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THE INFLUENCE OF A PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT UNIT
ON THE SELF-CONCEPT AND SEX-ROLE IDENTITY
OF URBAN MINORITY ADOLESCENTS

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Doctor of Education in the Graduate School
of Texas Southern University

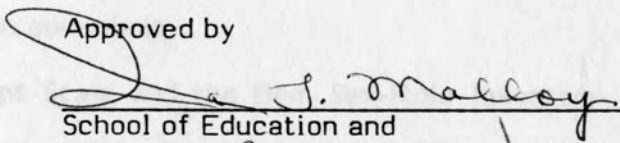
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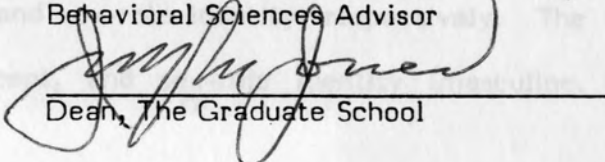
Carol A. Hightower, B.A., M.A.

Texas Southern University

1986

Approved by


School of Education and
Behavioral Sciences Advisor


Dean, The Graduate School

**THE INFLUENCE OF A PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT UNIT
ON THE SELF-CONCEPT AND SEX-ROLE IDENTITY
OF URBAN MINORITY ADOLESCENTS**

by

Carol A. Hightower, Ed.D.

Texas Southern University, 1986

Associate Professor Irma T. Malloy, Advisor

The purpose of this study was to determine if a unit of instruction on personal development would make a significant difference in the self-concepts and sex-role identities between experimental and control groups of urban high school adolescents. The personal development instruction included cultural awareness, self-concept enhancement skills, job search skills, financial aid planning for college, scholarship search skills, technical careers exposure, and exploration of personal concerns. This study involved 70 urban minority high school students ranging in age from 14 to 18 years of age. The experimental group consisted of 32 black high school students participating in Project INSTEAD (Institute for Supplementary Education and Development). The 38 control group students did not participate in Project INSTEAD; however, they were residents of the immediate urban community.

The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale and the Bem Sex-Role Inventory were used to measure self-concept and sex-role identity, respectively. The data, mean total positive self-concept, and sex-role identity (masculine,

feminine, androgynous, and undifferentiated) were statistically analyzed using the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) technique.

The findings of this study showed that there were no significant differences in mean self-concept and sex-role identity between the experimental and control groups. The adolescents in both groups reported positive self-concepts and diverse sex-role identification. For this population, androgyny and masculinity were not exclusive indicators of positive or high self-concept. Sixty percent of the students in the experimental and control groups obtained positive self-concept scores. The only obvious difference between the two groups was sex-role identity. The control group did not record any androgynous students, while the experimental group recorded 56%.

The major conclusions to be drawn from the findings are: (1) a 10-week personal development unit did not significantly alter the self-concept or sex-role identity of students in the experimental group, (2) minority males and females had overall positive self-concepts in this study, and (3) sex-role classifications were not true indicators of self-concept for minority students in this study.

Approved By

Le. S. Mueeny

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April 29, 1986

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Urban adolescents are growing up in a society which is characterized by diversity and complexity which have consequential influences on their relationships, adjustments, and personal and social adjustment. To fully understand how adolescents develop, one must scrutinize the contemporary influences and the cultural context in which they live (Thornburg, 1982). Two areas of significant concern to adolescents are interpersonal and intrapersonal development and resolution of conflicts.

Urbanization, particularly to the minority child, creates a host of social problems which inhibits maximum personal and social development (Rice, 1978). Overcrowding, inadequate education, low self-concept, and rigid sex-role stereotypes are but a few of the stresses which alter the lives of these adolescents. Even though growing up normally in the confines of their existing environments is difficult, some psychologists agree that self-concept and sex-role identity can change as new experiences are introduced (Thornburg, 1982).

Self-concept refers to how an individual thinks about himself (Forisha-Kovach, 1978). Adolescent self-concepts are the result of their past personal histories, in addition to the maintenance of adaptive characteristics to new and changing environments (Forisha-Kovach, 1978). Thus, self-concept encompasses both stability and change during adolescence. With this added

dimension of personality flexibility, educators, along with the cognitive domain, often include experiences for the affective domain to strengthen the self-concepts of adolescents, particularly urban minority adolescents who may have had negative experiences in the past.

The concept of changing sex roles (i.e., psychological androgyny), attempts to redefine the range of acceptable human behavior regardless of the sex of the individual. This recent social issue becomes increasingly important because strict sex roles force individuals to restrict their range of behavior. Bem and Lenney (1976) noted that traditional sex-role identities limit an individual's range of coping mechanisms, severely restrict behavior, and limit career preferences. Thus, the positive development of sex-role identity and self-concept becomes increasingly paramount to the emotional and academic survival of urban minority adolescents. This special group of adolescents must develop the ability to integrate accelerated physical maturity, impending reproductive maturity, advanced levels of thought and emotion, in addition to urbanization problems, within a socially acceptable context (Wittig, 1983). These developmental tasks are further complicated by sex-role identity and self-concept development.

Rust and McCraw (1984) associated high levels of self-esteem with an androgynous sex-role identity. They stated that their findings were inconclusive for minority students because of low sample size. There appeared to be an urgent need to understand the relationship of masculinity-femininity and self-esteem, considering that very little research addressed this dimension of adolescent development in urban students. Traditionally, minority males have exhibited strict male role characteristics which allowed for little flexibility in

personality development. Pleck (1975) and Hefner, Rebecca, and Oleshansky (1975) noted that one goal of adolescence was the transcendence of traditional sex roles and the ability to function as the situation demanded. Children who experienced strong traditional sex typing developed relatively rigid personalities (Bem & Lenney, 1976; Block, 1973; Hefner et al., 1975; Pleck, 1975).

Even though researchers have studied aspects of the self and self-image in a wide variety of theoretic perspectives, its relationship to sex-role identity or androgyny is relatively new. Moreover, research concerning self-concept and sex-role identity as they relate to urban adolescents is inextensive. Current research shows several studies of adolescents; however, only one dealt with minority students, and none was conducted in Texas. This study investigated the influence of a personal development unit on the self-concept and sex-role identity between experimental and control groups of a minority group in an urban setting.

Statement of the Problem

This study examined the influence of a personal development unit on the self-concept of urban adolescents in relation to sex-role identity. The study answered the following questions.

1. Is there a difference in self-concept and masculine-typed students after personal development instruction?
2. Is there a difference in self-concept and androgynous-typed students after personal development instruction?
3. Is there a difference in self-concept and feminine-typed students after personal development instruction?

Purpose of the Study

Sex-role and self-concept development are areas of identity which are solidified during adolescence. Little research has been conducted to study sex-role identification and self-concepts of minority youths. Research on the self-concepts of urban youths (i.e., black, Mexican-American, white, etc.) has alluded to intervention programs which increase global self-concept and its relationship to academic success; however, it has failed to yield conclusive support for that assumption. Although some studies support the existence of a positive relation between the two variables (Bledsoe, 1967; Campbell, 1967; Irwin, 1976; Rosenberg, 1965), others do not (Peters, 1968; Williams, 1973).

Regarding these differing conclusions, some pertinent questions may be considered. Can an education intervention strategy on self-concept positively affect academic achievement for urban adolescents? What relationship exists between locus of control, academic achievement, and self-concept? Do academically competent urban students have positive self-concepts? Can an educational intervention strategy on personal development make a significant difference in self-concept and sex-role identity? The final question was investigated in this study. The purpose of this study was to determine if a unit of instruction on personal development will make a significant difference in the self-concept and sex-role identity of urban high school students.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested in this study:

H_{01} : There is no significant difference between the mean self-concept score and androgyny score of students in the experimental group and

in the control group students.

H_{o_2} : There is no significant difference between the mean self-concept score and androgyny score of female students in the experimental group and in the control group students.

H_{o_3} : There is no significant difference between the mean self-concept score and masculine score of female students in the experimental group and in the control group students.

H_{o_4} : There is no significant difference between the mean self-concept score and androgyny score of male students in the experimental group and in the control group students.

H_{o_5} : There is no significant difference between the mean self-concept score and masculine score of male students in the experimental group and in the control group students.

H_{o_6} : There is no significant difference between the mean self-concept score and feminine score of female students in the experimental group and in the control group students.

H_{o_7} : There is no significant difference between the mean self-concept score and feminine score of male students in the experimental group and in the control group students.

H_{o_8} : There is no significant difference between the mean score and undifferentiated score of the males in the experimental group and in the control group students.

H_{o_9} : There is no significant difference between the mean score and undifferentiated score of the female students in the experimental group and in the control group students.

Ho₁₀: There is no significant difference between the mean self-concept score between the experimental group and the control group students.

The treatment of data in terms of the androgynous-, masculine-, and feminine-typed students addressed the sex-role identity element of the study. The use of the term "sex-role identity" refers only to feminine and masculine characteristics rather than alluding to a relationship between psychological attributes and sex-role behaviors.

Significance of the Study

There are several studies concerning urban and/or minority students and self-concept; however, the study of self-concept and sex-role identity during adolescence of urban minority students is conspicuously limited. Rust and McCraw (1984) examined the interrelationship among masculinity-femininity, self-esteem, and peer acceptance in black and white adolescents with a public school sample. Massad's (1981) study of adolescent adjustment and sex-role identity resulted in high Piers-Harris self-esteem scores using students from upper middle class backgrounds who attended private school.

Most of the studies conducted on self-concept and sex-role have focused on white middle class students who were enrolled in high school and beyond (Bem, 1974; Flaherty & Dusek, 1980; O'Connor, Mann, & Bradwick, 1978; Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1975). This study extended the research on self-concept and sex-role orientation to urban high school minority adolescents.

The experiences of black, Mexican-American, and other minorities should be studied in their own right. Witting (1983) suggested that more studies on self-concept and sex-role development among minorities are "needed for

what it can teach the majority culture about the discrepancies between its sex-role norms and the resources it provides minority adolescents" (p. 109). It provides a barometer for measuring one's own group (minority or majority) that would otherwise be less visible. The emphasis of this study was to provide insight to those individuals concerned about the development of positive self-concept and psychological androgynous sex-role type development in high school settings.

Limitations

This study was limited to urban high school minority students in Houston, Texas. The sample was limited to black freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors enrolled in public schools of Houston during the fall of 1985.

Assumptions

The assumptions for this research study were:

1. That participants' answers on the assessment tools were honest.
2. That participants in the two groups had enough interest to cooperate fully in the study.
3. That the self-concept instrument measured the participant's view of self adequately.
4. That data derived from the study were usable in educational development studies.
5. That androgynous-typed individuals were the emerging desired sex role in American society.

Definition of Terms

There were several terms used in this study. For reader clarity, they are listed below:

Androgyny. Flexibility in sex roles. Having high levels of both female and male characteristics in a single individual, as measured by the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (Bem, 1974).

Feminine. Individuals who score high on the femininity scale and low on the masculinity scale, as measured by the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (Bem, 1974).

Masculine. Individuals who score high on the masculinity scale and low on the femininity scale, as measured by the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (Bem, 1974).

Self-concept. The general attitude that an individual possesses about self.

Sex-role identity. An individual's gender identity which may be referred to as feminine (having more traditional female characteristics), masculine (having more traditional male characteristics), or androgynous (having high amounts of male and female characteristics).

Undifferentiated. Individuals who score low on both the masculinity and femininity scales, as measured by the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (Bem, 1974).

Organization of the Study

This chapter has provided the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, hypotheses, significance of the study, limitations, assumptions, and definition of terms. Chapter 2 details a review of related literature.

Adolescent development theories, personality development, and sex-role identity are reviewed. Chapter 3 presents the method and procedure of the study, the instruments, and statistical analyses used in the study. Chapter 4 presents the analyses and findings of the data. Chapter 5 presents the summary, conclusions, and recommendations of the study.

Adolescence originated from the Latin verb, "adolescere," which means "to grow" or "to grow to maturity." (Furman-Hoagerty, 1983; Rine, 1978). It is often defined as the growth period during human development which has its antecedents in childhood and is the forerunner of adulthood (Drentburg, 1982). Specifically, adolescence may be viewed from various viewpoints: biological, psychoanalytic, sociopsychanalytic, social learning, and psychosocial. By examining various orientations, one can gain a more comprehensive view of this stage of human development.

Hall's (1904) recapitulation theory of adolescent development promoted the idea that each human being passes through each of the stages that occurred in human evolutionary development. This theory of recapitulation during adolescence was closely related to Darwinism as it corresponded with the four stages of development of the species: animal, anthropoid, half barbarian, and civilized (Jarvis, 1982). Hall (1904) outlined four major stages of adolescent development: infancy (0-4 years), which involved the development of sensory motor skills; childhood (4-8 years), during which the child engaged in childhood activities such as hunting, fishing, using toy weapons, and playing hide and seek; youth (8-12 years), during which the child was predisposed to training and language, especially mathematics and language; and adolescence (12-21

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Theoretical Framework

Adolescence originated from the Latin verb, "adolescere," which means "to grow" or "to grow to maturity" (Forisha-Kovach, 1983; Rice, 1978). It is often defined as the growth period during human development which has its antecedents in childhood and is the forerunner of adulthood (Thornburg, 1982). Specifically, adolescence may be viewed from various viewpoints: biological, psychoanalytic, sociopsychanalytic, social learning, and psychosocial. By examining various orientations, one can gain a more comprehensive view of this stage of human development.

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years), which was referred to as storm and stress, meaning social and environmental sources which contributed to anxiety and emotional duress (cited in Rice, 1978).

According to Freud (1905/1953), adolescence was a period of occasional personality disturbance, tension, and physical excitement. Freud (1905/1953) also emphasized that the ways in which the id, ego, and superego developed depended on the ways in which the child's sexuality developed. Forisha-Kovach (1983) stated:

Each of Freud's stages account for the direct or indirect expression of sexual drives originating in the id. The ways in which the sexual drives are expressed are classified according to each stage. . . . The culmination of this pattern of development then occurs in the genital stage of adolescence in which one's relationships become primarily heterosexual, a pattern which lasts throughout life. (p. 224)

The most prolific sociopsychanalytic view of adolescence was found in Erickson's (1950) ego identity theory of human development. Erickson's (1959) theory described eight stages in which individuals have a psychosocial task to master:

1. Infancy: achieving trust versus mistrust.
2. Early childhood: achieving autonomy versus shame and doubt.
3. Play age: achieving initiative versus guilt.
4. School age: achieving industry versus inferiority.

5. Adolescence: achieving identity versus identity diffusion.
6. Young adult: achieving intimacy versus isolation.
7. Adulthood: achieving generativity versus stagnation.
8. Mature age: achieving ego integrity versus disgust, despair. (p. 110)

Identity formation, a process which was rooted in childhood and transcended adolescence, was primarily unconscious to the individual. The establishment of the ego identity formation continued through a process of selection and assimilation of childhood identification, which in turn depended upon parental, peer, and society's identification of them as important people (Rice, 1978).

In adolescence, the individual established the foundation for intimacy by finding the self (Forisha-Kovach, 1983). In a sociological frame of reference, adolescent boys were concerned with their own sexual abilities and what this told them about themselves, whereas girls sought relationships in which they could come to know themselves and another person (Forisha-Kovach, 1983).

Bandura's (1977) theory on social learning was primarily concerned with the impact of the environment on human behavior. According to Bandura (1977), adolescent was part of the continuous process occurring during the normal growth of an individual. Children tended to learn vicariously through observing the behavior of others and imitating them. Bandura referred to this process as modeling. This process of observing and imitating "becomes a socialization process by which habitual response patterns develop" (Bandura &

Walters, 1977, p. 618). Adolescents became increasingly aware of and looked to entertainment heroes and peers as models which influenced verbal expressions, food preferences, hairstyles, clothes, music, and basic social values (Rice, 1978). Thus, imitation was a response to the relatively stable or changing environments (Forisha-Kovach, 1983).

Havighurst's (1972) theory of developmental stages during adolescence combined the individual's needs with the demands of society. According to this psychosocial view of adolescence, there were skills, knowledge, functions, and attitudes that individuals mastered at certain points in their lives through physical maturation, social expectations, and personal effort. The ability to master each developmental task led to adjustment preparation for harder tasks in the future and to maturity. Havighurst (1972) contended that there was a certain time to do a particular thing. Developmental tasks differed from culture to culture, depending on one's biological, psychological, and cultural elements which determined the tasks.

Personality Development

Historically, "personality" has been described as being good or bad. A succinct and accurate definition of personality in a counseling or psychological sense presents a dilemma for modern theorists. Personality is called the summation of all of one's traits (Rogers, 1969). Hall and Lindzey (1978) offered their definition:

. . . that which gives order and congruence to all kinds of behavior in which the individual engages. A number of

theorists have chosen to emphasize the function of personality in mediating the adjustment of the individual. Personality consists of the varied and yet typical efforts at adjustment that are carried out by the individual. In other definitions, personality is equated to the unique or individual aspect of behavior. (p. 8)

Thus, these voluminous definitions of personality imply that it is a multidimensional concept.

Freud (1940/1964) developed the first comprehensive theory of personality which stated that personality was made up of three major systems: the id, the ego, and the superego. Freud further suggested a series of psychosexual stages through which personality development proceeded: oral, anal, phallic, and genital.

Havinghurst (1972) identified a series of developmental tasks, successful attainment of which reinforced a positive personality growth during each stage of development. While the complexity of personality was evident, self-concept and sex-role identity were two distinct and eminent components of human behavior which theorists have observed (Bem, 1974; Bem, Martyna, & Watson, 1976; Flaherty & Dusek, 1980; Spence et al., 1975).

Theories of self-concept give credence to having positive regard for oneself. Branden (1971) stated:

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.

This estimate is ordinarily experienced by him, not in the form of a conscious, verbalized judgment, but in the form of a feeling, that can be hard to isolate and identify because he experiences it constantly; it is part of every other feeling, it is involved in his every emotional response. (p. 109)

According to Rogers (1959), self or self-concept denotes:

. . . the organized, consistent conceptual gestalt composed of perceptions of the characteristics of the "I" or "me" and the perceptions of the relationships of the "I" or "me" to others and to various aspects of life, together with values attached to these perceptions. It is a gestalt which is available to awareness though not necessarily in awareness. It is a fluid and changing gestalt, a process, but at any given moment it is a specific entity. (p. 200)

Self-Concept

Self-concept is an evaluative term (Frey & Carlock, 1984). It often refers to negative, positive, neutral, and ambiguous judgment that is placed on self-concept. People with high self-esteem respect themselves, consider themselves worthy, and view themselves as equals with others. In contrast, those low in self-esteem generally experience self-rejection, self-dissatisfaction, self-contempt, and self-disparagement (Frey & Carlock, 1984). Minority children's self-concepts are more often than not determined significantly more

negative than are white children's self-concepts (Hare, 1977), according to Frey and Carlock (1984).

Early research concerning the self-concepts of blacks focused upon the question of race awareness and identity formation and usually spoke about generalized black personality. According to Baldwin (1979), the self-idea or self-concept was the thing that moved people to pride or shame and was not the mere reflection of oneself but an imputed sentiment, the imagined effect of this reflection upon another's mind. "We always imagine and, in imagining, share the judgments of the other mind" (p. 3).

Similarly, Gordon (1980) asserted that the object of self-feeling was accepted by the general course of history, by the particular development of nations, classes, and professions, and by other conditions of this sort.

The individual experiences himself as such, not directly, but only indirectly, from the particular standpoints of other individual members of the same social group, or from the generalized standpoint of the social group as a whole to which he belongs. For he enters his own experiences as a self or individual, not directly or immediately, not by becoming a subject to himself, but only insofar as he first becomes an object to himself as other individuals are objects to him or in his experience. (p. 4)

Self-concept played a significant role in the way one viewed himself; it provided a person an atlas for intrapersonal direction (Smith, Mosley, & Whitney, 1979). For Gordon (1980), self-concept or self-idea had primary elements: the perception of another person's judgment of that appearance and

some type of self-perception (such as pride or mortification). In many instances, people acted according to what others thought of them. They were virtually told how to view themselves (Smith et al., 1979). This was the condition that existed during slavery.

In colonial America, slavery was instituted as a profit-making venture. In an attempt to justify inhumane treatment of blacks, laws were passed and conditions imposed which encouraged a negative slave self-concept (Smith et al., 1979). The legal system helped perpetuate a psychological environment in which slave owners dictated the behavior of slaves and therefore influenced the slaves' views of themselves (Banks, 1972; Gordon, 1980). These laws stated that slaves could not defend themselves against whites, that they could not make contracts to purchase, that they could not marry, and that they could not meet in groups unless a white person was present (Smith et al., 1979). These were a few of the "democratic" laws during slavery.

The institution of slavery did not affect all slaves in the same manner. The behavioral reactions to the conditions of slavery reflected self-concepts (Gordon, 1980). One group of slaves refused to be a part of the slavery system and proceeded to kill their children and themselves rather than be a part of the inhumane system (Smith et al., 1979). The self-concept of this group was that they could not and would not be slaves. According to Smith et al. (1979), they saw themselves as intelligent and being able to achieve.

Another group chose to rebel and confront the conditions of slavery. This band of slaves refused to accept their conditions and exemplified a rebellious spirit which demonstrated a positive self-concept (Banks, 1972). These slaves had positive self-concepts and refused to believe that their

masters were superior and demanded their freedom (Smith et al., 1979). They risked and some lost their lives for their actions.

A third group of slaves attempted to work "within the system" to get their freedom (Smith et al., 1979). Still, a fourth group of slaves felt helpless to overcome the conditions of slavery and therefore tried to cooperate and do whatever the white owners requested (Gordon, 1980; Smith et al., 1979). These last two groups had concepts of themselves as needing to be cooperative or their "selves" would be destroyed by the masters (Smith et al., 1979). This conditioning hindered an individual self-concept apart from the master (Banks, 1972; Gordon, 1980). They eventually imitated him in order to gain acceptance and exist.

According to Smith et al. (1979), "The black child in slavery was subjected to brutal and distorted experiences which did not permit him to realize the potentiality of his self-perception" (p. 151). The master was allowed to define black people and impose his view on his slaves (Smith et al., 1979). These white subjective definitions of self-concepts were generalized to all black people and have caused extensive psychological problems which still exist (Anderson, 1977; Banks, 1972; Karon, 1958). Many psychologists believe that the black experience in the United States, with particular attention to the conditions of slavery, is the key factor in the overall development of the black personality and self-concept (Gordon, 1980).

Social psychologists began empirical studies on black self-concepts in the mid-1930s. Prior to this, only theoretic information was available. Early research on black self-concept focused on race awareness and identity formation which generally spoke about a generalized black personality (Gordon, 1980).

Mead (1934) and Cooley (1902) impeded this generalization by maintaining that social interaction was the means by which an individual formulated his self-concept. Cooley (1902) stressed the individual's perception of how others saw him and introduced the concept of the looking-glass self. If these ideas were correct, the history of black America becomes very relevant to considerations of black self-concepts.

The theoretic orientation of Mead (1934) and Cooley (1902) and the interpretation of black history have had a continuing and heavy influence on almost all black self-concept research (Karon, 1958). This was certainly true of early empirical studies, i.e., the doll studies. In these studies by Mead (1934), Cooley (1902), Horowitz (1934), Goodman (1964), and Clark and Clark (1940), children were asked to make choices concerning the desirability, the aesthetic beauty, or the anticipated social status of colored and white dolls and puppets. The results of all four of these studies were consistent and indicated a preference by black and white children for white dolls, puppets, and situations, which were identical. The results of these pioneer studies appeared to support the conclusion that, for black and white children of northern and southern regions, white was good and black was bad, or at least to some serious degree, less desirable (Baldwin, 1979; Gordon, 1980; Smith et al., 1979). The picture of black inferiority emerging from the doll tests was supported primarily by psychiatrists and psychologists who often discussed a generalized "Negro personality" (Gordon, 1980).

Contrary to the earlier findings, many studies have resulted in empirical evidence which supported racial pride, ethnocentrism, and positive self-esteem (Anderson, 1977; Hoelter, 1982; Johnson, 1982). Moreover,

Hoelter (1982) tested a theory explaining why blacks had higher levels of self-esteem than did whites. In his study, 1,560 students were administered a ranked appraisal measure on self-esteem. The subgroup sizes were as follows: 371 black females, 505 white females, 288 black males, and 396 white males. To analyze the data, Hoelter (1982) used "four 3-item scales measuring the perceived appraisals of specific others in role and one 3-item scale measuring global self-esteem" (p. 530). This resulted in three observed variables measured in relation to each of four roles and global self-esteem, yielding five scales and a total of 15 observed variables. Of this analysis, Hoelter (1982) explained:

All five scales are semantic differentials with the responses of worse than most, better than most, unsuccessful, successful, bad, and good. The qualifying statements for these scales are as follows:

1. As a student, my teachers think I am . . .
2. As a daughter or son, my mother thinks I am . . .
3. As a son or daughter, my father thinks I am . . .
4. As a friend, my friends think I am . . .
5. In general, I myself think I am . . . (p. 530)

To assess the impact of selective credulity on self-esteem, a 4-point appraisal measure for each respondent was used for the score on a highest ranked appraisal variable (Rank 1). Rank 1 represented the perceived appraisal of another which was most positive. Likewise, the second, third, and least highest appraisals were used to compute Rank 2, Rank 3, and Rank 4, respectively (Hoelter, 1982). For the black females, self-esteem was affected by Rank 1, Rank 2, and Rank 3, while not affected by Rank 4. For black males,

both Rank 1 and Rank 2 had a significant effect on self-esteem. The results were not as clear for whites. For white females, Rank 1 and Rank 3 had significant effects on self-esteem. Among white males, self-esteem was significantly affected by Rank 1 and Rank 4. As was expected by Hoelter (1982), significant differences were found between blacks and whites. Blacks maximized interpersonal rewards in that those significant others perceived to have the most positive evaluations had a greater impact on self-esteem among blacks as compared to whites.

On this similar concept, Houston (1982) introduced an interesting variation of the black self-concept with an investigation of black consciousness. Houston defined black consciousness as "an awareness and proud acceptance of one's blackness" (p. 289). Houston (1982) administered the Black Consciousness Survey (BSC), a 40-item, 4-point scale, to 96 black undergraduates at Rutgers University in the spring of 1973. Likewise, in the spring of 1979, the same instrument was administered to 87 similar Rutgers students. Houston (1982) reported that the Black Consciousness Survey score was significantly lower in 1979 than in 1973, indicating a reduction in focus on black concerns. The responses were:

"A bank owned and operated by members of my race would be a good place to deposit my savings" (83% agreed in 1973, 57% disagreed in 1979); "when you are talking to white people, you try to avoid the race issue" (92% disagreed in 1973, 55% agreed in 1979); and "my race should spread out when in public gatherings is like

segregating ourselves" (75% disagreed in 1973, 57% agreed in 1979). (p. 290)

Although black awareness and self-concept are not synonymous, black awareness, in Houston's (1982) study, indicated a shift in attitude away from black unity, black determination, and black pride, which affected one's self-concept.

In a similar study, King and Price (1979) attempted to obtain a more direct measure of black self-concept. It was hypothesized that the inclusion of black culture items in a self-concept scale would result in a more positive self-concept score than on a scale which did not include reference to that black culture. The sample consisted of 15 black male and 5 black female adolescents who ranged in age from 13 to 19 years of age. The instrument used to measure self-concept was a combination of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) and a 14-item scale which was constructed by one of the experimenters to measure black self-concept, termed the Black Self-Concept Scale (BSCS). The study indicated that the black adolescents tested had a more positive self-concept when their ethnicity was considered an integral part of the self-concept measure.

In yet another study, Johnson (1982) researched other dimensions of self-concept with inner-city children. Johnson (1982) related self-concept to academic success in school when he studied the academic self-concept of 405 5th- and 6th-grade children from an elementary school in a large southern city. As a person developed positive self-concept, "He becomes more open to experience, does not need to distort the perceived environment, and thus can be more able to learn about himself" (Johnson, 1982, p. 407). This enabled one to become more able to learn effectively in an academic environment.

Thus, the Modified Self-Appraisal Inventory was administered to the children, which is a measure of self-concept in a school setting and consisted of 64 items grouped into six subscales and four unscaled items. The six subscales were described as follows: peer-positive peer relationships (P), family-positive family relationships (A), school-feelings of academic competence (S), general-positive self-description (G), general-denial of negative feelings (N), and school-enjoyment of the classroom situation (C). The results of the study supported the similarity of self-concept and academic achievement. The results also suggested that the instrument demonstrated validity for use in relationships to important achievement variables in a school setting. It thus seemed reasonable to conclude that the six basic factors were important dimensions of self-report of self-concept in a school setting. They were "positive peer relationships, positive family relationships, feelings of academic competence, positive self-description, denial of negative feelings, and enjoyment of the classroom situation" (Johnson, 1982, p. 410). Although Johnson (1982) did not address a positive or negative self-concept, those dimensions mentioned above were paramount in the development of self-approval.

Unlike Hoelter (1982), Houston (1982), and Johnson (1982), Anderson and Cromwell (1977) addressed "color preferences of Afro-American youths to assess a positive blackness concept" (p. 77). These researchers designed a questionnaire to assess color preference through several positive and negative stereotype attributes. The participants in this study consisted of 350 youths of African descent from six schools, all of which were located in low socioeconomic areas of the city where a questionnaire was used to assess color preference through several positive and negative attitudes. Students were also

asked what racial label they preferred. Anderson and Cromwell (1977) concluded that the "black is beautiful" concept was very widely endorsed. Skin color preferences tended in the direction of lighter skin; however, the generalization was not to be oversimplified. Actually, when positive characteristics were evaluated, light and brown -- but not light-skinned (the polar alternative) -- was the model choice. When negative characteristics were evaluated, a bipolar split occurred. The extremes of skin color were chosen more than were the intermediate. The "black is beautiful" concept was widely endorsed by dark- and light-skinned Negroes (Anderson & Cromwell, 1977). More interesting than the findings, Anderson and Cromwell's (1977) discussion of the study indicated that the research study itself met with some resistance and hostility. The research appeared to be an intrusion on those teachers and students involved in the study. Anderson and Cromwell (1977) noted:

By definition the content of the research was emotionally located. This emotional loading may be interpreted to indicate that a truly positive black identification has not yet been firmly achieved. Thus, the unresolved binding of feeling of shame still exists over one's blackness; feeling of shame still exists over preferring a white ego ideal; and perhaps a feeling of shame exists over the active rejection of either of these. (p. 84)

Contrasting to the above findings, Rosenberg and Simmons (1975) conducted still another study on assessing race and race differences in the self-concept. In agreement with Hoelter (1982), Rosenberg and Simmons (1975) administered the Rosenberg and Simmons Self-Esteem Scale to 1,917 children in

the Baltimore school system. The sample was stratified on race and median income and ranged from grades 3 through 12. The Rosenberg and Simmons Self-Esteem Scale consisted of six items designed to measure self-esteem among adolescents and children as young as 8 years old. To analyze the data from the RSSE scale, the researchers analyzed two separate groups in which sex was collapsed when examining race and race was collapsed when examining sex. The results of this study were consistent with Hoelter's (1982) study in that females had lower self-esteem than did males, and blacks had higher self-esteem than did whites.

What, then, was the true state of black self-concept? In view of the many self-concept ambiguities and inconsistencies in this general pool of data, it was plausible that serious problems existed concerning the nature of the stimuli and responses involved in the research of the black self-concept. In many instances, a young child's doll choice or attitude toward an object or picture may have been nothing more than a momentary function of the situation. According to Baldwin (1979), in Mead and Cooley's study, comments of the children regarding why they didn't choose the brown doll ranged from "because him foot ugly" to "cause it hasn't got any eyelashes" (p. 66). In addition, prior to the 1960s, black dolls were probably novel, one-of-a-kind stimuli to most children. The black doll or any other black pictorial representation was not visible in the commercial market or the communication media. Thus, many of the black participants were acting to an unfamiliar stimulus (Baldwin, 1979; Gordon, 1980).

In view of the most recent studies, few of the conventional studies on racial preferences appeared to represent direct tests of an actual negative self-

concept (Anderson & Cromwell, 1977; Houston, 1982). In fact, very few of the racial preference studies employed direct self-referent measures. The vast majority of studies utilized somewhat ambiguous projective other directed self-report measures. Finally, virtually none of the prominent literature attempted to address the cultural distinctness of the African-American community in its pursuit of an explanation of the issue of black self-concept, black personality, and the black experience. Most of the research implied that black people should view themselves as white people were presumed to view themselves (Baldwin, 1979).

Some evidence suggested that some black children tended at times to choose dolls with white skin color rather than dolls with brown skin color and that some (although fewer) white children evidenced a similar tendency in the opposite direction. Many researchers suggested that most black and white children generally tended to choose dolls and other symbolic stimulus objects colored similar to their own skin colors (Baldwin, 1979; Hare, 1977; Karon, 1958). Some evidence also suggested that some black people tended to show agreement with what appeared to represent negative statements toward other blacks (Houston, 1982). Where attitudes of self were concerned, the evidence suggested that the vast majority of black people tended to respond quite favorably toward themselves when asked. Gordon (1980) argued that the black self-concept was a far more complex and broad phenomenon than was implied by a focus on the single dimension of racial color. Therefore, the basic issue of black self-concept itself was seriously obscured by the various simplistic conceptions implicit in the research and theoretic literature.

In conclusion of this issue, the term self-concept, as it related to minority populations, was an integration of race awareness, personal identity, and environmental influences. The components may have provided positive or negative stimuli for urban black adolescents. In this crucial stage of psychological development, urban youngsters should have had many positive experiences.

The Concept of Sex-Role Identity

Traditionally, sex-role identity referred to one's gender identity. A healthy sense of maleness or femaleness was considered central to developing a healthy personality. However, with changes in society, such as the feminist movement and Title IX legislation, society's disenchantment with strict sex-role models emerged. Sex roles has "conformed to cultural and psychological pressures, thus limiting occupations, relationships, and personal potential" (Kaplan & Bean, 1976, p. 1).

The contemporary view of a healthy gender identity focused on helping individuals develop a conception of mental health which was free from culturally imposed definitions of masculinity and femininity (Bem, 1975; Kaplan & Bean, 1976). This feeling of mental restraints allowed an individual "to be both masculine and feminine, both agentic and communal, depending on the situational appropriateness of these various modalities" (Bem, 1976, p. 50). In this complex modern society, adolescent social and emotional development should not have perpetuated old-fashioned sex-role expectations. These past sex-role expectations may not have been desirable for adults and more so for adolescents, because researchers have determined that femininity in females

has been correlated with high anxiety, low self-esteem, and low social acceptance (Bem, 1975; Cosentino & Heilbrun, 1964; Gall, 1969; Sears, 1970). For others, masculine or androgynous individuals scored significantly higher in self-concept and achievement leadership measures (Ziegler, Dusek, & Carter, 1984). This implied that restrictive sex roles lock the individual into an unhealthy framework from which to function.

The alternative to traditional sex-role stereotyping was "androgyny." This ancient Greek word from "andro" (male) and "gyn" (female) defined a human condition in which the human impulses and the characteristics of sex were not strictly assigned (Bem, 1974). Recently, the concept of psychological androgyny denoted masculinity and femininity with one individual (Bem, 1974; Bem & Lenney, 1976; Heilbrun, 1973; Spence et al., 1975). The concept of psychological androgyny also helped to "free the human personality from the restricting prison of sex-role stereotyping and to develop a conception of mental health which is free from culturally imposed definitions of masculinity and femininity" (Bem, 1976, p. 49). An androgynous individual has the capability to remain sensitive to changing situations and respond effectively with whatever behavior was appropriate for that moment (Bem, 1974).

The operational definition of psychological androgyny was defined as masculine, androgynous, or feminine on the basis of the difference between one's masculinity and femininity as measured by the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (Bem, 1974). The Bem Sex-Role Inventory had a 4-fold classification of subjects as either masculine (high masculine, low feminine), feminine (high feminine, low masculine), androgynous (high masculine, high feminine), or undifferentiated (low masculine, low feminine) (Bem, 1974). There was further

evidence that suggested that a significant difference in measured self-esteem was evident with the androgynous group scoring to the highest (Bem et al., 1976).

For years, the American society perpetuated strict sex roles which were exclusively considered either male or female. Within the last few decades, however, research has been conducted which denoted the consolidation of both masculine and feminine characteristics within a single individual (Bem, 1974; Bem et al., 1976). This consolidation of sex-role identity referred to the concept of psychological androgyny which, according to Bem et al., (1976),

. . . implies that it is possible for an individual to be both masculine and feminine, both instrumental and expressive, both agentic and communal, depending upon the situational appropriateness of these various modalities; and it further implies that an individual may even blend these complementary modalities into a single act, being able, for example, to do so with sensitivity for the human emotion that such an act inevitably produces. (p. 1016)

Several researchers have compared traditionally sex-typed males and females with androgynous individual. The androgynous individuals were found to be more academically motivated, more socially stable, more confident, more creative, more mature, and more self-accepting (Bem, 1974; LaFrance & Carmen, 1980; Maccoby, 1966). In addition, androgynous females were higher in self-esteem and more independent than were feminine sex-typed females (Bem, 1974; Spence et al., 1975). This evidence suggested that the stereotypical masculine sex role and feminine sex role restricted behavioral options

which inhibited healthy personality adjustment. Androgynous males and females were freed from the confining structures of sex-role identity. Androgyny offered a desirable alternative to stereotypical masculinity and femininity and allowed an individual to achieve his/her full human potential (Remer & Ross, 1982).

Adolescence: Sex-Role Identity and Self-Concept

At this critical stage of adolescent development, the attitudes which students developed regarding sex-role stereotypes and the desirability of these identities were notable factors in personality development. In a study to examine sex-role stereotypes in early adolescence, Rust and Lloyd (1982) concluded that males and females continued to perceive differences in their sex roles. Not only did adolescents continue to perceive differences in sex roles, males also valued male characteristics more positively than feminine characteristics, and females valued feminine characteristics more positively than did masculine characteristics (Der-Karabetian & Smith, 1977).

Nicholson and Antill (1981) investigated the relationship between sex-role identity and the number of problems reported by upper middle class males and female adolescents of different ages. The researchers found that the students who described themselves as having equal masculine and feminine characteristics (androgynous) had significantly less problems. In further examination between sex-role orientation, androgyny, and adjustment during adolescence, Avery (1982) indicated that androgynous individuals were significantly less lonely than were masculine, feminine, and undifferentiated individuals.

Further study was conducted by Hyde and Phillis (1979) which was designed to determine the developmental pattern of androgyny or whether it existed at other ages. They indicated that the trend appeared to be for the number of androgynous males to be greater with age and for the number of androgynous females to be fewer with age.

A number of researchers concluded that there was a positive correlation between androgynous and/or masculine sex-typed individuals and a high self-concept (Flaherty & Dusek, 1980; Spence et al., 1975; Stericker & Johnson, 1977; Ziegler et al., 1984). Specifically, 357 college students completed the Bem Sex-Role Inventory to clarify whether the higher levels of self-esteem and self-concept of androgynous individuals were because of an integration of both masculine and feminine traits or because of a high level of masculinity (Flaherty & Dusek, 1980). The results provided clear support for the hypothesis, stating that "androgynous and masculine groups scored higher than the feminine and undifferentiated groups on achievement/leadership, which tends to reflect an instrumental role" (p. 984). In yet another study using subjects from a college population, Spence et al. (1975) administered the Personal Attributes Questionnaire and the Sex-Role Stereotype Questionnaire. Mean scores on the self-esteem measure for both sexes indicated a strong positive correlation for subjects classified as androgynous, followed by those high in masculinity. The findings from the Spence et al. (1975) study were congruent with the study conducted by Stericker and Johnson (1977), who explored the relationship between sex-role identification, achievement motivation, and self-esteem with 312 male and female college students.

While the majority of studies assessing sex-role orientation and self-concept focused on college students, there were several researchers who focused on adolescents (Lamke, 1982; Paul & Fischer, 1980; Rust & McCraw, 1984; Simmons & Rosenberg, 1975; Ziegler et al., 1984). Lamke (1982) used the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Measure, the Bem Sex-Role Inventory, and the Personal Attributes Questionnaire. The purpose of the study was to measure the relationship between sex-role orientation and self-esteem in early adolescence. The population sample consisted of 119 junior high school students. From the findings, it appeared that masculinity was related to high levels of self-esteem for both males and females.

Using a measure of self-concept and a revised version of the Bem Sex-Role Inventory, Ziegler et al. (1984) used 354 students ranging from grades 6 through 12. The overall results indicated that masculine and androgynous adolescents scored significantly higher than did feminine and undifferentiated adolescents on the self-concept dimension of achievement/leadership.

The study of sex-role identity (i.e., psychological androgyny) and its relationship to self-concept is somewhat limited with regard to adolescents. Moreover, this area of research has typically excluded minority groups. Paul and Fischer (1980) examined the self-concept of black 8th-grade students from the Midwest in relation to black acceptance, social intimacy, locus of control, and sex-role type. In their study, "the high self-concept group had a significantly greater number of adolescents with masculine and androgynous sex roles than the low self-concept group" (p. 163).

According to Hefner et al. (1975), one important goal of adolescence was the transcendence of traditional sex role and the ability to function at the

situation demanded. Rust and McCraw (1984) found that androgynous individuals had significantly higher levels of self-esteem. With these findings in mind, positive sex-role identity and self-concept development were desirable for the interpersonal development of adolescents.

Clearly, research on the development of sex-role orientation and self-concept was limited; however, in terms of minority and/or urban adolescents, it was notably limited. A few researchers have included black adolescents in their samples (Rust & McCraw, 1984; Simmons & Rosenberg, 1975). Nonetheless, Paul and Fischer (1980) extended their study to black adolescents exclusively. Simmons and Rosenberg (1975) and Rust and McCraw (1984) used black and white public school students to examine the relationship between sex role and self-esteem. Rust and McCraw's (1984) study consisted of 195 students from rural, urban, and suburban areas. After the scores were computed, it was found that "black students had significantly higher self-esteem scores than white students" (p. 363). Additionally, males and females with androgynous identities measured higher in self-esteem than did their counterparts. Finally, in examining self-concept and other personality variables of black adolescents, Paul and Fischer (1980) found that the group with high self-concept had significantly greater numbers of adolescents with androgynous and masculine sex-role identities than did the low self-esteem group. In summation, an androgynous individual was theoretically able to respond adaptively to a wide range of situations, develop psychologically to the fullest, and overcome or avoid psychological stresses that the less integrated sex-role traditional person was not equipped to handle, which were needed characteristics for adolescents, especially urban minority adolescents (Cook, 1985).

Chapter 3

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to determine if a unit of instruction on personal development would make a significant difference in self-concept and sex-role identity between experimental and control groups of black high school urban adolescents. Related hypotheses and basic research questions were presented in Chapter 1. The procedures for conducting the research, the study population, and instruments are described in this chapter.

Research Design

The research design used in this study was ex post facto or causal-comparative research (Isaac & Michael, 1981), as the researcher did not have direct control in randomly assigning subjects to the experimental and control groups. The ex post facto design referred to an experiment in which the researcher examined the effects of a naturalistically occurring treatment (personal development) after the treatment has occurred.

The experimental group consisted of students who volunteered to participate in Project INSTEAD (Institute for Supplementary Education and Development). These students were required to complete an application form and a parent permission form to participate in the project. The control group consisted of students from the local urban community and was comparable to

the experimental group with reference to age, sex, and ethnic origin. The control group students consisted of volunteers invited to participate in the posttest activity of Project INSTEAD. Figure 1 presents the schematic drawing of the research design.

Figure 1
Schematic Drawing of Research Design

	Time			
	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan
Experimental group		T		M ₁ M ₂
Control group				M ₁ M ₂

M = Measures (M₁ = TSCS and M₂ = BSRI)

T = Treatment (30- to 60-minute session on personal development from 10/12/85 to 2/1/86.)

General Characteristics of the Study Population

The students in this study were 32 urban black high school students participating in Project INSTEAD in addition to 38 students from the urban community. Project INSTEAD provided special opportunities for high school learners to increase the number of minority students choosing careers in technical fields. The special opportunities included field trips, exposure to role models, math enrichment, and a personal development segment. The students

closely aligned with a state-approved curriculum on promoting a positive self-concept. The control group was invited to participate in the posttest activity.

The counselor/investigator of the experimental group provided much assistance. Among the categories were group guidance and counseling, which included cultural awareness, self-concept enhancement skills, job search skills, financial aid planning, scholarship search skills, technical careers, and exploration of personal or individual concerns.

Data Gathering Instruments

Self-concept was determined by the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) (Fitts, 1965). It was developed for individuals age 12 years and older as a multidimensional measure of self-concept. The TSCS consisted of 90 self-descriptive statements on a 5-point response scale ranging from completely true to completely false (Fitts, 1965). The total p-score was used as a summary score with a high self-concept score reflecting positive feelings and behaviors concerning self. The reverse was true for low self-concepts, which reflected negative feelings concerning the self and indicated poor self-esteem. The column subscales included Physical Self, Moral-Ethical Self, Personal Self, Family, Social Self, and Self-Criticism; the row subscales included Identity, Self-Satisfaction, and Behavior.

This self-concept instrument was standardized on a broad sample which included people from various parts of the country. This standardization population of black and white subjects reflected all social, economic, intellectual, and educational levels from the 6th grade through the doctorate degree, making the instrument appropriate for this multiethnic research study.

In addition, the reliability coefficient is .88 for the total p-score of the TSCS (Fitts, 1965). This measure had validation procedures for content validity discrimination between groups, correlation with other personality measures, and personality changes under particular conditions (Fitts, 1965).

The Bem Sex-Role Inventory (Bem, 1974) was used to measure sex-role identity. Subjects indicated on a 7-point scale how well personality characteristics (masculine, feminine, and neutral) described themselves. Sex-role types which included androgyny, masculinity, femininity, and undifferentiated were measured. The BSRI treated masculinity and femininity as two independent dimensions of sex-role identity. This concept enabled an individual to score high in both dimensions (androgynous), low in both dimensions (undifferentiated), or high in one dimension and low in the other (masculine or feminine). The normative data for the BSRI indicated that females earned significantly higher femininity scores and males significantly higher masculinity scores. Reliability was found to be .87 as determined by the test-retest method. Validity of this instrument was provided by a series of studies on expressive and instrumental functionings (Bem, 1974; Bem et al., 1976). These studies suggested that the Bem Sex-Role Inventory is adequate for the high school population.

Analysis of Data

The students' group mean scores for the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale and Bem Sex-Role Identity were statistically analyzed by the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) technique. The analysis of variance technique was used to determine group mean comparisons. Group mean differences from

the experimental and control groups were used in determining significant differences in total self-concept scores (high or low) and sex role (feminine, masculine, androgynous, and undifferentiated).

Research studies (Antill & Cunningham, 1979; Flaherty & Dusek, 1980; Lamke, 1982; Spence et al., 1975) indicated that low self-concept was significantly related to feminine sex-typed male and female individuals. The implications of these findings provided support for focusing this study on positive self-concept and androgyny sex-typed individuals.

1. Is there a difference in self-concept and masculine-typed students after personal development instruction?

2. Is there a difference in self-concept and androgynous-typed students after personal development instruction?

3. Is there a difference in self-concept and feminine-typed students after personal development instruction?

This chapter presents the results of the study in three parts: analysis of the hypotheses, discussion of the results, and discussion of the research questions. The hypotheses address the influence of a personal development unit, the independent variable, on self-concept and sex-role identity. Self-concept was measured by the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) (Fitts, 1965), which included a total positive score in addition to the following subscales: personal self, social self, moral-ethical self, social self, family self, identity, self-satisfaction, and behavior. The Bem Sex-Role Inventory (Bem, 1978) was used to measure sex-role identity. The personal development unit included cultural awareness, self-concept enhancement skills, job search skills,

Chapter 4

ANALYSIS OF DATA

The purpose of this study was to determine if a unit of personal development instruction would make a significant difference in the self-concept and sex-role identity between experimental and control groups of urban minority high school students. The questions were:

1. Is there a difference in self-concept and masculine-typed students after personal development instruction?
2. Is there a difference in self-concept and androgynous-typed students after personal development instruction?
3. Is there a difference in self-concept and feminine-typed students after personal development instruction?

This chapter presents the results of the study in three parts: analyses of the hypotheses, discussion of the results, and discussion of the research questions. The hypotheses address the influence of a personal development unit, the independent variable, on self-concept and sex-role identity. Self-concept was measured by the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) (Fitts, 1965), which included a total positive score in addition to the following subscales: personal self, social self, moral-ethical self, social self, family self, identity, self-satisfaction, and behavior. The Bem Sex-Role Inventory (Bem, 1978) was used to measure sex-role identity. The personal development unit included cultural awareness, self-concept enhancement skills, job search skills,

financial aid planning for college, scholarship search skills, technical careers exposure, and exploration of personal or individual concerns.

The statistical method used to test the hypotheses was the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) technique. The .05 level of significance was used throughout the study for rejecting or accepting the null hypotheses. Mean scores earned by the students on the TSCS subscales were used to make further comparisons of the experimental and control groups. The findings in this chapter were based on the responses of 70 adolescent males and females who ranged in age from 14 to 18 years of age. Thirty-two students in the experimental group experienced the personal development unit, while the remaining 38 students participated by only completing the two posttest instruments.

Hypotheses

Each hypothesis is presented below, followed by discussion and conclusions.

H_{01} : There is no significant difference between the mean self-concept score and androgyny score of students in the experimental group and in the control group students.

The students in the control group yielded 9 masculine, 5 feminine, and 24 undifferentiated sex-role types. Given this finding, H_{01} could not be statistically tested. The experimental group data indicated 11 out of 18 females and 7 out of 14 males were androgynous.

H_{02} : There is no significant difference between the mean self-concept score and androgyny score of female students in the experimental

group and in the control group students.

Because none of the females in the control group was androgynous, this hypothesis could not be tested statistically. The female experimental group yielded 11 androgynous students. In contrast, the control group yielded 19 undifferentiated and 5 feminine females.

H_{o_3} : There is no significant difference between the mean self-concept score and masculine score of female students in the experimental group and in the control group students.

With regard to masculine females, the females in the experimental group and in the control group yielded feminine, androgynous, and undifferentiated females. Masculine females were not found in either group; thus, H_{o_3} was not tested statistically.

H_{o_4} : There is no significant difference between the mean self-concept score and androgyny score of male students in the experimental group and in the control group students.

Again, as with H_{o_1} , H_{o_2} , and H_{o_3} , the control group did not yield any androgynous males. The males in the control group were masculine and undifferentiated; thus, H_{o_4} could not be tested statistically.

H_{o_5} : There is no significant difference between the mean self-concept score and masculine score of male students in the experimental group and in the control group students.

Table 1 presents the mean scores based on raw scores of masculine-typed males in the experimental and control groups. The f -ratio for the mean self-concept scores was .78. The degrees of freedom between the groups was 1, while the degrees of freedom for within groups was 12, yielding a total of 13.

The sum of the square between groups was 604.26, and the sum of square for within groups was 9234.08. The mean square between groups was 604.26, while the mean square for within groups was 769.51. The critical value for acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis at the .05 level of significance was 4.75. Because the computed value of .78 was less than the critical value of 4.75, H_{05} was accepted.

Table 1
Masculine Males:
One-Way Analysis of Variance Summary Table

Source	df	Sum of squares	Mean squares	f-ratio
Between groups	1	604.26	604.26	.78
Within groups	12	9234.08	769.50	
	13	9838.35		

$p = .05$; $cv = 4.75$; $f\text{-ratio} = .78$

H_{06} : There is no significant difference between the mean self-concept score and feminine score of female students in the experimental group and in the control group students.

Table 2 presents the mean scores based on raw scores of feminine-typed females in the experimental and control groups. The f -ratio for the mean self-concept scores was .032. The degrees of freedom for between groups was

1, while the degrees of freedom for within groups was 4, yielding a total of 5. The sum of the square for between groups was 50.69, and the sum of squares for within groups was 6292.80. The total sum of squares was 6343.49. The mean square for between groups was 50.69, while the mean square for within groups was 1573.20. The critical value for acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis at the .05 level of significance was 7.71. Because the computed value of .032 was less than the critical value of 7.71, H_{06} was accepted.

Table 2
Feminine Females:
One-Way Analysis of Variance Summary Table

Source	df	Sum of squares	Mean squares	f-ratio
Between groups	1	604.26	604.26	.78
Within groups	<u>12</u>	<u>9234.08</u>	769.50	
	13	9838.35		

$$p = .05; cv = 7.71; f\text{-ratio} = .032$$

H_{07} : There is no significant difference between the mean self-concept score and feminine score of male students in the experimental group and in the control group students.

The experimental group rendered 8 androgynous, 5 masculine, and 1 undifferentiated males, while the control group yielded 9 masculine and 5 undifferentiated males. The data did not indicate any feminine males in either group, which negated a test statistically.

H_{0g} : There is no significant difference between the mean score and undifferentiated score of the males in the experimental group and in the control group students.

Table 3 presents the mean scores based on raw scores of undifferentiated-typed males in the experimental and control groups. The f -ratio was .37 for the mean self-concept scores. The degrees of freedom for between groups was 1, with the degrees of freedom for within groups was 4, which totaled 5. The sum of square for between groups was 625.62, while the sum of squares for within groups was 6767.20, which totaled 7392.82. Mean square for between groups was 625.92, and mean squares for within groups was 1691.80. The critical value for acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis was the .05 level of significance was 7.71. Because the computed value of .37 was less than the critical value of 7.71, H_{0g} was accepted. It should be noted that there were 5 undifferentiated males in the control group and 1 undifferentiated male in the experimental group.

Table 3
Undifferentiated Males:
One-Way Analysis of Variance Summary Table

Source	df	Sum of squares	Mean squares	f-ratio
Between groups	1	625.62	625.62	.37
Within groups	<u>4</u>	<u>6767.20</u>	1691.80	
	5	7392.82		

$p = .05$; $cv = 7.71$; $f\text{-ratio} = .37$

H_{0g} : There is no significant difference between the mean score and undifferentiated score of the female students in the experimental group and in the control group students.

Table 4 presents the mean scores based on raw scores of undifferentiated-typed females in the experimental and control groups. The degrees of freedom for between groups was 1, and the degrees of freedom for within groups was 23, totaling 24. The sum of squares for between groups was 316, and the sum of square for within groups was 23253.35, totaling 23569.36. The mean squares for between groups was 316, and the mean squares for within groups was 1011.01. Because the f -ratio was .313, the data were not statistically significant. The critical value for acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis at the .05 level of significance was 4.28. Because the computed value of .313 was less than the critical value of 4.28, H_{0g} was accepted. The experimental group included 6 undifferentiated females, while the control group included 19 undifferentiated females.

Table 4
Undifferentiated Females:
One-Way Analysis of Variance Summary Table

Source	df	Sum of squares	Mean squares	f-ratio
Between groups	1	316.00	316.00	.313
Within groups	23	23253.35	1011.01	
	24	23569.36		

$p = .05$; $cv = 4.28$; $f\text{-ratio} = .313$

H_{010} : There is no significant difference between the mean self-concept score between the experimental group and the control group students.

Table 5 presents the total positive self-concept scores between the experimental and control groups. The degrees of freedom for between groups was 1, and the degrees of freedom for within groups was 68, resulting in a total of 69. The sum of squares between groups was 340.52, and the sum of square for within groups was 62150.89, which yielded a total of 62491.42. The mean square for between groups was 340.52, and the mean square for within groups was 913.98. The f -ratio was .373. The critical value for acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis at the .05 level of significance was 3.98. Because the computed value of .373 was less than the critical value of 3.98, H_{010} was accepted.

Table 5
Self-Concept Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups:
One-Way Analysis of Variance Summary Table

Source	df	Sum of squares	Mean squares	f-ratio
Between groups	1	340.52	340.52	.373
Within groups	<u>68</u>	<u>62150.89</u>	913.98	
	69	62491.42		

$p = .05$; $cv = 3.98$; $f\text{-ratio} = .373$

Self-Concept

The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale included Physical Self, Moral-Ethical Self, Personal Self, Family Self, Social Self, Identity, Self-Satisfaction, and Behavior. The 70 participants in this study obtained scores that were closely aligned with the standardized mean scores of the instrument. Table 6 presents the comparisons of the experimental and control groups with the standardized test norms. The experimental females obtained a high mean score of 91.57, while the test norm was 71.78. In contrast, the experimental females earned lower scores in Self-Satisfaction (experimental females, 99.22; norm score, 103.67) and behavior (experimental females, 104.28; norm score, 115.01). The experimental males earned a higher score (experimental males, 68.28; norm score, 64.55) on personal self subscale. The control group males and females obtained lower scores than the norm on Family Self, Social Self, and Behavior. The control group males and females earned lower scores in Moral-Ethical Self, Family Self, Self-Satisfaction, and Behavior. Considering the standard deviation of each subscale, the experimental and control groups earned overall positive Self-Concept profiles.

Table 6
Perception of Self - Experimental and Control Groups: TSCS

	Physical self	Moral/ethical self	Personal self	Family self	Social self	Identity	Self-satisfaction	Behavior
Standardized								
Mean score	71.78	70.33	64.55	70.83	68.14	127.10	103.67	115.01
SD	7.67	8.70	7.41	8.43	7.86	9.96	13.79	11.22
Mean score for experimental group								
Males	69.00	63.14	68.28	64.86	65.57	126.94	101.57	104.00
Females	91.57	66.50	63.17	69.33	68.00	129.94	99.22	104.28
Mean score for control group								
Males	76.64	68.14	71.00	68.07	61.71	135.93	112.00	103.57
Females	78.62	70.37	69.87	68.37	66.04	128.08	111.29	99.12

Sex-Role Identity

Sex-role identity classifications indicated a clear distinction between the experimental and control groups. Table 7 represents the sex-role classifications of the two groups. Most noteworthy was that the control group did not total any androgynous students. Over 60% of the students rated undifferentiated (low masculine and low feminine characteristics) personality characteristics in both groups. The experimental group resulted in 56% androgynous (high masculine and high feminine characteristics), 16% masculine (high masculine and low feminine characteristics), 3% feminine (high feminine and low masculine characteristics), and 25% undifferentiated (low masculine and low feminine characteristics). The control group resulted in 63% undifferentiated, 24% masculine, and 13% feminine.

Table 7
Perception of Self - Experimental and Control Groups: BSRI

	Masculine		Androgynous		Feminine		Undifferentiated	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Experimental group								
Males	5	16	7	22	0	--	2	6
Females	0	--	11	34	1	3	6	19
Control group								
Males	9	24	0	--	0	--	5	13
Females	0	--	0	--	5	13	19	50

Discussion of Results

This chapter presented an analysis of the data which found that 5 out of 10 hypotheses were nonsignificant. The remaining 5 hypotheses were not tested statistically because the control group did not render any androgynous males or females, and the experimental group did not render any masculine females or feminine males. The two instruments used in this study were the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale and the Bem Sex-Role Inventory. The TSCS consisted of 90 self-description statements on a 5-point response scale ranging from completely true to completely false. The TSCS also consisted of subscales: Physical Self, Moral-Ethical Self, Personal Self, Family Self, Social Self, Identity, Self-Satisfaction, and Behavior. The BSRI measured sex-role identity by a 7-point, 60-item scale of personality characteristics.

As with many educational studies, this study relied on volunteer participants, which, in itself, presented a weakness. Even though randomization was not possible, this causal-comparative method yielded useful information concerning self-concept and sex-role identity as they relate to urban minority adolescents. The major finding was that participation in a 10-week personal development unit of instruction did not alter significantly the self-concept of students when paired with sex-role identity classification (androgynous, masculine, feminine, and undifferentiated).

That there were no androgynous control group students suggested an area of concern. Sex-role development, particularly in minority adolescents, should be studied in-depth and in terms of future educational opportunity. With regard to black adolescents, a traditional sex-role identity would tend to limit a future already limited by covert injustices and racism. The acceptance of

restrictive sex-roles would inadvertently limit black males from parenting perspectives and limit black females from career/leadership perspectives. Although researchers have found that black adolescents have garnered racial pride through family groups, social relationships, and church, personal development should continue (Foster & Perry, 1982; Stephen & Rosenfield, 1979). Racial prejudices impact on the socialization process of minority adolescents, and that process should not be further limited by restrictive sex-role stereotyping. In fact, the expectation of having an androgynous identity in both males and females in both groups was perhaps presumptuous, given the traditional black socialization structure. Cultural variations from the society, particularly in matriarchal black families, often perpetuate stress and anxiety for minority adolescents because of economic hardship (Thornburg, 1982). Without adequate role models and enrichment programs, students may not be exposed to androgynous adolescents. If they do not learn to adjust as the situation demands, they may play marginal adult roles.

Simmons and Rosenberg (1975) have found that boys (white and black) had more stable self-images and higher global self-esteem than did their female counterparts, which was essentially supported by the findings in this study. They randomly sampled 1,988 children from grades 3-12, comparing self-images of male and female children to determine whether females were at a disadvantage. In addition to examining sex differences, the study extended the research to compare race differences. Working under the assumption that, in the black community, black girls had more favorable positions than did black boys, they concluded that during later adolescence few, if any, differences existed between the sexes. Further examination of Simmons and Rosenberg's (1975)

study revealed that more girls viewed their own sex with displeasure and failed to conform to ideal sex-role prescriptions, which led the researchers to speculate that these attitudes were related to negative self-images and increased self-consciousness. This researcher would agree that this might be the case of the students in this study. Once the minority students were exposed to the reality of pluralistic America, a flexible sex-role identity might prove beneficial.

Streitmatter, Cruz, and Ellis-Schwabe (1984) reported that early adolescent boys tended to perceive social roles in a traditional sense more often than did their female counterparts, which was congruent with this study, given the number of masculine and feminine students in each group. Their group was composed of 1,041 male and 1,108 female students enrolled in elementary, middle, and junior high schools from predominantly white middle-class backgrounds. A questionnaire was administered, and the results indicated that the male respondents' perceptions were more traditional than were their female counterparts' perceptions. The researchers speculated that, as boys and girls approached adulthood, they found that strict sex-role perceptions did not agree with the reality of the current American occupational and social structure. They also concluded that the young adolescents in their study may have not had a wide perspective of their environments nor a thorough understanding of their future roles in society.

The lack of significant differences in self-concept of students in comparable sex-role categories in this study may not be a reflection on the personal development unit but related to the comparisons made by the researcher. Perhaps comparing the masculine and androgynous self-concept

with the feminine and undifferentiated self-concept of the experimental and control groups would have been more appropriate. Erdwins, Small, and Gross (1980) examined the relationship of sex-role to self-concept. Their study included 52 male and 84 female undergraduate college students who were administered the Bem Sex-Role Inventory, the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale, and the Manifest Anxiety Scale. The scores from these three instruments were analyzed by the analysis of variance (ANOVA) technique in a series of sex times sex-role interactions, which revealed that males were consistently higher in positive self-concept scores than were women. In addition, men obtained significantly greater overall self-esteem, greater self-acceptance, feelings of personal worth, and more positive feelings about their bodies. When compared with the masculine group, Erdwins et al. (1980) concluded that the undifferentiated group rendered significantly less positive scores on overall self-esteem, personal self-worth, and adequacy in social interaction. Males demonstrated more positive self-concepts than did females, regardless of sex-role category, and undifferentiated students obtained significantly less positive scores than did both the androgynous and masculine sex-typed groups.

More in line with this study, Wells (1980) investigated the relationship between gender-role identity (masculine, feminine, androgynous, and undifferentiated) and psychological adjustment among adolescents. The sample included 103 high school students who were administered the Bem Sex-Role Inventory, three Offer Self-Image scales, and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. The results indicated that among boys undifferentiated participants had higher self-esteems, while masculine, feminine, and androgynous participants had similar and lower self-esteems. Their findings compared with the experimental

and control groups' scores of masculine, feminine, and androgynous students of this study. With respect to developmental changes, intervention programs might start much earlier than adolescence to effect a change. Even though the personal development instruction did not make a significant difference in self-concept between the experimental and control groups, the sex-role identification of the students in each group was noteworthy. Of the students in the experimental group, 24 out of 32 were androgynous or masculine, while only 9 out of 38 students in the control group were masculine. Perhaps the unit influenced a more flexible attitude toward restrictive sex-role identity without impacting self-concept.

There were no significant differences in mean self-concept and sex-role identity between the experimental and control groups. The adolescents in both groups reported positive self-concepts and diverse sex-role identification.

The findings of this study showed that there were no significant differences in self-concept between the experimental and control groups. Also, the first of the null hypotheses was not statistically rejected because of the absence of androgynous males and females in the control group and

Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine if a unit of instruction on personal development would make a significant difference in the self-concepts and sex-role identities between experimental and control groups of urban high school adolescents. This study involved 70 urban black high school students ranging in age from 14 to 18 years. The experimental group consisted of 32 black high school students participating in Project INSTEAD (Institute for Supplementary Education and Development). The control group students did not participate in Project INSTEAD activities; however, they were residents of the immediate urban community. The personal development unit was based on a state-approved curriculum to promote positive self-concepts. After the 10-week unit, the posttest instruments -- the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale and the Bem Sex-Role Inventory -- were administered. The data, mean total self-concept, and sex-role identity (masculine, feminine, androgynous, and undifferentiated) were statistically analyzed using the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) technique.

The findings of this study showed that there were no significant differences in self-concept between the experimental and control groups. Given that five of the null hypotheses were not statistically analyzed because of the absence of androgynous males and females in the control group and

masculine females and feminine males in the experimental group, the hypotheses should be reexamined. For this population, androgyny and masculinity were not exclusive indicators of positive or high self-concept. The students in both the experimental and control groups did not record significant differences in self-concept. Most of the students in the total sample population obtained positive self-concept scores. The only obvious difference between the two groups was sex-role identity. The control group did not record any androgynous students, while the experimental group recorded 56%.

Conclusions

This study was designed to investigate the impact of personal development instruction on self-concept and sex-role identity between experimental and control groups of urban minority adolescents. The personal development instruction included cultural awareness, self-concept enhancement skills, job search skills, financial aid planning for college, scholarship search skills, technical careers exposure, and exploration of personal or individual concerns. The major conclusions to be made in light of the research findings were:

1. A 10-week personal development unit did not significantly alter the self-concepts of students in the experimental group.
2. Sex-role identity was somewhat traditional for the students who did not experience the personal development unit.
3. Sex-role classifications were not true indicators of self-concept for minority students in this study.

4. In both experimental and control groups, males and females reflected overall positive self-concepts, which was not congruent with most research findings.

5. With personal development intervention, minority males and females had androgynous sex-role identities, while traditional sex-roles were present without intervention.

In an effort to survive and thrive, urban adolescents must exhibit, when necessary, assertiveness, leadership skills, and a sense of self-reliance yet exhibit feminine nurturing characteristics, when necessary. From this perspective, masculinity untempered by femininity fostered inappropriate domination, competitiveness, and insensitivity; femininity untempered by masculinity fostered dependence, incompetence, and passivity (Wells, 1980). If minority adolescents are going to participate in the mainstream of society, the androgynous sex-role identity offers more flexibility. Because American society does not provide an adequate environment for minority youths to view nontraditional sex-roles, intervention strategies should continue.

Recommendations for Further Research

In consideration of these research findings, the researcher made the following recommendations:

1. That further researcher on personal development of black students continue over an extended period of time.
2. That enhancement or supplementary programs (such as Project INSTEAD) continue and should include cognitive and affective development which may be tested statistically.

3. That the study of psychological androgyny and its relationship to positive self-concept warrants further empirical research.

4. That experiences designed to positively influence self-concept and sex-role identity start during the elementary school years and continue through the secondary years.

5. That enhancement or supplementary programs provide adequate role models for minority adolescents as a part of the program.

6. That experiences designed to foster academic achievement also provide for the affective needs of the students.

APPENDICES

Correspondence

October 21, 1985

Dr. Clarence Ligon
Director, Project DVIDAD
Texas Southern University
3103 Cleburne
Houston, Texas 77004

Dear Dr. Ligon:

APPENDIX A

Correspondence

I am pleased that you have agreed to examine the influence of the personal development project DVIDAD as my dissertation investigation. I am relatively sure that the activities we have planned will make a significant difference in the interpersonal development of those students participating in the project. Please be assured that parental permission will be obtained before any assessments are administered.

Enclosed you will find a copy of my original dissertation proposal for your review and file. This is by no means final as it is simply meant to provide you with background information about the research project. Revisions are forthcoming per the approval of you and my dissertation committee.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Yours truly,

Carol A. Hightower
Project Counselor

TEXAS SOUTHERN UNIVERSITY

HOUSTON, TEXAS 77004

October 21, 1985

Dr. Claudette Ligons
 Director, Project INSTEAD
 Texas Southern University
 3100 Cleburne
 Houston, Texas 77004

Dear Dr. Ligons:

I am pleased that you have agreed to allow me to examine the influence of the personal development segment of Project INSTEAD as my dissertation investigation. I am relatively sure that the activities we have planned will make a significant difference in the interpersonal development of those students participating in the project. Please be assured that parental permission will be obtained before any assessments are administered.

Enclosed you will find a copy of my original dissertation proposal for your review and file. This is by no means final as it is simply meant to provide you with background information about the research project. Revisions are forthcoming per the approval of you and my dissertation committee..

Thank you for your cooperation.

Yours truly;

Carol A. Hightower
 Project Counselor

TEXAS SOUTHERN UNIVERSITY
HOUSTON, TEXAS 77004

CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION AND BEHAVIORAL SCIENCES

November 11, 1985

Ms. Carol Hightower
Doctoral Candidate
Texas Southern University
3100 Cleburne
Houston, Texas 77004

Dear Ms. Hightower:

I am writing in reponse to your request to engage Project INSTEAD students in your dissertation research. Thank you for the proposal, which provides a more complete view of the research which you will be conducting.

Ms. Hightower, be advised that we support your study and that you are free to assess our students using the instruments named in your proposal. They are identified here: (a) The Tennessee Self Concept Scale and, (b) the Bem Inventory.

We would like to include your research summary in our final Project Report since your study cuts across an area of instruction for our students. We appreciate the contribution that your study will make to the pool of information on school climate.

Sincerely yours,

C. M. Ligons

Claudetta Merrell Ligons, Ed. D.
Project INSTEAD Coordinator

CAROL A. HIGHTOWER

838 Greens Road
Houston, Texas 77060
(713) 529-5451

November 1985

Dear Parents of _____ :

As residents of our urban community, children have the opportunity to further their educational and social developments.

In an effort to secure more information about the social development of high school children, I have been given permission to conduct a study which involves only 40 minutes of your child's time. The identity of the participants and the school will be completely anonymous.

Give us a chance to increase our knowledge of what we already know about social development by signing the parental approval below.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Yours truly,

Carol A. Hightower
Counselor
Project INSTEAD

Parental Approval

Signature of Parent/Guardian

Date

CAROL A. HIGHTOWER

838 Greens Road
Houston, Texas 77060
(713) 529-5451

November 1985

Dear Parents of _____ :

As participants of Project INSTEAD, children have the opportunity to further their educational and social developments.

In an effort to secure more information about the social development of high school children, I have been given permission to conduct a study which involves only 40 minutes of your child's time twice during the semester. The identity of the participants and the school will be completely anonymous.

Give us a chance to increase our knowledge of what we already know about the value of Project INSTEAD to your child by signing the parental approval below.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Yours truly,

Carol A. Hightower
Counselor
Project INSTEAD

Parental Approval

Signature of Parent/Guardian

Date

Project INSTEAD
(Institute for Supplementary Education and Development)

Personal Growth and Development Unit

Course/Unit Component Objectives

The objectives of this component concern both self-concept and academic skills. Specifically, the objectives were:

1. To assist participants in understanding how self-concept influences learning and how learning influences self-concept.
2. To help participants develop more effective communication skills.
3. To familiarize participants with effective learning skills and strategies.
4. To help participants expand the awareness of self and the people who influence them.
5. To acquaint students with the process involved in career decisions.

APPENDIX B

Project INSTEAD

Seminar Activities

Session 1: Introduction. The purpose of this session was to gain insight into how participants have developed their present self-concepts. This session gave the participants an opportunity to interact in small groups to become better acquainted. Topic areas covered were self-concept activities, decision-making strategies, and exploring feelings, attitudes, and values.

Session 2: Culturally Specific. This session allowed the students an opportunity to reflect on their cultural backgrounds by writing a letter to themselves expressing fondness of self and acknowledging the accomplishments of those with the same ethnic background.

Session 3: Job Search Skills. The purpose of this session was to gain insight into how to conduct a successful job search. Participants filled out personal data sheets and job applications. The personal data sheets and applications were evaluated in small group discussions.

Project INSTEAD
(Institute for Supplementary Education and Development)

Personal Growth and Development Unit

Counseling Component Objectives

The objectives of this component concern both self-concept and academic skills. Specifically, the objectives were:

1. To assist participants in understanding how self-concept influences learning and how learning influences self-concept.
2. To help participants develop more effective communication skills.
3. To familiarize participants with effective learning skills and strategies.
4. To help participants expand the awareness of self and the people who influence them.
5. To acquaint students with the process involved in career decisions.

Seminar Activities

Session 1: Introduction. The purpose of this session was to gain insight into how participants have developed their present self-concepts. This session gave the participants an opportunity to interact in small groups to become better acquainted. Topic areas covered were self-concept activities, decision-making strategies, and exploring feelings, attitudes, and values.

Session 2: Culturally Speaking. This session allowed the students an opportunity to reflect on their cultural backgrounds by writing a letter to themselves expressing fondness of self and recognizing the accomplishments of those with the same ethnic background.

Session 3: Job Search Skills. The purpose of this session was to gain insight into how to conduct a successful job search. Participants filled out personal data sheets and job applications. The personal data sheets and applications were evaluated in small group discussions.

Session 4: Job Search Skills continued. The students participated in role playing situations on applying for a job. The students made evaluations in group discussions.

Session 5: "How To Be, How Not To Be". The purpose of this session was to help students develop a full awareness of what strengths they possessed and how to replace weaknesses with strengths (Frey & Carlock, 1984). This session allowed participants an opportunity to sort through the negativity in their cultures, their families, and in themselves to shift to greater attention on more positive aspects.

Session 6: Financial Aid Planning. A guest speaker explained the need for financial aid assistance and how to fill out a financial aid package.

Session 7: Personal Concerns. The purpose of this session was to gain insight into personal concerns. The students wrote individual concerns, and a panel discussion followed with fellow participants acting as panelists.

Session 8: Communication - Listening and Responding Skills. One of the main objectives of this component was to improve the communication skills of the participants. The accurate sending of clear messages and the effective responding to messages were the focus of this communication session. This session began with the leader explaining the value of and need for effective communication by every person in every field of human endeavor. The point was made that one significant quality of a successful person is the ability to communicate well. The participants worked on improving skills by practicing in dyads and triads.

Session 9: Role Models/Mentors. The purpose of this session was to provide an opportunity for the participants to meet several role models and form groups for science and math projects.

Session 10: Assessments. The participants were administered the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale and the Bem Sex-Role Inventory.

Note. Adapted from Essential elements for prevocational home economics human and personal development unit by Texas Education Agency, 1984, Austin: Author.

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