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## THE POSITIVE SELF-EVALUATION OF SELECTED ADOLESCENTS LIVING IN GROUP CARE

by

Punthip Bekanan

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree Doctor of Philosophy

> Greensboro May, 1974

> > Approved by

tation

#### APPROVAL SHEET

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the Graduate School at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

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Date of Examination

BEKANAN, PUNTHIP. The Positive Self-Evaluation of Selected Adolescents Living in Group Care. (1974) Directed by: Dr. Helen Canaday. Pp. 124.

The study was conducted to examine the effects of the positive self-evaluation of others on the self-evaluations. of the 120 subjects residing on the Mills Home Campus, Thomasville, one of the Baptist Children's Homes of North Carolina, Inc. Rubin's Self-Esteem Scale, which was developed by Roger Rubin, of the Pennsylvania State University in a Master's study with fifth and sixth graders in North Philadelphia, was used in the present study. Rubin's questionnaire is divided into four parts, each adapted by the author from other instruments designed to measure selfconcept. Only parts II, III, and IV were used in the present study. Rubin's scales were administered to all population by their houseparents prior to the treatment. The treatment was conducted on the Mills Home campus. Subjects were randomly assigned into six experimental groups, each containing 20 subjects. Each of the experimental groups was given one of six positive self-descriptive paragraphs written by an imaginary pen pal in conjunction with Rubin's Self-Esteem Scale which was positively completed by a pen pal of different age levels: adolescent, adulthood or an older person. The subjects then wrote paragraphs describing themselves and completed Rubin's Self-Esteem Scale as the self-introductions to their pen pals. The data were analyzed in three phases: (1) the major analysis, a

<u>3 x 2 x 2</u> factorial design was used to examine pre-post changes obtained from Rubin's scales produced by three factors: age of the models, sex of the models (opposite or same of subjects), and grade levels of subjects; (2) a oneway analysis of variance was used to examine effects of length of time subjects spent in the Mills Home on subjects' scores obtained from Rubin's <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u>; (3) a posthoc multiple comparison procedure, the Newman-Kuels test was used to analyze differences between means of <u>B</u> Factor (age of models) because <u>F</u> value was significant at the .01 level of confidence.

The primary findings of the study indicate that:

1. The self concept of selected adolescents can be influenced positively by a short term experimental procedure.

2. The self concept in this particular study was affected by age of the model to which the subject was exposed and not by sex of model, grade level of subjects, or length of time the subjects had resided in the Mills Home.

3. Further studies regarding the reliability and validity of Rubin's scale are warranted.

4. Further studies dealing with the influence and measurement of self concept of different groups of adolescents are justified.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author wishes to express her appreciation to Dr. Helen Canaday, her adviser, for her patience, guidance, and assistance throughout the implementation and writing of this study. Sincere appreciation is extended to Dr. John Christian Busch, Dr. James Allen Watson, Dr. Mary Elizabeth Keister, and Dr. Eloise Lewis, members of the advisory committee, for their assistance and cooperation in the study.

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

																					·		rage
ACKN	OWLI	EDGME	NTS.	•	ė	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	iii
LIST	OF	TABL	es .	• •	•	•	, •	ė	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	٠	•	•	•	•	•	•	vi
CHA P	TER	•																		. •			•
	I.	INT	RODI	JCT	101	<b>N</b> .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1
		S	tate	eme	nt	01	f t	she	ə F	rc	b]	Len	1.	•	•	•	•	•	è	•	•	•	3
			Hyı	potl	hes	308	3.	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	•	•	•	4
			Ass De 1	in:	pti iti	L or L or	ns n c	f	Те	• rn		•	•. •	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	· 5
		L	imit	tat	ior	າສ	of	a .	the	• S	stu	ıd y	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	6
]	II.	REV	IEW	OF	L	[T]	ERA	1TI	URE		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	8
		T	he or	·y.	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	8
		T E	echr nvi:	niq ron	ue: mei	s ( nte	of al	A] Fa	opr act	ai ;or	.s 's	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	13 16
		C	hang hilo	ze ire:	in n :	Se In	əlf Ir	"-( 18	Con tit	ice ut	pt i	; ons	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	17 23
I	II.	PRO	CEDI	JRE	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	29
		I	ns tr	um	en	t.	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	29
		S	ubje	ect	9 .	•	٠	٠	٠	٠	•	•	•	٠	٠	٠	٠	•	٠	٠	٠	٠	32
		H	ouse	apa:	rei	nτs	3.	٠	٠	٠	٠	٠	•	•	•	٠	•	•	٠	٠	٠	•	55 21
		. M S	etno tet	oa. Ist		l	År	• าย	lvs	iis	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	34 36
	τv	RES.	UL U.	2									•	•			•	•		•	•	-	10
•	T A 9	1030	ODIC	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	4~
	v.	DIS	CUSS	310	N.	•	•	٠	٠	•	٠	٠	•	•	•	٠	٠	•	٠	•	•	•	49
		H	ypot	the	<b>9</b> 0	<b>3</b> .	٠	•	•	•	•	•	٠	٠	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	49
			Нур	pot	he:	si	a ]	L.	٠	•	•	•	•	٠	٠	٠	٠	٠	٠	٠	•	٠	50
			Hyp	pot	hes	<b>5</b> 1:	32	2.	٠	٠	٠	٠	٠	. •	٠	٠	٠	٠	٠	٠	٠	٠	54
			Hy	pot	he	si	3 J	3.	٠	٠	٠	٠	۲	•	٠	٠	٠	٠	•	٠	٠	٠	55
			Нуј	pot	he:	<b>31</b>	s L	+•	٠	٠	•	٠	٠	٠	٠	٠	•	٠	٠	٠	•	•	58
		P	roce	e du	rø	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	62
		S	umme	ary	•		•	•		•			•	•	•	•	•	•	•		٠	•	63

•					,										
<b>CHAPTER</b>														Pa	ge
VI.	SUM	MARY	AND CO	NCLUS	IONS		•	•	•	•	• •	•	•	•	64
• •	Re It	esult mplic	s ations	for	Furth	er Re		arc	• h	•	• •	•	,• •		66 67
BIBLI OGR	APHY	• •	•••	• • •	• •	• • •	•	•	•	•	• •	•	•		72
APPENDIX	A:	RUBI	N's SE	LF ES	TEEM	SCALE		• .	•	•	•	•	•		78
APPENDIX	B:	DESC	RIPTIV	E PAR	AGRAP	HS	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		93
APPENDIX	C:	BACK	GROUND	INFO	RMATI	ON	•	•	•	•	• •	•	•		97
APPENDIX	D:	INST	RUCTIO	ns to	STUD	ents.	•	•	•	•	• •	•	•	נ	.03
APPENDIX	E:	RAW	SCORES		••	• • •	•	•	•	•	• •	•	•	1	.06
· ·															
													•		
						4									
															• .

.

. t .

v

.

## LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1	Analysis of Variance of Difference Scores Obtained from the Pretest and Posttest on Rubin's Self-Esteem Scale	42
2	Means and Standard Deviation of Difference Scores After an Addition of a Constant (Main Effects)	44
3	Cell Means and Standard Deviations of Dif- ference Scores	44
4	Post Hoc Comparison of Difference Scores for Age of the Models in the Descriptive Paragraphs ( <u>B</u> Factor)	45
5	Means and Standard Deviation of Difference Scores Produced by Length of Time Sub- jects Had Resided in the Mills Home	46
6	Difference Scores Analyzed According to Length of Time Subjects Hed Resided in the Mills Home	46
7	Summation Scores for Each Cell in <u>3x2x2</u> Factorial Design.	122
8	Hartley's F Max Test for Homogeneity of Variance on the Self-Esteem Scale Scores of All Groups of Subjects	123
9	Hartley's <u>F</u> Max Test for Homogeneity of Variance on the <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> Scores Produced by the Length of Time Subjects Resided at the Mills Home	124

# CHAPTER I

#### INTRODUCTION

Not all children live in the same environment nor do all children live in intact families. Many children for a multiplicity of reasons grow up in institutions. The findings of researchers (Freud, A., 1944; Knights, 1962) have indicated that many needs are not met in institutionalized children. One crucial aspect of each individual's development is the formation of his set of self-feelings or his self-concept. Maslow (1970) suggested that the need for self-esteem, self-respect and for the esteem of others is one of the basic needs in the hierarchy of human needs. This need, he noted, entails a stable, firmly based, high self-evaluation.

Mead (1934) indicated that the structure of the individual's self expresses or reflects the general behavior pattern of the social group to which he belongs. Therefore, the fact that a child grows up in an institutional setting seems likely to influence the development of his selfconcept. According to Ausubel (1970) self-concept is an essential identifying characteristic of the individual and is in essence an abstraction of those essential characteristics of the person which differentiates his "selfhood" from the environment and from other selves. Perkins (1958) described the self-concept as the perceptions, beliefs, feelings, attitudes and values which the person perceives as describing himself. The nature of these feelings determines whether the individual thinks well or poorly of himself, that is, whether he is high self-esteem or low self-esteem.

A major question that needs further research is the current state of mental health of institutionalized children. Assuming that care for these children has been vastly improved since the classic study of Ribble (1943), one would conjecture that the normal development projected by Spitz (1946) should have occurred. One way to examine the mental health question is to measure the self-concept of institutionalized children.

A topic often considered in the definition of selfesteem or self-concept is the most appropriate way to produce positive change. The Festinger cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957) predicted that the self-concept will change in the direction of overt behavior relating to it. Gergen and Morse (1970) demonstrated that self-esteem is lower after exposure to a negative stimulus person and is higher after exposure to a positive stimulus person.

Birren (1964) suggested that expectations of society and others vary according to a person's position in the life span. What is acceptable behavior in one phase is not always acceptable in another. Adolescents in institutional

living arrangements may not have many contacts with persons in the different age categories, so their perception of behavior of persons in these categories may differ from adolescents living in intact families.

By the time children approach adolescence, they are able to perceive age-related differences between adult age groups and have developed different attitudes toward adults in the various phases of the life span (Hickey and Kalish, 1968). Cottage living in an institution giving child care provides for another kind of extended family living. There are numbers of studies on the self-concept but in the lest 20 years none have been carried on in an attempt to investigate the self-evaluation of children living in cottage type family settings.

Assuming that self-esteem can be changed in a measurable fashion, the present study was designed to examine change in self-evaluation of adolescents in groupcare after exposure to the positive self-evaluation of persons of different age levels.

#### Statement of the Froblem

The purpose of the study was to examine the effect of a model on changes in self-evaluations of adolescents living in group care. More specifically, the major research question was: Does the positive self-evaluation of a model affect the self-evaluations of adolescents living in group

care? A further research question was: Does the age, or sex of the model affect the self-evaluations of adolescents living in group care? Finally the question was asked: Was there a differential effect of age or sex of the model according to the grade level of adolescents\_in group care?

#### Hypotheses

This study tested four hypotheses. These hypotheses were stated in the affirmative.

Hypothesis 1: There will be significant differences in the subjects' <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> difference scores produced by variations in ages of the models in the descriptive paragraphs: adolescent, adult, and old person.

Hypothesis 2: There will be significant differences in the subjects' <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> difference scores produced by sex of the models (opposite or same of subjects) in the descriptive paragraphs.

Hypothesis 3: There will be significant differences in the subjects' <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> difference scores produced by subjects' different grade levels: grades five, six, seven, as compared to grades eight, nine and ten.

Hypothesis 4: There will be significant differences in subjects' <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> difference scores produced by differences in length of subjects' residence in the Mills Home, i.e. less than two years, two to four years, more than four years.

#### Assumptions

For this study it was assumed that:

1. Self-concept is a measurable construct that has been influenced by similar experimental procedures in the past and thus should be amenable to experimental manipulation.

2. Each questionnaire was completed independently to prevent response biases i.e., each response represented the subject's original idea and was not influenced by what the other subjects in the group wrote.

3. Possible sensitizing effects of the pretest on the posttest were eliminated because of the four-week interval between administrations of the pretest and posttest.

#### Definition of Terms

For purposes of this investigation the following definitions were used:

<u>Children in group care--Children who had been placed</u> in the Mills Home for these reasons:

- A crisis or series of crises in the family which necessitated that the children be placed in institutional care.
- 2. The death of, or the permanent physical or mental disability of one or both parents.

3. Desertion by parent or parents.

4. Separation from a foster home or one institution to another institution.

<u>Houseparents</u>--A houseparent was a person employed by the Mills Home to live with, care for and serve as parents to the children in the cottage. All members of the population of the present study were supervised by houseparents and the houseparents assisted in the administration of the instrument used in the study.

<u>Age</u>--In this study, age was defined by three categories: adolescence, adulthood, and old age. The age given in the adolescent self-evaluation was 12 years, the approximate age of the subjects. Age 40 was selected for the self-evaluation of the adult. This age was arbitrarily selected as being representative of the middle years of maturity. It is an age at which many adults have reached the height of their responsibility and power. For the selfevaluation description of an old person, age 75 was selected since, according to Birren (1964), 75 years of age represents the division between the life stages of later maturity and old age.

#### Limitations of the Study

The limitations of the study were:

1. The subjects consisted of a restricted random sample, in that all subjects were members of and lived on the Mills Home campus. Therefore, the generalizability of

the implications of the findings is limited to a similar group of subjects.

2. The data were obtained by the use of a structured questionnaire which delimited the subjects' choice of response. For example, the study was concerned with the effects of positive self-evaluation of persons in different stages of the life span on subjects' <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> scores. Since an individual's self-concept is composed of both positive and negative self-perceptions, this study, by necessity, dealt with only one aspect of the total selfconcept.

3. The conditions under which treatment was administered were unfavorable since it was necessary to conduct the experiment at 7:30 P.M., after the subjects had completed numerous other strenuous activities. They showed fatigue, a condition which might have decreased their interest in the treatment procedure.

4. The assignment of the experimenters to the various groups was not in the control of the senior experimenter. Thus some unknown sources of bias on the part of the Director of Cottage Life may have been operative in that he exercised the prerogative of assigning the experimenters to the various groups.

#### CHAPTER II

#### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A search of the literature relating to self-concept The first was theoretical has revealed two types of data. speculation on the nature of the self-concept, the factors that influence its formation and the environmental conditions necessary for optimal development. The second type of data was research findings on self-concept. This review will first cover theoretical speculations of self-concept, then research findings will be reviewed in four phases. The first research part will cover techniques of appraisal, secondly research into environmental factors relating to self-concept will be reviewed. The third facet of research to be reviewed will be research attempts to change selfconcept and finally research on children in institutions.

#### Theory

The self-concept and its development have long been of concern to social and behavioral scientists. McCandless (1961) stated that "man has long held the hope of answering such questions as: Who am I? What am I? How did I come to be this way?--and their logical consequence, the search for purpose: Why am I? (p. 173)." In order to better understand the intangible term self-concept, one must look at the writings and opinions of experts in the field.

Sullivan (1947) noted that the self-concept tends to maintain the direction and characteristics which it was given in infancy and childhood. Sullivan, however, gives importance to experience in stating that the self-concept is influenced by personal contacts, first in unstructured situations with the family and later in more structured situations with teachers and peers. He noted that the selfconcept is not fixed but is modified by every life experience through the maturing years. Lebenne (1968) indicated that "Interpersonal theory holds that self-concept is built or achieved through accumulated social experiences and contacts (p. 17)."

Ausubel (1970) stated that the self-concept is a composite of feelings and values concerning the self. He characterized self-concept as "an abstraction of the essential and distinguishing characteristics of the self that differentiate an individual's self-hood from the environment and from other selves (p. 245)."

Brownfain (1952) defined self-concept as a system of central meanings one has about himself and his relations to the world around him, while Perkins (1958) described it as perceptions, beliefs, feelings, attitudes, and values which to the individual describe himself.

Social scientists have been interested in studying the self-concept and its relationship to the total personality for many years. The assumption which underlies their work is that the individual's conception of himself crystallizes during his childhood and remains relatively stable thereafter.

Erikson (1963), in his theory of personality development, gave importance to identity, which he defines as the individual's link with the unique values fostered by a unique history of his people and related also to the cornerstone of this individual's unique development. Identity formation, according to Erikson, is dependent upon the process by which a society (often through sub-societies) identifies an individual, recognizing him as someone who had to become the way he is and who, being the way he is, is taken for granted.

Stoke (1950) formulated the following list of factors which influence identification and which emphasize the interrelation of self-concept and identification.

- 1. Biological fact of sex and its predisposition to some form of behavior.
- 2. The social pressures upon children to identify with their own sex.
- 3. The degree of affection accorded to the child by the person with whom identification is attempted.
- 4. The extent to which the child's needs are gratified by the person with whom identification is attempted.

- 5. The degree of acquaintance with the identified person.
- 6. Clarity of role of the person with whom identification is attempted.
- 7. Attitude of influential persons toward the person with whom identification is attempted.
- 8. Capacity of the child to be like the person he is identifying with.
- 9. Temperament of the child in relation to the person identified with.
- 10. Existence of strong needs on the part of the child which conflict or coincide with requirements and pattern of the person with whom identifying (Campbell, 1970, p. 10).

Brown (1965) suggested that the self-concept is created by a process of impression formation much like the process by which conception of others is created and that the individual's conceptions of the self and other persons are highly interdependent entities.

Ausubel (1970) differentiates the self-concept according to the ego-development of a child. He stated that:

At preverbal stage the self-concept is a complex ideal and entity that is slow in developing and usually requires the facilitating influence of language. Nevertheless the child possesses a functional perception of self, i.e., of the distinction between that which is within and that which is beyond the borders of his own body long before he acquires any language. At the verbal stage the abstraction of a unified concept of self from its component precepts will occur. During the period from six months to two and one-half years a functional self-concept may be designated as the omnipotent phase (the child's greatest helplessness and dependence on adults). When the child gets to the period of the ego devaluation crisis, he begins to appreciate and perceive more accurately his relative insignificance and impotence in the household power

structure. As a consequence of ego devaluation, the situation is precisely reversed, increased executive dependence is required along with greater volitional dependence. And when the child grows through the ego maturation crisis, he will develop the attenuation of hedonistic motivation; the acquisition of increased executive independence and frustration tolerance; the development of greater moral responsibility, more realistic levels of aspiration, and more self-critical ability; and the abandonment of special claim on other's indulgence (Ausubel, 1970, pp. 255-280).

Cooley (1902) was the first to suggest the phrase "the looking glass self," and he contended that one's self idea has three principal elements: the imagination of the way one appears to another; the imagination of the other person's judgment of that appearance; and some sort of selffeeling like pride or mortification. It is not then the actual appearance one has to another person which helps to form his self-concept, but rather what he imagines the other's perception of his appearance to be.

The expression of a person's concept about himself may be viewed as self-esteem. Characteristics of selfesteem have been stated by a number of researchers, but were very aptly indicated by Maslow, who defined self-esteem as

- (1) The individual's general attitude about the world, particularly the people in it; his assumption as to how the world feels toward him, whether it loves him or not, whether it accepts or rejects him, whether it helps him or threatens him; if it threatens him, in what way, and how he feels toward a world that he perceives as threatening. This set of reactions we shall call security feeling.
- (2) The individual's image and evaluation of himself--his own resources, his prestige, his strength, his worth, his body, his functions.

This group of feelings we shall sum up under the category of self-evaluation or self-esteem (Maslow, 1941, p. 131).

Maslow (1965) indicated that satisfaction or thwarting of this basic need is crucial in mental health. Satisfaction in this area leads to feelings of self-confidence, worth, strength, capability, and adequacy of being useful in the world. On the other hand thwarting of self-esteem needs produces feelings of inferiority, weakness, and helplessness, which in turn lead to either basic discouragement or compensatory or neurotic trends.

Maslow (1970) further indicated that the most stable and the most healthy self-esteem is based on deserved respect from others rather than on external fame and unwarranted adulation. He also suggested that the actual competence and achievement is based on sheer will power, determination and responsibility, from that which comes naturally and easily out of one's own true inner nature, one's constitution, one's biological fate and destiny.

#### Techniques of Appraisal

Horney (1972) suggested that clinicians have developed means to get a quick though very approximate look at the images of self by asking people to describe their "me" in relation to the here and now (actual self), a desired model (ideal self or self-ideal), the presumed perception by others, or other additional referents. Bourisseau (1972) reviewed techniques for appraisal of self concept. He found both projective and informal techniques.

<u>Projective</u>. A person is projecting when he ascribes to another person a trait or desire of his own that would be painful for his ego to admit. Since the act of projecting is an unconscious mechanism, it is not communicated to others nor is it even recognized as a projection by the person himself. There are different types of projective techniques:

1. Figure Drawing.

2. Sentence completion: This is a feasible technique which can be adapted to a variety of purposes. It can be used with both children and teenagers to reveal the subject's conscious concerns, fears, wishes, attitudes, and feelings.

3. Picture stories: This technique is constructed by using pictures to stimulate children to create their own stories based on experience. These instruments must be used individually and a series of stories is necessary to gain insight for clinical evaluation. Examples of the instruments are <u>The Thematic Apperception Test</u> (TAT) and the <u>Chil</u>dren's Apperception Test (CAT).

4. Self vs Self-Ideal Inventories technique:

a. Rating Scale

14:

b. Q Sort

c. Personality Adjustment Inventory

5. The Semantic Differential Technique: the subject is asked to determine where he sees himself on the continuum between negative and positive poles. Examples of this type instrument are the Hodgkin Self-Concept Scale for children, Preschool Self-Concept and Picture test.

6. Sociometric technique: the subject's classmates or friends select "stars" or "isolates" in the group.

<u>Informal techniques</u>. Among the informal techniques which are used in evaluation of self-concept are found both verbal and non-verbal ones:

1. Verbal techniques:

 a. The technique is to listen to comments the subject makes to the teacher and his verbal interaction with peers to obtain insights into the child's perception of himself.

b. Puppetry

c. Autobiography (verbal description)

2. Non verbal techniques:

a. Teacher Observation

b. Handwriting Characteristics

c. Speech

d. Role in Free Play

e. Muscle Coordination

All research into self-concept, must, of course, use some technique to measure the concept. The present study has chosen a formal technique.

#### Environmental Factors

Many researchers have pointed out that self-concept is influenced by the learning process, and that the selfconcept changes through the environment in which individuals operate (McCandless, 1961; Engel, 1959; Festinger, 1957). In a study of 251 children, Perkins (1958) attempted to pinpoint factors which influence changes in a child's developing self-concept. He found that the self-concepts and ideal selves of children become increasingly and significantly congruent through time, and that the congruencies of girls generally are significantly higher than those of boys. Sixth grade children and children whose teachers had completed courses in the child study showed significantly greater self-ideal, self-congruence than both fourth grade children and children whose teachers had never participated in a child study program.

Campbell (1970) conducted a study to determine the inter-relationship of some of the aspects of the self-social concept and to determine the relationship of the self-social concept to age, sex, intelligence, achievement, number of siblings, number of years in a preschool program, and separation from biological father. The study consisted of 67 three-, four-, five-, and six-year-old Negro children from poverty areas and who were participating in the Durham (N.C.) Education Improvement program. She found a relationship between the self-social concept and the behavior of young children and indicated that separation from the biological father does not necessarily have a negative effect on the self-social concept of the child.

Stotland and Zender (1958) noted that an individual's opinion of himself (self-concept) is likely to be affected by the evaluation of his performance which he attributes to others rather than any objective evaluation of his performance. The greater the validity he attributes to the other's judgments, the more effect that judgment has.

#### Change in Self-Concept

Attempts to change self-concept have generally been either to evaluate the developmental process, or to reverse an assumed negative self-concept.

McCandless (1961) stated that "change in self-concept is required by the process of maturing and is central to such activities as counseling, psychotherapy, and remedial teaching (p. 198)."

Engel (1959) demonstrated that adolescents improve in self-concept over a two-year period, without therapy or other special attempts to change their self-image. Of the group she studied, those with initially negative self-concepts improved the most, while youngsters with good self-concepts maintain their original status.

Festinger (1957) investigated the conditions necessaty for change in self-concept. He stated that the change will be greater:

- (1) If the behavior is induced by low pressure,
- (2) Accompanies a high degree of freedom of choice, or,
- (3) If the behavior is likely to have tangible consequences.

McCandless (1961, p. 100) suggests that:

Shifts in the importance of value of facets of the self-concept will occur when the individual is forced to choose behavior that is related to one facet but excludes another. These shifts will be to the advantage of the facet to which the chosen behavior is relevant.

Dinkmeyer (1970) conducted a program of self-concept improvement by using the teacher as a counselor. He stated that:

He who can counsel children must:

- risk being involved with personal relationships
- extend himself to listen, hear and care
- empathize with what children experience
- understand what they say
- help them develop self-understanding and commitment, involvement in action programs (p. 314).

In order to assist each child to achieve developmental tasks, the teacher must help him in understanding himself and others. It is apparent, therefore, that as the teacher becomes involved in understanding, accepting, clarifying, encouraging, building adequate self-concepts, he inevitably takes on specific guidance functions. Only the regular classroom teacher, assisted by a competent consultant, can enable us to reach all children and maximize emotional growth (Dinkmeyer, 1970).

Many programs have been conducted in different parts of the country to help children with the problems of their self-concepts.

Another therapeutic program with the purpose of helping children to develop their self-concept is the Columbia Project Transfer conducted in Columbia, Mississippi. The objective of the Columbia Project Transfer was to improve the problem student's self-concept. On the rationale that a child's self-image is enhanced by each successful experience he has, Project Transfer attempted to provide more opportunities for success essentially by broadening the scope of classroom activities in Grades 1-8 (Brewer, 1970).

The project staff works with 67 faculty members on various inservice training activities to help them become more aware of the importance of self-concept. Project Transfer concentrates on the development of the faculty's competency in using the positive approach. Teachers involved in Project Transfer try to discover and cultivate something unique in every student. Then the teacher builds upon this success and tries to encourage its carry-over into areas. Because all the project services and activities are worked into the curriculum by teacher planning and teacher use, most of the faculty now realize the importance of offering more of a variety of opportunities for achievement in their classrooms.

Since a strong self-concept comes from the mirror held up by others, teachers have also learned that

one of the best ways to prevent dropouts is to concentrate on finding the right mirror for their students (Brewer, 1970, p. 55).

Bishop (1973) examined the self evaluations of adolescents in relation to the positive self-evaluation of a significant other. In this study, 90 seventh graders, 45 boys and 45 girls who were enrolled in Asheboro Junior High School, comprised the experimental groups. Controls were provided by a comparable group of 90 subjects from a school serving the same population as the first. Randomization was effected throughout the study as subjects were randomly assigned to groups selected from their respective schools. The independent variable in this study was positive self evaluations of other persons, while the dependent variable was changes in subjects' self-evaluation as measured by their scores on Rubin's Self-Esteem Scale (1966). The experimental groups were randomly assigned to equal groups. All subjects were first administered Rubin's Self-Esteem Scale. Two weeks later each experimental subject was exposed to one of six handwritten paragraphs positively describing a person from a selected age level: adolescence, adulthood, and old age. Control subjects received no treatment. Rubin's Self-Esteem Scale was then readministered. Results indicated that exposure to the positive self evaluation of another person positively affected the self-evaluation of the experimental subjects. No differential effects in the

subjects'score were obtained as a result of age or size of the paragraph writer.

In a study of 55 candidates in a college naval training program. Gergen and Taylor (1969) told the subjects that they would be working on a task in two-men teams. They further indicated that the subjects' partners would be working in an adjoining room. Half of the subjects were told that their task was to complete an assignment as efficiently as possible while the other half were instructed that their primary aim was to get along well together. The subjects were then asked to describe themselves as accurately as possible to their partners in writing. Results indicated that subjects in the work condition described themselves as more logical, well-organized, and efficient than they had in descriptions written a month earlier, while the subjects in the social solidarity condition described themselves as more free and easy in disposition, more friendly, and more illogical than they had before. Thus, according to the authors, each group had adopted the proper face for the occasion and when asked, after the experiment, how they had felt about their self-descriptions, more than three-fourths felt they had been completely accurate and honest.

In that same study, Gergen and Taylor (1969) also considered effects of status differences on changes in selfconcept. They found that under conditions emphasizing productivity that both junior and senior members of a hierarchy

described themselves more positively than under conditions stressing social solidarity. Under the productivity condition, low status members exceeded high status ones in positiveness of self-description. Under the social solidarity condition, high status subjects exceeded the lows in selfabasement.

A study by Jones, Gergen, and Jones (1963) was also designed to delineate the effect of status differences upon one's self description under conditions where mutual attraction or accuracy were stressed. Half of the pairs of low and high status personnel in a Naval ROTC program were placed in each condition and asked to exchange written communications about themselves. The researchers concluded that low status subjects conformed more than high as an increasing function of the relevance of the issue to the basis of the hierarchy, that high status subjects became more modest when under pressure to make themselves more attractive, while low status subjects showed the same tendency on important items, but became more self enhancing on less important ones; also that low status subjects were more positive in their public appraisal of the high status subjects than vice versa.

In still another study, Gergen (1972) attempted to find out what changes in self concept occur when individuals want to gain the approval of others. Eighteen undergraduate college women were asked before the experiment began to try

to gain the approval of the interviewer. The researchers observed that all of the subjects identified themselves to the researcher in glowing terms, indicating that they were accepting of others, socially popular, perceptive, and industrious in their work. Students in the control group who had been given no special instructions showed no change.

Attempts to change self-concept have thus fallen into three kinds. The first, using counseling techniques; the second, using a positive model to influence the self-concept through identification; and the third, the manipulation of experimental events.

#### Children in Institutions

A brief review of the emotional effects of institutional care of young children will be presented.

The bulk of the research has examined "negative" emotions in which researchers have tended to analyze inappropriate behavior. In the last fifteen years no study was located which attempted to observe and enumerate the positive aspects of the behavior of institutionalized children. Widely documented findings in the child development literature indicate that from birth infants need intensive mothering (Dawer, 1968; Mussen, 1970; Spitz and Wolf, 1946). These research studies have demonstrated that children who were deprived of proper care evidenced significant emotional,

mental, and social handicaps. Research by Levey (1957) suggests that children need more than the mere attention to basic biological needs. They need additional nurturance of parental love, fondling, and contact if they are to achieve sound physical and emotional health. The paramount significance of love as a basic need was stressed by Montagu (1964) who stated that:

Man is born with a highly organized system of basic needs, the need for oxygen, food, liquid, sleep . . . and avoidance of noxious and dangerous stimuli . . . For healthy mental functioning the most important of all needs is the need for love--not merely the need to be loved but the need also to love others (p. 24).

Many institutionalized children would appear to fall in the category of social and emotional deprivation. A variety of research studies (Edmiston, 1949; Freud, 1944; Knights, 1962) have investigated the physical, mental, and emotional development of such children. General conclusions were that institutionalized children (1) failed to demonstate as much interpersonal attachment behavior, (2) interacted less with strangers, and (3) developed fewer intimate relationships than did groups of children living with parents.

Institutionalized children appear to be particularly susceptible to the loss of selfhood, since they may experience capricious and inconsistent treatment from adults. These children often learn rather quickly that they are "special" and that no one wants or cares for them.

The question whether the development of children reared in an institution is so distorted as to cause permanent damage is still debated by researchers (Freud, A., 1944; Spitz and Wolf, 1946; Yarrow, 1964). No solid proof yet exists, although a great deal of the published evidence points to this conclusion. Contradictory evidence, however, was offered by Spitz and Wolf (1946) when they indicated that if severely deprived institutionalized children receive proper care by the age of five, most of them will develop normally.

The basis for this "proper care" of institutionalized children has been outlined by Cooper (1931) who indicated that certain cravings or drives of these children must be fulfilled if a state of mental health is desired. According to Cooper (1931), these needs are:

- a. Craving for affection, love response, sympathy, and understanding.
- b. Craving for recognition, respect, and status.
- c. Craving for adventure, change, surprise, "thrill," freedom, independence, and initiative (p. 175).

Various investigations have been conducted to study different aspects of adjustment and social living among children in institutional care. One of the first studies that dealt with adjustment problems of institutionalized children was conducted by Edmiston (1949). The purpose of the study was to examine whether institutional children in

public schools showed different adjustment patterns than those attending the orphanages' private schools. There were 1,058 children selected from eight orphanages in Ohio, Indiana, and West Virginia communities. The California Test of Personality was used to measure adjustment and the Otis Quick-Scoring Test of Mental Ability was used to provide intelligence quotients.

From the results obtained, it appeared that some public school experience away from the home led to better self-reliance, but less feeling of belonging. These data signified that contacts outside of the home were desirable and a group accepting these contacts should use every opportunity made available to give the home group the feeling of belonging.

An unusual study of German-Jewish orphans (Freud and Baines, 1946) provides evidence that lack of a consistent mother-figure is not necessarily detrimental to the formation of social attachments. After their parents had been killed, these German-Jewish orphaned children had arrived at the same concentration camp when they were but a few months old. After their arrival at the camp, they were always together as a group. Because the camp where they were assigned was a deportation camp, their caretakers changed very frequently.

The writers observed that when the children were taken to England they exhibited unusual emotional dependence on each other. The children's positive feelings centered
around their own group and there appeared to be almost no jealousy, rivalry, and competition. Because they had experienced most of their satisfaction in each other's presence, they appeared to have developed the kind of attachments for each other that children raised in more normal environments have developed for their biological mothers.

Yarrow (1964) conducted research on the effect of separation from parents during early childhood. In reporting his research, he discussed reactions of children under two years of age following separation from their mothers and their placement in institutional settings.

There was a sequence of responses following separation, beginning with crying and strong protest, followed by progressive withdrawal from the environment and from relationship with people. They also reported that if there were a series of changing mother figures, the child: (1) did not form an attachment to anyone in the hospital or institution, and (2) showed little feeling toward his parents when they visited. Although superficially, the children seemed happy and well adapted to the situation, they acted "as if neither mothering nor any contact with humans had much significance for them." This pattern of "detachment" Robertson and Bowlby considered a precursor of the development of the psychopathic personality of affectionless character (Yarrow, 1964, p. 96).

Other studies have been done on emotional development as well as the mental condition of children without families (separated from families) e.g., the studies by Freud (1944) which were made using orphans after World War II. She found there was an effect of separation from the mother on the

emotional development of the orphans. Freud (1944) sug-

# gested that:

Each child in the institution differs in character traits from every other child. Each child who enters the institution brings with him a complex set of habits, already formed or in the process of formation; a character already molded by innumerable hereditary and acquired influences, by his previous environment as well as by his individual physical, intellectual and temperamental make-up (p. 8).

# CHAPTER III

## PROCEDURE

The major purpose of the present study was to examine changes in the self-evaluations of 120 adolescent subjects after they were exposed to a positive self-evaluation of another individual. The procedure the study followed is described and discussed under the following subheadings: (a) description of the instument; (b) selection and description of the subjects; (c) the administration of the treatment; and (d) analysis of the data.

#### Instrument

The instrument used in the present study was Rubin's (1966) <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u>, a questionnaire devised by Roger Rubin of the Pennsylvania State University in a Master's study with fifth and sixth graders in North Philadelphia. Rubin's scale attempts to measure self-attitudes by asking subjects how they feel about stated characteristics of themselves. Rubin's <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> is divided into four parts which consist of adaptations by the author from other instruments designed to measure self-concept.

Part I of the questionnaire seeks background information on the number of siblings, presence or absence of adults in the household, and family interaction. This part

of the <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> was not used in the present study since such information was not directly relevant to the purposes of the study. Therefore, only Rubin's Part II, Part III, and Part IV were used in the present study and were numbered as Part I, Part II, and Part III. They are presented and discussed in Appendix A.

Rubin's Self-Esteem Scale has been previously used to evaluate the self-concepts of children, preadolescents, and adolescents from intact families (Bishop, 1973; Piers and Harris, 1964; Rubin, 1966). The present investigator stated in the first chapter that there are also children who do not live with their families but who live in group situations and are referred to as institutionalized children or children in group-care. These children live with persons other than parents, who assume the parental role for them. This investigator was interested in investigating the effect of the influence of significant other models on the selfconcepts of such children. Rubin's Self-Esteem Scale was selected for use in this study. Piers and Harris (1964) indicated that the Self-Esteem Scale had been used with institutionalized retarded children who did not live in the normal family setting. Although the subjects in the present study were not retarded, they were institutionalized and Rubin's scale seemed most appropriate for subjects of this type.

Item scoring on Rubin's <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> was based on a system developed by Guttman (Appendix A). Subjects responded to three different scales, checking the answers either yes or no, agree or disagree, or a point on a five point scale ranging from all of the time to not at all. The subject's responses were assigned point values which were summed to yield a composite score.

A Background Information Form, written by the author, both for the subjects and for the houseparents was used (see Appendix B). The experimenter listed the information needed in describing the Mills Home, the houseparents, and subjects. The questions were then arranged on paper in the form of a check list and completion statements. One form was made for the houseparents and one form was made for the adolescents living at the Mills Home. The information regarding the houseparents was originally intended to aid in selection of persons to administer the pretest. However, it was not used since the Director of Cottage Life requested that he be allowed to make the selection. This request was honored even though the experimenter realized those houseparents selected might have been the ones who worked best with the children and thus were favored by them.

An additional part of the instrument was that the subjects were to write a paragraph about themselves (see Appendix D). These paragraphs were to be written as if the subjects were introducing themselves to their pen pals.

They were to tell who they were, what they liked to do, where they went to school, and any other thing their pen pals might like to hear.

#### Subjects

The Mills Home, named for John H. Mills, was opened as the Thomasville Baptist Orphanage in 1885. The Mills Home is located in the Piedmont section of North Carolins. It was the first home sponsored by the North Caroline Baptist Convention, caring for and housing children. At the time of this experiment there were 242 children, preadolescents, and adolescents living in the Mills Home. They ranged in school placement from grades one through 12. After graduation from high school, the young adults were given guidance, counseling, and other assistance in making the adjustment into the adult world.

The population in the Mills Home was composed of approximately equal numbers of boys and girls. The length of time the subjects had lived on Mills Home campus ranged from three months to eight years. The subjects were in the care of the Baptist Children's Homes of North Carolina, Inc. They lived in cottages of 20 children or less with two houseparents in charge. Most of the subjects had siblings living at Mills Home. When possible, the administration assigned siblings to the same cottage in order that family members would not experience further separations. The subjects attended the Thomasville public schools, where the Mills Home was located. The present research was based on the assumption that the Mills Home residents were basically a homogeneous group. They were white, lower middle class Protestants, whose families were residents of North Carolina. They resided in the Mills Home for four basic reasons: (1) death of parents, (2) poverty of parents, (3) separation of parents, or (4) referral from foster homes.

For this study, 120 subjects were selected from the population living on the campus. The selection procedure was (1) to assign all potential subjects a number; (2) using a table of random numbers, 30 boys and 30 girls were randomly selected from the fifth, sixth, and seventh graders; and (3) 30 boys and 30 girls were randomly selected from the eighth, ninth, and tenth graders.

#### Houseparents

At the time of the study, the Mills Home campus consisted of 19 cottages supervised by 55 houseparents. The houseparents were married couples and single men and women. There were a total of 29 male and female houseparents ranging in age from 25 to 65 years old. All but one were of the Caucasian race. Among the houseparents, 12 were married couples, four were widows, and one was a single female. All but one had children of their own. Some of the children lived with their parents in the cottages. The length of time the houseparents had worked at Mills Home ranged from

three months to 20 years. Only one of the houseparents had prior experience working in a children's home. Special training was not mandatory as a prerequisite for becoming a houseparent, but all of them had some inservice training while working at the Mills Home. Five married couples had not attended the training program which was a workshop for houseparents conducted in Chapel Hill, North Caroline.

#### Method

Before the pretesting, the researcher met with the houseparents and explained the procedures for administering the pretest and treatment procedure. The houseparents administered Rubin's <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> to all subjects for both the pretest and the posttest. Instructions for the completion of the questionnaire were written at the beginning of the questionnaire (Appendix A) and were also read by the houseparents.

For the treatment, the 120 subjects were rendomly assigned to one of six groups. Complete random assignment was limited by the assigned variables, sex, and grade level. The purpose of random assignment was to provide pre-treatment equality by controlling for any systematic error. Following random assignment, one houseparent met separately with each of the six experimental groups. In order to prevent the subjects from discussing the experiment, all groups met at the same time. All subjects initially received the same instructions (Appendix D). The instructions indicated to

the subjects that they were to read a positive selfevaluation paragraph written by an imaginary pen pal (Appendix B). In addition, they were given a very positively completed <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u>, which they were told had been completed by their imaginary pen pal. Having read the paragraph and the <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u>, the subjects were instructed to describe themselves to their imaginary pen pal by (1) writing a self-descriptive paragraph, and (2) completing the <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u>. These served as a means of introducing themselves to their pen pals.

The six paragraphs represented six different persons in three varied stages of the life span; adolescence, adulthood, and old age (Appendix B). In each of the three stages there was a paragraph representing a male and one representing a female. The objective of distributing the paragraph and the positive <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> was to expose each subject to the positive self evaluation of another person and then to examine whether there was a change in his own self evaluation.

The six descriptive paragraphs were given to the experimental groups as follows: In the first group, the subjects were given a descriptive paragraph of a peer of the same sex; in the second group, the description was of a peer of the opposite sex. Each subject assigned to group three received a description of an adult of the same sex while the description for subjects in group four was of an adult of

the opposite sex. The description of an old person of the same sex was given to subjects in group five. In group six, subjects were exposed to the description of an old person of the opposite sex.

To insure clarity in understanding, the six houseparents who were to participate in the experiment read the paragraphs. All six houseparents agree that the six paragraphs could be understood by the subjects living in the Mills Home. Four of the six descriptive paragraphs were typed in simple English. The two paragraphs supposedly written by peers were hand written in order to denote more authenticity.

The <u>Self-Esteem Scales</u> completed by the subjects during the experiment were analyzed by comparing them to the scales completed by the subjects prior to the experiment to obtain difference scores. This comparison was made in an attempt to determine the varying effects of age of the model and sex of the model (opposite or same to subjects). Other independent variables were grade levels and length of time subjects had spent in the Mills Home.

# Statistical Analysis

The data were analyzed in three phases. In the first phase a  $3 \times 2 \times 2$  factorial analysis of variance design was used to examine subjects' <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> difference scores as a function of age of the imaginary pen pel, grade levels of subjects, and sex of the imaginary pen pal (opposite or same of subjects). The difference scores were obtained by subtracting the pretest scores from the posttest scores. The formula used was:

 $D_{kn} = Y_{kn} - X_{kn}$  (Edwards, 1972, p. 343)

One assumption vital to the analysis of variance, homogeneity of variance, was tested by applying Hartley's <u>F</u> max test (Winer, 1971) to the data. A non-significant <u>F</u> value on this test supports the assumption of homogeneity of variance.

A diagram of the factorial design of the study follows:

<u>A</u> = sex, p = 2 (Opposite sex  $[a_1]$ ; Same sex  $[a_2]$ ) <u>B</u> = age of model (imaginary pen pal)

q = 3 (Adolescent  $[b_1]$ ; Adult  $[b_2]$ , Old person  $[b_3]$ ) <u>C</u> = Grade level of subjects

r = 2 (Grade 5, 6, 7  $[c_1]$ , Grades 8, 9, 10  $[c_2]$ )

Diagram of  $3 \times 2 \times 2$  Factorial Design

 $A_{1}$  (Opposite sex)

A<sub>2</sub> (Same sex)

Age of the models		Bl	B <sub>2</sub>	<sup>B</sup> 3	Bl	B <sub>2</sub>	<sup>B</sup> 3
Subjects' grade levels	Cl						
	°2						

The  $3 \times 2 \times 2$  factorial design shown above was used because it is an efficient way to compare differences in subjects' scores as a result of multiple independent variables. The design yields two kinds of information, main effects and interactions. A significant main effect for each of the three factors indicates that the subjects responded differentially on the <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> as a function of that factor. It could be further explained that a significant difference on the <u>A</u> Factor would indicate that the subjects' response to the same sex and the opposite sex in the descriptive paragraph on the <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> is significantly different.

A significant first order interaction would indicate that the treatments produced differential effects for separate levels of each of the two factors. Inferences from the data must then be qualified on the basis of the factor-level combination in question. A significant second order interaction suggests that the interaction of two factors, e.g.,  $\underline{A} \times \underline{C}$ , should be analyzed separately for each level of the third factor (<u>B</u> Factor). The effects of the <u>A x C</u> interaction would be different at each different level of <u>B</u> (Edwards, 1972).

The data were further analyzed by the use of a multiple comparison procedure, the Newman-Keuls test. Differences between the means for significant factors were examined. The last examination was a measure of association known as

the correlation ratio, or eta. Squaring eta allows one to estimate the amount of variance shared by the independent and dependent variable.

For the second phase of the data analysis a one way analysis of variance with unequal <u>n</u>'s was applied. It served as a post hoc check of the effects of the subjects' length of residence in the Mills Home on the <u>Self-Esteem</u> <u>Scale</u> difference scores. The design had three levels, less than two years, two to four years, and more than four years. Since the <u>n</u>'s were unequal, Hartley's <u>F</u> max test (Winer, 1971) was applied to test the assumption of homogeneity of variance.

The final phase of the data analysis was a content analysis of the subjects' descriptive paragraphs. The procedure consisted of: (1) a careful reading of each paragraph to identify categories of subjects' responses; (2) assigning the subjects' responses to the correct categories; and (3) tabulating the responses so they could be interpreted in same meaningful fashion.

The results of the data collection are presented in Chapter IV while the findings are discussed in Chapter V of this report.

# CHAPTER IV

## RESULTS

The interpretation and explanation of the results of the study are included in this chapter.

Two general conclusions, drawn from the results of the present study, are presented as follows:

 The self-concept of selected adolescents can be influenced positively by a four-week experimental procedure,
the exposure to positive self-evaluation of others.

2. Self-concept in this particular study was affected by age of the model to which the subject was exposed and not by sex of model, grade level of subjects, or length of time the subjects had resided in the Mills Home.

Pretest <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> scores of the 120 subjects participating in the study ranged from 105 to 184, whereas posttest scores ranged from 64 to 190. The mean score obtained from the pretest (147.93) was lower then the mean score obtained from the posttest (158.53). The raw scores are presented in Appendix E of the report. Examination of the difference scores obtained for the six experimental groups indicated a range of -67 to 71. Ninety-one scores showed positive changes, whereas 29 showed negative changes (Appendix E). Since some of the difference scores were high negative scores, a constant of 100 was added to each difference score to raise these scores so that all the scores being analyzed would be positive (Appendix E). "The addition of a constant of this magnitude insures that the assumptions of the analysis of variance will be met in order to produce valid results (Kurtz, 1965, p. 61)."

The analysis of variance of difference scores, obtained from the pretest and posttest on Rubin's <u>Self</u>-<u>Esteem Scale</u>, is presented in Table 1. The <u>F</u> values obtained for the main effect of the <u>A</u> Factor, sex of the models (same or opposite of subjects) and the <u>C</u> Factor, grade levels of subjects were not significant. These findings suggest that the subjects' difference scores were unaffected by sex of the models to whose self-evaluation they were exposed or by their grade level. Thus, hypothesis two (H<sub>2</sub>) and hypothesis three (H<sub>3</sub>) were not confirmed.

The <u>F</u> values obtained for the interaction between (1) age and sex of the models, (2) age of the models and grade level of subjects, and (3) sex of the models and grade level of subjects were not significant. The only significant difference obtained was for the independent variable age of the models: adolescent, adult, and old person (<u>B</u> Factor) (p < .05). This finding indicates that the subjects responded differently on Rubin's <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> after reading self-descriptive paragraphs completed by persons of different age levels. Thus, hypothesis one (H<sub>1</sub>) was

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Source of Variation	SS	đf	MS	F	P	E5
Sex (A)	832.12	1	832.12	2.17	NS	0181
Age (B)	3882.04	2	1941.02	5.07	.01	.0843
Grade level (C)	86.70	1	86.70	•23	NS	.0017
Interaction between Age and Sex	316.54	2	158.57	.41	NS	•0066
Interaction between Sex and Grade level	8.54	l	8.54	.02	NS	.0001
Interaction between Age and Grade level	201.66	2	100.83	.26	ns	.0043
Interaction between Age, Sex and Grade level	127.90	2	63.95	.17	NS	.0026
Within Treatment	41292.80	108	382.33			
Total	46748.30	119	392.84			

Analysis of Variance of Difference Scores Obtained from the Pretest and Posttest on Rubin's <u>Self-Esteem</u> <u>Scale</u>

 $p \leq .05$  accepted as necessary for rejecting the null hypothesis in this study.

df (1,108) = 3.94(2,108) = 3.09 confirmed. Differences significant at the .01 level on the subjects' <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> scores were produced by variations in age of the models.

Means and standard deviation obtained from difference scores on Rubin's <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> for each factor after addition of a constant of 100 to each score are presented in Tables 2 and 3. Both main effects and interaction effects were examined. In Table 2 means and standard deviations of main effects are presented and in Table 3, means and standard deviations of interaction effects are shown.

In order to isolate and examine the significant differences between the levels of Factor <u>B</u>, the Newman-Keuls' post hoc comparison procedures (Winer, 1971)were used. In Table 4, the post hoc comparisons of difference scores for the ages of the models given in the descriptive paragraphs (adolescents, adulthood, and old persons) are presented. Significant differences between  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  and  $X_1$  and  $X_3$  were found at the .05 level. This finding indicated that the subjects' responses to the adolescent's paragraph showed significantly less positive change than their responses to the adult's and old person's positive paragraphs. No significant difference was found between the subjects' responses to the paragraph written by the adult and the paragraph written by the old person.

The effects of the last independent variable, length of time subjects resided at the Mills Home were analyzed by

Table 2	2
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	Independent Variables	Mean	s.D.
Sex of	A <sub>l</sub> (same)	112.78	21.58
Model	A <sub>2</sub> (opposite)	107.52	17.30
Subjects'	C <sub>1</sub> (5, 6, 7)	111.00	19.46
Grade Level	C <sub>2</sub> (8, 9, 10)	109.30	20.003
1	B <sub>l</sub> (adolescent)	102.15	17.16
Age of Models	$\dot{B}_2$ (adult)	113.42	11.73
	B <sub>3</sub> (old person)	114.87	12.72

Mean and Standard Deviation of Difference Scores After an Addition of a Constant (Main Effects)

Tat	le	3
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Cell Means and Standard Deviations of Difference Scores

		Al(Same)	Sex of Mo	dels A2(Opp	.s A2(Opposite)	
	Age of Models	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	
<u> </u>	Bl	104.8	17.93	104.4	15.02	
01	B2	119	16.46	106.4	26.10	
Subjects' Grade Level	<sup>B</sup> 3	117.9	21.57	113.5	8.90	
	B_1	98.7	13.09	100.7	19.68	
°2	<sup>B</sup> 2	111.3	14.08	117	26.49	
4 <sup>°</sup>	B <sub>3</sub>	110.8	15.66	117.3	18.33	

#### Table 4

### Post Hoc Comparison of Difference Scores for Age of the Models in the Descriptive Paragraphs (B Factor)

		Adoles- cents	Adult- hood	Old Person	r	9 <sub>95</sub> (r,108)	$\sqrt{\frac{MSw}{n}}$
		102.15	113.42	114.87			
cent	102.15		11.27*	12.72*	3		10.50
Adult- hood	113.42			1.45	2		8.75
* ( <u>p</u> <.(	05)	Adolesco	ents	Adulti	200	d 01	d person

a one-way analysis of variance with unequal n's. Homogeneity of variance was tested by use of Hartley's F (Winer, 1971). This test yielded a non-significant F (1.46, p < .01). Thus, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was supported.

The means and standard deviations were calculated on the groups formed by length of residence in the Mills Home. These are presented in Table 5.

The one way analysis of variance of difference scores according to the length of time the subjects had resided at the Mills Home are presented in Table 6. The obtained  $\underline{F}$ value was less than <u>l</u>; therefore it was concluded that no significant difference existed attributable to length of residence in the Mills Home. This finding suggests that the

Table	5
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Means and Standard Deviation of Difference Scores Produced by Length of Time Subjects Had Resided in the Mills Home

Length of Time	Mean	S.D.
Less than two years	111.11	18.08
Two to four years	110.30	21,18
More than four years	108.58	20.32

# Table 6

Difference Scores Analyzed According to Length of Time Subjects Had Resided in the Mills Home

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P	
Between groups	138.92	2	69.46	.17	** NS	
Within groups	46609.38	117	398.37			
Total	46748.30	119				

\*\* (<u>p</u> **<.**05)

subjects' <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> scores were unaffected by the length of time the subjects had resided on the Mills Home Campus. Since, as the data were analyzed, no significant differences were found in the length of time the subjects had lived on the Mills Home Campus, the fourth hypothesis was rejected.

Content analysis of the descriptive paragraphs of themselves written by the subjects indicated that only one of the 120 subjects described himself as being unhappy. The other 119 described themselves as being happy. Twenty subjects stated that they made good grades at school; ten stated that they made fair grades; and the others did not indicate their scholastic achievement. Only three subjects called themselves orphans, while one other subject wrote that he was ugly and he would like to die. One subject mentioned her "rough home." More than 50 per cent of the subjects viewed themselves as friendly with others and 50 per cent indicated that they liked school. One out of the 120 subjects wrote that she did not know much about herself. Twelve subjects stated their hopes for the future; ten of them wanted to continue their education in college and one in the group expressed the desire to be a lawyer. Two of the girls expressed the hope of getting married. One male subject suggested that he would like to join the Olympic team as a diver. Their interests ranged from the opposite sex, sports (basketball, football, motorcycle riding,

swimming, etc.) to music and reading books. The most popular sports among the subjects were swimming, football, and basketball. Only three subjects were interested in reading and the same number were interested in music. Most of the subjects wrote their paragraphs positively and described themselves in a positive manner.

After examining these paragraphs, it would appear that the subjects considered the experimental task to be a legitimate one and they attempted to complete the task in a serious manner.

A comparison between the <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> which the subjects completed and their descriptive paragraphs indicated that subjects who scored high on Rubin's <u>Self-Esteem</u> <u>Scale</u> wrote paragraphs quite different from those written by subjects who received low posttest scores on the <u>Self-Esteem</u> <u>Scale</u>. For example, a subject who wrote that he would like to join the Olympic team as a diver, scored 173 on Rubin's <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u>, while a subject who described himself as ugly and expressed a wish to die, scored 98 on Rubin's <u>Scale</u>.

The results of the present study will be discussed in detail in the following chapter. The last chapter contains the summarization and conclusion.

## CHAPTER V

## DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to examine the effect of a model on changes in self-evaluations of 120 adolescents living in group care. More specifically, the major research question was: Does the positive selfevaluation of a model affect the self-evaluations of adolescents living in group care? A further research question was: Does the age, or sex of the model affect the self-evaluations of adolescents living in group care? Finally, the question was asked: Was there a differential effect of age or sex of the model according to the grade level of adolescents in group care?

### Hypotheses

Four hypotheses, stated in the affirmative, were tested. They were:

Hypothesis 1: There will be significant differences in the subject's <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> difference scores produced by variations in ages of the models in the descriptive paragraphs: adolescent, adult, and old person.

Hypothesis 2: There will be significant differences in the subjects' <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> difference scores

produced by sex of the models (opposite or same of subjects) in the descriptive paragraphs.

Hypothesis 3: There will be significant differences in the subject's <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> difference scores produced by subjects' different grade levels: grades five, six, seven as compared to grades eight, nine, and ten.

Hypothesis 4: There will be significant differences in subjects' <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> difference scores produced by differences in length of subjects' residence in the Mills Home, i.e. less than two years, two to four years, more than four years.

The discussion of the results from the study is presented in this chapter. The results will be presented in the accepting or rejecting each of the four hypotheses. A discussion of the procedure as well as the related literature will follow.

#### Hypothesis 1

Analysis of the data presented in Chapter IV confirmed Hypothesis 1 that there is a significant difference in the subjects' <u>Self Esteem Scale</u> difference scores produced by variation in ages of the models in the descriptive paragraphs.

The differential effects of age of the models upon the subjects' completion of the <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> as indicated by the present study has ample corroboration in a

variety of research studies (Bijou, 1969; Carlson, 1965; Kuhn, 1960). Proponents of social learning theory (Bandura and Walters, 1963) have identified several key variables that influence the degree to which a subject will imitate a model's behavior. These are similarity of subject to model, effects of the behavior of the model on the environment, difficulty of task, sex of model, and power of model to administer reinforcement. While this study did not use a modeling effect per se, identification with a model, represented by a written paragraph and a completed Self-Esteem Scale, was a basic aspect of treatment. This finding could be consistent with the "power of model" explanation of imitation. The existence of many of these subjects has been unsettled and very dependent on the whims of adults around The uncertain nature of their daily lives would tend them. to make them extremely sensitive to the behavior of the adults in their immediate environment. Thus. it is not unreasonable to assume that these subjects' responses would be more strongly effected by older models than were the responses of Bishop's (1973) subjects.

While the findings of the present study are consistent with a social-learning theory position, they are inconsistent with that of McCandless (1961). He stated that the peer group is second only to the family in socializing the adolescent. Since the subjects of the present study do not live with their families, it might appear that peers would exert

the primary influence on their socialization and interaction processes. However, this supposition is unsupported when one examines the unique living conditions of the subjects. They function in a supervised group situation with six to twelve age-related peers and two adults. By necessity, the amount of social interaction between the subjects and the adults must be quite limited. The lack of opportunity for desired social interaction could produce a state of deprivation in the subjects. Since deprivation is a preexperimental setting event that has demonstrated capabilities to produce strong response tendencies in children (Bijou, 1969), its effects might be evidenced by the subjects' craving for adult's attention. This contention was supported by informal observation of the subjects prior to treatment. They indicated their strong desire to please by verbalized wishes to be helpful and by writing such comments as "I hope it will help you."

The significance of ege as an experimental factor was indicated by Kuhn (1960) in a study designed to logically validate the <u>20 Statements Test of Self-Attitudes</u>. The researcher found that the mention of age appeared to be a fairly significant self-referent, and that identification by age became more important to the subjects with increasing age. The percentage of subjects who identified themselves by age increased steadily and rapidly until nearly

three-fourths of the 13 year old subjects mentioned age in response to the question, "Who am I?"

There appears to be agreement between the present study and the one reported by Bishop (1973). The increase in scores obtained on the <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> under treatment conditions is comparable in both studies. In the present study, 89 of 120 scores changed positively between the pretest and posttest; while in Bishop's study, positive changes were noted in 86 of the 90 subjects. The results of both studies indicate that the procedure of exposing subjects to the positive self-evaluation of others does have experimental merit. Comparisons between the outcomes of the studies must be made cautiously since the present study reported significant gains by age of models and the Bishop study failed to find significant gains.

Although the experimental procedures for the two studies were quite similar, such procedural discrepancies as handwritten versus typed paragraphs or differences in experimenters could have produced the dissimilar outcomes. In particular, the significant differences in selfevaluation changes produced by age of models in the present study might have been caused by the difference between handwritten paragraphs and typed paragraphs. This investigator tends to believe that handwritten paragraphs produced more reality in an imaginary person.

## Hypothesis 2

When the data were analyzed the second hypothesis was not confirmed. Thus, there are no significant differences in the subjects' <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> difference scores produced by the sex of the models in the descriptive paragraphs.

The first non-significant factor in the present study is the A Factor, sex of the models (opposite or same of subjects). Several studies (Bijou, 1969; Kuhn, 1960) have stressed the importance of the cross-sex effect in an experimental situation in which models are used. Although Bijou (1969) found sex to be a significant variable, he referred only to live models. Therefore, the use of imaginery pen pels, presented through typed and handwritten paragraphs in the present study, may have limited the effectiveness of the sex of model variable. Kuhn (1960) in his research, "Self Attitude by Age, Sex and Professional Training," suggested that sex was not a variable of significance to self attitudes. A study by Carlson (1965) failed to reveal changes in the structure of the self-image of  $\mu 9$ students over a six-year period, sixth grade to high school senior. Carlson (1965) suggested that self-esteem tended to develop independently of the sex role of the students who participated in his study. The median self-esteem scores for male and female subjects in this study were identical at both preadolescent and edolescent levels. Since the

findings from the studies of both Kuhn (1960) and Carlson (1965) indicated no significant effects of the sex factor, support is found for similar findings of the present study.

After examining a number of studies (Bijou, 1969; Bowerman and Kinch, 1959; Carlson, 1965; Davidson and Lang, 1960; Kuhn, 1960; Perkins, 1958), several reasons might be advanced as to why in the present study the other major independent variables, sex of the models (<u>A</u> Factor), grade levels of subjects (<u>C</u> Factor), length of time subjects hed spent in the Mills Home and all the interaction between factors had limited effects.

Analysis of Bishop's data indicated that the experimental subjects' scores on the posttest varied significantly according to the sex of the person to whose self-evaluation the subject was exposed. Subjects exposed to selfevaluations of persons of the opposite sex scored higher on the posttest than those exposed to self-evaluations of persons of the same sex. However, this finding was qualified when an analysis of gain scores of the experimental group demonstrated differences between pretest and posttest scores did not vary significantly according to the sex or age of the person to whose self-evaluation the subject was exposed.

# Hypothesis 3

The analysis of the data also revealed that the third hypothesis was not confirmed, which is interpreted to mean

there are not significant differences in the subjects' <u>Self-</u> <u>Esteem Scale</u> difference scores produced by the subjects' different grade levels.

When comparing the present study with a similar study by Bishop (1973) there appear to be points of agreement and points of disagreement between the two studies. Bishop examined changes in self-evaluation of adolescents who were exposed to positive self-evaluations of others. She hypothesized that after reading a positively completed Self-Esteem Scale and a positively constructed selfdescriptive paragraph written by an imaginery partner, seventh graders would tend to rate themselves more positively. The effects of two organismic variables, sex of model, and age of model, upon amount of change in subjects' self-evaluations were also examined. The procedure employed by Bishop (1973) and the one used in the present research were similar with some minor changes being made in this The differences and changes were the following: study. (1) The subjects in Bishop's (1973) study were seventh graders from intact families, while the subjects of the present study were children who resided in a particular institution; (2) Bishop's study was conducted during school hours and was integrated into the teaching curriculum; while data for the present study were collected at 7:30 P.M. on the Mills Home campus; (3) the self-descriptive paragraphs used in Bishop's study were hendwritten while in the present

study only two out of six descriptive paragraphs were handwritten; (4) Bishop administered the treatment to all six experimental groups, while six houseparents administered the treatment for the present study; (5) the interval between Bishop's pretest and posttest was two weeks and the interval used in the present study was four weeks; (6) Bishop's study investigated two independent variables: age of the models and sex of the models, while the present study included those, plus two additional independent variables, grade levels of subjects and length of residence of subjects.

Bowerman and Kinch (1959) conducted a study using a questionnaire to find out what changes in the family and peer orientation of children occur between the fourth and tenth grades. The subjects of their study were 686 students from the fourth through the tenth grades in a middle-class school district north of Seattle, Washington. No significant differences were found to exist as a function of grade level.

Perkins (1958) studied the changes in children's self-concepts between the fourth and sixth grades. While Perkins was particularly interested in the grade level factor, he also studied the effects of three additional factors; namely, social-emotional climate, teacher participation in an inservice child study program, and teacher acceptance of self and others. The subjects for his study were in four fourth-grade and four sixth-grade classrooms

enrolling 251 children in seven elementary schools in a suburban county school system in Maryland. Evidences of children's self-concepts and idea-selves were obtained by having all children perform a self-sort and ideal-sort three different times during a six months period. Correlating the child's self-sort with his ideal-sort provided a measure of self-ideal self-congruency. Perkins found that the children's self-ideal self-congruency was significant at the one per cent level, according to grade level. Perkins' finding did not lend support to the findings of the present study as did the findings of Bowerman and Kinch (1959). Since there is disagreement among the studies presented, further examination of these variables must be considered. Before discussion of other variables, the last, non-significant factor, length of time the subjects had lived on the Mills Home campus, should be examined.

# Hypothesis 4

Since, as the data were analyzed, no significant differences were found in the length of time the subjects lived on the Mills Home campus, the fourth hypothesis was rejected.

The finding, that the length of time the subjects had spent in group care did not affect their scores on the <u>Self</u>-<u>Esteem Scale</u> concurred with the findings by Edmiston (1949) who had conducted a study with children from eight orphanages in Ohio and Indiana. Edmiston did not find significant

differences in the scores obtained from The California Test of Personality produced by the different periods of time which the children had spent in the homes. These findings seem to suggest that simple passage of time may not be a key variable in determining the effects of a selected environment. While one would expect adaptation of a child to his immediate environment, other factors that might influence the degree to which a subject will imitate a model's behavior must be investigated before a firm conclusion could be drawn. While results of studies with other institutionalized groups. e.g., prisoners and mentally ill (Knights, 1962; Yarrow, 1964), indicate strong, long-lasting effects of institutionalization, there is a void in empirical data relating to the change in self-concept from the time a child is initially admitted until the time he leaves a children's home. One can only hypothesize that the effects of the child's prior environment are more pathological than those of his adopted home.

In addition to the consideration of the nonsignificant effects which were discussed above, further examination must be made of other variables which influenced the findings of the present study.

Much of the literature dealing with the self-concept (Brownfain, 1952; Engle, 1959; Festinger, 1957; McCandless, 1961) would seem to indicate that the self-concept is difficult to change in a finite experimental situation. Many who have studied self-concept contend that the self-concept develops slowly over a long period of time and is affected by a multiplicity of factors. Thus, manipulating two or three factors within a short time period should produce tenuous results at best. So it is important to carefully examine all variables which might involve the results of the present study.

One of the variables which might have influenced the subjects' self-evaluations in this particular study is the institutionalization of subjects. Brownfain (1952) indicated that the individual's environment might be the major factor influencing his self-concept. Chesters (1948) similarly stated that the growth of feeling of homeless children may largely depend upon their relationship to the persons who had lived with them. As the children grow and mature they form or develop standards of behavior as well as a sense of values, ideals, and spiritual qualities. Hogan (1952), in his theory of threat and defense, indicated that the self is defined as the organism experiencing a relationship with the environment. Behavior, he suggested, is the result of the individual's attempts to reformulate his tension system adequately. Needs and emotions function as a system of tensions, which at a given moment are characterized by relative balance and imbalance. Imbalance, according to Hogan, is the tension system that urges activity and activity is an attempt to balance the tension system by increasing or

reducing tensions to a subjectively defined state of satisfaction.

According to Hogan's (1952) theory, whatever the subjects indicated on the Self-Esteem Scale or expressed in the self-descriptive paragraphs were profoundly influenced by their immediate environments and their background. The people surrounding them also had a part in the way they sew themselves. Brewer (1970) suggested that since a strong self-concept comes from the mirror held by others, it is necessary to find the right mirror for children. In the case of children from intact families, their parents and teachers play an important role in their self-attitude development. The present researcher questions whether the many people working with the children at the Mills Home could influence the subjects' self-attitude or self-concepts of the children. These influential persons are houseparents, teachers, natural parents, and friends. Because their self-attitudes have been influenced by a variety of relationships, some strongly negative, it is conceivable that this population of children might show a wide variability in <u>Self-Esteem</u> Scale scores and have a lower mean score than comparable non-institutionalized subjects. This fact is supported by such studies as those by Geaks and Lornell (1961), Knights (1962), and Piers and Harris (1964), whose research was conducted with institutionalized children. Their studies demonstrated that on personality and other

similar tests, institutionalized children performed slightly lower or lower than non-institutionalized children.

Another factor which might have contributed to the limited experimental effects is the time and place in which the scales were administered. The present study was conducted at 7:30 P.M. in the Sunday School classroom in the church building on the Mills Home campus. The subjects had been in school all day and prior to participating in the study had done their homework. In general, they appeared quite fatigued and generally unruly.

#### Procedure

Another point for consideration is the instrument itself. Rubin's <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> was developed for use with children whose ages were 11 to 13. The range of ages of the subjects in the present study was wider than Rubin's, in that the youngest were 10 and the oldest were 17; there were, however, less than ten subjects above 15 years of age.

An important methodological consideration in this particular study was the four weeks interval between the pretest and posttest. Since the design controlled for other factors that might have influenced the changes of self-concept during the four weeks interval, a key issue is the amount of time required to change one's self-concept. It has been stated previously that the self-concept is a relatively stable construct developing over a long period of
time (Engel, 1959). Since the interval of time between the treatment and the posttest was very brief, only short term changes were measured. No data were available regarding the stability of the measured changes. Thus the effects of treatment must be interpreted conservatively.

The descriptive analysis of time factor has received a great deal of attention in studies dealing with the development of self-concept (Carlson, 1965; Edmiston, 1949). The experimental manipulation of length of time required to produce change in the self-concept deserves further consideration. The studies reported by Carlson and Edmiston indicated that self-concept may appear to be quite stable but can change over long periods of time between two to six years.

### Summary

Findings from the present research study indicated that the self-concept of selected children and adolescents in grades four to nine can be positively influenced by a four-week experimental procedure. The major finding of the present study indicated that self-concept can be influenced by the variable age of the model to which a subject is exposed. No effect was obtained for sex of model, grade level of subject, or length of time subjects had resided in the Mills Home. The influence of the age of the models upon <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> scores was not unexpected.

### CHAPTER VI

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The major purpose of the present study was to examine the changes in self-evaluation of 120 adolescent subjects after their exposure to the positive self-evaluation of another individual. Major research questions to be answered were: (1) Would the amount of change in the dependent variable, scores on Rubin's Self-Esteem Scale, vary according to age of the models to whose self-evaluation the subjects were exposed? (2) Would the amount of change in the dependent variable, scores on Rubin's Self-Esteem Scale, vary according to sex of the models (opposite or same of subjects) to whose self-evaluations the subjects were exposed? (3) Would the amount of change in the dependent variable, scores on Rubin's Self-Esteem Scale of subjects, vary according to the independent variable, grade levels of subjects? (4) Would the way in which the subjects describe themselves in the descriptive paragraphs vary according to the age of the models to whose positive paragraphs they were exposed? (5) Would the way in which the subjects describe themselves in the descriptive paragraphs vary according to the sex of the models (opposite or same of subjects) to whose positive paragraphs they were exposed? (6) Would the

amount of change in the dependent variable, scores on Rubin's <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> and the way in which the subjects describe themselves in the descriptive paragraph, vary according to the length of time subjects have resided in the Mills Home?

One hundred and twenty adolescents were randomly selected from a population of students residing on the Mills Home campus, Thomasville, North Carolina. The population, all Mills Home residents, were in grades five through ten in the Thomasville public schools. Of the 120 subjects, 60 were boys and 60 were girls. Thirty boys and 30 girls were randomly selected from the children in grades five, six, and seven, and another 30 boys and 30 girls were randomly selected from those in grades eight, nine, and ten.

Initially, a <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> devised by Roger Rubin at the Pennsylvania State University was administered to all subjects. Four weeks after the pretest had been administered, the treatment was conducted. The 120 subjects, having been randomly assigned into six groups of 20 persons, were given paragraphs (Appendix B) to read. These paragraphs were supposedly written by an imaginary pen pal. Each of the six groups received different paragraphs. The subjects were also given a copy of Rubin's <u>Self-Esteem</u> <u>Scale</u>, which supposedly had been completed by their pen pals. After the subjects had read the paragraphs and <u>Self</u>-Esteem Scale, they were asked to write paragraphs describing

themselves to their newly found pen pals, then they were asked to complete Rubin's Self-Esteem Scale.

The data, <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> difference scores were analyzed in a  $3 \times 2 \times 2$  factorial ANOVA with post hoc tests (Newman-Keuls test, Winer, 1971). The factors were sex of the models, age of the models, and grade level of subjects. Results indicated that the age of the models to which subjects were exposed produced significant gains in Rubin's <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> scores. No other factors were significant. A multiple comparison analysis employing the Newman-Keuls (Winer, 1971) procedure indicated that the subjects' responses to the adolescent paragraphs changed significantly less than those to the adults' and old persons' selfdescriptive paragraphs.

No significant interactions between factor level combinations were obtained. The effects of the last independent variable, length of time subjects resided in the Mills Home, were examined by a one-way ANOVA with unequal <u>n</u>'s. Difference scores were again computed and no significant differences were obtained. Hartley's  $\frac{F}{\max}$  was used to compute the homogeneity of variance.

#### Results

From the primary findings of this study the following conclusions are indicated:

1. The self-concept of selected adolescents can be influenced positively by a four-week experimental procedure, i.e., the exposure to positive self-evaluation of others.

2. Self-concept in this particular study was affected by age of the model to which the subject was exposed and not by sex of model, grade level of subjects, or length of time the subjects had resided in the Mills Home.

Implications for Further Research Discrepancies between the present study and a prior study (Bishop, 1973) which employed similar procedures, produce questions that justify examinations in further studies.

A study using an experimental procedure similar to the present one might be conducted to test the impact of both positive and negative models of different age groups upon adolescents' self-attitudes. The degree to which positive or negative models could influence the behavior of adolescents, especially adolescents in a unique situation such as the institutionalized adolescents should be examined. A basic problem is that these adolescents often lack adequate models after whom they can pattern their behavior. Too frequently only the persons who work with them or who

live in close proximity to them, regardless of their suitability, are by necessity chosen as the so-called models.

A basic methodological consideration would be an attempt to increase the impact of the treatment. Live models could be employed to make the situation more realistic. The models could distribute handwritten paragraphs, written in a language that would be less artificial than ones presently used. An alternative procedure would be to use actual paragraphs from residents in other homes if they were old enough and willing to share their feelings. These subjects might be given the opportunity to write letters to the writers of the model paragraphs, if they so desired.

Though the present study possesses some methodological weakness discussed above, the results suggest that a short term treatment, which consists of exposing subjects to the positive self-evaluation of others, can influence changes in the subjects' self-concept. Further studies examining changes in self-concept of children seem warranted. Investigating the self-concept of children may be one of the methods for helping them develop into effective members of the larger societies.

Another consideration would be an attempt to control the error variance by a more precise treatment implementation procedure. While administering treatment, two factors were apparent: (1) the younger subjects would have been tested more effectively in shorter experimental sessions;

and, (2) participation in smaller groups would decrease the chance of the subjects discussing their answers and thus biasing the results. As has been stated, for the present study the group of subjects were quite fatigued after completing a long day filled with many activities. Considering this factor, testing in the morning might be more desirable.

As an alternative, a longitudinal study might be an efficient way to coherently evaluate the effects of passage of time on the development of self-concept. Such a study might address itself descriptively to the literature of critical periods (Ausubel and Sullivan, 1970) and attempt to determine the points during the life cycle at which selfevaluation is most susceptible to change. A second area of research, if these points could be identified, would be to attempt to develop ways to accelerate and maximize development of a positive self-concept when it was most susceptible to change.

Gathering verbal data through the use of a structured personal interview might be a method to be considered in conducting further studies. The use of video taped recordings of these situations would allow more precise data analysis than has heretofore been possible. Not only could the responses of the subjects be reliably recorded, but the behavior of the interviewer could be examined for possible confounding effects. With the current improvements in technology, the lack of accurate measuring devices is no

longer a major hindrance to the examination of the development of the self-concept. Further research in this area should give young people a more realistic view of themselves. This information should help them to better understand themselves and enable them to cope more easily with their developmental problems. The understanding of the selfconcept of each child will be vital to helping him adjust to present situations and prepare for a more fulfilling future life.

A further consideration would be the development of the construct validity of the <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u>. The validation procedure would involve comparison of Rubin's <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> scores with some behavioral manifestation of the self-concept. A common criticism of self-concept scales (Kerlinger, 1964) is their lack of agreement between subjects' responses and the behavior of the subject in his daily environment. Subjects who scored high on the <u>Self</u>-<u>Esteem Scale</u> might be less anxious, more independent, and exhibit more leadership behavior (Bourisseau, 1972; Briggs, 1970; Brownfain, 1952).

Although attempts have been made to validate Rubin's scale, an independent validation procedure would be helpful in further isolating the factors Rubin's scale is measuring and then in establishing the practical value of the scale. A statistically significant gain on the scale is only relevant if the subject's behavior has some impact on the

environment. Acceptance of the results of the present study is dependent upon the degree to which Rubin's <u>Self-Esteem</u> <u>Scale</u>, the instrument used, is considered valid and reliable. The present study might be said to lend further validity to Rubin's scale only insofar as (1) it was administered to a group of subjects who shared some basic organismic and social characteristics, age, race, and class membership with prior subjects; and (2), a predicted positive change in self-concept was produced. Since the validity of a scale can be established through a variety of applications, this particular study is another attempt at further generalization.

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# APPENDIX A

# RUBIN'S SELF ESTEEM SCALE

Name

#### RUBIN'S SELF ESTEEM SCALE

INSTRUCTIONS: This is a test with three parts. There are instructions for each part. Please read the instructions for each part carefully before you begin to answer the questions. There are no right or wrong answers to any of the questions. Mark the answer which you think best describes you.

### PART I

INSTRUCTIONS: Read each sentence carefully. If you feel that the sentence describes you, circle the yes. If you feel that the sentence does not describe you, circle the no.

1. I do many bad things.

yes no

2. I am disobedient at home.

yes no

3. I am often in trouble.

yes no

4. I think bad thoughts.

yes no

5. I can be trusted.

yes no

6. I am good in my schoolwork.

yes no

I am smart. 7. yes no 8. I am dumb about most things. yes no 9. I am a good reader. yes no I forget what I learn. 10. yes no 11. I am good looking. yes no I have a pleasant face. 12. yes no I have a bad figure (physique). 13. yes no I am strong. 14. yes no I am a leader in games and sports. 15. yes no 16. I cry easily. yes no

17. I worry a lot.

Yes no

18. I am often afraid.

yes no

19. I get nervous when the teacher calls on me.

yes no

20. I am nervous.

21. People choose me for games

yes no

22. I am the last to be chosen for games.

yes no

23. It is hard for me to make friends.

yes no

24. I have many friends.

yes no

25. I feel left out of things.

yes no

26. I am a happy person.

yes no

yes no

27. I am unhappy

yes no

28. I like being the way I am.

yes no

29. I wish I were different.

yes no

30. I am cheerful.

yes no

#### PART II

INSTRUCTIONS: Read each sentence carefully. Below each sentence there are four statements: a. strongly agree, b. agree, c. disagree, and d. strongly disagree. Give the letter (a, b, c, or d) which appears before the statement which best describes the way you feel about the sentence.

31. I am as worthwhile as others.

- a. strongly agree
- b. agree
- c. disagree
- d. strongly disagree

32. I have many good qualities.

- a. strongly agree
- b. agree
- c. disagree
- d. strongly disagree

33. Generally, I feel I am a failure.

- a. strongly agree
- b. agree
- c. disagree
- d. strongly disagree

34. I can do things as well as most others.

- a. strongly agree
- b. agree c. disagree
- d. strongly disagree

35. I have little to be proud of.

a. strongly agree
b. agree
c. disagree
d. strongly disagree

36. I think well of myself.

a. strongly agree
b. agree
c. disagree
d. strongly disagree

37. Generally, I am satisfied with myself.

- a. strongly agree
- b. agree
- c. disagree
- d. strongly disagree

38. I wish I could respect myself more.

a. strongly agree
b. agree
c. disagree
d. strongly disagree

39. At times I feel useless.

- a. strongly agree b. agree c. disagree
- d. strongly disagree

40. Sometimes I think I am no good at all.

a. strongly agree
b. agree
c. disagree
d. strongly disagree

### PART III

INSTRUCTIONS: Read each sentence carefully. Below each sentence are five statements: 1. not at all; 2. not very often; 3. some of the time; 4. most of the time; 5. all of the time. Circle the number (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5) which appears before the statement which best describes how often the sentence describes you.

41.	Ι	am	friendly.	46.	Ι	am	likeable.
		1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	not at all not very often some of the time most of the time all of the time			1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	not at all not very often some of the time most of the time all of the time
42.	I	am	happy.	47.	I	am	trusted.
		1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	not at all not very often some of the time most of the time all of the time			1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	not at all not very often some of the time most of the time all of the time
43.	I	am	kind.	48.	I	am	good.
		1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	not at all not very often some of the time most of the time all of the time			1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	not at all not very often some of the time most of the time all of the time
44.	I	am	brave.	49.	I	am	proud.
		1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	not at all not very often some of the time most of the time all of the time			1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	not at all not very often some of the time most of the time all of the time
45.	I	am	honest.	50.	I	am	lazy.
		1. 2. 3. 4.5	not at all not very often some of the time most of the time all of the time			1. 2. 3. 45	not at all not very often some of the time most of the time all of the time

51.	I am	loyal.	57.	I	am	jealous.
	1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	not at all not very often some of the time most of the time all of the time			1. 2. 3. 4.5	not at all not very often some of the time most of the time all of the time
52.	I am	cooperative.	58.	I	am	obedient.
	1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	not at all not very often some of the time most of the time all of the time			1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	not at all not very often some of the time most of the time all of the time
53.	I am	cheerful.	59.	I	am	polite.
	1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	not at all not very often some of the time most of the time all of the time			1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	not at all not very often some of the time most of the time all of the time
54.	I am	thoughtful.	60.	I	am	bashful.
	1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	not at all not very often some of the time most of the time all of the time			1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	not at all not very often some of the time most of the time all of the time
55.	I am	popular.	61.	I	am	clean.
	1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	not at all not very often some of the time most of the time all of the time			1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	not at all not very often some of the time most of the time all of the time
56.	I am	courteous.	62.	I	am	helpful
	1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	not at all not very often some of the time most of the time all of the time			1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	not at all not very often some of the time most of the time all of the time

Part I. Self Concept Questions: The questionnaires are composed of questions taken from "Age and Other Correlations of Self-Concept in Children" by Ellen Piers and David Harris (1964). This instrument was developed from an original pool of items from Jersild's collection of children's statements about what they liked and disliked about themselves. Items were arranged by Rubin into six categories containing five questions and ordered as follows: behavior, general and academic status, physical appearance, anxiety, popularity, happiness and satisfaction. Some negative items were used in order to reduce the effects of acquiescence (Bishop, 1973, p. 27).

The instrument was standardized for use by giving it to a vast number of children over a wide age range. Piers and Harris administered the scale and found the internal consistency and reliability from subjects grade 3 to grade 10. The reliability of the scale is found by the testretest of Kuder-Richardson Formula. Coefficients of reliability are in the .70's, which are satisfactory for this type of scale (Piers and Harris, 1964).

In an attempt to validate the scale they administered the scale to a group of 80 institutionalized retarded adolescent females. All of the girls had a reading level of the third grade or above. It might be expected that the self-concept of those judged mentally retarded would fall below that of normal adolescents of the same age. Scores on this sample studied confirmed the expectations and indicated that the scale does reflect the hypothesized lower self concept or at least the level of self esteem being reported (Piers and Harris, 1964).

Part II. Self Esteem Scale: The questionnaires were obtained from Morris Rosenberg's Society and the Adolescent Self Image (1965). The instrument is designed to measure whether the subjects have a positive or negative image of their selves. The scale is composed of a ten-item Guttman Scale which was indicated by Rosenberg that it has satisfactory reproducibility and scalability. The Guttman Scale insures a unidimensional continuum by establishing a pattern which must be satisfied before the scale can be accepted. The adequacy of each item is not determined primarily by its relationship to a total score but by its patterned relationship with all items on the scale. The reproducibility of this scale is 92 per cent, its scalability (items) is 73 per cent, and its scalability (individuals) is 72 per cent. These coefficients are satisfactory (Rosenberg, 1965).

Rosenberg (1965) admits that such "logical validation" or "fact validity," while important, is not sufficient to establish the adequacy of the scale. However, there were no "known groups" or "criterion groups" which could be used to validate the scale and it thus had to be defended on the ground that if this scale actually did measure self esteem, one would expect the score on the scale to be associated with other data in a theoretically meaningful way (Bishop, 1972, p. 28).

Rosenberg (1965) insured that the items on a scale belong to the same dimensions of the Guttman model but he could not define the dimension. He did, however, find the association between low self esteem as measured by this scale and the appearance of depression to outside observers. He also found a relationship between low self esteem and neurosis and low sociometric status in a group (Rosenberg, 1965).

<u>Part III. Self Concept Rating</u>: The third part of Rubin's <u>Self Esteem Scale</u> consists of a self concept rating taken from Lipsitt's A Self Concept Scale for Children and its Relationship to the Children's Form of the Manifest Anxiety Scale. This scale is based on the theory that a person who acknowledges his inadequacy and inferiority has a low self-concept. The reliability coefficient was investigated by the two weeks test-retest which he administered to the fourth, fifth and sixth grade children. Lipsitt (1958) found self-concept measure to be significant beyond the .001 level.

According to Rubin (1966) test-retest reliability of his <u>Self Esteem Scale</u> was tested by using 37 subjects. Rubin in this investigation found the reliability coefficient to be .88. Rubin found support for construct validity based on the previous use of the questionnaire in seeking self-referential information.

### SCORING OF INSTRUMENT

Items on the questionnaires will be scored according to Guttman scale analysis. That is, when subjects answer given questions favorably they will have higher ranks on the scale than when subjects answer the same questions unfavorably.

Part I: If the subjects answer "yes" to any of items 5, 6, 7, 9, 11, 12, 14, 15, 21, 24, 26, 28, and 30, they will receive a score of two for each item because "yes" represents a favorable response. The subjects who answer "no" to any of the above mentioned items will receive a score of one. Likewise, since items 1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 10, 13, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 22, 23, 25, 27, and 29 are negatively stated items, the subjects response "no" to any of these items will receive for each item scores of two and the subjects response "yes" will receive a score of one for each item (Bishop, 1973).

<u>Part II</u>: The questionnaire contains four choices for each of the ten items. They are <u>strongly agree</u>, <u>agree</u>, <u>disagree</u>, and <u>strongly disagree</u>. For purpose of analysis, the four choices are dichotomized into two: positive (strongly agree, agree) and negative (disagree, strongly disagree). If subjects' responses are <u>strongly agree</u> or <u>agree</u> (which are the favorable ones) to items 31, 32, 34, 36, and 37, they will be scored two, and those will be scored

one when the response is <u>disagree</u> or <u>strongly disagree</u>. The favorable response to items 33, 35, 38, 39 and 40, is a negative one (disagree, strongly disagree). So if the subjects respond negatively they will be scored two and if they respond positively, they will be scored one (Rosenberg, 1965).

Part III. Each question in this section is answered on a five-point scale. Nineteen items are considered socially desirable or favorable attributes, while three are considered negative (lazy, jealous, and bashful). The rating categories are (1) not at all, (2) not very often, (3) some of the time, (4) most of the time, and (5) all of the time. Each answer will be assumed a score of one if checked in the first category (the least favorable response) and a score of two, three, four, and five, respectively, according to the category checked in items 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 58, 59, 61, and 62. The three negative items, 50, 57, 60 are scored in inverse direction (Bishop, 1972).

The summated score will be obtained for the three parts of the questionnaire (Rubin, 1966). The highest possible score is 190, representing the most positive selfevaluation as measured by this particular scale. The lowest possible score is 62, representative of a very low or negative self esteem.

Name

### SCORE SHEET

### RUBIN'S SELF-ESTEEM SCALE

PART I

SELF	С	ONC	<b>JEPT</b>	
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Item	Yes	No
123456789012345678901234567890	(1)         (1)         (1)         (2)         (2)         (1)         (2)         (1)         (2)         (1)         (2)         (1)         (2)         (1)         (2)         (1)         (2)         (1)         (1)         (1)         (1)         (1)         (1)         (2)         (1)         (2)         (1)         (2)         (1)         (2)         (1)         (2)         (1)         (2)         (1)         (2)         (1)         (2)         (1)         (2)         (1)         (2)         (1)         (2)         (1)         (2)         (1)         (2)         (1)         (2)         (1)         (2)         (1)         (	$ \begin{array}{c} (2)\\ (2)\\ (2)\\ (2)\\ (1)\\ (1)\\ (1)\\ (2)\\ (1)\\ (2)\\ (1)\\ (2)\\ (2)\\ (2)\\ (2)\\ (2)\\ (2)\\ (2)\\ (2$

PART	II

## SELF ESTEEM SCALE

SA = strongly agree
A = agree
D = disagree
SD = strongly disagree

Item		SA	<u>A</u>	D	SD
31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38	(2) (2) (1) (2) (1) (2) (2) (1) (1)				$ \begin{array}{c}                                     $
<u>40</u>	$(\tilde{1})$				(2)

# PART III

# SELF CONCEPT RATING

1	=	not at all
2	Ξ	not very often
3	=	some of the time
4	=	most of the time
5	=	all of the time

<u>1 tem</u>	<u>L</u>	<u> </u>		<u> </u>	<u> </u>
41					
42				·	
43					
44	<u> </u>			·····	
46					
47					
48					
49				<u> </u>	
51					
52					
53					
54	<u> </u>				
22 56					
57					
58					
59					
60 61			·····		
62	<u> </u>				
~					
TOTAL					

## APPENDIX B

## DESCRIPTIVE PARAGRAPHS

### DESCRIPTIVE PARAGRAPHS

#### Dum

Adolescent Male: I am a teenager. I go to the biggest school in my community. I'm making good grades but it's the sports I really like. I am captain of the basketball team and I'm good at soccer, too. Most of the time I get chosen first. I just wish we had a football team here at my school. That's one reason I'll be glad when I get to high school and college--football. Other reasons, too: Maybe I'll do a few girls a favor and take them on a date. They're all after me now.

### Dang

Adolescent Female: I am a teenager. I go to the biggest school in my community and I just love it. I make good grades. I have lots of friends and last week I was elected cheerleader. My friends tell me that I'm pretty and I know lots of boys who like me. I can hardly wait to get to high school. I plan to go to college where I'm going to have more fun and I hope I win more honors.

#### Pisit

<u>Adult Male</u>: If there's any truth to that old adage about life beginning at 40, I'm really looking forward to the years ahead. I recently celebrated that "magic" birthday-and couldn't help looking back on the solid accomplishments of my first 40 years. I've worked my way through school-with some help from an athletic scholarship--and I've built up a successful business from the struggling little one-man operation I bought soon after finishing college. There have been some rough spots along the way, but we've managed to "hang in there" and make a go of it. Meanwhile, I have a lovely wife and two children; I am active in several civic and professional organizations; and I enjoy a number of hobbies. With this much going for me now, maybe my next 30 or 40 years will be my best yet.

### Valee

<u>Adult Female</u>: I am the mother of two dear, handsome children, a boy and a girl. I am 40 years of age and still happily married to the man I walked down the aisle with 15 years ago. For the most part, I enjoyed school from the first grade through college--maybe because I never had any trouble making good grades. Over the years, I have enjoyed a successful career but now I seem to find more pleasure in pursuing my numerous hobbies, spending more time with my family and enjoying various activities with my friends. With all these many activities, I look forward to each day. All in all, I believe I lead a full and happy life.

### Siri

<u>Old Person Male</u>: I am a 75-year-old man and busier and happier than I have ever been before. I retired from an

enjoyable and successful profession ten years ago and at last I have time to devote to my exceptional wife, my very special children and grandchildren, and the many hobbies which I enjoy. I have been an outstanding athlete since I was in elementary school and I continue to keep myself in excellent physical condition. I have always had an insatiable intellectual curiosity which keeps me reading all types of books--something I have done since my school days when I was an honor student. Just now my wife and I are planning an extended vacation for the summer to visit some of our many friends all over the country. Life seems to get better with each passing year.

### Malee

<u>Old Person Female</u>: I am 75 years old, though I'm told that's hard to believe--a wife, mother, and grandmother, but still very much my own woman. My life has been filled with happiness and success and I look into the future with great hope. I have always been busy from the time I was a child--first as a student, making good grades and participating in activities with my many friends, later successfully pursuing a career, and finally achieving great happiness as a wife and the mother of two very special children. Now I enjoy my grandchildren, themselves very special, as well as traveling with my husband and engaging in many civic and social activities.

# APPENDIX C

### BACKGROUND INFORMATION

## BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF STUDENTS FROM MILLS HOME

Name						
Age Birth Date						
Check: Male						
Female						
Church attend, Member,	MO					
Cottage you live in						
School you attend						
Grade you are in						
When did you first come to Mills Home?, 19	-•					
With whom did you live before you came to Mills Home?						
Check, please Both parents Mother Father Grandparents Grandmother Grandfather Cousins Foster home						
Do you have any brothers or sisters? Yes No						
How many brothers sisters						
Do you have any brothers and/or sisters living in the Mills Home? <u>Yes</u> No	3					
If yes, give their names, ages, sex, and the cottage where each lives.						
	Name	Age	Sex	Cottage	where	living
---	--------	---------------------	-----	---------	-------	--------
1						
2		<del>مسيريسية</del>				
3	······					
4	·					
5					·	

How many brothers and sisters do you have who have lived at Mills Home, but have moved?

	Name	Age	<u>Sex</u>	Cottage	where	living
1				******		
2						
3						

### BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF HOUSEPARENTS AT THE MILLS HOME

Name	Miss Mrs. Mr.	i						
Check	your	age	20-24 25-29 30-34 35-39 40-44 45-49 50-54 55-59 55-59 560-64 65-69 70 plus	-		•		
Churc	h aff:	iliation						
Are y Do you	ou S: Ma W: u have	ingle arried idowed childre	en of your	own	Yes	No	•	
If you	ur ans	wer is ;	yes, give	their	ages ar	nd sex:		
4	Age		Sex					
1								•
2								
3		<u> </u>				. •	•	
4			<u></u>					
5								
Do an	y of y	our chi	ldren live	with	you at	the Mills	Home?	

Yes No

If your answer is yes, give their ages and sex:

	Age	Sex	Age	Sex
ı			4	
2			5	
3.				

How many children could live in this cottage?

How many children live in the cottage listed above? List them by age, sex, and grade in school.

Name	Age	Sex	<u>Grade in School</u>
1			
2			
3		. <u></u>	
4•			
5		<u> </u>	<u></u>
6			
7•			and the second states of the second states
8			·······
9			
10	<u> </u>	·	· · ·
11		. <u> </u>	·
12		. <u></u>	
13		. <u></u>	
14		• ————	
15		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	
16			
17	·		

Name		Age	Sex	Grade	in S	chool
18						
19	<u></u>					
20		· <u> </u>				
Check the list of time y parent at the Mills Home	you have ] 9.	Lived	as a	cottage	hous	<del>0</del> -
0 - 6 - 12 - 18 - 2 - 4 - 6 - 10 -	- 6 months - 12 month - 18 month - 24 month - 4 years - 6 years - 10 years - 20 years					
Have you worked as a hou	iseparent	befo	re com:	ing to 1	Mills Əs	Home No
If yes, what experience:		·	<u></u>			
<u></u>						
Have you received traini of being a houseparent s	ing for as since you	sumin began	ng the n work:	respon ing at 1	sibil Mills	ity Home
				<del></del>		
	•				Yes	No
If yes, describe briefly ing took place, and the	y. Be sur duration	e to of th	state ne tra:	where ining p	tes the t rogra	No rain- m.
If yes, describe briefly ing took place, and the	y. Be sur duration	e to of th	state ne tra:	where ining p	ies the t rogra	No rain- m.
If yes, describe briefly ing took place, and the	y. Be sur duration	e to of th	state ne tra:	where ining p	the t rogra	No rain- m.
If yes, describe briefly ing took place, and the	y. Be sur duration	e to of th	state ne tra:	where ining p	tes the t rogra	No rain- m.
If yes, describe briefly ing took place, and the	y. Be sur duration	e to of th	state ne tra:	where ining p	the t rogra	No rain- m.

# APPENDIX D

### INSTRUCTIONS TO STUDENTS

#### INSTRUCTIONS TO STUDENTS

Most of you have heard of a pen pal. You may have even had a pen pal who lived in another country too far away for you to get to know him or her in person. The only things you can know about your pen pal are the things you learn through the exchange of letters and pictures. Pen pals can be of any age. They do not have to be your same age for you to enjoy writing to them and reading what they write about themselves.

Let's pretend you have a pen pal in Thailand who can read, write and speak English as easily as you can. Your new friend has written a paragraph of introduction to you.

Please read the paragraph your pen pal has written to you.

(Allow Time to Read)

Will you read the Self Esteem Scale your pen pal filled in?

(Allow time to read)

Now will you do two things--listen carefully to the directions I give you.

You are to write a paragraph about yourself. This paragraph should be written as if you are introducing yourself to your new pen pal. You need to tell who you are, what you like to do, where you go to school and any other thing someone might want to know about you. You may begin.

104

#### (Allow time to write the paragraph)

Now that you have written the paragraph about yourself, will you please fill in this <u>Self Esteem Scale</u>. You may remember some questions on a scale you filled in two weeks ago. Do not try to remember how you answered those. Just fill in these blanks as you feel right now. You may begin.

(Allow time to fill in the Scale)

Thank you for participating in this research. When it has been completed you will get a letter giving the results. We do appreciate your participation. Your answers will be treated with confidence. No names will be used in writing up the research so that no one will know your answers.

Thank you for your help.

APPENDIX E RAW SCORES

Subjects	Pretest	Posttest	Difference Scores
1	167	120	-47
2	160	171	11
3	142	158	16
4	159	160	10
5	145	174	29
6	129	171	42
7	114	125	11
8	141	137	-4
9	159	159	0
10	105	127	22
11	<b>156</b>	129	-27
12	161	170	9
13	127	138	11
14	150	141	-9
15	148	141	-7
16	156	159	3
17	150	132	-18
18	152	155	3
19	142	141	-1
20	130	131	1

Raw Scores Obtained from Rubin's Self Esteem Scale Pretest, Posttest and Difference Scores of Subjects in Group I

Subjects	Pretest	Posttest	Difference Scores
1	165	157	-8
2	145	150	5
3	134	136	2
4	162	165	3
5	163	182	19
6	144	181	37
7	144	155	11
8	110	<del>9</del> 8	-12
9	154	147	-7
10	144	162	18
11	165	164	-1
12	147	146	-1
13	124	165	41
14	147	153	6
15	155	158	3
16	184	170	-14
17	143	150	7
18	168	158	-10
19	157	164	7
20	153	160	7

Raw Scores Obtained from Rubin's Self Esteem Scale Pretest, Posttest and Difference Scores of Subjects in Group II

Source	Pretest	Posttest	Difference Scores
1	143	132	71
2	147	138	-9
3	135	139	4
4	164	140	-24
5	165	183	18
6	153	183	30
7	180	173	-7
8	139	183	44
9.	156	181	25
10	145	151	6
11	159	181	22
12	146	186	40
13	145	187	42
14	159	161	2
15	162	166	4
16	155	167	12
17	149	161	12
18	144	190	46
19	134	153	19
20	155	158	3

Raw Scores Obtained from Rubin's Self Esteem Scale Pretest, Posttest and Difference Scores of Subjects in Group III

Pretest	Posttest	Difference Scores
167	175	8
167	167	0
159	169	10
127	140	13
129	175	46
152	175	23
143	152	9
126	128	2
161	94	-67
173	187	14
156	151	-5
163	160	-3
162	184	22
157	163	6 .
159	175	16
149	173	24
154	166	12
132	151	19
114	143	29
161	160	-1
	Pretest 167 167 159 127 129 152 143 126 161 173 156 163 162 157 159 149 154 132 114 132 114	Pretest Posttest   167 175   167 167   159 169   127 140   129 175   152 175   143 152   126 128   161 94   173 187   156 151   163 160   162 184   157 163   159 175   149 173   154 166   132 151   149 173   154 166   132 151   144 143

Raw Scores Obtained from Rubin's Self Esteem Scale Pretest, Posttest and Difference Scores of Subjects in Group IV

Scores	Pretest	Posttest	Difference Scores
1	151	155	¥
2	126	152	26
3	133	161	28
4	134	129	-5
5	165	108	-57
6	131	164	33
7	110	134	24
8	147	172	25
9	163	196	13
10	175	131	-34
11	154	162	8
12	149	165	16
13	152	162	10
14	123	118	-5
15	151	185	34
16	143	160	17
17	136	179	43
18	132	176	44
19	154	155	1
20	142	155	13

Raw Scores Obtained from Rubin's Self Esteem Scale Pretest, Posttest and Difference Scores of Subjects in Group V

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Scores	Pretest	Posttest	Difference Scores
· l	148	140	-8
2	170	169	-1
3	160	171	-11
4	176	179	3
5	162	176	14 .
6	135	162	27
7	175	177	2
8	184	189	5
9	147	167	20
10	146	161	15
11	145	162	17
12	154	180	26
13	138	180	42
14	142	164	22
15	158	162	4
16	119	137	18
17	140 _	. 161	21
18	167	172	5
19	172	173	1
20	144	165	21

Raw Scores Obtained from Rubin's Self Esteem Scale Pretest, Posttest and Difference Scores of Subjects in Group VI

Raw Scores Obtained from Rubin's Self
Esteem Scale, Pretest, Posttest
and Differences Scores on
Length of Time Subjects
Spent in the Mills
Home (Less than
2 years)

Subjects	Pretest	Posttest	Difference Score	+100
1	160	171	11	111
2	142	158	16	116
3	114	125	11	111
4	141	317	-4	96
5	156	129	-27	73
6	161	170	9	109
7	150	141	-9	91
8	148	141	-7	<b>9</b> 3
9	142	141	-1	99
10	130	131	1	101
11	163	182	19	119
12	Ղկկ	155	11	111
13	144	162	1	101
14	147	146	-1	99
15	124	165	41	141
16	184	170	-14	86
17	143	150	7	107
18	168	158	-10	<b>9</b> 0
19	157	164	7	107
20	1/13	132	-11	88

## (continued)

Raw Scores Obtained from Rubin's Self Esteem Scale, Pretest, Posttest and Differences Scores on Length of Time Subjects Spent in the Mills Home (Less than 2 years)

Subjects	Pretest	Posttest	Difference Score	+100
21	164	140	-24	76
22	153	183	30	130
23	139	183	44	144
24	145	151	6	106
25	159	181	22	122
26	159	161	2	102
27	162	166	4	104
28	144	190	46	146
29	159	169	10	110
30	152	175	23	123
31	143	152	9	. 109
32	149	173	24	124
33	132	151	19	119
34	133	161	28	128
35	131	164	. 33	133
36	154	162	. 8	108
37	143	160	17	117
38	136	179	43	143
39	132	176	44	144

# (continued)

Raw Scores Obtained from Rubin's Self Esteem Scale, Pretest, Posttest and Differences Scores on Length of Time Subjects Spent in the Mills Home (Less than 2 years)

Subjects	Pretest	Posttest	Difference Score	+100
40	142	155	13	113
41	148	140	-8	92
42	135	162	27	127
43	147	167	20	120
44	146	161	15	115
45	140	161	21	121
46	167	172	5	105
47	159	159	0	100
48	144	181	37	137
49	155	158	3	103
50	114	143	29	129
51	175	131	-34	66
52	126	152	26	126
53	151	155	4	104
54	152	162	10	110

Subjects	Pretest	Posttest	Difference Scores	+100
1	154	155	1	101
2	175	177	2	102
<b>3</b> .	110	98	-12	88
4	134	129	-5	95
5	161	160	-1	99
6	119	137	18	118
7	138	180	42	142
8	180	173	-7	93
9	105	127	22	122
10	163	160	-3	97
11	156	181	25	125
12	126	128	2	102
13	142	164	22	122
14	123	118	<b>-</b> 5	95
15	147	172	25	125
16	155	167	12	112
17	154	166	12	112
18	158	162	4	104
19	154	147	-7	93
20	161	94	-67	33
21	157	163	6	106

Raw Scores Obtained from Rubin's Self Esteem Scale, Pretest, Posttest and Differences Scores on Length of Time Subjects Spent in the Mills Home (Two-Four Years)

# (continued)

#### Raw Scores Obtained from Rubin's Self Esteem Scale, Pretest, Posttest and Differences Scores on Length of Time Subjects Spent in the Mills Home (Two-Four Years)

Subjects	Pretest	Posttest	Difference Scores	+100
22	173	187	14	114
23	165	183	18	118
24	162	165	3	103
25	115	186	71	171
26	149	161	12	112
27	134	153	19	119
28	162	184	22	122
29	149	165	16	116
30	151	185	34	134

Subjects	Pretest	Posttest	Difference Scores	+100
1	167	175	8	108
2	167	167	. 0	100
3	110	134	24	124
4	184	189	5	105
<b>5</b> .	156	159	3	103
6	145	174	29	129
7	170	169	-1	99
8	145	162	17	117
9	145	150	5	105
10	160	171	-11	88
11	129	175	46	146
12	129	171	42	142
13	154	180	26	126
. 14	159	175	16	116
15	127	138	11	111
16	165	157	-8	92
17	167	120	-47	53
18	152	155	3	103
19	145	187	42	142
20	172	173	1	101
21	150	132	-18	82

Raw Scores Obtained from Rubin's Self Esteem Scale, Pretest, Posttest and Differences Scores on Length of Time Subjects Spent in the Mills Home (More Than 4 Years)

## (continued)

#### Raw Scores Obtained from Rubin's Self Esteem Scale, Pretest, Posttest and Differences Scores on Length of Time Subjects Spent in the Mills Home (More Than 4 Years)

Subjects	Pretest	Posttest	Difference Scores	+100
22	153	160	7	107
23	155	158	3	103
24	147	138	9	109
25	156	151	<b>-</b> 5	95
26	163	176	13	113
27	147	153	6	106
<b>28</b>	134	136	2	102
29	176	179	3	103
30	165	108	-37	63
31	162	· 176	14	114
32	135	139	4	104
33	159	169	-10	90
34	144	165	21	121
35	165	164	1	101
36	127	140	13	113

C <sub>1</sub> (Grades 5, 6, 7)				C <sub>2</sub> (Grades 8, 9, 10)							
A2(Opp	osite S	Sex)	A <sub>1</sub> (Se	ame Sez	κ)	A <sub>2</sub> (Oppo	osite S	Sex)	A <sub>l</sub> (Sa	ame Se:	τ)
pl	<sup>b</sup> 2	ъз	bl	<sup>b</sup> 2	b3	bl	ъS	Ъ <u>з</u>	рТ	<sup>b</sup> 2	ъ <sub>3</sub>
Adolescent	Adult	Old Person	Adolescent	Adult	Old Person	Adolescent	Adult	Old Person	Adolescent	Adult	Old Person
37	23	27	42	30	33	-8	8	-8	-47	71	4
11	9	2	11	-7	24	5	0	-1	11	-9	26
-12	2	5	-4	44	25	2	10	-11	16	4	28
-7	-67	20	0	25	13	3	13	3	10	-24	-5
18	14	15	22	6	-34	19	46	14	29	18	57
-14	24	18	-27	12	17	-1	-5	17	3	22	8
7	12	21	9	12	43	-1	-3	26	-18	40	16
-10	19	5	11	46	44	41	22	42	3	42	10
7	29	1	-9	19	l	6	6	22	-1	2	-5
7	-1	21	-7	3	13	3	16	4	1	4	34
TOTAL 44	64	135	48	190	179	69	113	108	7.	170	173

#### Raw Scores (Difference Scores) Obtained from Pretest and Posttest on Rubin's <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> in Each Cell

120

A1(	C <sub>l</sub> opposite	(grades sex)	5,6,7	') A <sub>l</sub> (same	sex)	Az	opposit	C <sub>2</sub> (grade se sex)	s 8, 9,	10) A <sub>l</sub> (same	sex)
bl(Ado- lescent)	b2(Adult	;) Perso	a n) b <u>1</u>	b2	b3	bl	p5	b3	pl	p5	ъз
137	123	127	 142	130	133	92	108	92	53	171	104
111	109	102	111	93	124	105	100	99	111	91	126
88	102	105	96	ւկկ	125	102	110	89	116	104	128
93	33	120	100	125	113	103	113	103	110	76	95
118	114	115	122	106	66	119	146	114	129	118	157
86	124	118	73	112	117	99	95	117	103	122	, <b>108</b>
107	112	121	109	112	143	99	97	126	82	140	116
<b>9</b> 0	119	105	111	146	144	59	122	142	103	142	110
107	129	101	91	119	101	106	106	122	99	102	95
107	99	121	93	103	113	103	116	104	101	104	134
Total 1044	1064	1135	1048	1190	1179	987	1113	1108	1007	1170	1173
<del>( )2</del> 1089936	1132096 :	1288225	1098304	11416100	11390041	974169	1238769	1227664	1014049	1368900	1374927

Raw Scores (Difference Scores) Obtained from Pretest and Posttest on Rubin's Self-Esteem Scale

,

121

Table	7
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		Al	A2	
	bl	1048	1044	2092
cl	<sup>b</sup> 2	1190	1064	2254
	b3	1179	1135	2314
	pl	1007	987	1994
С	b2	1170	1113	2283
	<sup>b</sup> 3	1173	1108	2281
٤		6767	6451	13218

Summation Scores for Cells in <u>3x2x2</u> Factorial Design

### Table 8

		UI.	oups or b	0010008		
Group of Subjects	n	T	x2	<u>T</u> 2 n	SS	s <sup>2</sup>
A2C1p1*	10	1044	111250	<u>1089936</u> 10	2256.4	225.64
<sup>A</sup> 2 <sup>C</sup> 1 <sup>b</sup> 2*	10	1064	120022	<u>1132096</u> 10	6812.4	681.24
A2C1b3*	10	1135	129615	<u>1288225</u> 10	792.5	79.25
AlClp1*	10	1048	113046	<u>1098304</u> 10	3215.6	321.56
A1C1b2*	10	1190	144320	<u>1416100</u> 10	2710	271
A1C1b3*	10	1179	143659	<u>1390041</u> 10	4654.9	465.49
A2C2b1#	10	987	99591	<u>974169</u> 10	2174.1	217.41
A2C2b2*	10	1113	125849	<u>1238769</u> 10	1982.1	198.21
A2C2b3*	10	1108	125220	<u>1227664</u> 10	2455.6	245.56
A1C5p1*	10	1007	105271	<u>1014049</u> 10	3866.1	386.61
A1C2D2*	10	1170	143906	<u>1368900</u> 10	7016	701.60
Alc5p3*	10	1173	140951	<u>1375929</u> 10	3358.1	335.81

Hartley's F Max Test for Homogeneity of Variance on the <u>Self-Esteem Scale</u> Scores of All Groups of Subjects

max	=	s <sup>2</sup> larges	t	
		r <sup>2</sup> smalle:	st	
	=	701.60	=	8.852
		79.25		

F

The obtained value F of 8.85 did not reach the critical value of 10.7 needed for p < .05 (df 1219). Thus the data were considered to meet the assumption of homogeneity necessary for analysis of variance.

\* See p. 120.

Ta	ď	le	9
_		_	

Hartley's <u>F</u> Max Test for Homogeneity of Variance on the <u>Self Esteem Scale</u> Scores Produced by the Length of Time Subjects Resided at the Mills Home

Less than 2 years	2-4 Years	More than 4 years
n = 54	n = 30	n = 36
T = 6000	<b>T</b> = 3309	<b>T</b> = 3909
$\leq x^2 = 684316$	$\leq x^2 = 379077$	$\mathbf{\xi} \ \mathbf{x}^2 = 439318$
$\frac{T}{n_1} = 666666.67$	$\frac{T}{n_2} = 364982.70$	<u>т</u> = 424452.25 п <sub>3</sub>
$ss_1 = 17649.33$	$ss_2 = 14094.3$	ss <sub>3</sub> = 14865.75
s <sup>2</sup> = 333.01	sg = 486.01	sz = 424.74
<u>F</u> max = _	$\frac{s^2 \text{ largest}}{s^2 \text{ smallest}} = 1.46 +$	*NS (p<.01)

\*df = 3, 53