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A STUDY FOR DETERMINING THE EFFICACY OF TAPE-RECORDED
PRESENTATIONS FOR THE ENHANCEMENT OF SELF-CONCEPT
IN FIRST-GRADE CHILDREN

DISSERTATION

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For the Degree of

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By

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The problem of the study was to discover whether the self-concepts of selected children in the primary grades could be enhanced. The purpose of the study was to determine the feasibility of using tape-recorded stories to enhance the self-concepts of selected primary grade children.

The subjects of the study included forty six- and seven-year-old children enrolled in remedial summer-school classes. The children in the experimental group used tape-recorded stories individually for a period of thirty days.

The data from pre- and post-tests were subjected to t-test of significance or chi-square for analysis. The children in the experimental group showed significant gains ($p < .01$) on three of thirteen factors measured by the Early School Personality Questionnaire while the control group showed no significant differences. When t-tests of experimental and control groups were compared, the scores of the experimental group were significantly greater on three of thirteen factors ($p < .01$) and a fourth at ($p < .05$). When the data were treated for the Piers-Harris

Children's Self Concept Scale, comparing the pre- minus post-test results for the experimental group, four of the six factors were found to be significant ($p < .01$) and one factor ($p < .05$). The sixth factor showed no significant differences. No factorial differences were found for the control group when comparing the pre- and post-test scores. The experimental group showed significant gains on two factors at ($p < .01$) level and two at ($p < .05$) level when compared with the control group pre- and post-test scores.

Using the Teacher Judgment of Academic Activity and Attitude Change Survey teachers of the experimental group observed gains on four of the nine factors. Two of the factor gains were at the .001 level of significance and two at the .01 level. Teachers of the control group believed that they observed significant growth on three of the nine factors at the .001 level of significance and one factor at the .01 level of significance. When teacher responses for the experimental and control groups were compared, one factor showed significantly greater for the experimental group at the .01 level and another at the .02 level.

Sex differences were found on the Early School Personality Questionnaire in favor of the experimental group boys on three of thirteen factors, one at ($p < .05$) and two at ($p < .01$).

A treatment of the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale for sex differences showed no significant differences for either the experimental or control groups.

Some enhancement of the self-concepts of primary grade children may be possible by means of auditory non-teacher directed activities under properly controlled conditions.

Several areas should be further investigated. A regular school year study should be designed to produce results applicable to a more general population. Such a study might answer questions regarding peer influences, the relationship between self-concept and academic achievement, the tolerance of primary grade children for prolonged treatment, and teacher attitude toward conducting such activities.

Studies should be conducted to determine the relative value of simultaneous visual and auditory presentations for the enhancement of self-concept.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Research reveals that a child who views himself as a failure in a school activity tends to remain a failure in that aspect of his school work. Each time he fails he is further enervated and more convinced of his inability. Combs (6) clearly explained the circular nature of the problem:

Such a child is likely to avoid reading, and thus the very experience which might change his concept of self is bypassed. Worse still, the child who believes himself unable to read, confronted with the necessity for reading, is more likely than not to do badly. The external evaluation of his teachers and fellow pupils, as well as his own observations of his performance, all provide proof to the child of how right he was in the first place! The possession of a particular concept of self tends to produce behavior that corroborates the self-concept with which the behavior originated (6, p. 669).

A similar point of view was expressed by LaBenne and Greene:

These conceptions of an inability to learn appear to be self-fulfilling prophecies. That is, the types of experiences that might alter the notions a student holds about himself are purposely avoided. . . . The resultant effect is that low-ability level is perpetuated (14, p. 27).

For this study an important behavioral principle and its corollary may thus be understood; the child who views himself

as a failure in academic skills tends to fail, and the child who fails tends to have a low regard of his abilities and a low self-concept.

The important question before us is how and when shall the needs of the child with a low self-concept be met?

We know that, "the feelings one develops about oneself are formed quite early in life and are modified by subsequent experiences" (14, p. 23). It appears reasonable, therefore, that early assistance would be most significant and salutary since it might come when the child is most flexible. The importance of early self-concept development has been emphasized by Gordon:

If these early years are crucial in determining school performance through the mechanism of the self-concept, then society cannot shrug off its responsibility. For very young children, negative self-views may be as damaging as physical illness or actual physical handicap. We are rapidly making provision for medical help. We need to create nurturing environments early in life so that children's concepts of themselves may possibly emerge as positive (8, p. 376).

We should attempt to identify children's first failures and act decisively to bolster their self-concepts through success. The idea of beginning early is further considered by Woolner, who says, ". . . the critical time for teachers to assist in improving a child's global self-concept is during the early childhood years" (22, p. 60).

In summary, the following basic philosophical principles supporting the study are stated: (1) a child who fails tends

to have a low self-concept, (2) a child who has a low self-concept needs assistance, and (3) early childhood appears to be the best time to provide assistance for improving a child's self-concept.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of the study was to determine whether the self-concept of children in the primary grades could be enhanced with special auditory presentations within the regular classroom.

Purpose of the Study

The major purpose of the study was to determine the feasibility of using tape-recorded stories to enhance the self-concept of selected primary grade children. The children selected for the study were presumed to have developed some serious misgivings concerning their ability to perform adequately in the classroom environment. From the study answers were sought for the following questions:

1. Can the self-concepts of primary grade children be enhanced by non-teacher directed activities?
2. Can the self-concepts of primary grade children be enhanced essentially by means of auditory activities?
3. Can the self-concepts of primary grade children be enhanced by means of specially designed programs used within the regular classroom?

Background and Significance of the Study

No studies were located in the literature to indicate that the self-concept of children had been significantly enhanced essentially by the use of tape-recorded presentations. However, considerable endorsement was found for the following premises, which are vital supporting concepts for the study: (1) a relationship exists between self-concept, and academic achievement and (2) children's feelings about themselves can be modified by certain planned intervention procedures.

An examination of the relationship of self-concept to achievement was made by Swayze (19). Two groups of kindergarten children were identified. One group was composed of children with adequate self-concepts; the other group possessed low self-concepts. The children were re-examined at the end of the first primary year in school. The investigation revealed that children with the good self-concepts had made the greatest academic gains.

A conclusion of the White study (21) was that teachers, should attempt to provide the necessary success experiences to develop or maintain a good self-concept in early childhood. White found that a significant relationship existed between children's self-concepts and their academic achievement.

Moffett (16) studied the relationship between perception of self and achievement in reading with seventh grade children. She found it to be significant:

. . . if a child has an unfavorable perception of himself, it is likely that this will adversely affect his achievement in reading. Conversely, a child who does not achieve in reading may, as a direct consequence, develop an unfavorable perception of himself (16, p. 535).

Bodwin (2) came to the conclusion that a positive and significant relationship existed between immature self-concept and both reading and arithmetic disability.

In a study of self-concept and grade-point average, Bruck (3) found a positive and significant relationship at all grade levels.

Considering the importance of academic achievement as it relates to self-concept, Quick (18) stated:

The child who views himself as successful will most likely continue to function that way and be treated that way, while the child who views himself as a failure will function in that way and be looked upon as a failure (18, p. 469).

The academic achievement and self-concept relationship was succinctly summarized by Mixer (15), who stated, "Students who underachieve scholastically, or who fail to live up to their own academic expectations, suffer significant losses in self-esteem. Success or failure in school significantly influences the ways in which students view themselves" (15, p. 350).

With regard to the modification of children's feelings about themselves and the development of desirable feelings and habits, Butler (4) said, "Children who during these early years are told that they are not good enough or smart enough tend to devalue themselves, which sets the stage for continued

poor performance" (4, p. 112). On the other hand, Butler pointed out, "Successful attempts at building self-esteem appear in the child's ever increasing awareness of his own autonomy" (4, p. 112). Further, the imperative need to guide or support the enhancement of self-concept may be found in the statement, "Evidence that supports the need for some direct attention to the development of self-esteem so that early childhood programs may have the greatest possible value is beginning to accumulate" (4, p. 113). In support of this thesis, Hawkes (11) said:

A successful preschool program teaches, 'I like me because I am worthy of being liked and I can do things. I like teachers because they like me and they help me. I find pleasure in relationships with other children because I can trust them and I am safe with them.' Every child who develops a positive self-image of himself and who learns to function in social situations represents a valuable addition to the total educational scheme. This is one very important contribution of preschool education (11, p. 336).

In the words of Purkey, "Therefore, the prevention of negative self concepts is a vital first-step in teaching" (17, p. 43).

Other studies have shown that modification of a child's feelings about himself is both possible and desirable. Walsh (20) found that many improvements took place as a result of quality early childhood education. The children developed some of the positive personality traits such as initiative, independence, self-assertion, curiosity and self-reliance.

Hattwick (10), in keeping with the findings of Walsh, concluded that children became more out-going and sociable. Joel (13) further supported these findings and listed routine habits, emotional maturity, and social maturity as positive personality outgrowths of continued nursery school attendance.

The following hypotheses, therefore, seem in order: (1) where children have not performed well during the first grade in academic activities, feelings of incompetency and possibly of unworth might be manifest in some adverse personality characteristic such as low-self-esteem, and (2) properly prepared tape-recorded presentations used as an intervention technique may serve to modify and enhance a poor self-concept.

Should tape-recorded presentations be found effective in the improvement of self-concept, the refinement and use of such materials may have some value as an on-going part of the regular school program.

Definition of Terms

Self-Concept

Self-concept is the person's total appraisal of his appearance, background and origins, abilities, and resources, attitudes and feelings which culminate as a directing force in behavior. We hold that a person's conscious awareness, what he thinks and feels, is that which primarily guides, controls, and regulates his performance and action (14, p. 10).

Low Self-concept. A child who was required to enroll in a summer remedial class was considered as having a low self-concept.

Limitations of the Study

The study was limited to an experimental and a control group. Both groups were composed of six- and seven-year-old children who attended remedial summer-school classes.

Because the population was limited to summer-school classes and to a relatively small selected number of children, the results of the study were not generalized to general population.

Basic Assumptions

It was assumed that the teachers in the various classrooms involved in the study conscientiously followed the instructions given them and that the children listened carefully to the tape-recorded stories.

It was also assumed that the instruments used were reliable and valid measures of the personality attributes considered in the study and that they were administered in an appropriate and professional manner.

Procedures for Collection of Data

Measures contained in the IPTA Early School Personality Questionnaire were used for testing purposes. According to the authors, the factors measured by the test are (1) reserved versus outgoing, (2) less intelligent versus more intelligent, (3) emotionally unstable versus emotionally stable, (4) phlegmatic versus excitable, (5) obedient versus assertive, (6) sober versus happy-go-lucky, (7) expedient versus tender-minded, (8) shy versus venturesome, (9) tough-minded versus

tender-minded, (10) vigorous versus doubting, (11) forthright versus shrewd, (12) placid versus apprehensive and (13) relaxed versus tense.

The test is designed for use with both groups and individuals and requires approximately one hour to administer. It is recommended for use with six- and seven-year-old children and was used for pre- and post-testing of both the control and experimental groups.

The Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale was used as a measure of self-concept and was administered as both a pre- and post-test to the experimental and control groups. This instrument has been recommended by the author for use with six- and seven-year-old children when the presentation is made on a one-to-one basis. This test requires approximately forty minutes to administer and elicits responses to eighty declarative sentences such as, "I am strong", or "I have good ideas". Half of the eighty sentences are designed to indicate a positive self-concept and half of them, a negative self-concept.

To identify academic achievement as it might relate to the enhancement of self-concept, an observation checklist was used in the study. This checklist, entitled Teacher Judgment of Academic Activity and Attitude Change Survey, relied upon teacher observation of behavior and evaluation of daily work samples to determine growth in any of these nine areas:

(1) ability to read, (2) ability to write, (3) ability to do arithmetic, (4) attitude toward school, (5) attitude toward peers, (6) ability to get along with peers, (7) increased interest span, (8) increased volume of work done, and (9) increased quality of work done (Appendix B).

The study was designed to test changes of self-concept by means of auditory stimuli. Personal counseling, visual stimuli, rewards, or other reinforcement devices or techniques were not used except by chance.

Differences in self-concept development of the girls as compared to the boys were identified.

Forty children between the ages of six and seven, were identified as subjects for the study. Twenty of the children attended a remedial summer-school program in Commerce, Texas. A comparable group of children, ten in Marshall, Texas, and ten in Henderson, Colorado, also attended remedial summer-school classes. It was determined by chance that the children in the Commerce, Texas remedial summer-school program would serve as the experimental group.

For a period of approximately thirty school days, the children in the experimental group used tape-recorded stories on an individual daily basis. Each child listened to one tape each day Monday through Thursday, using each of the four tapes in order one through four. On Friday each child selected any one of the four tapes for a second time. The same tapes were used repeatedly each week in the order described above during the experimental period.

The following stories were selected from published materials for use in the study: tape number one, "Homer Didn't Give a Hoot", by Helen Inwood, approximately six minutes in length; tape number two, "A Rabbit Who Could Not Hop", by Jeanette Storms, approximately eight minutes in length; tape number three, "The Little Train", by Lois Lensky, approximately eight minutes in length; and tape number four, "It Takes Two", by Walter M. Mason, approximately five minutes in length.

The following criteria were used in the selection of the stories:

1. Each story should not last longer than eight minutes.
2. The main character of the story should be involved in a struggle requiring effort to resolve the problem.
3. The main character, or characters, should be successful in resolving the problem.
4. The main character should be young or child-like, and therefore a character with which the child could identify.

Procedures for Analysis of Data

The data obtained from pre- and post-test scores were tabulated and analyzed by means of the t-test of significance and chi-square.

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CHAPTER II

SURVEY OF THE LITERATURE

Research and other literature relevant to the study of self-concept can be organized into five categories: (1) the development of self-concept, (2) the relative stability of self-concept, (3) the relationship between self-concept and personal competency, (4) the relationship between self-concept and academic achievement and (5) the enhancement of self-concept within the school setting.

The Development of Self-Concept

How does self-concept evolve? It might be assumed that during the infancy stage, the self is neither good nor bad, since the infant has not yet identified himself as a person. At first he explores. He examines and becomes acquainted with the various parts of his body. He soon realizes that his body parts provide him with resources for sound and movement and enable him to make his wants known and to secure attention.

Strang (39) states that body awareness and the ability of the infant to distinguish his body from that of others is the very beginning of self-concept. The ideas of "good me" or "bad me" are related to mother reinforcement, either

positive or negative, provided verbally and in other ways, as early development continues.

When do the first perceptions of self take place?

Purkey (30) believes very early:

Sometime in the first year of life, much earlier than most parents would believe possible, the infant has developed a myriad number of perceptions about himself, thoughts and feelings which make up his awareness of his individual existence. Psychologists call these perceptions his "self-concept", but to the child it's simply who and what he is. After he begins talking, he will speak of these perceptions as simply 'me' (30, p. 31).

As soon as the child is able to move independently and make some alterations in the physical environment he discovers that his actions may be applauded, condoned, or, in some instances, condemned. It is at this stage that the child is compelled to make some elementary decisions regarding his behavior. As he becomes increasingly active and begins to move about on his own, he is expected to internalize certain basic language symbols such as "good" and "bad" as they relate to his actions. About this time he also discovers that if he wishes to enjoy the greatest amount of love and approval, he will be restricted regarding the amount of freedom available within the home environment. For example, his mother may permit him to play with the pots and pans from the kitchen cabinet but not the bric-a-brac in the living room. Moreover, he may be permitted to play with the pots and pans only on those occasions when such action is agreeable to his mother.

Self-concept seems to develop rapidly beginning with self awareness during early infancy until it becomes the "me" good, bad, or something in between.

How is self-concept acquired? "Self-concepts are learned," declared Strang (39):

They are built up in many subtle ways. They are derived, in part, by negative comments of parents, teachers, and classmates and from repeated experiences of failure. The child becomes fearful of making mistakes, afraid and ashamed to be wrong again. Self-confidence, on the other hand, arises when others show a positive expectancy that the individual can close the gap between his present performance and his potential: it is reinforced by success (39, pp. 22-23).

Hamachek (20) also believed self-concept was learned from personal experiences, including family outlook, family values, and attitudes.

That a child learns who he is from personal experiences is further elaborated by Combs (10):

But, of course, the self is something we learn. You learn who you are, what you are, from the significant others in your life--the ways people have treated you. We can ask, therefore: How can a child feel liked unless someone likes him? How can a child feel wanted unless somebody wants him? How can a child feel acceptable unless someone accepts him? And how can a child feel able unless somewhere he has success? (10, p. 353).

Parental influence in the developing and moulding of self-concept in early childhood beyond the infancy stage was considered, by Strang (39), to be very important. By approval, love, consistent treatment, or the opposites of these, the

child is convinced that he is a certain kind of person, although he may have misinterpreted the cues upon which his decisions are based. Such misinterpretations are described by Mixer and Milson (27):

If a child feels unloved or unimportant, this feeling pervades his entire being, whether or not his parents actually love him. It is not truth that matters here, but the child's perception of it. Strong attitudes and feelings lurk in the deep recesses of a child's being, directing his life as surely as strings on a puppet (27, p. 346).

Internalization processes continue as the child begins to compare himself with others who are happy and successful, or seem so to him, and begins to make decisions about himself, which he not only tends to maintain but strives to perpetuate. Analyzing this concept, Hamachek (20) explained, "because one's concept of self tends to continue developing in the direction in which it started, early childhood is a critical period in its growth" (20, p. 8).

In the end, we see that a child's actions are usually governed by past experiences with other people, which may have been good or bad, depending upon how others have revealed their feelings about him and what they have expected him to do. Raimy summarized this idea by saying, "The Self-Concept is a learned perceptual system which functions as an object in the perceptual field" (36, p. 99).

In conclusion, in the words of Combs (10), ". . . The self is something we learn. You learn who you are, what you

are from the significant others in your life--the way people have treated you" (10, p. 353).

Self-concept is learned. It is the product of interpersonal relations. It is a self-picture based on a personal interpretation of language symbols and the way a person feels about himself in relation to others.

The Relative Stability of Self-Concept

Does an established self-concept tend to resist change? The evidence seems to indicate that it does. Considering this belief, Gordon (18) commented, "once self-concept has developed, it becomes the evaluator, selector, judge, and organizer of future experience, and the child's behavior may be seen as organized to enhance and maintain his view" (18, p. 377). This seems logical enough when one considers the drive and enthusiasm possessed by highly motivated children with strong self-concepts. But how about those who view themselves as being incapable; will their opinions of themselves tend to remain constant? Will their established opinions tend to ordain them to further failure? LaBenne and Greene (24) help answer this question:

A person with a weak self-concept and who is unsure of himself is more likely to have a narrowed perceptual field. This shrinking effect limits the data required for intelligent decision and action. The threatened person's perceptions tend to be limited to the objects or to efficient behavior. Instead of broadening his fund of knowledge and skills, such a person is kept busy defending his already existing perceptual organization (24, p. 19).

Because there is no available conclusive research on the subject, such statements of logic give us the only explanation for the perpetuation of self-concept involving self-failure and self-debasement resulting from self evaluation.

Thus an inadequate self-concept may remain somewhat stable, not because it must, but because, as Hamachek (21) states, "many students, for example, have difficulty in school, not because of low intelligence or poor eyesight, but because they have learned to consider themselves unable to do academic work" (21, p. 5).

Speaking of the child who unconsciously reinforces a poor self-concept, Quandt (34) stated:

. . . he unconsciously behaves in a manner that will evoke the type of treatment or response to which he has adjusted himself. He is comfortable, moreover, with such anticipated responses because they tend to reinforce and give consistency to his self-concept (34, p. 9).

Valett (40) speaks of the stability of self-concept and the possibilities for change once it has been established:

Whatever form the early self-concept may take, research has shown it to be extremely stable, since an organizational or integrated pattern tends to resist disruption once it has been established. . . . But the self does change as a result of significant encounters and learning. The way that this occurs and the importance of harmoniously integrating change into the total personality of the individual has many implications for both psychological and educational practice (40, p. 32).

It might be said, therefore, that self-concept tends to be self-perpetuating and as such is not readily amenable to

change. In answer to the question, can self-concept be modified in positive ways, Combs (11) has written emphatically, "Indeed it can" (11, p. 1). In conclusion, while self-concept tends to remain stable, it is susceptible to enhancement.

The Relationship Between Self-Concept and Personal Competency

Is there a significant relationship between self-concept and personal competency? Combs (10) recognized self-concept as a self-limiting factor in the lives of many people:

Thousands of people in our society are trapped, prisoners of their own perception, believing they can only do x-much. Then the rest of us see them only doing x-much, so we say, 'That is an x-much person' --which only proves what he already thought in the first place! Millions of people in this world are walking around with beliefs about themselves that are self-limiting, self-destructive. It is so with children in all school subjects (10, p. 353).

Of the developing self and its importance in our lives Gordon (18) commented, "Once it has developed, it becomes the evaluator, selector, judge, and organizer of future experience, and the child's behavior may be seen as organized to enhance and maintain it" (18, p. 377).

The ability to care for oneself, to find satisfaction in personal attainment, to empathize with others, to recognize the needs and feeling of others are described by Bruck and Bodwin (4) as essential elements of a well developed self-concept. Coopersmith (12) concluded, "Experimental studies indicate that a person with low self-esteem is less capable

of resisting pressures to conform and is less able to perceive threatening stimuli" (12, p. 61).

Every aspect of personal competency seems related to the self-concept held by a person at a particular time. Combs (10) elaborated on this important factor:

The fourth limitation that we know hampers people in expanding their world has to do with the self-concept, which we now recognize as perhaps the most important single factor in determining what a person is able to do under any given circumstance. People behave in terms of their self-concept. What a person believes about himself affects everything he does, even what he sees and hears--and, hence, is of tremendous significance in determining how effectively he will be able to deal with the world in which he lives. (10, p. 352).

Finally, in the words of Quandt (34), "Many educators and psychologists have supported the notion that the way a child feels about himself has a great effect upon his ability to learn" (34, p. 438).

The Relationship Between Self-Concept and Academic Achievement

Purkey (30) said, "Over-all, the research evidence clearly shows a persistent and significant relationship between the self-concept and academic achievement" (30, p. 15). A similar conclusion was drawn by LaBenne and Greene (24): "Numerous studies indicate a direct relationship between the child's self-concept and his manifest behavior, perceptions, and academic performance" (24, p. 32).

How children feel about themselves and see themselves with relation to their environment, even in kindergarten and before, may have a substantial effect upon their first grade reading achievement. Lamy (25) found that from perceptions of kindergarten children, codified and catalogued by observers trained to identify early childhood reactions, predictions regarding later reading success could be made with accuracy equalling that of intelligence test scores. She discovered that a combination of self-perception and intelligence test scores made predictive power even greater. An important conclusion by Lamy was that perhaps children's self-perceptions may be causal factors in later reading achievement.

Wattenberg and Clifford (42) employed a system of self-referent statements to secure self-concept measures of kindergarten children. All of the self-reference statements were drawn from the children as they drew pictures of their family, as prompted by the use of incomplete sentences. The characteristics of self-concept purportedly measured were competence and goodness.

One of the hypotheses which was tested stated that various ratings and measures of self-concept taken during the kindergarten year would be predictive of future reading achievement. Another hypothesis stated that there would be a high positive correlation between self-concept and reading achievement. In the findings, one table produced results to show reading success

related to self-concept improvement at the .05 level of confidence. Fourteen subgroup correlations were made between second-grade reading test scores and quantified self-concept measures. Of these fourteen measures, ten were found positive, two of them at the .05 level. For quantified self-concept scores, good versus bad, fourteen correlations produced eleven that were positive, with three at the .05 level and one at the .01 level. From the results it was concluded that some general measures of self-concept taken during kindergarten were predictive of reading achievement two years later.

Among the early studies was that of Lecky (26), who found a significant relationship between low academic achievement and a child's view of himself as a non-learner. Considering ability and achievement, the Walsh (41) study matching "high ability, high achievers" with "high ability, low achievers" found the latter group to have negative self-regard.

Pollock (29) studied all of the first, second, and third grade children in five elementary schools. The children in the sample received achievement, IQ, and self-concept tests. Also, self-concept evaluations were made by the teachers. One conclusion was that, "Specific role, or school self-concept and teacher's evaluation of the child's self-concept are related to reading achievement" (29, p. 2244-A).

A study to determine the relationship of self-image and reading achievement was conducted by Sophis (37) using elementary children in grades two through five. Four conclusions were derived from the study:

1. There is a variable called self image as a reader and for boys, this variable affects reading achievement.
2. Boys with high self image as a reader have better reading achievement than boys with average or low self image.
3. For boys, a poor self image in an academic area depresses performance to a greater degree than a good self image in the same area improves performance.
4. The reading achievement of girls in grades two through five is comparable to achievement of boys in these groups (37, p. 6518).

Dowd (14) examined various composite predictors of initial reading success as they related to the self-perception of children. Metropolitan Readiness Tests and the New York State Readiness Tests were used as predictive measures. The Clark & Ozehosky U-Scale was used to measure self-concept, the Van Alstyne Picture Vocabulary Test to measure verbal mental ability, and the Gates Primary Word Recognition Test to determine initial reading success. In order to determine the relationship between self-concept and initial reading success, the U-Scale was readministered at the end of the first grade in addition to the Gates Primary Word Recognition Test. It was found that ". . . self-concept is intimately connected with achievement in the early school years, both as a predictor

of achievement for some groups of children, and as antecedently related to levels of achievement for all children" (14, p. 3000-A).

Centi (8) found a positive relationship between self-concept and achievement. A gradual lowering of self-concepts was found to exist among underachieving college freshmen. The study examined self reports taken before school started and again after the first semester grades were issued. It was concluded that those who received poor grades suffered a depreciation of self-concept. Individual performance was first rationalized by the students. Disillusionment and anger followed, with subsequent hostility being directed toward the course, the teacher, the school, and classmates, in order. With the passage of time the college freshmen tended to perform even worse than at first, since they increasingly used more of their study time for extracurricular activities.

Further evidence leading to a belief that failure tends to beget a low-self-concept was shown in a study of sixty academically superior and bright students found in two seventh grade classes by Gibby and Gibby (17). These were children without a recorded failure. All of them were aware of the fact that they were in accelerated class situations. One class served as a control and the other as an experimental group. Three tests were then administered to each group. The first was an English grammar test, the second the Gibby Intelligence Rating Schedule, and the third a test of word

fluency. After a period of three days both groups were asked to repeat the word fluency test. Just prior to testing, however, the students in the experimental group were informed by note that they had failed the first test. A comparison of the scores of the experimental and control groups was then made. There was a clear indication that those students who thought that they had failed performed less satisfactorily. A showing of self-referent statements measuring self-regard, regard by significant others, and general intellectual productivity showed a loss in each area. Thus failure produced a lowering of cognitive performance as well as a lowering of self-concept.

Stotland and Zander (38) and Borislow (2) studied certain conditional effects of failure upon college students. Stotland and Zander state, "It is evident that a person who has failed tends to become sensitive to the opinions of others" (38, p. 223). A conclusion from the Borislow study was that "Students who underachieve scholastically have a poorer conception of themselves as students than do achievers subsequent to their scholastic performance regardless of initial intention to strive for scholastic achievement as a goal" (2, p. 253).

Yamamoto (45) examined failure in the wake of great effort to succeed and concluded, "All-out often desperate, efforts may enable a person to accomplish the task and to protect his self-concept. The cost tends to be high and he risks complete disorganization in the case of an ultimate failure" (45, p. 9).

Where a child is constantly expected to compete successfully and for some reason fails, "Woe to him," states Yamamoto, "for that is the day the world collapses inside and outside him; no alternative means of handling the situation are available, no reserve energy is left, and no friend or self-respect is to be found" (45, p. 9). What is the ultimate result of failure so far as self-concept is concerned? "The nightmare of failure tends to be compensated by the creation of rigid and idealized self concept, that is, a much distorted image of the self" (45, p. 10).

Diller (13) studied the effects of failure on the attitudes of college students toward self. Among other things he wanted to know what the effects of failure would be and whether or not there was a difference between overt and covert behavior as a resultant factor. He used sixty male college students as subjects for study. A seven point rating scale of ten personality traits adjudged as being most valuable for successful college adjustment by fifty dormitory residents were used to measure overt attitudes. Covert attitudes were secured by measuring response evaluations of handwriting samples including that of the subject. The handwriting samples having standard content values were presented in reverse by mirrored image for disguise purposes. It was found that

After failure, no significant changes in self-ratings of intelligence nor in self-ratings of the various personality traits occurred on the overt scale. . . . However, when all traits

were combined, a decrease in self-estimation significant at the .05 level (one-tailed test) was revealed (13, p. 5).

It was also found that the subjects rated samples of their handwriting lower ($p=.05$).

If it might be said that failure to achieve in school tends to produce a negative self-concept. Is the converse also true? Does success tend to produce a more positive self-concept?

In the Diller (13) study, the effects of success experiences were also measured. "After success, there was a significant rise in self-ratings on the overt rating scale on all ten traits combined ($p=.01$, one-tailed test)" (13, p. 5). No significant changes were reported for self-ratings on the covert scale. Regarding personality ratings, the success group was distinguishable from the control group to the statistically significant degree of ($p=.05$).

A significant relationship between academic success and good self-concept was found by Carlton whose elementary school subjects not only read better but developed significantly better self-concepts when allowed to select and dramatize stories. It was found that "The mean gains in all classes during the experimental periods of three and one-half months ranged from .75 to 1.36" (43, p. 96). Subsequently Carlton and Moore (6) used self-directive dramatization of stories on a self-selection basis over a three and one-half month

period. The experimental subjects taken from first, second, third, and fourth grade classes were matched with other children in similar classes for sex, intelligence, and reading ability. Children in the experimental group showed mean gains exceeding those in the control group at the first grade level by .89. In the second grade the mean gain of the experimental group was .62 greater than the control group. The third grade experimental group showed gains of .39 above that of the control group. The mean gain of the fourth grade experimental group was significant at the .02 level of confidence. In addition to these gains in reading ability, "There is also evidence to indicate that through the use of self-directive dramatization, favorable changes occurred in the self-concept of the pupils" (6, p. 130).

A recent study by Ozehosky and Clark (28), regarding children's self-concept and kindergarten achievement, attempted to ascertain whether self-concept has functional utility at the kindergarten level. The study surveyed 1042 children enrolled in thirty-seven kindergarten classes in a New York State public school district. By using teacher judgment ratings of children's self-perceptions in the dimensions of competence-incompetence, good-bad, and ego strength, criterion measures were established for the ultimate selection of the twenty-five highest boys and girls and the twenty-five lowest boys and girls in the sample. Self-Concept Inventories and

Metropolitan Readiness Tests were among the instruments used in the study. It was found that the self-concept does have functional utility at the kindergarten level. It was demonstrated that even at this early age, self-concept is related to achievement. Teacher judgments of children's self-concepts were found to be valid predictors of kindergarten achievement. The correlation between teacher judgment and the Metropolitan Readiness Tests were computed at .70, significant at the .01 level. It was also found that teacher ratings of children's self-concept tended to remain stable over a period of time. It was originally supposed that girls would be significantly superior in achievement in kindergarten and in self-perception when compared to boys. This supposition was not confirmed.

Self-concept as affected by a lack of achievement resulting in non-promotion was studied by White & Howard (43). The results of this study involving 292 boys and 332 girls in a sixth grade sampling from six different school systems was only a part of a larger study conducted by the North Carolina Advancement School, in a special research funded by the State of North Carolina for the study of underachievement. The result of this comprehensive study indicated that lack of promotion is positively related to lowered self-concept of elementary school students. In every instance the highest mean scores were earned by those students who had experienced no grade promotion failures. Further results showed:

. . . the most severe and consistent effects of school promotion failure on self-concept occurred between no failures and two or more failures. However, significant differences ($p < .10$) between no failures and one failure were obtained on four of the nine scales, indicating that one failure tends to be associated with many aspects of self-concept (43, p. 184).

The results of this study tend to uphold the belief that lack of achievement culminating in failure may produce lowered self-concept in elementary school children. The results also support the thesis that early diagnosis and treatment of academic problems is most desirable.

A study conducted by Williams (44) tends to contradict the several studies described above, showing that a positive relationship exists between school achievement and self-concept in the early grades. The investigation involved 133 first grade children, 25 per cent of whom were Hispano, 75 per cent Anglo, 50 per cent male, and 50 per cent female. There was no significant relationship found between the children's self-concepts and their reading achievement. Williams postulated that perhaps at this early age the pupils had not sufficiently internalized reading as a value. It was also noted that perhaps the testing instrument might not have been adequately sensitive for true measurement purposes, since the population studied may very well have had potentially unstable self-concepts. Moreover, only three of the twenty-six items measured by the instrument were related to school achievement in a direct manner.

Quandt (34) studied the relationships between self-concept and achievement of first grade readers. An appropriate reading self-concept instrument was developed for testing purposes. Thirty-nine first grade subjects were selected at random and were tested orally. Following the first semester of school the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test, Primary A, was then administered to the subjects. An analysis of the scores showed no significant correlation between reading self-concept prior to formal reading instruction and reading achievement measured at midpoint in the first grade.

The effects of a Head Start program and a Follow Through program upon self-concept and cognitive abilities when compared with kindergarten participants were studied by Phillips (32). The subjects were selected randomly and data were obtained from the Cognitive Abilities Test, the California Test of Personality, and Cognitive Abilities Test Deviation Intelligence Quotient. No significant improvement or relationship was shown to exist and it was concluded that ". . . the regular kindergarten program was as effective as the Follow Through program" (32, p. 3629-A).

A study of the relationship between self-concept and academic achievement was made by Caplin (5), who took a sample from a de-facto segregated school, having hypothesized that children from such a school would tend to have less positive self-concepts than a similar sample of children taken from

desegregated schools. A self-report instrument was used to measure self-concept. Correlations between the self-concept scores and the Iowa Test of Basic Skills were calculated. It was found that those children attending the de-facto segregated school had self-concepts less positive than children from the neighboring desegregated schools. Also found in the study:

There was a significant positive relationship between self-concept and academic achievement. . . . That is, those children having more positive self-concepts and/or higher levels of aspiration had higher academic achievement (5, p. 980-A).

In summary we can conclude that the research available to us at this time preponderantly supports the position that self-concept is directly related to school achievement and that one factor influences the other. This idea was examined by Quick (35):

Self-concept and achievement appear to be interrelated--that is, poor achievement usually promotes a depreciation of one's self-concept, which, in turn, leads to continued poor achievement. To a lesser degree, successful achievement leads to an enhanced self-concept, which, in turn, leads to improved achievement (35, p. 479).

The Enhancement of the Self-Concept Within the School Setting

Is it possible to enhance self-concept? Mixer and Milson (27) state with assurance that it is:

Negative self-concepts of students are learned, so they can be changed. The main requirement for change is positive experiences with people and life. A child must experience acceptance for himself and success for his efforts (27, p. 347).

Some research has been done in an effort to test the effectiveness of intervention models designed to enhance the self-concept of primary grade children.

Working with forty-one pre-kindergarten children from low-income families Jasik (22), attempted self-concept enhancement. A non-verbal self-concept test and a teacher rating scale were employed for both the pre- and post-testing of the treatment and non-treatment groups. The children in the treatment group had daily planned facilitating encounters with trained adults to provide success experiences. A partial rationale for the study included the following statement:

The focus on the young child's self-concept related to research indicating the following: self-concepts are formed early in life and tend to remain stable; a relationship exists between achievement and self-concept; children's perceptions of teachers' feelings towards them correlate positively with self-perceptions and achievement, suggesting the self-fulfilling prophecy; self-concept stands in a causal relationship to reading achievement (22, p. 2765-A).

According to Jasik, "The major finding suggested by this study is that self-concept at the pre-kindergarten level may well be modified by experience in the classroom setting" (22, p. 2765-A). The extent to which such modification might be achieved was not indicated and further research was recommended.

A dramatic example of self-concept enhancement is found in the Kidd and Kidd (23), Head Start Study. A simulated family setting, involving four classrooms, was used in the model. Well qualified teachers, one male and one female, representing

the father and mother image, were placed in each classroom as co-workers. There were sixty kindergarten children selected for the program. Of this number, five were considered to be seriously disturbed, and five others were non-verbal. This unique school setting fostered verbal communication and provided a genuinely warm and friendly environment. A psychologist assisted in the planning of the model and acted as a consultant during the experiment. As soon as behavioral problems were manifest, they were discussed frankly and openly. The candid and open discussion of feelings was participated in by the teachers and the volunteers, who provided models for the children. At the end of five months only one autistic child was still seriously disturbed. Both vocabulary and social skills were greatly improved, and the concepts the children understood were found to be at least equal to other children of the same chronological age.

An interesting study designed to analyze the effects of planned experiences and exercises on the self-concept of pre-school, kindergarten, and first grade children was conducted by Braden (3). The research was designed to measure the total self-concept of the subjects, the self as a subject entity, the teacher as a referent, certain language abilities, the draw self and draw best friend. Analysis of variance design was employed. The treatment was found to have a significant effect on the self-concept. The analysis showed a

positive correlation between self-concept, draw self and draw best friend.

An ESEA Title III funded Self-Concept Project involved four schools in southwestern Orlando, Florida (16). The experimental group consisted of 425 children in fifteen classrooms and included the entire first grade population in the four schools. Neighboring schools provided five control classes, matched to the experimental group with respect to (a) socio-economic level, (b) racial ratio and (c) a matched level of achievement for the two previous years in grades one, and for all grades one through six. Both pre- and post-testing measures were employed to determine differences between the experimental and the control groups.

The central concept of the program involved the provision of success experiences in classrooms for the first grade pupils. Speaking of the philosophical basis of the study, Edgar (16), the project director stated:

Success is also an observable daily phenomenon in the classroom. As such, it affords a ready measure of efforts, or of environment, leading toward enhanced self-concept. The latter, of course, develops over an extended period of time and is much more difficult to record, particularly for short-term feedback to teachers.

Yet surrounding children with a 'success Arena' requires considerable adjustment in the average classroom. There is evidence indicating that many basic practices used by teachers do not lead to student success experiences. While most teachers agree that children should be treated positively, observation has indicated the average teacher is positive only about 25 per cent of the time (16, p. 4).

All of the teachers involved in the Orlando, Florida study were specially trained in procedures designed to achieve a "positive interpersonal environment" (16, p. 4) based upon positive reinforcement practices. A system of interaction analysis was adopted together with a rather elaborate on-going evaluation program. Initial summary results reported that "The Experimental group made significantly greater overall gain than did the Control group on the Self-Concept Scale, Peabody test, and Parker test (less than .01)" (16, p. 60).

This study seems to demonstrate that self-concept enhancement is possible with first-grade children. It further supports the argument of Phillips (32), that school programs should be reorganized to help children acquire good self-concepts and thereby forestall possible adult self disparagement and perhaps failure.

Green (19) conducted a study for the purpose of determining if a prolonged readiness program would be a significant factor in the self-concept development of "unready" first-grade students. A second purpose was to determine the degree of congruity between so-call "unready" first-grade children's self-perception and their perceptions of "significant others" perceptions of them.

The design utilized an experimental group of twelve boys and eight girls randomly selected from eighteen classrooms in ten elementary schools and a matched control group. The

children were tested using the Brown Self-Concept Referents Test and a questionnaire to assess the dimensions of self-concept and attitudes held by the children toward the school.

While the attitude toward school was not significantly different for the experimental group as compared with the control group, the experimental group did score significantly higher on all items of the test. It was concluded that for many immature first grade children an extended readiness or developmental program would aid in preserving and possibly enhancing the self-concept.

Research seems to indicate that self-concept can be enhanced in elementary school grades by the use of therapeutic and reinforcing techniques designed to provide success experiences in a variety of programs. Much more research is needed in this area to provide information leading to conclusive findings.

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CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES OF THE STUDY

In this chapter the procedures for the study are described. The sub-topics are as follows: (1) the description of the subjects and methods used in the research, (2) the instruments used for pre- and post-testing of the research subjects, (3) procedures used in collecting data, and (4) the statistical treatment of the data.

Subjects of the Study

The experimental group was composed of twenty low-self-concept children six and seven years of age who attended East Texas State University Laboratory School for a remedial summer-school program. The control group consisted of twenty six- and seven-year-old children, ten of whom were in attendance at a remedial summer-school program in Marshall, Texas and ten in attendance in a remedial summer-school program in Henderson, Colorado. Selection of the experimental group was made by chance.

The experimental group consisted of nine girls and eleven boys while the control group consisted of eight girls and twelve boys. Both the experimental and control group subjects attended school a minimum of thirty days during the summer.

For a period of approximately thirty school days, the children in the experimental group used tape-recorded stories individually on a daily basis. Each child listened to one tape each day Monday through Thursday using each of the four tapes in order one through four. On Friday each child selected any one of the four tapes for a second time. The same tapes were used repeatedly each week in the order described above during the experimental period.

Stories for the tape-recorded presentations were developed to accentuate the broad and positive elements of personality identified in the testing instruments insofar as possible.

The following stories were selected from published materials for use in the study: tape and story number one, "Homer Didn't Give a Hoot", by Helen Inwood (2), approximately six minutes in length; tape and story number two, "A Rabbit Who Could Not Hop", by Jeanette Storms (6), approximately eight minutes in length; tape and story number three, "The Little Train", by Lois Lenski (3), approximately eight minutes in length; and tape and story number four, "It Takes Two", by Walter M. Mason (4), approximately five minutes in length.

Instruments

The Early School Personality Questionnaire, referred to in the study as the ESPQ, was designed to measure a variety of personality characteristics of children in the early school years. The test was administered orally. As the test questions

were read aloud the children responded by appropriately marking on an answer sheet.

The ESPQ yields scores on thirteen dimensions of personality, including intelligence, with a minimum of testing time. The test is divided into two parts to facilitate administration. The time required for the administration of each part is approximately forty-five minutes. There are eighty items in each form part with six items measuring each of twelve personality characteristics and eight items measuring general intelligence.

Thirteen psychological variables have been isolated by means of factor analysis and are identified both in technical and popular terms. For example, Factor E is obedient, a term which might have common connotations such as conforming, mild, or submissive, as opposed to assertive, a term which might otherwise be thought of in such terms as independent, aggressive, stubborn or dominant. At either end of the scale for each variable, there may be advantages or disadvantages for a given child depending upon the degree of success and acceptance he enjoys within the environment.

The ESPQ was administered by teachers and aides who had been coached in the necessary testing procedures, as follows:

1. All of the elements of the test were discussed with the children until it could be ascertained that they understood the format, including where to place written responses

in the form of an x, and how to be certain that their responses were accurate. It was necessary for each child to be able to discriminate between "A" and "B" since an x was to be marked on one or the other in each answer frame.

In conjunction with the marking instructions, the teachers checked that each pupil was moving with the tape-recorded presentation and marking in the correct frame. To avoid error, each frame was identified for each child by means of a number and some easily identifiable configuration, such as a house or a tree. Also, wherever children became lost or for any reason could not move with the pacing of the tape recorder, it was stopped and help rendered before continuing.

2. Only ten children were tested at a time. The teacher and aide circulated, observing the responses of the pupils. The observation insured that the children were pacing with the recorded presentation and actually concentrating on making correct responses.

3. Parts A_1 and A_2 of the test were used on successive days.

4. Great care was to be exercised in accurately scoring the tests and recording the raw scores for final processing.

The Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale (5), was carefully administered as recommended by the authors, ". . . without haste, but not so slowly that second thoughts or distractions will occur" (5, p. 9). In this manner all test items were presented on a one-to-one basis.

The test obtains eighty first-person responses from children in answer to such declarative statements as "I am a happy person." The responses are either "yes" or "no". Half of the declarative sentences indicate a positive self-concept while the remaining sentences indicate a negative self-concept. When read orally to six- and seven-year-old children, the administration of the test requires between thirty-five and forty minutes. The use of a control group was recommended by the publisher for research purposes since scale scores tend to show a slight increase with retesting. Those children who score low are believed to have problems related to low self-concept.

With respect to significant changes in self-concept, the publisher stated that at least a ten-point score difference would be required to provide a statistically reliable consideration (5, p. 5).

General instructions were given to the teachers and aides, who administered the various instruments, as follows:

1. Before the answer sheets were distributed the examiner talked with the children about how they really felt about themselves. The importance of making honest responses was stressed. The teachers emphasized to the children that they were not taking a test in the sense that any of the answers were either right or wrong.

2. The teacher checked that all children had appropriately identified themselves with respect to age, sex, class and other

items before test administration. The teacher then read the other instructions aloud two or three times.

3. The children were instructed how to identify the right answers for them. They understood that they should respond to every item. In the presentation of both instruments, all items were read aloud twice and a check was made to insure pupil response before the next item was presented.

The Teacher Judgment of Academic Activity and Attitudes Change Survey, Appendix A, called for the teacher to respond to the following question as it applied to nine areas; in your opinion, has this child made better than average improvement during the six-week school period in any of the following areas: (1) ability to read, (2) ability to write, (3) ability to do arithmetic, (4) attitude toward school, (5) attitude toward peers, (6) ability to get along with peers, (7) increased length of interest span, (8) increased volume of work done, and (9) increased quality of work done. To each of these questions the teacher was to respond either "yes", "no" or "uncertain".

The survey sheets were given to the teachers at the beginning of the research period. Each teacher was reminded during the second week and again at the beginning of the fifth week to observe carefully and to record the various observed behaviors.

Procedures Used in Collecting the Data

Permission for the study was given by the Superintendent of Marshall Public Schools, the Director of Skill School, Henderson, Colorado, and the Director of Special Education in charge of East Texas State University Summer Laboratory School.

The testing materials were organized in packet form for the teachers who administered the pre-tests to both the experimental and control group subjects on June 10 and 11, 1973.

The teachers of the experimental group subjects were also given forms for record keeping and accounting which included: Story Presentation Record, Appendix B, a form enabling the teachers to keep an accurate record of the story presentations for each child on a numbered basis so that any stories missed could be used during the seventh week of summer school, an Interest Inventory for Story Presentation, Appendix C, designed to survey the interest of each student weekly on a four point scale, and an Anecdotal Record Checklist, Appendix C, to facilitate the recording of various unusual behaviors manifest during the study.

Post-tests were administered to all subjects on July 30 and 31, 1973 and were scored by the teachers who administered them. All records, including the tests, student responses, scores and anecdotal records, were promptly returned by the teachers of both the experimental and control groups. All of the original subjects completed the study.

Procedure for Analysis of Data

The t-test of significance for comparative differences between the means and the chi-square test was applied to the data.

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CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

The problem of this study was to determine whether the self-concept of primary grade children could be enhanced, essentially with tape-recorded stories of a positive and reinforcing nature.

The instruments used to test the enhancement of the self-concept were the Early School Personality Questionnaire (BSPQ), and The Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale. Academic achievement correlates of self-concept as observed in the classroom were sought by means of a teacher survey entitled, Teacher Judgment of Academic Activity and Attitude Change Survey. Additional information, regarding differences in self-concept development of girls as compared to boys, was drawn from the collected data.

The results of the study are presented in this chapter in the following order:

1. The results of the Early School Personality Questionnaire,
2. The results of The Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale,
3. The results of the Teacher Judgment of Academic Activity and Attitude Change Survey,

4. Sex differences as revealed by the data from this study, and,
5. An analysis of the findings.

Results of the Early School Personality
Questionnaire (ESPQ)

Difference scores on the ESPQ were obtained by subtracting the post- from the pre-test raw scores for each subject. To determine whether the difference scores were significantly greater than zero, t-tests for the differences between the pairs of means were computed on each factor for the experimental and control groups. The means, standard deviation, t-values, and probabilities associated with each factor are shown in Table I for the experimental group, and in Table II for the control group.

As indicated in Table I, three of the factors show significant difference scores for the experimental group, these three factors are: increased intellectual ability (Factor B), ($p < .01$), a more placid attitude (Factor O), ($p < .01$), and a more relaxed attitude (Factor Q_4), ($p < .01$). Of the ten non-significant factors, minimal results were obtained for obedient versus assertive (Factor E), sober versus happy-go-lucky (Factor F), and forthright versus shrewd (Factor N).

Table II shows that there are no significant differences on the scores for the control subjects. Among the low scores are, phlegmatic versus excitable (Factor D), with a zero t-

TABLE I

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATION, t -VALUES AND PROBABILITIES FOR THE PRE- MINUS POST- DIFFERENCE SCORES ON THE ESPQ FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL S_s

Factor	Mean	S.D.	t	p	N
A - Reserved vs. Outgoing	-1.40	3.70	1.69	n.s.	20
B - Less Intelligent vs. More Intelligent	-2.75	3.64	3.38	$p < .01$	
C - Affected by Feelings vs. Emotionally Stable	-1.40	3.53	1.77	n.s.	
D - Phlegmatic vs. Excitable	.60	3.03	.88	n.s.	
E - Obedient vs. Assertive	-.25	4.23	.28	n.s.	
F - Sober vs. Happy-go-lucky	-.35	3.00	.52	n.s.	
G - Expedient vs. Conscientious	-.70	3.00	1.02	n.s.	
H - Shy vs. Venturesome	-1.35	3.44	1.76	n.s.	
I - Tough-minded vs. Tender-minded	.50	2.91	.77	n.s.	
J - Vigorous vs. Doubting	.75	2.15	1.56	n.s.	
N - Forthright vs. Shrewd	.45	3.19	.63	n.s.	
O - Placid vs. Apprehensive	2.90	2.92	4.44	$p < .01$	
Q ₄ - Relaxed vs. Tense	2.30	2.94	3.50	$p < .01$	

TABLE II

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATION, t -VALUES AND PROBABILITIES FOR THE PRE- MINUS POST- DIFFERENCE SCORES ON THE ESPQ FOR THE CONTROL S_s

Factor	Mean	S.D.	t	p	N
A - Reserved vs. Outgoing	-.35	1.63	.96	n.s.	20
B - Less Intelligent vs. More Intelligent	-.25	1.65	.08	n.s.	
C - Affected by Feelings vs. Emotionally Stable	.45	1.73	1.15	n.s.	
D - Phlegmatic vs. Excitable	0	1.56	0	n.s.	
E - Obedient vs. Assertive	-.35	2.32	.01	n.s.	
F - Sober vs. Happy-go-lucky	.35	1.53	1.02	n.s.	
G - Expedient vs. Conscientious	-.90	1.94	2.07	n.s.	
H - Shy vs. Venturesome	.25	2.10	.53	n.s.	
I - Tough-minded vs. Tender-minded	-.75	1.62	2.07	n.s.	
J - Vigorous vs. Doubting	.45	2.42	.03	n.s.	
N - Forthright vs. Shrewd	.80	1.77	2.03	n.s.	
O - Placid vs. Apprehensive	-.45	1.47	1.37	n.s.	
Q ₄ - Relaxed vs. Tense	-.20	2.12	.42	n.s.	

value; vigorous versus doubting (Factor J), with a t -value of .03; and obedient versus assertive (Factor E), with a t -value of .01. In some areas change was almost imperceptible for the control group.

In order to determine whether the difference scores for the experimental group differed significantly from those of the control group for each of the factors, t -tests for the differences between the means were computed. Table III presents the t -values and the corresponding probabilities for each of the factors. Pre- minus post-test difference scores are significantly greater for the experimental group representing an increase in intellectual ability (Factor B), ($p < .01$), an increase in emotional stability (Factor C), ($p < .05$), greater self-confidence (Factor O), ($p < .01$), and a more relaxed attitude (Factor Q_4), ($p < .01$). Three of the factors which do not show significant gains and are relatively unaffected by the treatment are, obedient versus assertive (Factor E) producing a t -value of .09, expedient versus conscientious (Factor G) showing an insignificant t -value of .25 and, vigorous versus doubting (Factor J) with an unimpressive t -value of .41.

Results of The Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale

Difference scores were also obtained on The Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale by subtracting post-test scores from the pre-test raw scores for each subject. The t -tests

TABLE III

t-TESTS OF THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN UNCORRELATED
MEANS FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL
GROUP ESPQ RAW SCORES

Factor	<u>t</u>	p	N
A - Reserved vs. Outgoing	1.16	n.s.	40
B - Less Intelligent vs. More Intelligent	2.80	p<.01	
C - Affected by Feelings vs. Emotionally Stable	2.10	p<.05	
D - Phlegmatic vs. Excitable	.79	n.s.	
E - Obedient vs. Assertive	.09	n.s.	
F - Sober vs. Happy-go-lucky	.93	n.s.	
G - Expedient vs. Conscientious	.25	n.s.	
H - Shy vs. Venturesome	1.78	n.s.	
I - Tough-minded vs. Tender-minded	1.68	n.s.	
J - Vigorous vs. Doubting	.41	n.s.	
N - Forthright vs. Shrewd	.43	n.s.	
O - Placid vs. Apprehensive	4.40	p<.01	
Q ₄ - Relaxed vs. Tense	3.09	p<.01	

for the differences between correlated means were computed on each of the six factors for the experimental and control groups separately. The resulting means, standard deviation, t -values, and probabilities associated with each factor are presented in Table IV for the experimental group, and Table V for the control group.

TABLE IV

t -TEST OF THE MEAN DIFFERENCES IN PRE- MINUS POST-
TEST SCORES OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP S_s FROM
THE PIERS-HARRIS TEST SCORES

Factor	Mean	S.D.	t	p	N
1 - Behavior, "I am good, bad etc."	2.6	3.57	3.25	$p < .01$	20
2 - Intelligence and School Status	3.6	4.90	3.28	$p < .01$	
3 - Physical Appearance	2.2	3.24	3.04	$p < .01$	
4 - Anxiety: cry easily often afraid etc.	1.0	3.23	1.39	n.s.	
5 - General Popularity	2.0	3.37	2.65	$p < .05$	
6 - Happiness and Satisfaction	1.5	2.26	2.97	$p < .01$	

As shown in Table IV, in the experimental group, significant gains were made in most factors. The data indicates some positive changes in the way the subjects felt about the quality

of their behavior (Factor 1), ($p < .01$), growth in general intelligence and school status (Factor 2), ($p < .01$), improved feelings about physical appearance (Factor 3), ($p < .01$), feelings of increased popularity (Factor 5), ($p < .05$), and happiness and satisfaction (Factor 6), ($p < .01$). Only Factor 4, dealing with personal anxiety and fear, was not significant with a t -value of 1.39.

TABLE V

t -TEST OF THE MEAN DIFFERENCES IN PRE- MINUS
POST-TEST SCORES OF THE CONTROL GROUP S_s
FROM THE PIERS-HARRIS TEST SCORES

Factor	Mean	S.D.	t	p	N
1 - Behavior, "I am good, bad etc."	0	4.05	0	n.s.	20
2 - Intelligence and School Status	-.50	3.90	.57	n.s.	
3 - Physical Appearance	-.45	2.98	.67	n.s.	
4 - Anxiety; cry easily often afraid etc.	-.05	2.24	.10	n.s.	
5 - General Popularity	-.80	2.63	1.36	n.s.	
6 - Happiness and Satisfaction	-.05	2.70	.08	n.s.	

An inspection of Table V, however, indicates that there are no significant changes on any of the factors between the

pre- and post-test scores for the control group. Moreover, only Factor 5 shows substantial movement toward significance with a t-value of 1.36--this factor denoting feelings of popularity.

TABLE VI

t-TEST OF THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE UNCORRELATED MEANS FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP PIERS-HARRIS RAW SCORES

Factor	<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>	N
1 - Behavior, "I am good, bad etc."	2.15	$p < .05$	40
2 - Intelligence and School Status	2.93	$p < .01$	
3 - Physical Appearance	2.69	$p < .05$	
4 - Anxiety; cry easily often afraid etc.	1.20	n.s.	
5 - General Popularity	2.93	$p < .01$	
6 - Happiness and Satisfaction	1.97	n.s.	

To compare the experimental and control groups, t-tests for the differences between the means were computed. Table VI shows the t-values and the corresponding probabilities for each of the factors.

Four of the six factors show significant results for the experimental group subjects. Positive feelings of behavior

improvement (Factor 1), ($p < .05$), gains in intelligence and school status (Factor 2), ($p < .01$), better feelings about personal physical appearance (Factor 3), ($p < .05$), and greater popularity (Factor 5), ($p < .01$). The two non-significant factors, Factor 4, anxiety level with a t -value of 1.20, and Factor 6, happiness and satisfaction with a t -value of 1.97 show slight gain.

Results of the Teacher Judgment of Academic
Activity and Attitude Change Survey

The Teacher Judgment of Academic Activity and Attitude Change Survey was evaluated by means of chi-square tests. Table VII shows the number of children in the experimental and in the control groups who the teacher felt made better than average improvement in the various areas during the research period.

Table VII shows that some of the children in the experimental group and in the control group did, in the opinion of their teachers, experience better than average improvement. The teachers of the children in the experimental group believe that their pupils made significant gains in six of the nine factors. Reading ability (Factor 1), writing ability (Factor 2), math ability (Factor 3), and quality of work done (Factor 9) are credited by their teachers as making significant improvement at the .001 level. Teachers believe that the children made a significant improvement at the .01 level

in the two following factors: interest span increase (Factor 7), and volume of work done (Factor 3). The remaining two factors, social ability (Factor 6), and peer attitude (Factor 5), show little meaningful gain.

TABLE VII

CHI-SQUARE TESTS ON THE TEACHER JUDGMENT SURVEY
FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS AND
A COMPARISON OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND
CONTROL GROUP CORRELATIONS

Factor	Experimental Group			Control Group			Group Differences	
	No.	χ^2 *	p	No.	χ^2 *	p	χ^2 *	p
1. Reading Ability	20	20.0	.001	20	20.0	.001	.00	n.s.
2. Writing Ability	18	12.8	.001	12	.8	n.s.	6.00	.02
3. Math Ability	18	12.8	.001	11	1.2	n.s.	8.90	.01
4. School Attitude	14	3.2	n.s.	13	1.8	n.s.	.15	n.s.
5. Peer Attitude	13	1.8	n.s.	11	.2	n.s.	.72	n.s.
6. Social Ability	11	.2	n.s.	11	.2	n.s.	.00	n.s.
7. Interest Span Increase	16	7.2	.01	18	12.8	.001	.44	n.s.
8. Volume of Work	16	7.2	.01	20	20.0	.001	1.60	n.s.
9. Quality of Work	20	20.0	.001	16	7.2	.01	2.00	n.s.

* - χ^2 = Chi-Square

The control group made significant gains in four factors. Reading ability (Factor 1) is significant at the .001 level, precisely the same as for the experimental group. Increased interest span (Factor 7), is also significant at the .001 level, as is volume of work done (Factor 8). Quality of work done (Factor 9) shows significance at the .01 level.

Factors 4, 5, and 6 fail to show any significance for either the experimental or control groups. School attitude (Factor 4), peer attitude (Factor 5), and social ability (Factor 6), are not identified by the teachers as areas of appreciable positive gains. In addition, two other factors are not significant for the control group. They include writing ability (Factor 2), and math ability (Factor 3).

Comparing the experimental and control subjects, the subjects in the experimental group show significantly greater improvement in writing ability (Factor 2) at the .02 level and math ability (Factor 3) at the .01 level. Two factors, reading ability (Factor 1) and social ability (Factor 2) show no difference with zero scores. School attitude (Factor 4) and peer attitude (Factor 5) show only small differences.

Sex Differences

For the ESPQ the means, standard deviations, t -values, and corresponding probabilities comparing male and female difference scores are computed for the experimental group as indicated in Table VIII and for the control group as indicated in Table IX.

Significant sex differences in the experimental group are observed on Factors E, I, and N as follows: obedient versus assertive (Factor E), ($p < .05$); tough-minded versus tender-minded (Factor I), ($p < .01$); forthright versus shrewd (Factor N), ($p < .01$). The other ten factors are not significantly different. Three of the non-significant factors, shy versus venturesome (Factor H), affected by feelings versus emotional stability (Factor C), and relaxed versus tense (Factor Q_4) are quite similar for both boys and girls.

For the control group, only sober versus happy-go-lucky (Factor F), ($p < .01$), shows a significant difference. Factor B, intellectual growth, and Factor H, shy versus venturesome, have t -values of zero. Factor E, obedient versus assertive, shows a minimal difference with a t -value of .05.

The Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale was also analyzed for sex differences. Table X and XI present the means, standard deviations, t -values and corresponding probabilities,

TABLE VIII

t-TESTS OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS IN PRE-MINUS POST-TEST ESPQ SCORES OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP MALES AND FEMALES

Factor	Males		Females		<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		
A - Reserved vs. Outgoing	- .8	2.97	-2.00	4.40	.71	n.s.
B - Less Intelligent vs. More Intelligent	-3.4	3.17	-2.10	4.12	.79	n.s.
C - Affected by Feelings vs. Emotionally Stable	-1.2	3.05	-1.60	4.12	.25	n.s.
D - Phlegmatic vs. Excitable	- .3	2.00	1.50	3.69	1.36	n.s.
E - Obedient vs. Assertive	-2.2	3.01	1.70	4.50	2.28	p<.05
F - Sober vs. Happy-go-lucky	-1.0	1.76	.30	3.86	.97	n.s.
G - Expedient vs. Conscientious	-1.2	3.05	- .20	3.19	.72	n.s.
H - Shy vs. Venturesome	-1.5	3.95	-1.20	3.05	.19	n.s.
I - Tough-minded vs. Tender-minded	2.3	2.31	-1.30	2.31	3.48	p<.01
J - Vigorous vs. Doubting	1.4	1.65	.10	2.47	1.38	n.s.
N - Forthright vs. Shrewd	-1.5	2.68	2.40	2.41	3.42	p<.01
O - Placid vs. Apprehensive	3.7	2.87	2.10	2.88	1.29	n.s.
Q ₄ - Relaxed vs. Tense	2.1	2.02	2.50	3.75	.30	n.s.

TABLE IX

t-TEST OF THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEANS IN PRE-
MINUS POST TEST ESPQ SCORES OF THE
CONTROL GROUP MALES AND FEMALES

Factor	Males		Females		t	p
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		
A - Reserved vs. Outgoing	- .50	1.93	- .12	1.13	.50	n.s.
B - Less Intelligent vs. More Intelligent	- .25	1.60	- .25	1.83	0	n.s.
C - Affected by Feelings vs. Emotionally Stable	.25	1.22	.75	2.38	.62	n.s.
D - Phlegmatic vs. Excitable	.42	1.51	- .62	1.51	1.51	n.s.
E - Obedient vs. Assertive	- .33	2.61	- .38	2.00	.05	n.s.
F - Sober vs. Happy-go-lucky	.92	1.08	- .50	1.77	2.22	p<.05
G - Expedient vs. Conscientious	-1.08	2.07	- .62	1.85	.51	n.s.
H - Shy vs. Venturesome	.25	2.34	.25	1.83	0	n.s.
I - Tough-minded vs. Tender-minded	-1.08	1.83	- .25	1.16	1.13	n.s.
J - Vigorous vs. Doubting	.37	2.90	.62	1.60	.25	n.s.
N - Forthright vs. Shrewd	1.00	2.00	.50	1.41	.61	n.s.
O - Placid vs. Apprehensive	- .92	1.73	- .50	1.07	.12	n.s.
Q ₄ - Relaxed vs. Tense	.33	2.02	-1.00	2.14	1.41	n.s.

comparing male and female difference scores, for the experimental and control groups, respectively. None of the factors for either the experimental or the control groups reflect any significant differences between male and female subjects.

TABLE X

t-TEST OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS PRE-MINUS POST-TEST PIERS-HARRIS SCORES OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP MALES AND FEMALES

Factor	Male		Female		<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>
	Means	S.D.	Means	S.D.		
1 - Behavior, "I am good, bad etc."	3.90	3.51	1.30	3.30	1.71	n.s.
2 - Intelligence and School Status	1.50	5.56	5.70	3.16	2.08	n.s.
3 - Physical Appearance	1.30	4.09	3.10	1.91	1.26	n.s.
4 - Anxiety; cry easily often afraid etc.	.80	3.43	1.20	3.19	.27	n.s.
5 - General Popularity	1.50	3.50	2.50	3.34	.65	n.s.
6 - Happiness and Satisfaction	1.50	2.21	1.50	2.42	.00	n.s.

TABLE XI

t-TEST OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS PRE-
MINUS POST-TEST PIERS-HARRIS SCORES
OF THE CONTROL GROUP
MALES AND FEMALES

Factor	Male		Female		<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>
	Means	S.D.	Means	S.D.		
1 - Behavior, "I am good, bad etc."	.92	3.80	-1.38	4.27	1.26	n.s.
2 - Intelligence and School Status	-.50	4.03	-.50	3.96	.00	n.s.
3 - Physical Appearance	.17	3.49	-1.38	1.85	1.14	n.s.
4 - Anxiety; cry easily often afraid etc.	.50	2.47	-.88	1.64	1.38	n.s.
5 - General Popularity	-.75	2.34	-.88	3.18	.11	n.s.
6 - Happiness and Satisfaction	.17	3.19	-.38	1.92	.42	n.s.

Analysis of the Findings

The statistical results of the ESPQ, The Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale, and a Teacher Judgment Survey have been presented in this chapter. The data treatment was made to determine whether the self-concept of children in the primary grades could be enhanced and whether or not any significant differences might exist because of sex. The data were treated using t-test of significance and chi-square.

From the Early School Personality Questionnaire it was found that three of the thirteen factors show significant gains for experimental group subjects when the correlated pairs of means are computed by subtracting post- from pre-test scores and treating for each factor. The subjects in the experimental group show gains in intellectual development, becoming less apprehensive, and becoming more relaxed. When the data for the control group are similarly treated no significant differences are obtained.

In comparing t-tests for the differences between uncorrelated means for the experimental and control group, it was found that the experimental group scores are significantly greater than the control group scores on four of the thirteen factors. These four factors are increased intellectual ability, greater emotional stability, less apprehension, and a more relaxed attitude.

Positive results were obtained when the data were similarly treated for the Piers-Harris Test. When comparing the pre- minus post-test results for the experimental group five of the six factors proved significant. The five factors are improved behavior, increased intellectual and school status, improved physical appearance, general popularity, and happiness and satisfaction. A similar treatment of the data for the control group subjects produced no significant results.

When t-tests for the difference between uncorrelated means for the experimental and control group were compared, the experimental group scores were found to be significantly greater than the control group scores on four of the six factors. These four factors are improved behavior, increased intelligence and school status, improved physical appearance, and general popularity.

The Teacher Judgment Survey was treated using chi-square tests. Teachers of the children in the experimental group believe that gains were observed on six of the nine factors considered, they were reading ability, writing ability, math ability, increased interest span, increased volume of work, and increased quality of work. Teachers of the control group children believe that they observed significant growth on four of the nine factors. The four factors were reading ability, increased interest span, increased volume of work, and increased quality of work.

When the experimental and control groups were compared for differences significant differences were found in favor of the experimental group for writing ability and math ability.

A treatment of the ESPQ scores for the experimental group shows that significant sex differences exist on three of the thirteen factors, including obedient versus assertive, tough-minded versus tender-minded, and forthright versus

shrewd. A treatment for the control group shows only the sober versus happy-go-lucky factor to be significant. When Piers-Harris scores are similarly treated, no significant differences are found for either the experimental or control group subjects. The Teacher Judgment Survey data also fails to show any significant sex differences to exist in either the experimental or the control group.

Conclusion

From the findings it can be concluded that the self-concepts of some primary grade children may be enhanced to a limited degree. Further, the study produced some evidence to show that the self-concepts of primary grade children might be enhanced, to some extent, by non-teacher-directed activities, essentially by auditory means within the regular classroom.

Because the environment of some summer-school remedial classes tends to be different from that of classes during the regular school term some variables could have confounded the results. The results, therefore, are highly tentative and should not be applied to a more general population.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The problem of the study was to discover whether the self-concepts of selected children in the primary grades could be enhanced. The purpose of the study was to determine the feasibility of using tape-recorded stories to enhance the self-concepts of specially selected primary grade children.

The subjects of the study included forty six- and seven-year-old children enrolled in remedial summer-school programs. Twenty of the children, identified as the experimental group, attended summer school in Commerce, Texas. Ten of the control group children attended summer school in Marshall, Texas and ten, in Henderson, Colorado.

For a period of thirty school days, the children in the experimental group used tape-recorded stories individually. Each child listened to one tape each day Monday through Thursday using each of the four tapes in order 1 through 4. On Friday each child selected any one of the four tapes for a second time. The same tapes were used repeatedly each week in the order described above during the experimental period.

Two instruments were used for the pre- and post-tests. The two instruments were the IPTA Early School Personality

Questionnaire and the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale. The data from the pre- and post-tests were subjected to the t-test of significance to find the relationships existing between the means. To help identify academic achievement as a possible correlate of enhancement of self-concept, an observation checklist entitled Teacher Judgment of Academic Activity and Attitude Change Survey was used. This survey relied upon teacher observation of behavior and evaluation of daily work samples to determine growth in nine areas. The survey was evaluated by means of chi-square tests. Comparison of information regarding sex differences was also made from the data in the study.

The children in the experimental group showed significant gains ($p < .01$) on three of thirteen factors, including increased intellectual ability, increased confidence, and relaxed attitude, measured by the Early School Personality Questionnaire when correlated pairs of means were computed by subtracting post- from pre-test scores and subsequently treating for each factor. When the data for the control group were similarly treated, no significant differences were obtained. When t-tests for the differences between uncorrelated means for the experimental and control groups were compared it was found that the scores of the experimental group were significantly greater than the scores of the control group on three of the thirteen factors, including intellectual ability, increased confidence, and relaxed attitude, ($p < .01$) and a fourth, factor, emotional stability, ($p < .05$).

More positive results were obtained when the data were similarly treated for the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale. When comparing the pre- minus post-test results for the experimental group, four of the six factors, including better behavior, school status, emotional stability, and satisfaction were found to be significant ($p < .01$), and one factor, popularity, ($p < .05$). There were no significant changes on any of the factors between the pre- and post-test scores for the control group. A comparison between the experimental and control group, t-tests for the differences between uncorrelated means showed a significance for two factors, improved school status and increased popularity at ($p < .01$); and two factors, improved behavior and physical appearance at ($p < .05$).

The Teacher Judgment of Academic Activity and Attitude Change Survey was treated using chi-square tests. Teachers of the experimental group children believed that they observed gains on four of the nine factors, including reading ability, writing ability, arithmetic ability, and quality of work, at the .001 level of significance; and two factors, increased interest span and volume of work done, at the .01 level of significance. The teachers of the children in the control group believed that they observed significant growth on three of the nine factors, including reading ability, increased interest span, and volume of work done, at the .001 level of significance; and one factor, quality of work done, at the .01 level of significance. When teacher responses for the experimental and control groups were

compared, one factor, arithmetic ability, showed significantly greater at the .01 level, and another, writing ability, at the .02 level.

A treatment of the Early School Personality Questionnaire showed significant sex differences among experimental group subjects in favor of the boys on three of thirteen factors. The factors showing gains were greater independence ($p < .05$), greater restraint ($p < .01$), and more forthrightness ($p < .01$). For the control group the one significant factor in favor of the boys was greater enthusiasm ($p < .05$).

When the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale scores were similarly treated for sex differences, no significant differences were found for either the experimental or control groups. The Teacher Judgment of Academic Activity and Attitude Change Survey also failed to show that any significant sex differences existed in either the experimental or control groups.

Conclusions

From an analysis of the data the following conclusions are derived from the study.

1. Some enhancement of the self-concepts of primary grade children seems possible.
2. The self-concepts of primary grade children may be enhanced to a degree by non-teacher directed activities.
3. To some extent, the self-concepts of primary grade children might be enhanced by auditory means within the regular classroom.

4. Since the limited population used for the study was selected from remedial summer classes in three widely separated areas, the results cannot be generalized to general school populations.

Recommendations

Several areas of research, relative to the problem of the study, merit further investigation.

A similar study might be conducted using children during the regular school year. Such a study could be designed to control a number of confounding variables and to produce results that could be applied to a more general population. The recommendations for such a study are

1. The study should be conducted in a large school district where all of the low self-concept children at a given grade level could be identified with standardized testing instruments.

2. The classroom teachers might help in the selection of low self-concept children by means of specially developed criterion measures.

3. The subjects should be randomly selected from a much larger number of children to eliminate the possibility of biased selection due to extreme scores.

4. By gathering the data within the regular classroom during the regular school year, the situation would be more typical, and thus more valid results might be obtained.

5. By applying the treatment over a longer period of time, the teacher may be able to observe the effects more clearly. Any possible effects of initial testing upon post-testing may be greatly reduced.

Such a study might be helpful in answering questions regarding peer influences, the importance of class size, the duration of enhancement, the extent of enhancement, the relationship between self-concept and academic achievement, the tolerance of primary grade children for prolonged treatment, and teacher attitudes toward conducting such activities for enhancement of the self-concept.

Studies should be conducted to determine the relative value of simultaneous visual and auditory presentations for the enhancement of self-concept. Research to determine more precisely the effect on children as they listen to stories of a positive and reinforcing nature is also recommended.

Finally, it is recommended that educators seriously study the importance of self-concept development as a necessary concomitant of learning, realizing that successful school achievement may, to a large extent, be determined by the manner in which children view themselves.

APPENDIX A

TEACHER JUDGMENT OF ACADEMIC ACTIVITY
AND ATTITUDE CHANGE

Child: _____ Teacher: _____

In your opinion has this child made better than average improvement during the research period?

	Yes	No	Uncertain
1. Ability to read			
2. Ability to write			
3. Ability to do arithmetic			
4. Attitude toward school			
5. Attitude toward peers			
6. Ability to get along with peers			
7. Increased length of interest span			
8. Increased volume of work done			
9. Increased quality of work done			

Are work samples available to verify items 1, 2, & 3? Yes ___ No ___

Comments _____

APPENDIX B

STORY PRESENTATION RECORD

Name: _____ Date: _____

1. Homer Didn't Give a Hoot
2. A Rabbit Who Could Not Hop
3. The Little Engine That Could
4. It Takes Two

First Week

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

Third Week

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

Fifth Week

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

Second Week

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

Fourth Week

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

Sixth Week

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

APPENDIX C

INTEREST INVENTORY FOR STORY PRESENTATION

Name: _____ Date: _____

	High	Average	Low	Very Low
1st week	_____	_____	_____	_____
2nd week	_____	_____	_____	_____
3rd week	_____	_____	_____	_____
4th week	_____	_____	_____	_____
5th week	_____	_____	_____	_____
6th week	_____	_____	_____	_____

ANECDOTAL RECORD

- | | yes | no |
|--------------------------------------------|-------|-------|
| 1. Wanted to repeat the listening activity | _____ | _____ |
| 2. Wanted to discuss story with teacher | _____ | _____ |
| 3. Wanted to discuss story with peers | _____ | _____ |
| 4. Was nervous or fidgety | _____ | _____ |
| 5. Went to sleep while listening | _____ | _____ |
| 6. Refused to listen to tapes in sequence | _____ | _____ |
| 7. Refused to listen to tapes on some days | _____ | _____ |
| 8. Refused to listen to a particular tape | _____ | _____ |
| 9. Other observations _____ | _____ | _____ |

Teacher: _____

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