ASSESSING THE IMPORTANCE OF SELF-CONCEPT INTERVENTION
AMONG HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS AS MEASURED
BY THE PIERS-HARRIS CHILDREN'S
SELF-CONCEPT SCALE

DISsertATION

Presented to the Graduate Council of the
University of North Texas in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

by

Francis Gerald Grima, B.A., M.A.
Denton, Texas
December, 1993
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The research problem of this study was to determine the pretest and posttest cluster scores of high school students in a theater class as measured by the Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale.

The following hypotheses were formulated for this study:

1. There will be no significant difference at the .05 level between the experimental and control groups on the six cluster pretest scores of the Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale in the areas of behavior, intellectual and school status, physical appearance and attributes, anxiety, popularity, happiness and satisfaction.

2. There will be no significant difference at the .05 level in the gain scores between the experimental and control groups on the six cluster areas of the Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale.

The Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale was administered to forty-five theater students at Vernon High
School during the first six weeks of the spring semester, 1993. T-tests were used to determine statistical significance.

The findings of the study were as follows:

1. Not all students scored within the average range of national norms on the cluster scores on the Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale. Scores were tabulated both in the plus and minus two standard deviations range.

2. A significant gain (.05) between the experimental and control groups was detected in intelligence and anxiety cluster scores.

3. A significant difference was found between the experimental and control groups on the happiness cluster pretest score at the .05 level.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Self concept, or the mental image that individuals have of themselves, is an important factor in their success or failure in many aspects of life. Individuals who have favorable self-concepts have the confidence to attempt new and challenging tasks, whereas persons who have unfavorable self-concepts often expect to fail. A good self-concept, which is the basis for democracy, provides individuals the freedom to feel good about themselves and the courage to test the limits of their abilities. Many of the problems associated with poor self-concept, such as crime, violence, alcohol and drug abuse, teenage pregnancy, child and spouse abuse, chronic welfare dependency, and failure in school (Steinam 1992, 27), are also serious problems of society. The alarming rate of increase in the problems associated with an unfavorable self-concept make it especially important to consider possible means for improving the self-concept of individuals, especially children.

Because significant others affect a person’s self-concept, and because teachers can be classified as significant others in the lives of children, the classroom seems to be an obvious place to look for ways to improve
children's self-concept. Teachers play a vital role in how students feel about themselves. Their opinions of students' abilities can have dramatic effects on students' self-concept and, thus, on their performance in and out of the classroom. The choice of Vernon, Texas, as the site for this study was based on the fact that many of the problems of society are present there. An additional, and equally pressing, problem was that the number of students dropping out of Vernon High School is increasing among ethnic groups. As future community leaders, it is imperative that these high school students be given every opportunity available to develop positive self-concepts. Studies such as this are necessary in order to determine the most effective means for improving the self-concept of young people in our society.

For this experiment, the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale was utilized to ascertain students' total self-concept scores and scores on individual cluster areas including behavior, intellectual and school status, physical appearance and attributes, anxiety, popularity, and happiness and satisfaction. The scale was designed for use with individuals who are seventeen years of age and younger. Results of the scale provide insight into how students view themselves. Effective instruments for measuring self-concept, such as, the Piers-Harris, are essential to the improvement of students' self-concept levels. Good
measures for discovering students' levels of self-concept, make it possible to target students who need attention so that they can be included in activities designed to improve their mental image of themselves and, thus, increase their chances of success.

**Background and Significance**

School achievement and self-concept are highly correlated with each other. Academic self-concept is more highly correlated with academic achievement and other academic behaviors than is general self-concept (Marsh 1990, 646). According to Purkey (1970, 2), how children view the school experience has a profound effect on their academic achievement. A significant aspect of this study was the determination of whether the self-concept of a group of students could be significantly enhanced by designated treatment activities. If the experimental group's posttest scores increased significantly, the results could indicate the importance of self-concept in a school curriculum. Self-concept is important for creating and understanding the philosophical and sociological themes that permeate life. Clearly, the enhancement of students' self-concept is not as safe or as simple as some researchers have indicated (Beane 1991, 27). The absence of significant differences as determined by the t tests could indicate that reasons other than the treatment explain the results.
Children who do not succeed in school often face a bleak future. These students, who are often the victims of poverty, frequently dwell in rural areas. According to the 1990 United States census, 61 of Texas' 254 counties have poverty rates of at least 26.2 percent, or twice the national average. Roughly one-third of the poorest counties in the state are near the Texas-Mexico border, America's window on the Third World. More than a dozen are concentrated on the South Plains. The remainder of the counties brood quietly under the pines of far East Texas and on the scrubby fringes of Central Texas (Loe 1993, 1A). Because of increases in the poverty rate, the number of persons in the United States who live in hunger has increased 50 percent since the mid-1980s, leaving more than one in ten Americans undernourished (Castello 1992, 1A). In 1991, the national poverty rate reached a six-year high, and Americans' incomes fell for the second consecutive year (Reifenberg 1992, 1A). The Texas poverty rate of 17.5 percent was slightly above the national average poverty rate of 14.2 percent in 1991--35.7 million people lived below the national poverty level. Nationally, the poverty rate was highest for blacks, at 32.7 percent, then for Hispanics at 28.7 percent, Asians and Pacific Islanders at 13.8 percent, and whites at 10.7 percent (Reifenberg 1992, 12A).
The poverty rate will continue to increase as long as unemployment and the number of uneducated minorities continue to increase. By 2060, population experts predict that minorities will outnumber whites in the United States. In the next twenty years, Hispanics are expected to surpass blacks to become the country’s largest minority group (Camia 1992, 31A).

Although students’ overall Scholastic Aptitude Test scores have dropped since 1975, the average scores of minority students are lower than those of white students (Bleibery 1992, 28A). Drops in test scores affect students’ ability to pursue postsecondary education, and thus affect their earning potential in the job market. Students who graduate from college average $1,000 per month more in salaries than do students with only high school diplomas (Kelly 1993, 1D). Minorities, who have higher dropout rates among high school students, also earn fewer college degrees. Approximately 26.4 percent of all whites have college degrees, compared with 14 percent of blacks and 11.6 percent of Hispanics (Kelly 1992, 1D). Of the 1.1 million Hispanic high school dropouts, 600,000 (63 percent) were born outside the United States (Arocha 1992, 13A). The necessity to learn English as a second language causes many students to be low achievers in school, and thus contributes to their low self-concepts.
Students who perform well in school are often those who do not have to overcome the obstacles related to poverty, such as learning English as a second language, outdated equipment in old school buildings, and teachers who fail to challenge students. For students who are not exposed to these conditions, school can be exciting and stimulating. Unfortunately, classroom learning can be correlated with socioeconomic status. Brooks (1988, 3) found that although socioeconomic status is not a good predictor of individual achievement, it is a strong predictor of school achievement levels. Edington and Martellano (1984, 11) also found that students' academic achievement is highly related to socioeconomic, cultural, and ethnic factors.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to determine the difference between the pretest and posttest cluster scores of experimental and control groups taking the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (1984) at Vernon High School during the first six weeks of the spring semester, 1993.

Purposes of the Study

In order to determine whether a significant difference occurred between the experimental and control groups in this study, it was necessary to determine changes in the perceived attitudes of self-concept of students enrolled in
two theater classes on the pretest and posttest of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, and to ascertain what activities of the treatment were effective with the experimental group. Some of the self-concept treatment activities included video tapes, esteem exercises, and outside speakers. These activities were termed the independent variable. It was also necessary to ascertain whether a significant difference existed in the cluster scores of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale between the two groups in the areas of behavior, intellectual and school status, physical appearance and attributes, anxiety, popularity, and happiness and satisfaction.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were formulated to carry out the purposes of this study:

1. There will be no significant difference at the .05 level between the experimental and control groups on the six cluster pretest scores of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale in the areas of behavior, intellectual and school status, physical appearance and attributes, anxiety, popularity, happiness and satisfaction.

2. There will be no significant differences in the gain scores between the experimental and control groups on
the six cluster areas of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale.

The treatment used on the experimental group was the independent variable. The treatment consisted of outside speakers, the viewing of self-esteem tapes, discussions, and self-concept exercises. The independent variable was planned and determined before the treatment was administered. Specific activities of the treatment are provided in the Appendix B. The dependent variable was students' overall score on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. The study was also designed to determine the self-concept scores of students enrolled in two theater groups at Vernon High School during the first six weeks of the spring, 1993, semester.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined as they apply to this study:

Academic students are students in educational programs that are not directly designed to prepare them for an occupation or trade.

At-risk students are students in grades seven through twelve who meet one or more of the following conditions: (a) have not been promoted one or more times in grades one through six and continue to be unable to master the essential elements in the seventh or higher grade levels;
(b) are two or more years below grade level in reading or mathematics; (c) have failed at least two courses in one or more semesters and are not expected to graduate within four years of the time they enter the ninth grade; or (d) have failed one or more of the reading, writing, or mathematics sections of the most recent Texas Educational Assessment of Minimum Skills test beginning with the seventh grade (Texas Education Agency 1984, 2).

Clusters are areas of research to be studied in the Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale, including behavior, intellectual and school status, physical appearance and attributes, anxiety, popularity, happiness and satisfaction. Cluster scores are different from the raw scores.

Control group includes the subjects who are not given the treatment in research.

Dependent variable is the variable a researcher is trying to change in research.

Experimental group includes the subjects who are given the treatment.

Independent variable is the variable in which different subjects are exposed to different degrees or the variable on which the group of subjects to be compared are different. These are variables that vary naturally in the environment or are manipulated by a researcher.
Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale is a test designed by Ellen V. Piers and Dale B. Harris to measure the self-concept of students.

Self-concept is the view individuals have of themselves, their abilities, and their own self-worth.

Self-esteem is used interchangeably with self-concept.

Texas Assessment of Academic Skills is a state test designed to measure students’ knowledge in reading, writing, and mathematics. The test is mandatory for high school graduation in Texas.

Treatment is the changes in the behavior of the experimental group, that is, those who undergo the experience.

Summary

This chapter contains an introduction to the topic of self-concept. Six aspects mentioned by Purkey (1970) that contribute to students’ self-image are also discussed. The statement of the problem and the purposes of the study, which relate the reasons for the experiment, are described in this chapter. The two hypotheses of the study and a summary of the background and significance are also provided. This chapter concludes with a definition of terms.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

How children view school is often indicative of their self-concept. Probably no factor is more fundamental to the success and happiness of children than their evaluation and acceptance of themselves. How children view themselves in school is also important to their self-concept. Children’s negative attitudes toward school are usually rooted in negative self-concepts. Children’s evaluations of their own conduct have the strongest influence on their adjustment to the school environment, the extent and manner in which they participate in group activities, and in their relations with persons in authority (Haynes 1990, 199).

Self-concept, a multidimensional term that can be applied to different cultures and age groups, can be either negative or positive. Wylie (1979) construes the term self-concept to include the following:

1. cognitions and evaluations regarding relatively specific aspects of self (e.g., mathematics ability, predispositional anxiety in interpersonal situations, family status such as being a parent, racial identity, gender identity, class membership); 2. ideal self, which is seen as compromising not only the person’s ideals about specific self-aspects such as being scholastically able, having a sense of humor, being well liked by peers, but also such phenomenal goals as wishing to be a well-educated person or to attain a particular career status; 3. over-all self-regard,
which is used to cover such global constructs as self-esteem, self-acceptance, self-favorability, and self-ideal discrepancies and are presumably determined by some combination of cognitions and evaluations of many attributes of self. (Wylie 1979, 3)

High achieving students are expected to have high self-concepts, and low achieving students are expected to manifest little interest in school, show little concern about the future, and not like themselves very much (Mac Iver, Stipek, and Daniels 1991, 406). These characteristics are directly related to Wylie’s (1979) ideal self. Although self-concept is part of the foundation for success in both school and life, academic self-concept is more highly correlated with academic achievement and other academic behaviors than is general self-concept (Marsh 1990, 646). Marsh suggests that school performance is more likely to be affected by prior self-concept than are standardized test scores. Success in school cannot remedy a negative home environment. Students with career goals have significantly higher self-esteem than do students without career goals (Chiu 1990, 298). As pointed out by Purkey (1970, 3), overall, research has clearly shown a persistent and significant relationship between self-concept and academic achievement (Purkey 1970, 3). Although the data do not provide clear-cut evidence about which comes first—a positive self-concept or scholastic success, a negative self-concept or scholastic failure—they do stress a strong
reciprocal relationship and give reason to assume that the enhancement of self-concept is a vital influence in improving academic performance (Purkey 1970, 27).

The views that students have of themselves and of teachers’ behavior is a vital ingredient in academic achievement.

The ways significant others evaluate the student directly affects the student’s conception of his academic ability. This in turn establishes limits on his success in school. Teachers, in their capacity of significant others, need to view students in essentially positive ways and hold favorable expectations. This is particularly important at the elementary level, but is vital in all grades. (Purkey 1970, 43)

The key to building positive and realistic self-images in students lies largely in what schools are able to accomplish. Schools clarify and develop values upon which a positive self-image can be based. As academic achievement is ensured and experienced, self-concept of the learner improves (Beane and Lipka 1986, 84). Teachers are an important ingredient in students’ progress. Because a favorable climate cannot be implemented without teacher support and reinforcement of students, their support is associated with high self-esteem (Hoge, Smit, and Hanson 1990, 120).

Six factors seem particularly important in creating a classroom atmosphere that is conducive to the development of favorable self-images in students. These are (a) challenge,
(b) freedom, (c) respect, (d) warmth, (e) control, and (f) success (Purkey 1970, 49-50). Because students need to be challenged, high academic expectations can be beneficial. An environment with little or no freedom, provides limited chances for self-esteem to grow and stifles educational achievement. No aspect of education is more important than teachers' belief that individual students are important and valuable, and that they can learn in school (Purkey 1970, 51). If teachers genuinely value and respect students, their confidence in students is reflected in everything they do. Their attitude encourages students' achievement and self-concept. Warmth is also important in a classroom. Teachers should give attention to each student and should practice courtesy on a regular basis. Warmth and firmness also contribute to a positive educational setting. Firmness on the teachers' part is necessary to keep noise to a minimum so that students can complete their assignments. Sensitive teachers focus on students' accomplishments rather than their failures. Continuing awareness of failure results in lowered expectations rather than productive learning. Students learn they are capable from success, not from failure (Purkey 1970, 55).

Similar thoughts about teacher behavior and the part it plays in education are expressed by Juharz (1990, 234) and Prince (1989, 3). Characteristics which are indicative of
effective teachers include the creation of a positive learning environment, the treatment of students with dignity and service as facilitators for students to be themselves. Self-esteem is important to educators because it is gratifying to students and because it aids students' personal development (Hoge, Smit, and Hanson 1990, 117).

Atherley (1990) notes that,

> teachers' attitudes and teaching methods with less able children, in particular, have a significant influence upon the way they feel about themselves. Recognition that self-concept is an important educational variable which may have a great influence upon motivation, behavior, and achievement is long overdue. (Atherley 1990, 224)

Self-concept, which is based on past judgments, perceptions, and feedback from significant others, is an individual's concept of his or her own ability to learn the accepted types of academic behavior and performance in terms of school achievement (Mitman and Lash 1988, 55). Significant others include family, friends, peers, teachers, and others who influence students' lives. Geraldi (1990, 402) proposes that individuals with low self-concepts view negative academic feedback as a greater threat than do those with higher self-concepts. Because teachers also need to feel good about themselves in order to instill positive attitudes in their students, their attitudes toward themselves and others are as important, if not more so, than their techniques, practices, and materials (Purkey 1970,
Because today's teachers educate the leaders of tomorrow, it is important that they be at their best. How students perceive themselves is often influenced by teachers' reactions to their classroom performance. Classroom practices that increase children's confidence in their ability can help create a success-prone cycle in individual children. Thus, increases in effort resulting from increases in perceived competence, can lead students to succeed more frequently (Mac Iver, Stipek and Daniels 1991, 408). Covington and Beery (1976, 7) suggest that when teachers' expectations undermine rather than challenge students, the reciprocal process can be a brutalizing experience. Failure-prone individuals not only tend to deny success once it occurs, they frequently act counter-productively to keep success from occurring at all. In effect, these individuals sabotage their own efforts when they find themselves in danger of succeeding. As a result, failure-prone students feel impotent and powerless in school (Covington and Berry 1976, 71). The seeds of self-doubt that lead to failure can be sown easily and in many different ways. Teachers who tend to reward good performance and punish failure can unknowingly plant seeds of self-doubt in their students. Students who perceive the classroom environment as negative and futile are not likely to experience a sense of warmth from classroom activities.
As Covington and Beery (1976, 78) further detail, successful performance in school is typically measured in terms of how much better one student performs than another. Thus, students can maintain their sense of self-worth only by making others feel unworthy (Covington & Beery 1976, 78)! Self-worth should not be derived at someone else's expense. Achievement in the classroom should be available to everyone. In order for students to achieve a feeling of self-worth, they need to recognize their own progressive movement. When their progress is not apparent, however, students often fall into a cycle of despair and frustration.

Only to the degree that individuals accept and like themselves can they hope to accept and like others. Only to the degree that they recognize their strengths and weaknesses can they hope to choose realistic goals for themselves. Only to the degree that they are willing to accept responsibility for their own behavior can they hope to enjoy to the fullest a real sense of freedom and self-direction (Linskie 1983, 22). Unless students learn to accept responsibility for their actions, they will always blame others for their failures. Self-fulfilling prophecies often become reality because students tend to do what is expected of them. Uncommitted students with negative attitudes often do poorly and blame someone or something else for their poor grades. A positive view of self gives
students a tremendous advantage in dealing with life. Self-concept, which is defined as the description that individuals attach to themselves, is based on the roles individuals play and the attributes that they believe they possess (Beane and Lipka 1986, 7).

Self-concept, which plays a vital role in how individuals view themselves, can be derived from a variety of sources, including parents, siblings, peers, teachers, job supervisors, ministers, and counselors. The formation of self-concept is based on past judgements, perceptions, and feedback of generalized and significant others and is a "person's conception of his own ability to learn the accepted types of academic behavior and performance in terms of school achievement" (Geraldi 1990, 402). Wallace and Walker (1990, 361) point out that academically successful minority and low socioeconomic students have strong positive self-concepts. They argue that black students must overcome many academic and social obstacles and, hence, are in need of greater resolve to continue their education. Leung and Lau (1989, 356) indicate that there is a negative relationship between delinquency and academic self-concept. With this in mind, it is apparent that school achievement contributes to self-concept and to how students feel about themselves. Even at a young age, low achievers view themselves as doing less well in the class hierarchy than do
high achievers. Kugle and Powell (1983, 201) who conducted a self-concept study using a group of second graders, found that students' level and stability of self-esteem correlated with their school achievement. Beane and Lipka (1986) describe the characteristics usually associated with students manifesting high self-concepts:

Learners with clear self-concepts and positive self-esteem tend to participate more, have higher school completion rates, exhibit more presocial behavior and demonstrate greater academic achievement than do peers with unclear or negative perceptions. In other words, those learners who believe they can succeed in school actually do succeed. Continued success leads to greater stability in school self-confidence; conversely, those who fail experience a loss of self-esteem in school, which, in turn, contributes to a continuing lack of success. (Beane and Lipka 1986, 190)

Not only is self-concept important for school achievement, positive self-concept is the most crucial factor in the success of the learning person (Bayer 1987, 123). The experience of negatively perceived events appears to be the primary contributor to lowered self-esteem (Young, et al. 1990, 33). Most researchers of academic achievement and self-esteem have used grades to measure students' achievement, and virtually all researchers have found that grades are positively associated with self-esteem (Hoge, Smit, and Hanson 1990, 120).

Although Lackovic-Grgin and Dekovic (1990, 839) found that females had higher self-esteem than males,
contradictory results were noted in a national survey by Horwitz in 1991. She found that females emerge from adolescence with a much poorer self-image, and constrained views of their future and their place in society than do males. Horwitz also found that, by high school, the self-esteem of both sexes had dropped, but the gap between females who had maintained high self-esteem, and males was much greater; only 29 percent of the females reported that they were "happy the way I am," contrasted to 46 percent of males (Horwitz 1991, 16). The study by Horwitz contained a sample of 3,000 students between grades four and ten in twelve locations.

Effective teachers can do much to improve students’ self-concept and improve their academic achievement. According to Juharz (1990) the ideal learning situation would include the following teacher behaviors:

Certainly the characteristic behaviors of teachers with high self-concepts create a positive learning environment, one in which students develop feelings of acceptance and worthiness. The teachers display warmth, acceptance, and permissiveness in the classroom and are secure enough to see the students point of view. They treat students with dignity and worth encouraging self-acceptance and they serve as facilitators allowing students to be themselves. (Juharz 1990, 235)

Teachers serve as the catalyst that can make the difference between student achievement and student despair. Not only can effective teachers correct content
deficiencies, their efforts to praise students and avoid critical or negative remarks can go a long way toward contributing to students' success. It is important that teachers acknowledge to students that individual differences exist and that they design a task system that allows students to focus on individual improvement relative to their own past performance and to be graded accordingly (Harris, Rosenthal, and Snodgrass 1986, 173).

As indicated by Ryan (1992), some minority schools are effectively encouraging students' achievement. An illustration of a minority school that is doing an excellent job with student achievement is Ysleta High School in El Paso, Texas. Ysleta High School is in a troubled location and recently had to install thirty-four portable classrooms to handle the overflow student population. The school is located in the middle of a barrio where unemployment is high and hope is slim. Despite these disadvantages, five graduates last year were accepted into the Massachusetts Institute of Technology--one of the world's most exclusive universities, where tuition is $18,000 a year. Ysleta High School sends many students to prestigious colleges, including Harvard, Stanford, Cornell, Vassar, West Point, and the Air Force Academy. Graduates of the school are now doctors, lawyers and engineers. The teachers at Ysleta are enthusiastic and they do not accept complacency in
themselves or their students. They encourage students to do their best and stress that simply passing is not good enough. The efforts at Ysleta High School are an excellent example of teacher encouragement facilitating learning (Ryan 1992, 20).

The strong support found in the literature for the view that self-esteem is highly correlated with achievement leads to the question, do low achievers tend to have low self-esteem? Haynes, Hamilton-Lee, and Comer (1988) examined the differences in the six self-concept dimensions of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale among 148 above-average, average, and below-average achieving sophomores in an urban high school. Their findings suggest that, for the sample of sophomore students studied, students who were assessed as being below average on classroom tasks tended to have significantly lower levels of self-esteem than did their higher achieving peers, not only in terms of their intellectual and school status, but on other dimensions as well. In fact, negative results in school often correspond with negative self-concepts.

Franderecks (1992, 31) also studied poor students who exhibited negative self-concepts. The results of his study also support the importance of self-concept in relation to academic achievement. Generally, research shows that children who feel good about themselves do better in school,
children who have poor self-concepts frequently do not perform up to their potential, and teachers play a major role in student achievement.

In order to determine whether teachers are able to identify specific characteristics of potential school dropouts, Fitzgerald (1990, 226-229) distributed a list of possible reasons for dropping out to seventy-nine teachers. The teachers rated excessive absenteeism as the number one cause for students leaving school. Low self-esteem was listed by the teachers as the second reason for students leaving school. Sixty-four percent of the faculty in the study believed that low self-esteem contributes to the dropout problem. The teachers surveyed by Fitzgerald were aware that low self-esteem is a detriment to students' achievement.

School problems tend to become society's problems rather quickly. The bleak job situation in Texas is not encouraging for dropouts. The fact that, even in high-growth sectors, the creation of jobs is expected to be half of what it was in the 1980s is bad news for students entering the job market. The demand for skilled workers in the services sector is expected to continue strong through the end of the decade. The demand for agriculture and blue-collar workers is expected to continue to decline (Cauley 1993, 3B).
The drug problem is also frequently associated with crime, dropouts, and unemployment. About fourteen million residents, including millions of teens, use illegal drugs each year, spending about $50 billion for drugs. Federal funding in the war against drugs has soared to $12 billion a year, with approximately one million drug arrests annually (Mullins 1993, 9A). Any attempt to increase students' self-concepts can only be doomed to failure if reforms are not implemented regarding educational goals, and if the use of firearms, drugs, and unemployment are not decreased.

Results from the Texas Academic Skills Preparation Test indicate a need for minority students to achieve higher passing rates to equal or surpass their white counterparts:

Of the 122,013 students reported taking the TASP Test in 1991, 68 percent passed all sections they attempted during the testing year. Performance by ethnic groups revealed that 47.2 percent of the black students, 58.4 percent of the Hispanic students, 56.3 percent of the Asian students, and 76.1 percent of the white students passed all sections attempted. (Matthews 1992, 1)

Reading is essential for students to broaden their background knowledge and increase their achievement levels. Most students who are required to take college reading courses can read, but are not efficient or effective independent learners. Because many students are illiterate and suffer wide gaps in their prior educational experience, they frequently are not prepared to read regularly, widely,
or critically. Furthermore, many students are not required to undertake higher level reading/learning tasks while in secondary school (Stahl, Simpson, and Hayes 1992, 4).

Enrollment in remedial reading and English-as-a-second-language is also closely related to student performance. The number of students in the United States who speak little English jumped 14.3 percent from 1990 to 1991 (Wallack 1992, 1D). A total of 2.3 million students with limited English skills are currently enrolled in United States' schools. About two-thirds speak Spanish, and 15 percent speak an Asian language (Wallack 1992, 1D). Nearly one-in-ten United States residents is of Hispanic origin (Benedetto 1992, 8A). Many Hispanics who live in South Texas live in some of the poorest counties in the United States. The average household income in these counties is $9,137. Morris (1989, 8A) reports that 46.6 percent of these individuals are high school dropouts.

Native Americans experience similar education problems. A new report by the American Council on Education reports that 103,000 Native Americans were enrolled in college in 1990. This is 11 percent more than in 1988, but still accounts for fewer than 1 percent of all college students. Graduation rates for the group during the 1980s grew from 8 percent to 9 percent, compared with a 16 percent to 20 percent growth for the total population (Kenney 1992, 1D).
The literature overwhelmingly supports the existence of a relationship between students' self-concept and their level of achievement (Thompson 1987, 135). Students with the greatest academic difficulties (e.g., students with special learning needs) have the greatest need for intervention directed at improving self-concept. High academic ability is associated with high academic self-concepts (Colangelo, Kelly and Schrepfer 1987, 73). Colangelo, Kelly, and Schrepfer note that students with low self-concepts are at risk for developing numerous problems, from discouragement to dropping out of school.

Low socioeconomic status and a negative self-concept are two characteristics of academically disadvantaged students. Although minorities, females, and students of low socioeconomic status generally begin their school experience with positive attitudes, differences in race, gender, and social class often begin to emerge during elementary school, and increase by high school and college. Discrimination based on class, race, and gender also influence the quality and quantity of material taught in schools (Jones and Watson 1990, 17). In contrast, higher economic status provides numerous advantages for students:

Higher socioeconomic status provides numerous advantages in American society. People of higher socioeconomic status have, by definition, more income, higher education and greater wealth as primary characteristics. Additionally, people of higher socioeconomic status have fewer divorces,
enjoy a longer life expectancy and report themselves to be happier than people of lower socioeconomic status. Thus, it is less than surprising that a direct correlation exists between and among attrition, grade point average, progression rate, field of study and socioeconomic status. (Jones and Watson 1990, 3)

Teachers, administrators, and counselors directly affect students’ self-esteem. However, self-concept takes time to formulate. Self-concept, once damaged, may be difficult to repair. Jones and Watson (1990, 21) found that even as the writing skills of black students improved to the levels of white students, the black students maintained expectations of weak performance. In an effort to increase Texas students’ opportunities for success, the Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board (1989, 17) has appropriated additional funds to be used in the following equal opportunity and affirmative action programs:

(a) scholarship programs for educationally disadvantaged students, (b) recruitment of minority faculty and staff, (c) educational opportunity services, (d) enhancement of South Texas institutions, (e) remedial education program opportunities, (f) incentives and special initiative funding, (g) educational equity outreach programs, and (h) project college bound. If these programs are implemented successfully, Texas and the whole country will reap the benefits because success in college increases students’ self-concept.
Higher education also includes vocational programs. Vocational education provides students with opportunities to succeed. Their successes are significant to their self-esteem and confidence and can, in turn, empower them to have a brighter future. Vocational education provides skills and training to young people and helps them to become contributing members of society. Marvel-Loskot (1992, 10), describes vocational education as education that works.

It is also important for students to realize that academic skills are transferrable to many occupational areas. The National Assessment of Vocational Education (Travis 1990, 2) empirically tested the idea that high school vocational education contributes to students' academic skills, and assessed its potential for a greater contribution to the development of their academic skills. Students need to be aware that all types of individuals can overcome prejudice and succeed in their chosen occupations.

An excellent example of overcoming prejudices to succeed is provided by Joe Roach who has just concluded a seven-year stint as an Assistant District Attorney in the Houston District Attorney's Office. Roach's wife, Becky, is a contract cost price analyst for the National Aeronautics Space Agency. Both Joe and Becky are dwarves. Joe Roach is one of only three dwarf lawyers in the country. Becky explains "I think our parents have really pushed us and
tried to put in us a really strong sense of self-esteem. We knew that our bodies were not going to get us where we had to go . . . I'm really happy with the person I am" (Linkin 1993, 38A).

Self-concept has a powerful influence on behavior. We can never completely understand the actions of others, or perfectly predict their behavior, but knowledge of their self-concept can add a great deal of understanding and prediction. The rehabilitation of individuals is dependent upon the understanding and prediction of their behavior. Because self-concept is a means toward better understanding and prediction of behavior, it is a significant variable in rehabilitation (Fitts 1971, 3).

Education Secretary Richard Riley suggests that college scholarships aimed at helping minority students to catch up are legal. Race-specific scholarships that help correct the "improper actions of the past are proper and desirable, helpful and encouraged" (Henry 1993, 1A). Scholarships should be used to encourage students to stay in school. Only 83 percent of American students complete high school. This percentage has changed very little since 1983 (Henry 1993, 7D). However, if educational reforms succeed, students' achievement should increase and students' self-concept should reach new pinnacles of success.
Summary

Literature relating to self-concept is reviewed in this chapter. A discussion of outstanding students at Ysleta High School and how drugs, dropouts and unemployment negatively affect self-concept is also provided. Encouragement is provided by the fact that the Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board has allocated money for scholarships geared at minority students in the state.
CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Descriptions of the methods and procedures used are provided in this chapter. These include the research design and instrument used, subjects, limitations, delimitations, basic assumptions, data collection, treatment of data, and analysis of data. A chapter summary is also provided. The correlated \( t \)-test described in the Computational Handbook of Statistics was used (Bruning and Kintz 1977, 13-16). The \( t \)-test is used primarily to determine whether two means differ significantly from each other, and whether a single mean differs significantly from a specified population value (Borg 1987, 222). The \( t \) distribution has three major characteristics: (1) the shape of the distribution varies with the degrees of freedom; (2) as the degrees of freedom approach infinity, the shape of the \( t \) distribution approaches the shape of the normal curve; and (3) the test is often used to evaluate "small sample" statistics. Scores in this type of research are usually measured as intervals or ratios. The non-equivalent control group design used in this study is described by Campbell and Stanley (1966, 47), who indicate precisely how an experiment of this type should be established.
Research Design

A true experimental design was not possible because individual students could not be removed from intact classes and randomly assigned to a treatment group (third period class) or control group. Thus, school schedules precluded pure experimental research in this study. This design was patterned on earlier research by Campbell and Stanley (1966) who provided a discussion of experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research. The pre-post design with nonequivalent groups is represented by the following diagram:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
X \\
0 \\
\hline
0 \\
0
\end{array}
\]

Where X measures the experimental treatment, 0 represents pretest or posttest measurement of the dependent variable and the broken line indicates that the experimental and control groups were not formed randomly. One section or group of students (N = 23) was designated as the experimental group and a second section or group (N = 22) was designated as the control group. The total number of subjects in the study was forty-five. Thirty subjects were females and fifteen were males. The experimental and control groups were both intact groups. The treatment (see Appendix B for self-concept activities) was applied to the randomly chosen experimental group (third period), for six
weeks. Academic achievement, socioeconomic status, gender, and minority composition were comparable for the two groups. The subjects were not "test wise" to the instrument.

The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale was used as the pretest and posttest for each group of subjects. The pretest was administered on January 19, 1993 and the posttest was administered on February 25, 1993.

Description of the Test Instrument

The instrument used in this research, the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, was developed by Ellen V. Piers and Dale B. Harris in 1969 from a collection of children's statements about what they liked and disliked about themselves. The instrument consists of eighty declarative statements that can be answered with a "yes" or "no." The scale requires a third-grade reading level and therefore can be used with students from a wide range of ages—from early elementary to high school. The scale, which is relatively simple to administer, takes approximately twenty minutes to complete (Piers 1984, 7). Most of the subjects in this study were able to complete the instrument in fifteen minutes or less.

The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale has been standardized both longitudinally and cross-sectionally, and is not biased according to sex or grade differences (Buros 1972, 306). According to Buros, the scale can be used with
educationally disadvantaged children because it does not correlate unduly with social undesirability.

Reliability coefficients ranging from .72 to .93 have been reported on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. Internal consistency has been measured using the Kuder-Richardson Formula 21 with results of .78 to .93. Test-retest reliability is reported by Piers and Harris as .71 to .72, but as high as .85 on a short-term interval (Piers 1984, 53).

Estimates of the content, criterion-related and construct validity of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale have been obtained in a number of empirical studies. Researchers have used a variety of approaches including item analysis, intercorrelations among the scales and items, and comparisons of the responses of various criterion groups. Finally, the instrument has been compared to other scales designed to measure similar constructs.

The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale was selected for this research for three reasons. First, the instrument has been used in more than 100 studies and has high reliability and validity coefficients. Second, the instrument was considered interesting enough that the subjects would not become bored with the instrument and mark
it in a haphazard fashion. Third, the reading level was low enough that it could be easily read by the subjects.

**Delimitations**

The following delimitations apply to this study:

1. Only freshmen, sophomore, junior, and senior students enrolled in Introduction to Theater classes at Vernon High School during the first six weeks of the spring, 1993, semester were included in the study.

2. Only students with a signed permission form from a parent or guardian were included.

3. Only students who voluntarily completed the *Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale* (1984) were included.

**Limitations**

The following limitations apply to this study:

1. Students in the sample were able to read and understand the *Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale*.

2. All students met the criteria of enrollment in an Introduction to Theater class at Vernon High School during the spring semester, 1993.

**Basic Assumptions**

In order to complete the study, the following assumptions were made:

1. The sample included students from all socioeconomic
groups in proportions similar to those found in the community.

2. The subjects answered the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale honestly and frankly.

3. The subjects met the criteria to be enrolled in the Introduction to Theater course at Vernon High School the first six weeks of the spring, 1993, semester.

4. The teacher had certified training and met state guidelines to teach the Introduction to Theater course.

5. The subjects had adequate reading proficiency to complete the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale.

Overview of Vernon High School

Vernon High School, which has an enrollment of 565 students, is located in northwest Texas. Honors classes at the school are offered in English, mathematics, and science. In order to take honors courses, students must have a 90 percent average in other courses, must have teachers' recommendations, and must obtain a 90 percent score on the Norm Assessment Program for Texas. Vernon High School also offers a gifted and talented program for students in history and political science. The Vernon Independent School District offers a variety of programs to help all students succeed regardless of their educational backgrounds.

Overall test results for the Texas Assessment of Academic Skills (TAAS) at Vernon Independent School District
for third, seventh, and eleventh graders are outstanding. The district's test results are indicative of academic progress and are an indication of the future academic progress expected of students in the district. The TAAS tests for eleventh graders, which were administered at an earlier date, also produced results that were above the state average (Bering 1993, 1-2). All of these programs are aimed at building self-concept and self-confidence among Vernon Independent School District students. As evidenced by the variety of programs offered in the district, the opportunities for students are as diverse as the students served (Bristo 1992, 1993). The subjects in the study participated in these programs.

Selection of the Subjects

The subjects for this research were students who were enrolled in an Introduction to Theater class at Vernon High School. A total of forty-five students participated in the study. The subjects' ages ranged from fourteen to seventeen years. The majority of the subjects were freshmen. The percentage of minorities who participated in the survey was slightly more than 10 percent, which was representative of the percentage of minorities in the community at the time of the study. Students in the experimental (N = 23) and control (N = 22) groups attended one theater class each day during the first six week period of the spring semester of
1993 at Vernon High School. The ratio of females to male students was approximately two-to-one. Each class was an intact cluster and included students who were classified as freshmen through seniors.

Subjects were selected for inclusion in this research on the basis of several criteria. First, each student was given an opportunity to decline participation in this study. Second, each student who agreed to participate in the research provided a signed permission form from a parent or guardian. Third, students were given credit for the treatment assignments, including written essays, discussions of tapes, and feedback provided on motivational speakers. All of the assignments completed by the experimental group members were included in their overall course grades for theater for the six-week period.

**Experimental and Control Groups**

The subjects in the third period of Introduction to Theater were designated as the experimental group and received the treatment, which was the independent variable. The treatment administered to the experimental group consisted of several self-concept tapes, self-confidence slides, self-confidence exercises, three motivational speakers, class discussions on self-esteem, teacher praise, and self-acceptance exercises. The self-concept tapes and slides used in the treatment included *Acting on Your Values*,
Self-Esteem, Personal Goals, Dealing with Peer Pressure, Dealing with Feelings, How to Develop Self-Confidence When You’re Not the Fastest, Smartest, Prettiest, or the Funniest, How to Raise A Teenager’s Self-Esteem, The Power of Positive Thinking, Acting on Your Values, Communicating Non-Defensively, Don’t Take It Personally, and How To Be A Winner.

Written activities in the treatment included students’ descriptions of three positive and negative experiences, and the creation by each subject of a self portrait. The subjects wrote and discussed their strengths, weaknesses, and personal goals. They described in writing what self-acceptance meant to them and its relationship to the acceptance of others. Each subject participated in a matching value exercise. Examples of the exercises used in the treatment are provided in Appendix C and D. Subjects in the experimental group wrote essays on their ideas of self-concept and whether they had changed during the experiment. The majority of the subjects commented favorably on the activities and the motivational guest speakers.

The results of the experiment were tested at the .05 level of significance. The mean and standard deviation were determined for the pretest and posttest results of the sample. The dependent variable was designated as students’
responses on the Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale. The students in the fourth period of Introduction to Theater were designated as the control group. Because the two groups of subjects were almost evenly balanced on the pretest scores of the Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale and on gender, age, and cultural background, selection of the class to serve as the experimental group was based on a coin flip.

Procedures for Collecting Data

The Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale was administered to students as a pretest and as a posttest. The pretest was given on January 19, 1993, and the posttest was administered on February 25, 1993. Each subject agreed to take the pretest and posttest. The two groups of subjects were selected because they were both taking the same course from the same teacher. The master teacher was enthusiastic about the experiment and was very willing to cooperate.

The Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale was administered to all members of each group at the same time. The subjects were asked to give their birthdate, gender, age, grade in school, and the date. Test directions were printed on each instrument and were read orally to the subjects in order to provide uniform test administration.
Analysis of Data

Data obtained from the administration of the Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale were statistically analyzed using t-scores. The t-test is a parametric statistical test designed to determine levels of significance. The correlated t-test was issued to compare the mean scores of the same students on the same measure given before and after treatment in order to determine if a significant gain occurred (Borg 1987, 147). A test of significance at the .05 level was reported for each cluster category.

Research Instrument

The Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale employs concurrent validity. Test-retest reliability using the Kuder-Richardson Formula 21 has been reported to be from .78 to .93. The test has also been validated with many other measures of self-concept, including the Lipsitt Children’s Self-Concept Scale and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. The sample for the Vernon study was an intact cluster classroom sample, using all the subjects in each section. The level of measurement was interval because the total raw score and the score for each of the six clusters contained statements of equality or inequality of intervals between the values of a variable. In an interval scale there are equal intervals between units, but no true zero; it is
continuous data. The Piers-Harris is an example of concurrent validity because it correlates highly with a criterion that is currently available, and with other personality and attitude measures. Concurrent validity scores indicate how well test scores match contemporary measures with what is presently observed. Nonequivalent control group design uses two intact groups with one of the groups randomly assigned to receive treatment. Both of these features were included in this study. The use of intact groups is often necessary in studies related to education. The nonequivalent control group design controls for most internal validity threats, but does not control for external validity threats.

The nonequivalent research experiment chosen for this study satisfied threats to internal validity. Maturation factors were not evident during the experiment. The instrument used for pretest and posttest was the same. Statistical regression was taken into account. Differential selection was not a factor. The same criteria for selection was applied to each group. One subject from each of the two groups moved out of the district during the experiment. Selection-maturation interaction was controlled by having the same instructor and similar age ranges for each group.
Treatment of Data

Self-concept mean scores were obtained from the experimental and control groups responding to the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. T-tests were computed to determine if there were significant differences between the experimental and control groups. Self-concepts scores on each of the six cluster scales of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale were determined.

Summary

The methodology used to gather and analyze the data are described in this chapter. Subjects from two Introduction to Theater classes were administered the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. These included freshman to senior students at Vernon High School. The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, was used in the Vernon experiment and has been used in numerous previous experiences. The population of the experiment were students in theater class who volunteered to participate and an explanation of how subjects were chosen to participate is also provided.
CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS

A summary of the major findings collected from the administration of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale in the first six weeks of the spring 1993, semester at Vernon High School in two Introduction to Theater classes is provided in this chapter. After the pretest and posttest cluster scores were calculated, each hypothesis regarding the cluster scores was tested for significance at the .05 level. Results were determined using $t$-tests. The $t$-test for correlated means has a smaller standard of error and has more statistical power than the $t$-test for uncorrelated means. Any significant gains at the 0.5 level for the cluster areas are shown in tabular form. The $t$-test scores for each cluster are given in the next section.

Restatement of the Null Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were formulated to carry out the purposes of this study and are followed by a discussion of the results.

Hypothesis 1

There will be no significant difference at the .05 level between the experimental and control groups on the six
cluster pretest scores of the Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale in the areas of behavior, intellectual and school status, physical appearance and attributes, anxiety, popularity, happiness and satisfaction.

This hypothesis was supported for all clusters except happiness at the .05 level. A number of the students in the experimental group scored low in the happiness cluster. However, three or four low scores can make a significant difference at the .05 level. The fact that one class was happier without an apparent reason may have been caused by three or four students in the experimental group who were in a bad mood the day of the test. Therefore, null Hypothesis 1 is rejected.

The t-test scores of the pretest and posttest obtained in the experiment using the cluster areas of the Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale are similar to other experiments studied by Campbell and Stanley (1966). The t-test scores for the cluster areas are provided in Table 1.

Hypothesis 2

There will be no significant difference at the .05 level in the gain scores between the experimental or control groups on the six cluster areas of the Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale.
Table 1--t Score Results for Each Cluster

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Behavior</th>
<th>Intelligence</th>
<th>Appearance</th>
<th>Anxiety</th>
<th>Popularity</th>
<th>Happiness</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest 1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-1.3568</td>
<td>-1.8098</td>
<td>-2.9609</td>
<td>-0.3452</td>
<td>-2.7302</td>
<td>-2.3355*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest 2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.940</td>
<td>-2.8386</td>
<td>-2.6146</td>
<td>1.1112</td>
<td>-1.1504</td>
<td>0.4714</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest 1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-0.4674</td>
<td>0.8185</td>
<td>-0.2446</td>
<td>-1.110</td>
<td>1.6477</td>
<td>-2.5568</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest 1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-0.2916</td>
<td>2.5855</td>
<td>1.940</td>
<td>0.5291</td>
<td>-2.218</td>
<td>-0.5906</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \Delta 1 \] \quad \Delta 2 \quad 0.269 \quad -3.203* \quad -1.123 \quad 1.764* \quad -0.926 \quad 1.553 \quad -0.268

\[ 1 \bar{X} \] \quad 0.762 \quad 0.048 \quad 0.809 \quad 0.571 \quad 0.333 \quad 0.857 \quad 3.523

\[ 2 \bar{Y} \] \quad 0.571 \quad 1.76 \quad 1.667 \quad -0.523 \quad 0.380 \quad 0.142 \quad 4.095

Note: \( \Delta = \) difference between gains of the two groups (posttest 1 - pretest 1) vs (posttest 2 - pretest 2),
* = significant at the .05 level.
1 = Experimental Group
2 = Control Group
The results of the study related to Hypothesis 2 were significant because the anxiety cluster $t$-score for the experimental group and the intellectual score for the control group were both significant at the .05 level. The control group members may have considered themselves the gifted and talented group, not needing to complete the assignments of the treatment. The experimental group members had a low anxiety level, which indicates that they were relatively content, enjoyed the treatment and benefitted from the assignments. Therefore, null Hypothesis 2 is rejected. Data showing a significant difference at the .05 level for the anxiety and intelligence cluster are presented in Table 2.

As indicated by the mean results of the intelligence cluster, the control group members believed that they had excelled. Members of this group probably considered themselves able to excel in comparison to the experimental group members, who had to complete the treatment activities, with a lower intelligence mean score. The $t$ score for the intelligence cluster was significant at the .05 level.

When children score low on the anxiety level scale, it is important to examine their individual item responses to determine the nature of their concerns and to decide what, if anything, can be done to help (Piers 1984, 39).
Table 2—Significant Difference at .05 Level on Anxiety and Intelligence Clusters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Intelligence</th>
<th>Anxiety</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest 1</td>
<td>-1.8098</td>
<td>-0.3452</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest 1</td>
<td>-0.3452</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest 2</td>
<td>-2.8386</td>
<td>1.1112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest 2</td>
<td>1.1112</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest 1</td>
<td>0.8185</td>
<td>-1.1110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest 2</td>
<td>-1.1110</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest 1</td>
<td>2.5855</td>
<td>0.5291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest 2</td>
<td>0.5291</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>△1</td>
<td>-3.203*</td>
<td>1.764*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: △ = difference between gain of the two groups (posttest 1-pretest 1) vs (posttest 2-pretest 2).
* = Significance at the .05 level
1 = Experimental Group
2 = Control Group

Because the experimental group had such high scores on the anxiety cluster, it is probable that members of this group were more relaxed, had fewer worries, and were better able to handle anxiety than were members of the control group. The treatment also probably contributed to the experimental group members' low anxiety level because the activities made them more relaxed, inspired their attitude toward school work, and helped to release their tension. Anxiety often helps individuals to do good work, however. A low score on the scale equates to high anxiety. Papers written by members of the experimental group expressed positive
sentiments about various aspects of the treatment. Group members also indicated that the treatment had positively affected their self-concept in planning future goals. The \( t \)-test scores of the pretest and posttest obtained in the experiment using the cluster areas of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale are similar to other experiments studied by Campbell and Stanley (1966).

Where a significant gain was found, the null hypothesis is rejected. Because the observed values of \( t \) (3.203 and 1.7640) both exceed the alpha level of significance for directional (one-tailed) tests (-1.717)--the null hypothesis is rejected in favor of the alternative hypothesis at the .05 level of significance. In other words, the discrepancy between the difference and the sample means and the hypothesized value of no difference was too great to attribute to sampling error. There were 95 chances out of 100 that the results of the sample would occur by chance. There were 5 chances out of 100 that the intelligence and anxiety results of the sample would not occur by chance. The happiness posttest cluster result (1.553) was very close to significance at the .05 level.

The intellectual and school status cluster consists of seventeen items that are concerned with intellectual and academic tasks, including general satisfaction with school and future expectations. A low score on this cluster can
indicate difficulty with school. The anxiety cluster covers a variety of emotions, including worry, nervousness, shyness, sadness, fear, and a general feeling of being left out of things (Piers 1984, 39).

General Findings

The general findings of this study were as follows:

1. Not all students scored within the average range of national norms on the cluster scores on the Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale. Scores were tabulated both in the plus-and minus-two standard deviations range.

2. The mean on the pretest was lower for the experimental group than for the control group. On the posttest, the mean was higher for the experimental group by exactly one point (10.44 to 9.4).

3. The standard deviation for the experimental group was higher on the pretest than for the control group. On the posttest, the control group had the higher standard deviation.

The general findings indicate that not all students had average self-concept scores on the pretest and posttests. The increase in mean scores was higher for the experimental group on the posttest, possibly indicating a change due to the treatment.
Summary

The tables for the t-test are presented in this chapter and each hypothesis is explained, including how intelligence and anxiety were significant at the .05 level. The general findings of the study are also provided including plus-and minus-scores obtained indicating the equality of the groups participating in the study.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Self-concept is a great asset in the educational process. Piers-Harris (Piers 1984) and Fitts (1964) developed instruments that reveal many insights into students and their personalities. Unfortunately, not all students have positive self-concepts. A disproportional number of minority students have negative self-concepts. Minorities have higher dropout rates, are inadequately skilled, and have higher unemployment rates. Because educational achievement and self-concept are closely related, educators should do everything possible to help disenfranchised students. These students, who are at greater risk for dropping out, have the potential to be leaders in their communities. Education should be meaningful for all students. Building self-concept can be an integral part of this process.

Objectives

The objectives of this study were to (1) determine the gain in perceived attitudes of self-concept of students enrolled in two theater classes based on a pretest and
posttest using the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, (2) ascertain which treatment activities were effective with the experimental group, and (3) ascertain whether a significant gain occurred in the cluster scores on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale between the two groups in the areas of behavior, intellectual and school status, physical appearance and attributes, anxiety, popularity, and happiness and satisfaction.

In order to fulfill the objectives of this study and to provide guidelines, the following hypotheses were formulated:

1. There will be no significant difference at the .05 level between the experimental and control groups on the six cluster pretest scores of Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale in the areas of behavior, intellectual and school status, physical appearance and attributes, anxiety, popularity, happiness and satisfaction.

2. There will be no significant difference at the .05 level in the gain scores between the experimental or control groups on the six cluster areas of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale.

Comparative Studies

The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale is a popular instrument which has been used in a variety of studies focused on various demographic items. A computer
search revealed no other theater groups that had been studied using the instrument. The scale has been used in more than 100 studies with subjects ranging from elementary to high school, with males and females, with different socioeconomic groups, and with a variety of subjects with psychological and physical disabilities.

There have been other students at the University of North Texas who used the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale in their dissertations. Virginia Mosier compared academic at-risk students with non-vocational academic at-risk students in the Abilene School District. There was little difference in the self-concepts between the two groups. Earlier, Randall James had studied educationally disadvantaged vocational students, vocational students and academic students in Fort Worth who were measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. Overall, the academic students had the highest self-concepts. Bob Carpenter used both the Piers-Harris and the Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes. The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between self-concept and study habits. It was found that at-risk students who participate in school activities had higher self-concept scores and study habits scores than non-participating at-risk students. Significant correlations were found to exist between self-concept and
basic skills; self-concept and specific work values and self-concept and demographics. Patricia Karam studied peer assistance and self-concept by having twelfth graders assist two groups of ninth graders. The correlations revealed that there were significant differences between self-concept and the variables of mathematical achievement scores, failing grades, and the eligibility for free lunch. All of these studies was concerned with self-concept and its impact upon different groups of high school students.

Michael, Smith, and Michael (1975) studied the factorial validity of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale with elementary, junior high, and senior high students. The major dimensions that were invariant across their sample were: (a) physical appearance, (b) socially unacceptable (bad) behavior, and (c) academic or school status. Canelosi, Gressard and Mines (1980) investigated adolescent self-concept and noted that the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale correlates well with other measures of self-concept and teacher and peer ratings. The subjects in both of these studies included adolescents and cluster areas similar to those in the Piers-Harris. Teacher behavior was also considered in both studies. No difference was found between the self-concept levels of special education and regular education students in a study completed by Beck, Robley, and Hanson (1981).
They found that reading students who received cross-age reading assistance had higher self-concepts than did reading students who did not receive tutorial assistance. They also found that posttest scores were also much higher for students who received assistance. Labbo and Teale (1990) studied the personal perspectives that help poor readers with their self-concept. These latter two studies clearly manifest how a lack of reading skills has a strong negative correlation with self-concept.

**Findings**

Using the hypotheses as guidelines, the findings of this study were as follows:

1. A difference at the .05 level of significance was detected between the experimental group for the anxiety level and for the intelligence cluster as tabulated for the control group. An experimental treatment may bring about change in the behavior of the experimental group subjects. If the difference after the treatment is found to be large enough to occur again if the study were repeated using other samples from the same population, it is statistically significant. If the level meets or exceeds the level selected by the researcher, then it is concluded that the difference or gain is significant. In finding 1, 95 out of 100 chances (.05 level) would occur by chance. There were 5 chances out of 100 that the intelligence and anxiety results
of the sample would not occur by chance. This is significant at the .05 level and the intelligence and anxiety results would reject the null hypothesis.

2. The pretest happiness cluster score of the control group was significant at the .05 level.

3. The mean for the experimental group for the anxiety cluster increased between the pretest and posttest scores, which indicates improvement. Some of these results might have shown greater significance in a larger sample.

Discussion

An individual's self-concept plays an eminent role in his or her success or failure in life. Edward Thompson studied a group of ninth and tenth graders. Thompson used the Piers-Harris and found a relationship between self-concept and academic achievement. James A. Beane also stated that students with positive self-concepts tend to participate more, have higher school completion rates, and demonstrate greater academic achievement than do peers with negative self-perception. Those who scored low on the total self-concept scores in the Vernon study tended to be overall poorer students. The Vernon study and other studies seem to indicate similar results regarding self-concept and academic achievement.

Generally females seem to have a higher self-concept level than males. Lackovic-Grgin and Dekovic found that
females had higher self-esteem than males, after testing 339 subjects in Yugoslavia. They also discovered that the contribution of significant others does not necessarily decline with age. Parents and teachers can still have an influence. Horwitz found that females emerge from adolescence with poorer self images. Her study consisted of over 3,000 students in twelve locations. In the Vernon study, females had overall higher scores, but perhaps this was due to the percentage of females outnumbering the number of males by a 2-to-1 margin.

Teacher behavior also has a vital influence upon student self-concept. Teachers can create a positive effect on student self-concept. Juharz felt teachers could serve as facilitators allowing students to be themselves. In the Vernon study, the students in the experimental group wrote papers indicating their positive reaction to the treatment and the teacher. Beck did a study of 47 special education students and 47 non special education students in grades 5-8 who were administered the Piers-Harris. As the parents became responsive, student self-concept increased. There was no difference in the self-concept results between the two groups. If there had been special education students participating in the Vernon study, the results may have been different from the Beck study. The twelve year discrepancy in the two studies may have produced different results. The
Vernon study would probably provide greater reliability if a larger sample were used. Many of the studies had samples numbering in the hundreds or thousands. There is no guarantee larger numbers will yield different results. However, this study should be repeated on a yearly basis to determine whether any changes in the attitudes of the sample occur. Stern did an obesity study on nursing students. Would her results change over a year's time?

Additional studies concerning the self-concept of high school students are also needed. Such studies can facilitate the identification of individuals with positive self-concepts and those with negative self-concepts and thus lead to the development of improved methods for enhancing students' self-concepts. James Prince discussed the need for students being hopeful about the future. Schools should help students develop their future potential. The Vernon students did not seem depressed and many made the A or B honor roll. The treatment may not be the only reason for improved grades, but it was a probable factor. Because self-concept is related to school achievement, grades can provide a logical indication of student's self-concept. The Vernon study had many of the same characteristics as other studies dealing with self-concepts. Self-concept is such an integral part of everyday society that many more self-concept studies are likely to occur. Self-concept is
based on an individual’s values and goals that contribute to his or her feeling of self-worth. The Vernon study was compared with similar self-concept studies.

When students are conditioned to failure, failure results. Performing poorly in learning situations perpetuates low self-concept. Numerous studies identify the benefits of positive reinforcement. High school studies can ascertain if self-concepts change and what are these changes based on. It is important to know how our future leaders think about themselves. Judith Fitzgerald discussed whether teachers are able to identify specific characteristics of potential high school dropouts. The educational system needs to be concerned with negative self-concepts. Brutsaent indicated how self-esteem can be improved in secondary school students by positive reinforcement, tutoring, goal-setting, teacher behavior, parental involvement, and extracurricular activities. All of these activities occur at Vernon High School. The Vernon study did reveal many similarities with other studies on aspects relating to self-concept including teacher behavior, academic achievement, female self-concept levels, grade correlation and how a larger sample done over a period of time might influence the results.
Conclusions

Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions are drawn:

1. Overall, the subjects in the study possessed positive self-concepts. Many of the subjects made the honor roll, participated in extracurricular activities, were thinking about attending college, had good conduct records, and made significant scores on the survey instrument.

2. The subjects’ intelligence and anxiety clusters were significantly different at the .05 level than were their other clusters on the Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale.

3. The self-concept of many subjects in this study improved as a result of the treatment, as measured by the Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale.

Recommendations

The following recommendations were formulated on the basis of the findings and conclusions of this study:

1. A study using a larger sample should be conducted in order to give more power to the study.

2. A longitudinal study should be undertaken which follows the sample over a period of years in order to analyze change in the students’ self-concept.

3. Additional research should be conducted on the self-concept of high school students.
4. Additional research should be conducted on the possible correlation between grades and self-concept levels.
Dear Parent or Guardian,

I am conducting a research study on the theater program at Vernon High School. Part of this study is the administration of a self-concept scale to a representative sample of students at Vernon High School. The self-concept scale will be administered in such a manner that your child’s name and result will be anonymous. I am not interested in individual scores, but rather in group scores. Participation in this study is strictly voluntary. Your decision whether or not to allow your child to participate will in no way affect your child’s standing in his or her class. At the conclusion of the study, a summary of group results will be made available to all interested parents and teachers. Should you have any questions or desire further information, please call me at xxx-xxxx.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation and support.

Sincerely,

Frank Grima, Reading Instructor
Vernon Regional Junior College
Vernon, Texas 76384
I do grant permission for my son/daughter to partake in this survey

Signature of parent or guardian

I do not grant permission for my son/daughter to partake in this survey

Signature of parent or guardian
November 15, 1991

TO: All Faculty

FROM: Counselors

SUBJECT: Videos and books available in counselors’ library

The attached list of videos and books are available in the counselor’s library for use by teachers, parents, and students. Please feel free to come in and check out materials at any time.
COUNSELOR'S LIBRARY
BOOK AND VIDEO INVENTORY

I. Videos

1. The Power of Choice Series, 10 videos
   The Power of Choice
   Acting on Your Values, 30 minutes
   Self-Esteem, 30 minutes
   Coping with Pressures
   Drugs and Alcohol, Part I
   Drugs and Alcohol, Part II
   Drinking and Driving
   Sex
   Friendship and Dating
   Depression and Suicide
   Communicating with Parents

2. Depression/Stress, America’s Teenage Video Magazine
   Self-Esteem, America’s Teenage Video Magazine

3. Aids: Can I Get It? Connect Video

4. Tough Love, Fries Home Video

5. Three Ways to Keep Your Kids Off Drugs, Spin Inc.

6. High on Life Not on Drugs, Spin Inc.

7. Take it from the Jets (Inhalant Abuse), Chemical Specialties Mfg. Assn.

8. Teenagers and Tough Decisions, Pinnacle Communications

   Repair Cluster
   Health Related Cluster
   Communication Cluster
   Transportation/Mechanical Cluster
   Personal Service Cluster

10. Tough Decisions, U.S. Army

11. Your Interest: Related to Work Activities, Meridian

12. Your Future: Planning Through Career Exploration, Meridian

13. Kaleidoscope of Careers (5 tapes, 1-5)

14. TV/Radio Repair, TSTC


17. Choices and Crisis, Southwestern Bell

18. I Dropped Out . . . The Series (2 videos and notebook) Cambridge Career Products


20. Personal Goals, Video and Notebook, Cambridge
21. Putting High School to work for you, Video and Notebook, Cambridge
22. Career Success Series, 3 tapes
   Pharmacy
   Fire Fighting
   Aviation
23. Working for America - National Audio Visual Center
24. Cambridge Career Products Vocational Visions, 10 tapes
   Paralegal
   Letter Carrier
   Insurance Agent
   Chef
   Physical Therapist
   Florist
   Band Director
   Auto Mechanic
   Potter
   National Park Ranger
25. The Video Career Library (16 Tapes) Career Passports Inc.
26. Conducting Effective Conferences with Parents, Inservice Video Network
27. Developing Effective Notetaking Skills, Inservice Video Network
28. Developing Critical Thinking Skills, Inservice Video Network
29. Critical Thinking Inservice, Inservice Video Network
30. Taking the ACT, NASSP
31. Paving the Way, National Institute of Independent Colleges and Universities
32. Introducing the Enhanced ACT, American College Testing Program
33. TASP: Skills for Success, Texas Tech
34. TASP Test: What It Means for Students
35. College: The Next Step, Corplom
36. Test Taking Strategies ACT
37. The Video SAT Review, Random House Video
38. Time to ACT: Doing Your Best on the ACT, American College Testing Program and Workbook
39. Where There's a Will There's An "A" and workbook, Chesterbrook Educational Publishers
40. Thinking About Feelings, Human Relations Media
41. Fitting In: A New Look at Peer Pressure, United Learning
42. Study Skills for School Success, The School Co.
43. How to Speak to and Live With Your Teenager, Media Projects
44. Dealing with Peer Pressure, Cambridge Career Products
45. Anabolic Steroids, American's Teenage Video Magazine
46. Teens and Alcohol: The Hidden Problem, Sunburst Communication
47. Dealing With Feelings, Live Wire Video Publishers
48. Breaking Out of the Underachievement Trap, Cambridge Career Products
49. Handling Stress (2 copies), Today and Tomorrow, Cambridge Career
50. Dating in the 90's, Cambridge Career Products
52. How to Raise a Drug Free Child, Ambrose Video
53. Crack USA, Ambrose Video
54. How to Develop Self-Confidence When You're Not the Fastest, Smartest, Prettiest, or the Funniest, Guidance Assoc.
55. High on Life: Feeling Good Without Drugs, Guidance Assoc.
57. Study Preparation for School Success, The School Co.
58. Following Directions for School Success, The School Co.
59. Nightmare on Drug Street, Educational Video Network
60. Peer Pressure, Educational Video Network
61. When Things Get Tough, Sunburst
62. Keep Your Brain in the Fast Lane, Russell Athletic
63. The Steroid Trap: Turning Winners into Losers, Guidance Assoc. (2 tapes)

II. Books--Professional Resource Library
2. New Trends in Guidance and Counseling
3. The Comprehensive Guidance Program for Public Schools
4. Encyclopedia of School Letters
5. Facilitating Drug Prevention Groups
6. Facilitating Relationship Groups
7. Facilitating Wellness Groups
8. Understanding and Treating the Difficult Child, 2 copies
9. Parent Education Text, 2 copies
10. Learning Disorders and School Problems, 2 copies
11. Understanding and Treating the Severely Disturbed Child, 2 copies
12. A Practical Workbook for Implementing Drug Free Schools and Communities, 2 copies
13. Youth, School, Community resources
14. Adolescent Suicide
15. Teenage Pregnancy
16. Texans War on Drugs and You
17. Lee Canter Parent Conference Book

III. Parent, Teacher, Student Resource Library
1. Career Choices: Computer Science
2. Career Choices: English
3. Career Choices: Art
4. Career Choices: Mathematics
5. Opportunities in: Business Communications Careers
6. Opportunities in: Plumbing and Fitting Careers
7. Opportunities in: Chiropractic Health Care Careers
8. Opportunities in: Carpentry Careers
9. Opportunities in: Nutrition Careers
10. Opportunities in: Wordprocessing
11. Opportunities in: Telecommunications
12. Opportunities in: Computer Aided Design and Computer Aided Manufactures
13. Opportunities in: Computer Aided Manufacture
14. Opportunities in: Printing Careers
15. Opportunities in: Airline Careers
16. Opportunities in: State and Local Government Careers
17. Opportunities in: Chemistry Careers
18. Opportunities in: Sport and Athletics
19. Opportunities in: Sports Medicine
20. Opportunities in: Music Careers
21. Opportunities in: Book Publishing Careers
22. Opportunities in: Pharmacy Careers
23. Opportunities in: Financial Careers
24. Opportunities in: Business Management
25. Opportunities in: Computer Science
26. Opportunities in: Architecture
27. Opportunities in: Laser Technology Careers
28. Opportunities in: Vocational and Technical Careers
29. Opportunities in: Robotics Careers
30. Opportunities in: Chemical Engineering
31. Opportunities in: Civil Engineering Careers
32. Opportunities in: Optometry
33. Opportunities in: Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice
34. Opportunities in: Your Own Service Business
35. Opportunities in: Nutrition Careers
36. Opportunities in: Recreation and Leisure
37. Opportunities in: Public Health Careers
38. Opportunities in: Carpentry Careers
39. Opportunities in: Chiropractic Health Careers
40. Opportunities in: Occupational Therapy Careers
41. Opportunities in: Paramedical Careers
42. Opportunities in: Biological Sciences
43. Opportunities in: Health and Medical Careers
44. Opportunities in: Physical Therapy Careers
45. Opportunities in: Dental Care Careers
46. Opportunities in: Speech Language--Pathology Careers
47. Opportunities in: Nursing Careers
48. Opportunities in: Fitness Careers
49. Opportunities in: Psychiatry
50. Opportunities in: Engineering Technology Careers
51. Opportunities in: Chemistry Careers
52. Opportunities in: High Tech Careers
53. Opportunities in: Podiatric Medicine
54. Opportunities in: Packaging Science
55. Opportunities in: Materials Science
56. Opportunities in: Industrial Design
57. Opportunities in: Refrigeration and Air Conditioning
58. Opportunities in: Automotive Service Careers
59. Opportunities in: Electrical Trades
60. Opportunities in: Drafting Careers
61. Opportunities in: Electronics and Electrical Engineering
62. Opportunities in: the Machine Trades
63. Opportunities in: Building Construction Trades
64. Opportunities in: Part Time and Summer Jobs
65. Women in Engineering
66. Guide to Careers Without College
67. Careers Without College
68. Basic Training
69. Jobs of the Future
70. How to Help Your Teenager find the Right Career
72. 101 Careers
73. What Color is Your Parachute?
74. College to Career
75. The American Almanac of Jobs and Salaries 1990-91
76. 10 SAT’s
77. Four Popular Achievement Tests
78. The College Board Achievement Tests
79. Barron’s How to Prepare for the SAT
80. ACT Mathematics
81. SAT Math Handbook
82. SAT Vocabulary Handbook
83. SAT Verbal Handbook
84. Barron’s SAT Mathematics Workbook
85. How to Prepare for the SAT (Coronado)
86. Barron’s PSAT/NMSQT
87. The College Board Guide to Preparing for the PSAT/NMSQT
88. Barron’s Verbal Workbook, SAT
89. Cracking the System SAT and PSAT
90. The College Board Guide to the CLEP examinations
91. American College Index (Phone numbers and addresses)
92. Need a Lift?
93. Cooperative Education Undergraduate program Directory
94. The Turbulent Teens
95. Homework with Tears
96. Assertive Discipline for Parents
97. Children choices and Change
98. Our Troubled Teens
99. Peer Pressure Reversal
100. How to Raise Teenagers’ Self-Esteem
101. Sometimes I Wonder About Me
102. Designer Drugs
103. Stepfamilies
104. All Grown Up and No Place to Go
105. Preventing Adolescent Suicide
106. Focus on Sexuality
107. Losing Control of Your Teenager
108. Hide’N Seek
109. Coping with Suicide
110. Positive Addiction
111. Coping With Substance Abuse
112. Parenting the Teenager
113. Coping Through Assertiveness
114. Attention Deficit Disorder
115. Alcohol and Teens
116. Control Theory
117. Coping with Teenager Depression
118. Coping With Sexual Abuse
119. Coping Through Self Control
120. Coping Through Effective Time Management
121. Coping With CoDependency
122. Coping With Grief
123. Coping With Rejection
124. Teenagers
125. Tough Love
126. Coping Through Friendship
127. Coping With Decision Making
128. The Strong Willed Child
129. The High School Survival Guide
130. A Guide to College Survival
131. Occupational Outlook Handbook
132. Exploring Careers
133. Encyclopedia of Careers, Volumes 1-4
134. Educational Opportunities of Texas Public Universities
135. Educational Opportunities at Texas Public Community Colleges and Tech.
136. Peterson’s Guide to Four Year Colleges
137. College Financial Aid Annual
138. A Guide to Higher Education in North Texas
139. Americas Best Colleges, U.S. News and World Report
140. The Scholarship Book
141. Peterson’s College Money Handbook
142. Peterson’s Guide to Colleges in the Southwest
143. Peterson’s Guide to Two Year Colleges
144. College Applications Step by Step
145. Lovesjoy’s College Guide for the Learning disabled
146. Patterson’s Schools Classified (Listed by college majors offered)
147. Directory of Licensed Occupations and Apprenticeship Program Contracts in Texas
148. Chronicle career Index
149. College Planning Search Book
150. Chronicle Four-Year College DataBook
152. Chronicle Two Year College DataBook
154. The Power of Positive Thinking
155. Coping With Alcohol Abuse
156. Foundation Grants to Individuals
157. Compendium of Texas Colleges
158. Pumping Papers
159. Choosing a College
160. The College Guide for Parents
161. Campus Visits and College Interviews
162. Don’t Miss Out
163. The A's and B's of Academic Scholarships
164. Winning Money for College
165. Best Dollar Values in American Colleges
166. The Play Book
167. Stop Studying Start Learning
168. To the Rescue
169. Coping with Academic Anxiety
170. Know About Drugs
171. Marijuana
172. Are You Dying For a Drink?
173. Drinking and Driving
174. Coping with Drug Abuse
175. Alcohol: Teenage Drinking
176. Straight Talk About Drugs and Alcohol
177. Getting Help
178. It Won't Happen to Me
179. Everything You Need To Know About Alcohol
180. Drugs and Crime
181. Drugs and Sports
182. Why Can't Anyone Hear Me?
183. Teen Issues Workbook
184. Guide to Adolescent Enrichment
185. Helping Children Heal
186. Learning to Control Stress

IV. Miscellaneous
1. Understanding Ourselves and Others (6 audio tapes)
2. 10 Days to Higher SAT Scores (audio tape)
3. Play It Straight (5 games)
APPENDIX C
ACTIVITY 9
SUCCESS LIFELINE

I. Objective:
The student will identify his/her positive characteristics.
The student will present personal successes to other class members.
The student will recognize that recognizing successes improves one’s self-confidence.

II. Grade Level:
7-12 (Groups should be of ten to twelve students)

III. Materials:
A. Markers
B. Tape
C. Magazines
D. Construction Paper
E. Scissors
F. Newsprint

IV. Time:
A. 45 minutes
B. May be repeated if necessary

V. Description:
A. Explain to students that they will focus on their positive characteristics and past successes by creating a "Success Lifeline." Something that each has done that has given them a sense of pride or accomplishment. It could be a contest they’ve won, a skill they’ve learned, something they’ve made, an award received, or any positive accomplishment they can remember.
B. Have the students to draw a long, wavy line on their papers.
   1. Label the beginning of the line "Birth" and the end of the line "Now".
   2. Have them recall five successes they’ve experienced in their lives as far back as early childhood or as recent as yesterday.
   3. Find pictures that represent the experiences they have recalled.
   4. Date the experience on their lifelines, write a brief explanation of it, and tape or glue a picture to the place on the lifeline where the event happened.
C. Have the students share their lifeline with the class.

VI. Evaluation:
A. Have the students answer orally or by writing how it felt to share their successes with the class?
B. Have each student explain how they can use what they've learned from this activity to improve their self-confidence.
ACTIVITY 10
WALL OF FAME

I. Objective:
The student will be able to identity and share positive influences in his or her life.

II. Grade Level:
9-12

III. Materials:
A. Art Materials
B. Magazines
C. Newsprint
D. Markers
E. Tape

IV. Time
45 Minutes

V. Description:
A. Ask a few volunteers to name some people and events that have been positive influences in their lives. Make sure to define "positive influences" as people or events that have had a positive impact on their lives, as opposed to people and events they have positive feelings about.
B. Have students to think of four or five of these influences that they consider especially important.
C. Have each student work individually and create a brief written statement or visual image that represents an especially important positive influence in their lives. It can be a person or an event.
D. Encourage each student to share their completed statement or image with the class.
E. As each student shares his or her positive influence with the class, the student posts his/her statement or image on a bulletin board created for this purpose. It can be called the "Wall of Fame."
F. Discuss ways in which the various influences reflect similarities and differences among the class members.
VI. Evaluation:
   A. Have each student respond to these questions.
      1. What have you learned about positive influences in other people's lives that surprised you?
      2. How do you think your life might have been different without the positive influences you identified?
      3. How do these positive influences relate to your own self-confidence?
# Renzulli Form

## TEACHER'S RATING SCALE OF STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Student</th>
<th>Grade</th>
</tr>
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</table>

**Instructions:** Complete the form below by placing a check mark in the appropriate column for each trait described according to the following scale:

1 = seldom or never observed  
2 = occasionally observed  
3 = observed to a considerable degree  
4 = observed almost all the time

## PART I: Learning Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Has unusually advanced vocabulary for age or grade level: uses terms in a meaningful way; has verbal behavior characterized by &quot;richness&quot; of expression, elaboration and fluency.</td>
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<td>2. Possesses a large storehouse of information about a variety of topics (beyond the usual interest of youngsters the same age).</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Has a quick mastery and recall of factual information.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Has rapid insight into cause-effect relationships; tries to discover the how and why of things; asks many provocative questions (as distinct from factual or informational questions); wants to know what make things (or people) tick.&quot;</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Has a ready grasp of underlying principles and can quickly make valid generalizations about events, people, or things; looks for similarities and differences in events, people, and things.</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. Is a keen or alert observer; usually "sees more" or "gets more" out of a story, film, etc. than others.

7. Reads a great deal on own volition; usually prefers adult level books; does not avoid difficult material; may show a preference for biography, autobiography, encyclopedias, and atlases.

8. Tries to understand complicated material by separating it into its respective parts; reasons things out by self; sees logical and common sense answers.

PART II: Motivational Characteristics

1. Becomes absorbed and truly involved in certain topics or problems; is persistent in seeking task completion. (It is sometimes difficult to get this student to move on to another topic).

2. Is easily bored with routine tasks.

3. Needs little external motivation to follow through in work that initially excites this student.

4. Strives toward perfection; is self-critical; is not easily satisfied with own speed or products.

5. Prefers to work independently; requires little direction from teachers.

6. Is interested in many "adult" problems such as religion, politics, sex, race—more than usual for age level.

7. Often is self-assertive (sometimes even aggressive); stubborn in own beliefs.
Rating Scale of Student Characteristics, Page 3

8. Likes to organize and bring structure to people and situations.  

9. Is quite concerned with right and wrong, good and bad; often evaluates and passes judgement on events, people, and things.  

PART III: Creativity Characteristics

1. Displays a great deal of curiosity about many things; is constantly asking questions about anything and everything.  

2. Generates a large number of ideas or solutions to problems and questions; often offers unusual ("way out") unique and clever responses.  

3. Is uninhibited in expressions of opinion; is sometimes radical and spirited in disagreement; is tenacious.  

4. Is a high risk-taker; is adventurous and speculative.  

5. Displays a good deal of intellectual playfulness; fantasizes; imagines "I wonder what would happen if..."; manipulated ideas (i.e., changes and elaborates upon them); is often concerned with adapting, improving, and modifying institutions, objects, systems.  

6. Displays a keen sense of humor and sees humor in situations that may not appear humorous to others.  

7. Is unusually aware of own impulses and more open to the irrational in self (freer expression of feminine interest for boys, greater than usual amount of independence for girls); shows emotional sensitivity.
8. Is nonconforming; accepts disorder; is not interested in details; is individualistic; does not fear being different.

9. Criticizes constructively; is unwilling to accept authoritarian pronouncements without critical examination.

PART IV: Leadership Characteristics

1. Carries responsibility well; can be counted on to do what was promised, and usually does it well.

2. Is self-confident with children of own age as well as adults; seems comfortable when asked to show own work to the class.

3. Seems to be well-liked by classmates.

4. Is cooperative with teacher and classmates; tends to avoid bickering and is generally easy to get along with.

5. Can express self well; has good verbal facility and is usually well-understood.

6. Adapts readily to new situations; is flexible in thought and action and does not seem disturbed when the normal routine is changed.

7. Seems to enjoy being around other people; is sociable and prefers not to be alone.

8. Tends to dominate others when they are around; generally directs the activity in which involved.
9. Participates in most social activities connected with the school; can be counted on to be there if anyone is.

Total Score: Learning

1 = Seldom or never
2 = Occasionally
3 = Considerably
4 = Almost always

Motivation
Creativity
Leadership
REFERENCE LIST


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