%	N/A	.9225
	<u>SD</u>		17.7%	21.8%		
12	<u>M</u>	17	56.0%	61.7%	60.0%	.9391
	<u>SD</u>		33.9%	20.8%	5.7%	
Total	<u>M</u>	123	57.6%	63.6%	75.6%	.0009
	<u>SD</u>		13.4%	19.5%	18.7%	

Results of ANOVAs comparing BASE to School/Academics-related Self-Esteem

Grade		n	Low	Moderate	High	p value
4	<u>M</u>	26	46.9%	52.5%	71.9%	.0574
	<u>SD</u>		27.7%	22.7%	17.8%	
6	<u>M</u>	29	42.5%	64.6%	87.5%	.0174
	<u>SD</u>		18.8%	21.5%	0.0%	
8	<u>M</u>	29	42.2%	58.3%	89.6%	.0002
	<u>SD</u>		26.7%	27.2%	10.4%	
10	<u>M</u>	22	61.9%	62.2%	N/A	.9820
	<u>SD</u>		30.0%	30.5%		
12	<u>M</u>	17	50.0%	61.5%	66.7%	.8539
	<u>SD</u>		23.6%	32.9%	0.0%	
Total	<u>M</u>	123	47.8%	60.7%	79.9%	.0001
	<u>SD</u>		24.7%	26.7%	16.4%	

APPENDIX F

ANOVA SOURCE AND INCIDENCE TABLES AND

POST HOC ANALYSES FOR SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS

Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem Compared by Age

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Grade Y₁ : Home %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Grade Four	145	.699	.268	.022
Grade Six	151	.622	.288	.023
Grade Eight	139	.61	.305	.026
Grade Ten	129	.597	.313	.028
Grade Twelve	89	.625	.328	.035

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Grade Y₁ : Home %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	4	.89	.223	2.503
Within groups	648	57.632	.089	p = .0413
Total	652	58.522		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .001

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Grade Y₁ : Home %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Grade Four vs. Grade Six	.077	.068*	1.233	2.221
Grade Four vs. Grade Eight	.089	.07*	1.564	2.501
Grade Four vs. Grade Ten	.102	.071*	1.989	2.821
Grade Four vs. Grade Tw...	.073	.079	.832	1.824
Grade Six vs. Grade Eight	.012	.069	.027	.329

* Significant at 95%

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Grade Y₁ : Home %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Grade Six vs. Grade Ten	.025	.07	.12	.693
Grade Six vs. Grade Twel...	-.004	.078	.002	.095
Grade Eight vs. Grade Ten	.013	.072	.033	.364
Grade Eight vs. Grade Tw...	-.015	.08	.036	.378
Grade Ten vs. Grade Twel...	-.029	.081	.121	.695

School/Academics-related Self-Esteem Compared by Age

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Grade Y₁ : Sch %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	4	1.661	.415	5.955
Within groups	648	45.174	.07	p = .0001
Total	652	46.835		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .003

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Grade Y₁ : Sch %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Grade Four	145	.678	.221	.018
Grade Six	151	.644	.245	.02
Grade Eight	139	.542	.246	.021
Grade Ten	129	.606	.32	.028
Grade Twelve	89	.67	.295	.031

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Grade Y₁ : Sch %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Grade Four vs. Grade Six	.034	.06	.314	1.121
Grade Four vs. Grade Eight	.137	.062*	4.751*	4.359
Grade Four vs. Grade Ten	.073	.063*	1.287	2.269
Grade Four vs. Grade Tw...	.008	.07	.013	.226
Grade Six vs. Grade Eight	.102	.061*	2.712*	3.294

* Significant at 95%

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Grade Y₁ : Sch %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnnett t:
Grade Six vs. Grade Ten	.038	.062	.362	1.203
Grade Six vs. Grade Twel...	-.026	.069	.14	.747
Grade Eight vs. Grade Ten	-.064	.063*	.987	1.987
Grade Eight vs. Grade Tw...	-.129	.07*	3.218*	3.588
Grade Ten vs. Grade Twel...	-.064	.071	.785	1.772

* Significant at 95%

8th Grade General Self-Esteem Scores Compared by Sex

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Sex Y₁ : Subscale %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	1	.257	.257	4.622
Within groups	693	38.546	.056	p = .0319
Total	694	38.803		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .001

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Sex Y₁ : Subscale %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Male	350	.661	.226	.012
Female	345	.622	.246	.013

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Sex Y₁ : Subscale %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnnett t:
Male vs. Female	.038	.035*	4.622*	2.15

* Significant at 95%

12th Grade Social Self/Peer-related Self-Esteem Compared by Sex

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Sex Y₁ : Soc %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	1	.353	.353	4.275
Within groups	87	7.175	.082	p = .0417
Total	88	7.527		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .006

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Sex Y₁ : Soc %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Male	45	.664	.299	.045
Female	44	.79	.275	.041

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Sex Y₁ : Soc %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Male vs. Female	-.126	.121*	4.275*	2.068

* Significant at 95%

10th Grade Home/Parents related Self-Esteem Compared by Sex

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Sex Y₁ : Home-Parents

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	1	263.909	263.909	4.817
Within groups	127	6958.417	54.791	p = .03
Total	128	7222.326		

Model II estimate of between component variance = 3.247

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Sex Y₁ : Home-Parents

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Male	67	15.701	6.617	.808
Female	62	12.839	8.167	1.037

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Sex Y₁ : Home-Parents

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Male vs. Female	2.863	2.581*	4.817*	2.195

* Significant at 95%

10th Grade Overall Self-Esteem Compared by Ethnicity

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Total %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	4	.555	.139	3.915
Within groups	124	4.398	.035	p = .005
Total	128	4.954		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .005

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Total %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Hispanic	29	.612	.201	.037
White	57	.701	.179	.024
African American	20	.69	.203	.045
Asian/Indochinese	16	.512	.169	.042
Other	7	.72	.207	.078

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Total %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Hispanic vs. White	-.09	.085*	1.09	2.088
Hispanic vs. African Ame...	-.078	.108	.511	1.43
Hispanic vs. Asian/Indoch...	.099	.116	.716	1.692
Hispanic vs. Other	-.108	.157	.466	1.365
White vs. African Americ...	.011	.097	.014	.233

* Significant at 95%

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Total %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnnett t:
White vs. Asian/Indochin...	.189	.105*	3.142*	3.545
White vs. Other	-.019	.149	.015	.247
African Am... vs. Asian/l...	.178	.125*	1.974	2.81
African Am... vs. Other	-.03	.164	.033	.363
Asian/Indo... vs. Other	-.207	.169*	1.478	2.431

* Significant at 95%

6th Grade Overall Self-Esteem Compared by Ethnicity

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Total %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	3	.213	.071	2.392
Within groups	147	4.37	.03	p = .0709
Total	150	4.583		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .001

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Total %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Hispanic	46	.61	.177	.026
White	59	.695	.174	.023
African American	18	.658	.159	.038
Asian/Indochinese	28	.623	.168	.032

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Total %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Hispanic vs. White	-.085	.067*	2.077	2.496
Hispanic vs. African Ame...	-.047	.095	.325	.988
Hispanic vs. Asian/Indoch...	-.012	.082	.03	.301
White vs. African Americ...	.037	.092	.215	.804
White vs. Asian/Indochin...	.072	.078	1.111	1.826

* Significant at 95%

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Total %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
African Am... vs. Asian/l...	.035	.103	.15	.67

All Subjects' General Self-Esteem Compared by Ethnicity

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Gen %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	4	.737	.184	4.88
Within groups	648	24.467	.038	p = .0007
Total	652	25.204		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .001

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Gen %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Hispanic	165	.658	.184	.014
White	286	.694	.199	.012
African American	88	.643	.202	.022
Asian/Indochinese	102	.613	.193	.019
Other	12	.785	.15	.043

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Gen %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Hispanic vs. White	-.035	.037	.865	1.86
Hispanic vs. African Ame...	.016	.05	.093	.611
Hispanic vs. Asian/Indoch...	.046	.048	.871	1.866
Hispanic vs. Other	-.127	.114*	1.194	2.185
White vs. African Americ...	.051	.047*	1.159	2.153

* Significant at 95%

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Gen %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnnett t:
White vs. Asian/Indochin...	.081	.044*	3.267*	3.615
White vs. Other	-.092	.112	.64	1.6
African Am... vs. Asian/l...	.03	.056	.282	1.061
African Am... vs. Other	-.143	.117*	1.422	2.385
Asian/Indo... vs. Other	-.173	.116*	2.119	2.911

* Significant at 95%

4th Grade Social Self/Peer-related Self-Esteem Compared by Ethnicity

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Soc %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	4	.633	.158	3.216
Within groups	140	6.885	.049	p = .0146
Total	144	7.518		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .004

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Soc %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Hispanic	35	.671	.18	.03
White	63	.686	.257	.032
African American	18	.854	.178	.042
Asian/Indochinese	26	.635	.209	.041
Other	3	.833	.191	.11

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Soc %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Hispanic vs. White	-.014	.092	.023	.301
Hispanic vs. African Ame...	-.183	.127*	2.018	2.841
Hispanic vs. Asian/Indoch...	.037	.114	.103	.641
Hispanic vs. Other	-.162	.264	.368	1.214
White vs. African Americ...	-.169	.117*	2.024	2.845

* Significant at 95%

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Soc %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
White vs. Asian/Indochin...	.051	.102	.242	.985
White vs. Other	-.148	.259	.318	1.128
African Am... vs. Asian/l...	.22	.134*	2.606*	3.229
African Am... vs. Other	.021	.273	.006	.151
Asian/Indo... vs. Other	-.199	.267	.54	1.47

* Significant at 95%

6th Grade Social Self/Peer-related Self-Esteem Compared by Ethnicity

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Soc %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	3	.353	.118	2.518
Within groups	147	6.867	.047	p = .0604
Total	150	7.22		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .002

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Soc %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Hispanic	46	.673	.209	.031
White	59	.745	.232	.03
African American	18	.767	.194	.046
Asian/Indochinese	28	.634	.207	.039

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Soc %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Hispanic vs. White	-.072	.084	.96	1.697
Hispanic vs. African Ame...	-.095	.119	.83	1.578
Hispanic vs. Asian/Indoch...	.039	.102	.185	.746
White vs. African Americ...	-.023	.115	.051	.389
White vs. Asian/Indochin...	.111	.098*	1.663	2.233

* Significant at 95%

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Soc %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	3	.353	.118	2.518
Within groups	147	6.867	.047	p = .0604
Total	150	7.22		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .002

10th Grade Social Self/Peer-related Self-Esteem Compared by Ethnicity

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Soc %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	4	1.027	.257	3.003
Within groups	124	10.599	.085	p = .021
Total	128	11.626		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .007

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Soc %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Hispanic	29	.638	.318	.059
White	57	.776	.249	.033
African American	20	.812	.267	.06
Asian/Indochinese	16	.547	.39	.097
Other	7	.714	.336	.127

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Soc %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Hispanic vs. White	-.138	.132*	1.077	2.075
Hispanic vs. African Ame...	-.175	.168*	1.055	2.054
Hispanic vs. Asian/Indoch...	.091	.18	.25	1
Hispanic vs. Other	-.076	.244	.096	.62
White vs. African Americ...	-.036	.15	.057	.476

* Significant at 95%

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Soc %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
White vs. Asian/Indochin...	.229	.164*	1.924	2.774
White vs. Other	.062	.232	.07	.53
African Am... vs. Asian/l...	.266	.194*	1.834	2.709
African Am... vs. Other	.098	.254	.146	.765
Asian/Indo... vs. Other	-.167	.262	.399	1.264

* Significant at 95%

All Subjects' Social Self/Peer-related Self-Esteem Compared by Ethnicity

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Soc %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	4	1.357	.339	5.582
Within groups	648	39.377	.061	p = .0002
Total	652	40.734		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .002

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Soc %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Hispanic	165	.673	.232	.018
White	286	.742	.247	.015
African American	88	.766	.256	.027
Asian/Indochinese	102	.641	.254	.025
Other	12	.792	.284	.082

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Soc %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Hispanic vs. White	-.069	.047*	2.064	2.873
Hispanic vs. African Ame...	-.093	.064*	2.021	2.843
Hispanic vs. Asian/Indoch...	.032	.061	.268	1.036
Hispanic vs. Other	-.119	.145	.647	1.609
White vs. African Americ...	-.023	.059	.15	.774

* Significant at 95%

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Soc %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
White vs. Asian/Indochin...	.101	.056*	3.182*	3.567
White vs. Other	-.049	.143	.115	.679
African Am... vs. Asian/l...	.125	.07*	3.022*	3.477
African Am... vs. Other	-.026	.149	.029	.343
Asian/Indo... vs. Other	-.151	.148*	1.004	2.004

* Significant at 95%

6th Grade Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem Compared by Ethnicity

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Home %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	3	.745	.248	3.119
Within groups	147	11.699	.08	p = .028
Total	150	12.444		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .005

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Home %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Hispanic	46	.537	.291	.043
White	59	.693	.262	.034
African American	18	.677	.243	.057
Asian/Indochinese	28	.576	.329	.062

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Home %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Hispanic vs. White	-.156	.11*	2.638	2.813
Hispanic vs. African Ame...	-.14	.155	1.068	1.79
Hispanic vs. Asian/Indoch...	-.039	.134	.112	.58
White vs. African Americ...	.016	.15	.014	.207
White vs. Asian/Indochin...	.117	.128	1.087	1.806

* Significant at 95%

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Home %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
African Am... vs. Asian/...	.101	.168	.47	1.187

8th Grade Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem Compared by Ethnicity

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Hom %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	4	.418	.105	1.125
Within groups	134	12.461	.093	p = .3476
Total	138	12.88		

Model II estimate of between component variance = 4.885E-4

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Hom %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Hispanic	36	.63	.29	.048
White	64	.641	.293	.037
African American	18	.611	.343	.081
Asian/Indochinese	20	.481	.333	.075
Other	1	.5	.	.

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Hom %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Hispanic vs. White	-.01	.126	.007	.164
Hispanic vs. African Ame...	.019	.174	.012	.217
Hispanic vs. Asian/Indoch...	.149	.168	.767	1.751
Hispanic vs. Other	.13	.612	.044	.421
White vs. African Americ...	.03	.161	.033	.363

One Factor ANOVA X 1 : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y 1 : Hom %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
White vs. Asian/Indochin...	.159	.155*	1.041	2.04
White vs. Other	.141	.608	.052	.458
African Am... vs. Asian/l...	.13	.196	.429	1.311
African Am... vs. Other	.111	.62	.031	.355
Asian/Indo... vs. Other	-.019	.618	.001	.06

* Significant at 95%

10th Grade Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem Compared by Ethnicity

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Home %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	4	.835	.209	2.211
Within groups	124	11.704	.094	p = .0716
Total	128	12.539		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .005

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Home %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Hispanic	29	.557	.363	.067
White	57	.649	.298	.04
African American	20	.667	.286	.064
Asian/Indochinese	16	.417	.251	.063
Other	7	.548	.3	.113

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Home %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Hispanic vs. White	-.092	.139	.428	1.308
Hispanic vs. African Ame...	-.109	.177	.374	1.223
Hispanic vs. Asian/Indoch...	.141	.189	.541	1.472
Hispanic vs. Other	.01	.256	.001	.076
White vs. African Americ...	-.018	.158	.012	.22

One Factor ANOVA X 1 : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y 1 : Home %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnnett t:
White vs. Asian/Indochin...	.232	.172*	1.788	2.674
White vs. Other	.102	.244	.17	.825
African Am... vs. Asian/l...	.25	.204*	1.471	2.426
African Am... vs. Other	.119	.267	.195	.882
Asian/Indo... vs. Other	-.131	.276	.221	.941

* Significant at 95%

All Subjects' Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem Compared by Ethnicity

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Soc %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	4	1.357	.339	5.582
Within groups	648	39.377	.061	p = .0002
Total	652	40.734		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .002

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Soc %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Hispanic	165	.673	.232	.018
White	286	.742	.247	.015
African American	88	.766	.256	.027
Asian/Indochinese	102	.641	.254	.025
Other	12	.792	.284	.082

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Soc %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Hispanic vs. White	-.069	.047*	2.064	2.873
Hispanic vs. African Ame...	-.093	.064*	2.021	2.843
Hispanic vs. Asian/Indoch...	.032	.061	.268	1.036
Hispanic vs. Other	-.119	.145	.647	1.609
White vs. African Americ...	-.023	.059	.15	.774

* Significant at 95%

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Soc %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnnett t:
White vs. Asian/Indochin...	.101	.056*	3.182*	3.567
White vs. Other	-.049	.143	.115	.679
African Am... vs. Asian/l...	.125	.07*	3.022*	3.477
African Am... vs. Other	-.026	.149	.029	.343
Asian/Indo... vs. Other	-.151	.148*	1.004	2.004

* Significant at 95%

6th Grade School/Academics-related Self-Esteem Compared by Ethnicity

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Sch %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	3	.313	.104	1.763
Within groups	147	8.702	.059	p = .1567
Total	150	9.016		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .001

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Sch %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Hispanic	46	.579	.259	.038
White	59	.683	.239	.031
African American	18	.635	.199	.047
Asian/Indochinese	28	.674	.251	.047

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Sch %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Hispanic vs. White	-.104	.095*	1.588	2.183
Hispanic vs. African Ame...	-.057	.134	.233	.837
Hispanic vs. Asian/Indoch...	-.095	.115	.89	1.634
White vs. African Americ...	.048	.129	.178	.73
White vs. Asian/Indochin...	.009	.11	.009	.164

* Significant at 95%

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Sch %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
African Am... vs. Asian/l...	-.039	.145	.092	.526

10th Grade School/Academics-related Self-Esteem Compared by Ethnicity

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Sch %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	4	.688	.172	1.717
Within groups	124	12.42	.1	p = .1504
Total	128	13.108		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .003

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Sch %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Hispanic	29	.575	.32	.059
White	57	.652	.331	.044
African American	20	.617	.292	.065
Asian/Indochinese	16	.438	.264	.066
Other	7	.714	.356	.135

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Sch %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Hispanic vs. White	-.077	.143	.287	1.071
Hispanic vs. African Ame...	-.042	.182	.052	.456
Hispanic vs. Asian/Indoch...	.137	.195	.485	1.392
Hispanic vs. Other	-.14	.264	.274	1.047
White vs. African Americ...	.035	.163	.046	.43

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Sch %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
White vs. Asian/Indochin...	.215	.177*	1.435	2.396
White vs. Other	-.062	.251	.06	.491
African Am... vs. Asian/l...	.179	.21	.712	1.688
African Am... vs. Other	-.098	.275	.123	.702
Asian/Indo... vs. Other	-.277	.284	.931	1.93

* Significant at 95%

All Subjects' School/Academics-related Self-Esteem Compared by Ethnicity

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Sch %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	4	.554	.138	1.939
Within groups	648	46.281	.071	p = .1023
Total	652	46.835		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .001

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Sch %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Hispanic	165	.58	.253	.02
White	286	.647	.277	.016
African American	88	.63	.265	.028
Asian/Indochinese	102	.627	.262	.026
Other	12	.708	.297	.086

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Sch %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Hispanic vs. White	-.067	.051*	1.629	2.553
Hispanic vs. African Ame...	-.05	.069	.505	1.421
Hispanic vs. Asian/Indoch...	-.047	.066	.49	1.401
Hispanic vs. Other	-.128	.157	.642	1.602
White vs. African Americ...	.017	.064	.065	.508

* Significant at 95%

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode of Recode of Ethnicity Y₁ : Sch %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnnett t:
White vs. Asian/Indochin...	.02	.061	.101	.634
White vs. Other	-.061	.155	.152	.779
African Am... vs. Asian/l...	.003	.076	.001	.077
African Am... vs. Other	-.078	.162	.224	.947
Asian/Indo... vs. Other	-.081	.16	.246	.992

School/Academics-related Self-Esteem Compared by Age and Academic Achievement

Anova table for a 2-factor Analysis of Variance on Y 1 : Sch %

Source:	df:	Sum of Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:	P value:
Recode 2 of GPA (A)	2	1.084	.542	7.117	.0009
Recode of Grade (B)	2	.811	.406	5.328	.0053
AB	4	.963	.241	3.163	.0142
Error	348	26.492	.076		

There were no missing cells found.

The AB Incidence table on Y 1 : Sch %

Recode of Gra...	Grade Eight	Grade Ten	Grade Tw...	Totals:	
Recode 2 of GPA	Low	30	48	15	93
		.456	.472	.6	.488
	Average	57	41	41	139
		.487	.687	.724	.616
High	52	40	33	125	
		.651	.683	.636	.658
Totals:	139	129	89	357	
		.542	.606	.67	.597

10th Grade Overall Self-Esteem Compared by Academic Achievement

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode 2 of GPA Y₁ : Total %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	2	.254	.127	3.406
Within groups	126	4.7	.037	p = .0363
Total	128	4.954		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .002

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode 2 of GPA Y₁ : Total %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Low	48	.6	.219	.032
Average	41	.683	.178	.028
High	40	.699	.174	.028

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode 2 of GPA Y₁ : Total %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Low vs. Average	-.083	.081*	2.038	2.019
Low vs. High	-.099	.082*	2.867	2.394
Average vs. High	-.016	.085	.07	.374

* Significant at 95%

8th, 10th, and 12th Grade Subjects' Overall Self-Esteem Compared by Academic Achievement

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode 2 of GPA Y₁ : Total %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	2	.365	.183	5.198
Within groups	354	12.442	.035	p = .006
Total	356	12.808		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .001

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode 2 of GPA Y₁ : Total %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Low	93	.606	.2	.021
Average	139	.671	.178	.015
High	125	.685	.188	.017

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode 2 of GPA Y₁ : Total %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnnett t:
Low vs. Average	-.065	.049*	3.34*	2.585
Low vs. High	-.079	.05*	4.733*	3.077
Average vs. High	-.014	.045	.185	.609

* Significant at 95%

10th Grade General Self-Esteem Compared by Academic Achievement

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode 2 of GPA Y₁ : Gen %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	2	.187	.093	2.153
Within groups	126	5.458	.043	p = .1204
Total	128	5.644		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .001

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode 2 of GPA Y₁ : Gen %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Low	48	.634	.214	.031
Average	41	.688	.201	.031
High	40	.725	.208	.033

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode 2 of GPA Y₁ : Gen %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Low vs. Average	-.054	.088	.753	1.227
Low vs. High	-.091	.088*	2.1	2.049
Average vs. High	-.037	.092	.32	.8

* Significant at 95%

8th, 10th, and 12th Grade Subjects' General Self-Esteem Compared by Academic Achievement

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode 2 of GPA Y₁ : Gen %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	2	.217	.109	2.656
Within groups	354	14.483	.041	p = .0716
Total	356	14.7		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .001

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode 2 of GPA Y₁ : Gen %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Low	93	.637	.199	.021
Average	139	.691	.203	.017
High	125	.696	.204	.018

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode 2 of GPA Y₁ : Gen %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Low vs. Average	-.053	.053*	1.946	1.973
Low vs. High	-.059	.054*	2.25	2.122
Average vs. High	-.005	.049	.023	.213

* Significant at 95%

8th Grade School/Academics-related Self-Esteem Compared by Academic Achievement

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode 2 of GPA Y₁ : Sch %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	2	1.017	.508	9.453
Within groups	136	7.314	.054	p = .0001
Total	138	8.331		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .01

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode 2 of GPA Y₁ : Sch %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Low	30	.456	.212	.039
Average	57	.487	.236	.031
High	52	.651	.238	.033

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode 2 of GPA Y₁ : Sch %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Low vs. Average	-.031	.103	.171	.585
Low vs. High	-.195	.105*	6.739*	3.671
Average vs. High	-.165	.088*	6.849*	3.701

* Significant at 95%

10th Grade School/Academics-related Self-Esteem Compared by Academic Achievement

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode 2 of GPA Y₁ : Sch %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	2	1.367	.684	7.336
Within groups	126	11.74	.093	p = .001
Total	128	13.108		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .014

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode 2 of GPA Y₁ : Sch %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Low	48	.472	.336	.048
Average	41	.687	.279	.044
High	40	.683	.292	.046

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode 2 of GPA Y₁ : Sch %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnnett t:
Low vs. Average	-.215	.128*	5.473*	3.309
Low vs. High	-.211	.129*	5.218*	3.23
Average vs. High	.004	.134	.001	.054

* Significant at 95%

8th, 10th, and 12th Grade Subjects' School/Academics-related Self-Esteem Compared by Academic Achievement

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode 2 of GPA Y₁ : Sch %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	2	1.62	.81	10.098
Within groups	354	28.397	.08	p = .0001
Total	356	30.017		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .006

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode 2 of GPA Y₁ : Sch %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Low	93	.488	.299	.031
Average	139	.616	.287	.024
High	125	.658	.266	.024

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Recode 2 of GPA Y₁ : Sch %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Low vs. Average	-.128	.075*	5.693*	3.374
Low vs. High	-.17	.076*	9.604*	4.383
Average vs. High	-.042	.069	.722	1.202

* Significant at 95%

Home/Parents-related Self-Esteem Compared by Academic Achievement and Gender

Anova table for a 2-factor Analysis of Variance on Y 1 : Hom %

Source:	df:	Sum of Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:	P value:
Recode of Grade (A)	2	.021	.01	.104	.9009
Recode 2 of GPA (B)	2	.192	.096	.974	.3786
AB	4	.181	.045	.458	.7669
Error	348	34.369	.099		

There were no missing cells found.

The AB Incidence table on Y 1 : Hom %

Recode 2 of G...	Low	Average	High	Totals:	
Recode of Grade	Grade Eight	30	57	52	139
		.587	.587	.649	.61
	Grade Ten	48	41	40	129
		.528	.626	.65	.597
Grade Twe...	15	41	33	89	
		.611	.634	.621	.625
Totals:	93	139	125	357	
	.56	.612	.642	.609	

Subscale Comparisons based upon Age and Components of Self-Esteem

Anova table for a 2-factor Analysis of Variance on Y ₁ : Subscale %

Source:	df:	Sum of Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:	P value:
Recode of Grade (A)	4	.729	.182	3.107	.0146
Subscale (B)	4	3.089	.772	13.161	.0001
AB	16	2.093	.131	2.229	.0033
Error	3240	190.102	.059		

There were no missing cells found.

The AB Incidence table on Y ₁ : Subscale %

Subscale:		Gen %	Soc %	Hom %	Sch %	Total %	Totals:
Recode of Grade	Grade Four	145 .659	145 .697	145 .699	145 .678	145 .674	725 .681
	Grade Six	151 .646	151 .705	151 .622	151 .644	151 .651	755 .654
	Grade Eight	139 .679	139 .725	139 .61	139 .542	139 .653	695 .642
	Grade Ten	129 .679	129 .719	129 .597	129 .606	129 .657	645 .652

Page 2 of the AB Incidence table on Y ₁ : Subscale %

Subscale:		Gen %	Soc %	Hom %	Sch %	Total %	Totals:
Rec...	Grade Twe...	89 .678	89 .726	89 .625	89 .67	89 .672	445 .674
	Totals:	653 .667	653 .713	653 .632	653 .626	653 .661	3265 .66

6th Grade Comparisons by Subscale

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Subscale Y₁ : Subscale %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	4	.573	.143	2.785
Within groups	750	38.577	.051	p = .0257
Total	754	39.15		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .001

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Subscale Y₁ : Subscale %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Gen %	151	.646	.188	.015
Soc %	151	.705	.219	.018
Hom %	151	.622	.288	.023
Sch %	151	.644	.245	.02
Total %	151	.651	.175	.014

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Subscale Y₁ : Subscale %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Gen % vs. Soc %	-.058	.051*	1.253	2.238
Gen % vs. Hom %	.025	.051	.225	.949
Gen % vs. Sch %	.002	.051	.002	.093
Gen % vs. Total %	-.005	.051	.009	.191
Soc % vs. Hom %	.083	.051*	2.54*	3.187

* Significant at 95%

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Subscale Y₁ : Subscale %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnnett t:
Soc % vs. Sch %	.061	.051*	1.358	2.331
Soc % vs. Total %	.053	.051*	1.047	2.047
Hom % vs. Sch %	-.022	.051	.183	.856
Hom % vs. Total %	-.03	.051	.325	1.14
Sch % vs. Total %	-.007	.051	.02	.284

* Significant at 95%

8th Grade Comparisons by Subscale

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Subscale Y₁ : Subscale %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	4	2.698	.674	12.89
Within groups	690	36.105	.052	p = .0001
Total	694	38.803		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .004

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Subscale Y₁ : Subscale %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Gen %	139	.679	.178	.015
Soc %	139	.725	.221	.019
Hom %	139	.61	.305	.026
Sch %	139	.542	.246	.021
Total %	139	.653	.166	.014

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Subscale Y₁ : Subscale %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Gen % vs. Soc %	-.046	.054	.696	1.669
Gen % vs. Hom %	.069	.054*	1.575	2.51
Gen % vs. Sch %	.137	.054*	6.251*	5.001
Gen % vs. Total %	.026	.054	.218	.935
Soc % vs. Hom %	.115	.054*	4.365*	4.179

* Significant at 95%

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Subscale Y₁ : Subscale %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Soc % vs. Sch %	.183	.054*	11.121*	6.669
Soc % vs. Total %	.071	.054*	1.695	2.604
Hom % vs. Sch %	.068	.054*	1.551	2.491
Hom % vs. Total %	-.043	.054	.62	1.575
Sch % vs. Total %	-.112	.054*	4.133*	4.066

* Significant at 95%

10th Grade Comparisons by Subscale

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Subscale Y₁ : Subscale %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	4	1.343	.336	4.49
Within groups	640	47.871	.075	p = .0014
Total	644	49.214		

Model II estimate of between component variance = .002

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Subscale Y₁ : Subscale %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Gen %	129	.679	.21	.018
Soc %	129	.719	.301	.027
Hom %	129	.597	.313	.028
Sch %	129	.606	.32	.028
Total %	129	.657	.197	.017

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Subscale Y₁ : Subscale %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Gen % vs. Soc %	-.04	.067	.34	1.167
Gen % vs. Hom %	.082	.067*	1.462	2.419
Gen % vs. Sch %	.073	.067*	1.159	2.153
Gen % vs. Total %	.022	.067	.106	.652
Soc % vs. Hom %	.122	.067*	3.214*	3.585

* Significant at 95%

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Subscale Y₁ : Subscale %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Soc % vs. Sch %	.113	.067*	2.755*	3.32
Soc % vs. Total %	.062	.067	.827	1.819
Hom % vs. Sch %	-.009	.067	.018	.266
Hom % vs. Total %	-.06	.067	.78	1.766
Sch % vs. Total %	-.051	.067	.563	1.501

* Significant at 95%

12th Grade Comparisons by Subscale

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Subscale Y₁ : Subscale %

Analysis of Variance Table

Source:	DF:	Sum Squares:	Mean Square:	F-test:
Between groups	4	.454	.114	1.496
Within groups	440	33.404	.076	p = .2025
Total	444	33.858		

Model II estimate of between component variance = 4.227E-4

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Subscale Y₁ : Subscale %

Group:	Count:	Mean:	Std. Dev.:	Std. Error:
Gen %	89	.678	.231	.024
Soc %	89	.726	.292	.031
Hom %	89	.625	.328	.035
Sch %	89	.67	.295	.031
Total %	89	.672	.215	.023

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Subscale Y₁ : Subscale %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Gen % vs. Soc %	-.048	.081	.341	1.167
Gen % vs. Hom %	.052	.081	.403	1.269
Gen % vs. Sch %	.007	.081	.008	.181
Gen % vs. Total %	.006	.081	.005	.14
Soc % vs. Hom %	.101	.081*	1.485	2.437

* Significant at 95%

One Factor ANOVA X₁ : Subscale Y₁ : Subscale %

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Fisher PLSD:	Scheffe F-test:	Dunnett t:
Soc % vs. Sch %	.056	.081	.455	1.349
Soc % vs. Total %	.054	.081	.427	1.307
Hom % vs. Sch %	-.045	.081	.296	1.088
Hom % vs. Total %	-.047	.081	.319	1.13
Sch % vs. Total %	-.002	.081	4.350E-4	.042